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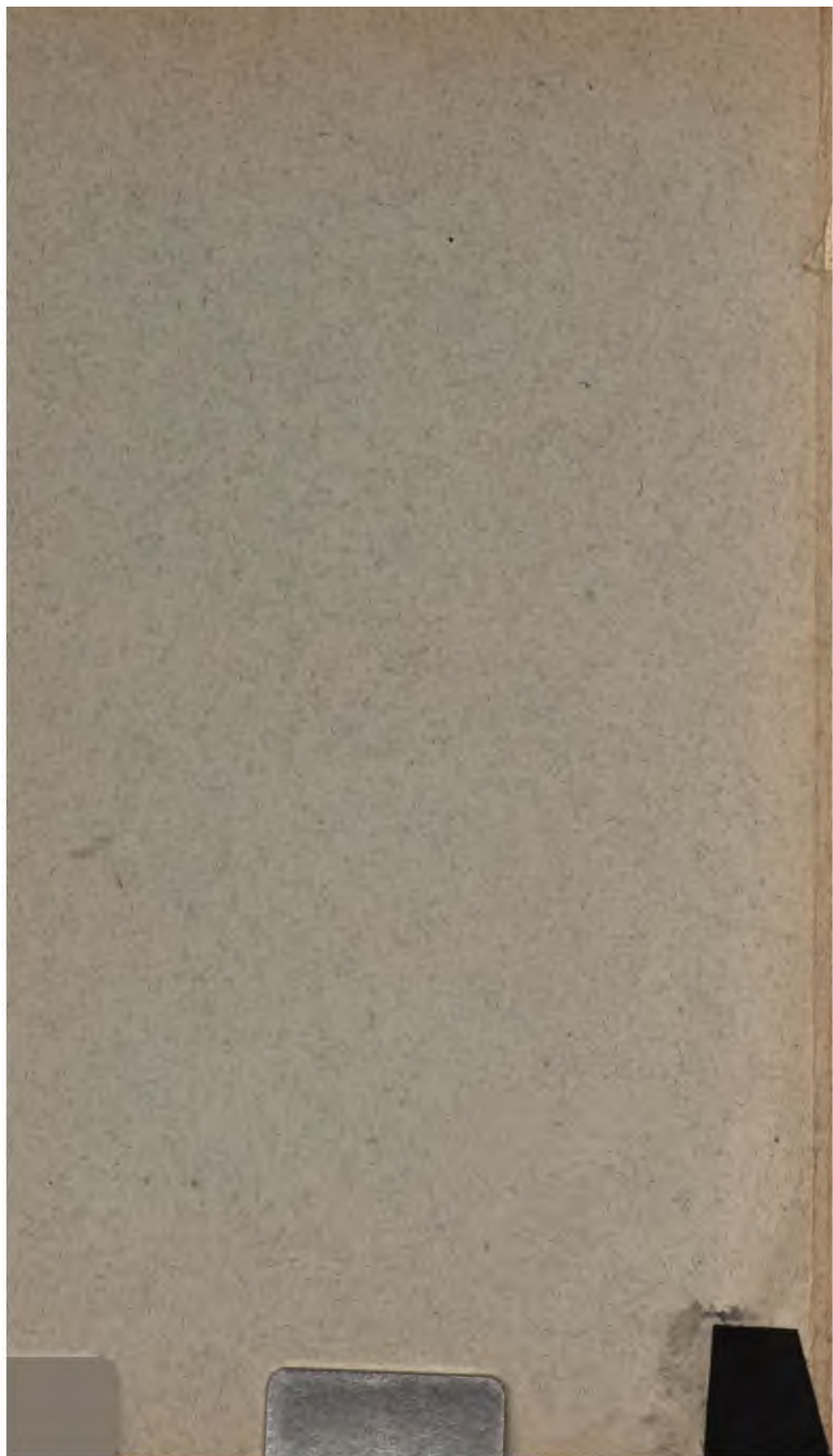
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AN INTERNATIONAL MAGAZINE

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW

VOLUME XXXIX.

JANUARY-JUNE, 1909

THE REVIEW OF REVIEWS COMPANY:

NEW YORK: 13 ASTOR PLACE



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**THE AMERICAN
 REVIEW OF REVIEWS.**
 JANUARY-JUNE, 1909.

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*Washington as
a National
Center.*

Thus private enterprise and unofficial public organizations are tending to co-operate with the Government in making Washington a truly national center, as well as a city of great beauty and distinction. One of the most prominent of the December visitors in Washington was Mr. Carnegie, whose great scientific institution for research in many fields has its headquarters at the national capital, and was described in its operations in this magazine for the month of July, last. The nation will approve of the development of Washington as a center for education, science, and art. Mr. Roosevelt's years in the White House have witnessed an amazing progress at Washington in all these matters. There are those who think of Mr. Roosevelt as engaged in controversies about the regulation of trusts and in efforts to persuade Congress to do its full duty, and they have only a little inkling of the President's wonderful success in the promotion of improved scientific work in all the departments and bureaus of the Government.

*Improving
the Public
Service.*

It is not alone in the public service throughout the country that his advocacy of civil service reform has shown its results, but also notably in Washington the personnel of administration has been enriched by the addition of great numbers of accomplished and highly trained men whose value to the Government and the country cannot easily be overstated. One of Mr. Roosevelt's earnest recent efforts has been to have the next census made more efficient by the elimination of the spoils system from the selection of census employees. It is estimated that at least \$2,000,000 would have been saved on the cost of the census of 1900 if civil-service rules had prevailed in the selection of employees. Unfortunately, Congressmen are not willing to forego their expected shares in this petty census spoils distribution, and the Senate is sustaining the House in refusing to authorize a reform that is demanded by every principle of efficiency. The President has been able, however, of his own accord, to put all the fourth-class postmasters of the most populous section of the country,—namely, that east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio,—on the basis of appointment under civil-service rules, and thus to remove them from the traditional domain of Congressional patronage. It is, of course, intended in due time to extend this order to fourth-class postmasters elsewhere.

*Governing the
District of
Columbia*

One of the President's recommendations made in a message to Congress is for reorganization of the government of the District of Columbia. The plan of a single government with a series of department heads is suggested, in place of the present system which provides for three commissioners. In view of the rapid development of Washington in its vicinity, one of the measures most desirable is the restoration to the District of Columbia of that portion of the original mile-square tract which lies on the west side of the Potomac. This resumption of federal control over the full area of the original district ought to take place in connection with the reorganization of the government. It would seem reasonable to allow the citizens of the District to elect the franchise under a plan that would not clash with the necessary authority of Congress over what must always remain a national and federal rather than a mere city. The District people are not all

*The President's
Annual
Message.*

The President's annual message to Congress was transmitted with a set of striking illustrations accompanying the printed copies, to show the effects in China of the destruction of the Great Wall. The message opens with a review of the Government's income and expenditures, and shows that, in spite of the appropriation for the Panama Canal and other increases, there has been a net surplus of \$100,000,000 during Mr. Roosevelt's administration, with about \$90,000,000 reduction of the national debt, and a marked decrease of the annual interest burden. In dealing with corporations, the President denounces the Sherman Anti-Trust law, and advocates a substitute for it which will exclude combinations, while giving the national government full power of control over trusts. He advocates the placing of railroads completely under the Interstate Commerce Commission, and would place other trusts under a law intended to regulate industrial trusts and combinations. He never stated these views more strongly than in this year's message, and it is supposed that these also, in addition to the views of Mr. Taft, were the basis of the society's dinner in New York City on December 16, Mr. Taft, in his address on the Sherman Anti-Trust law, set a somewhat different line. Mr. Roosevelt believes that large combinations

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inevitable and valuable, but that commerce is so predominantly an interstate matter that commerce ought to be regulated by the national Government, and that large corporations ought to have federal rather than State charters. He does not believe that industrial corporations and railroads should be dealt with under the same statute. Probably Mr. Taft will express himself more definitely and fully on these points at a later time. The Sherman Anti-Trust law as it stands is not beneficial to American business, and under various court decisions this law might be turned vexatiously against almost every large corporate undertaking in the country.

On the Courts. The President proceeds in his message to show that the Government should provide further protection for wage-workers by increasing the liability of employers, and he discusses at great length the relation of the courts to the establishment and enforcement of the principles of justice. His discussion of the courts is very pertinent, and entirely fair. The idea sometimes expressed that judges on the bench are above criticism in a democracy like ours is not tenable. Our courts require the most constant scrutiny and the sharpest solicitude on the part of citizens to keep them above suspicion. When considerable numbers of important judges owe their places and emoluments to a Tammany boss like Mr. Croker or Mr. Murphy, it does not follow that they will be corrupt or partial in the performance of their judicial work. But it would be ridiculous, on the other hand, to go to the opposite extreme and assume that political lawyers who have thus been elevated are suddenly transformed into human paragons. As a matter of fact, the men we have put on the bench in this country have as a rule behaved themselves uncommonly well. The American bench, however, will be respected purely upon its merits, and not through the preaching of the doctrine of exaggerated respect for the courts regardless of the character and conduct of the judges.

The Row About the Secret Service. In the course of his general message Mr. Roosevelt called the attention of Congress to an item in last year's Appropriation bill which, while providing for the expense of the Secret Service, declared that there should be no detail from that service and no transfers therefrom. Heretofore the Secret Service officers have been a small body of trained and trustworthy



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HON. WILLIAM H. TAFT.

(As photographed in New York on December 1, 1908, the day of his important address before the Society.)

men of police or detective experience attached directly to the Treasury Department but utilized by the President where necessary in carrying out his duty of enforcing the laws and preventing crime. Through many years past, Secret Service officers assisted in protecting the mails and enforcing the laws against lotteries. They have to unearth the gigantic frauds against public land laws, which have caused so much a loss to our Government and so many scandals involving public officials. The Secret Service men have helped discover and great frauds practiced on the Government in the matter of importations and the national revenue laws. The conviction of a Congressman and a Senator in connection with land frauds was brought about in part through the work of the Secret Service. In the multiplicity of details covered by the great appropriation bills the restriction made by Congress last year upon the use of the Secret Service escaped general attention, and was probably overlooked by the President when he signed the bill in question, probably not a dozen members of Congress were aware that such a limiting clause had been inserted.



WHAT SAMMY WANTS THIS YEAR.

"No more ships this year, please, Santa Claus, but fill up the Panama Canal and the Mississippi River, so I can float what I have to advantage."

(One of the most urgent needs of the country is the improvement of our inland waterways, as shown forth by the National Rivers and Harbors Congress and allied organizations in the conferences held in Washington in December.)

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



UNCLE SAM'S RECORD OF FACTS IN THE STANDARD OIL HEARING.

From the *Traveler* (Boston).



STRIKING OIL AGAIN.

Mr. Frank P. Kellogg, the Government's special attorney, hammering the Standard Oil Company with questions at the hearing in New York City.

From the *Evening Telegram* (New York).



"GOOD WORK!"

Apropos of Mr. Taft's speech in favor of the obliteration of all sectional differences between the North and the South.

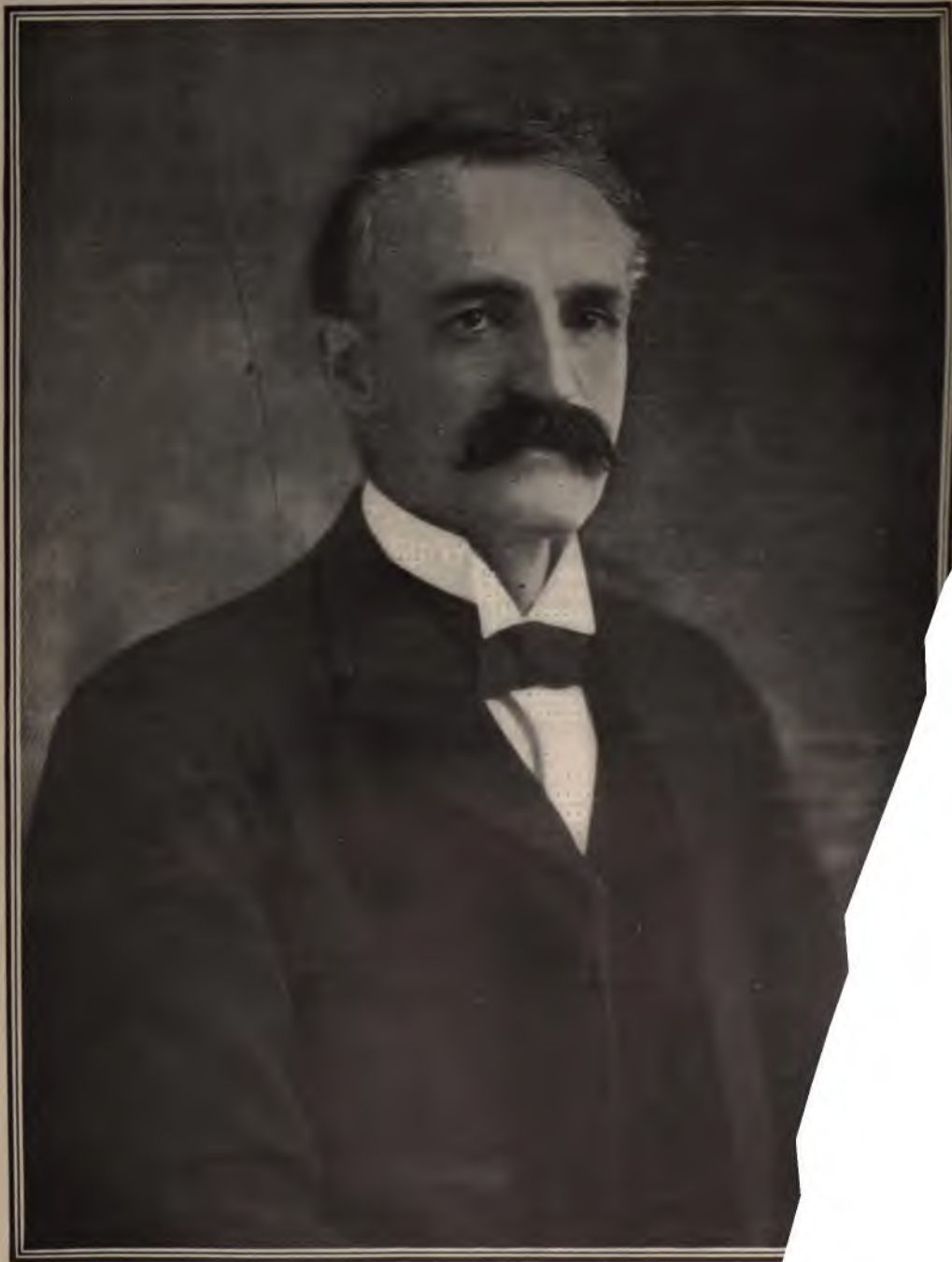
From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



THESE BE PARLOUS TIMES.

Bons (Lord Roberts) to John Bull: "The Germans'll get you if you don't watch out!"

From the *Sun* (Baltimore).



HON. GIFFORD PINCHOT.

Mr. Pinchot, as the chairman of the National Conservation Commission, was a prominent personality in the second conference of that important body, which took place during the month of December. We take pleasure in publishing, on page 88 of our REVIEW OF REVIEWS, a brief summary of his interesting work as the Chief Forester and his unselfish efforts for the conservation of our natural resources.

The
All-
Known
Facts.

Our board had reported that the Panama rights and unfinished work were worth about \$40,000,000 to us, and finally reversed its earlier decision in favor of Nicaragua by declaring that, upon engineering and commercial grounds, it would favor the Panama route, provided a payment of \$40,000,000 by our government would give us possession of the isthmus and other assets. Those interested in France were promptly informed, a meeting was held, and authorization was given to sell the French property to the United States for \$40,000,000. Our Congress in turn authorized the purchase on those terms, Attorney-General Knox verified all questions arising as to title, and the money was transmitted through J. P. Morgan & Co. acting as legal agents. There was no detail of the transaction about which there was any mystery at the time. Every phase was thoroughly discussed by Congress and understood by the press. It is almost incredible that any important newspaper should have forgotten the facts.

Farm Wealth
Makes
a Record.

While the year 1908 brought to the railroads, manufactories, and general trade such depression as is inevitable after the financial crisis of the preceding autumn, the twelve months following the panic were for the farmers of the United States the most prosperous in the story of the country. Secretary Wilson's report of the Department of Agriculture gives the final figures of the size and value of the year's crops,—and amazing figures they are. The total value of farm products reaches \$7,778,000,000, a gain of 4 per cent. over the value of these products for the year 1907, and a gain of 65 per cent. over the year 1899. In this decade the farms have produced new wealth amounting to the staggering figure of \$60,000,000,000. Corn is still king in its contribution to the farmer's pocket; the value of the 2,600,000,000 bushels raised in 1908 was \$1,600,000,000, or more than one-fifth of the value of the total products of agriculture. The cotton crop wrested second place, in value, from the hay crop, which has usually been next to corn. There is not a word in the President's message which either declares or implies that Congressmen are criminals, and that they are trying to escape exposure by protesting against the president from using Secret Service men to investigate their behavior. What the president declares is that Secret Service men ought to be under direction of the President so that they could be detailed to help the

The Movement
Toward
Prosperity.

and potatoes, were, except the last, which suffered from unfavorable weather, well up to the records in point of quantity, and all made new records in value. Dairy products brought the farmer nearly \$800,000,000, poultry and eggs even more than the cotton, and animal products, as a whole, nearly \$3,000,000,000. The farmer in 1908 produced new wealth four times as great as all the minerals taken from the ground, including oil and the precious metals.

No doubt this great showing of the fundamental industry of agriculture makes firm ground for the feeling of hope and buoyancy now discernible in business and industry. To be sure, one cannot find anywhere as yet such whole-hearted recovery in trade as seems to have been promised by the index finger of the stock market. The standard railroad stocks have advanced nearly 40 per cent. above their low levels of last June, and are within about twenty-one points of the high records of the boom times of 1906. The basic industry of steel shows a very modest recovery from its low stage of activity last summer, and while the Pennsylvania Railroad has given a large order,—160,000 tons of steel rails,—and considerable orders are talked of from the Rock Island system and others, the railroads as a whole are very slow in advertising their needs. It is thought that the hope of tariff changes in the steel schedules, of sufficient size to make for lower prices, is suggesting a waiting policy to purchasers of steel products. In other lines of manufacture, notably in textiles, there is a real quickening, and in building operations the autumn has seen notable activity. November was the first month of 1908 to show fewer failures than came in the same month of 1907, and bank clearings were the largest of any month since the panic. The railroads will apparently report for November a loss of less than 2 per cent. from November of 1907, much the smallest loss shown in any other month of the year.

Three of the... in the... crowd. Those... for on principles now well understood by those who have made some study of the psychology of mobs and crowds. The solemn attempts of the two chambers to find ways of expressing their resentment against Mr. Roosevelt are too absurd to be worth chronicling in pages which, like these, must be condensed. Congressmen are only children of larger growth, and their performances sometimes do not differ in principle from those of crowds

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areas of our country which are yet practically new the two things necessary, he said, were the locomotive and the plow, and if the headway of the locomotive were stopped by the bumping-post of unnecessary restrictions the plow would not appear. In Mr. Harriman's letter to the mining congress at Pittsburg he argued against the policy of limiting railway dividends to a 4 per cent. basis. He denied that the railroads were owned by a few rich men, and that the 300,000 stockholders in the transportation business should receive only the savings-bank rate of income, when the farmers earned 9 per cent., manufacturers 19.4 per cent., and national-bank stockholders 10 per cent. Mr. James J. Hill, too, painted a sad picture of railroad stockholding as compared with other investments. He said that three copper cents in moving a ton of freight ten miles pays the dividends of the Great Northern Railroad,—a task that would be a fair day's toil for a farmer's wagon loaded to its capacity. "You have all the highways you had before we came, but we give you a better one and a cheaper one." Mr. Harriman's contention that the railroads are not owned by a few rich men seems to be becoming more true every year; the *Journal of Commerce* finds that in the past twelve months the number of stockholders in twenty-five leading railroads has increased from 211,069 to 252,083, while the average stockholding has decreased from about 137 shares to 119.

Alaskan Progress and Prosperity. Within a decade the industrial interests of our far Northwest have developed so amazingly that all former standards of comparison have to be revised. Take, for example, the matter of Alaska's gold product. The receipts of the Seattle assay office for the ten months ending with October last amounted to \$17,202,704, or about one-fifth of the total production of the United States for an equivalent period. Ten years ago the Alaskan gold output for an entire year was less than \$5,000,000. The total for the past year would have been much greater but for a shortage in water supply throughout the mining districts of Alaska. The fact that so great an increment to the world's stock of the yellow metal should reach civilization through one of the younger of our prosperous coast cities reminds us that new channels are being formed to meet the needs of trade and finance upon our Northwestern border. Seattle, with her quarter of a mil-

lion people, is not only the metropolis of the State of Washington; she sits at the gateway to Alaska, and takes toll from those who come and go. Years ago Seattle saw the advantage of fostering the Alaskan trade and she has profited by that foresight. Industrial and commercial Alaska is to-day, to all intents and purposes, annexed to Seattle. The Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition, which opened at Seattle in June next, is likely to astonish those Easterners who chance upon it. This fair will represent an investment of \$10,000,000. Apart from extensive government exhibits, provided for by Uncle Sam, the fair will have no financial interest for the enterprise; not a dollar of a Government loan has been solicited by the management. Several of the buildings are already completed, and others are nearly ready for occupancy. This fair will be a fitting recognition of Alaska's recent progress and a special tribute to the genius of North America.

Clulo Co-operation. The people who are making serious attempts to better industrial and social conditions in this country have much cause for encouragement in the opening of the new year. Never has there been such effective and intense co-operation for civic progress. If any of this were needed the organization and completion of the so-called "Pittsburg Survey" described by Mr. Kellogg on page 77 of this number, would of itself afford a demonstration. Another striking instance of up-to-date methods applied in the propaganda of betterment is the tuberculosis exhibit at the New York City. The fact that these methods are so generally successful in stimulating popular interest shows that the reform is in the air,—that it needs only intelligent guidance. Moreover, the people's conscience is sensitive. Ethical considerations demand more attention than formerly. It is worthy that in connection with the work of the Federation of Protestant Churches at Philadelphia last month, the country was interested very little, if at all, in the perpetuation of the various denominational rivalries, but was distinctly impressed by the federation's deliverances on industrial conditions. The resolutions adopted indicate that the American Protestant churches have at last realized that they must take some action on these questions if they are to retain their hold on the progressive elements in our citizenship.

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 HON. PHILANDER C. KNOX, WHO WILL BE MR. TAFT'S SECRETARY OF STATE

Some Personal Notes.
 The building and rebuilding of cabinets for Mr. Taft goes forward blithesomely in all the newspapers. Mr. Knox, formerly Attorney-General, now Senator from Pennsylvania, will lead the cabinet as Secretary of State, and Mr. Taft will find in him a strong counselor and a broad-minded man is understood beyond a doubt that H. Hitchcock is to be Postmaster. He has served as First Assistant General, and is especially gifted for systematic administration. The Postoffice Department requires

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dent Roosevelt's cabinet, Mr. Newberry, who takes Mr. Metcalf's place as Secretary of the Navy, is showing excellent qualifications, and Mr. Satterlee, of New York, who becomes Assistant Secretary, has long been well known as an expert in naval and maritime affairs.

A Complete Settlement with Canada.

A better understanding of each other, and a deepening cordiality in their relations, mark the passage of each year of Canadian-American intercourse. The first part of last month saw the culmination of negotiations between the State Department at Washington and the Ottawa government in the matter of the three treaties between the two nations, pending for some years, which are expected to permanently and satisfactorily settle all differences. Upon the departure from Washington of Mr. Joseph Pope, the Under Secretary of State for the Dominion of Canada, who has represented Sir Wilfrid Laurier in these negotiations, it was announced that, during the next session of Congress, these three treaties will be submitted to the Senate for ratification. One provides for the submission of the treaty of 1812 to the Hague Tribunal for the purpose of discovering and definitely "delimiting" the respective rights of Canada, Newfoundland, and the United States in the Atlantic fisheries. The second will carefully set all water boundaries and decide all questions relative to the ownership of rivers common to the United States and Canada, including the use of Niagara Falls for power purposes, and will provide, also, it is announced, for a permanent commission of arbitration, to which all water questions will be referred in the future. The third is understood to deal with the settlement of certain outstanding pecuniary claims of each nation against the other.

Letting Cuba Stand Alone.

On the first day of the present month the departure of the army of Cuban pacification will begin. The troops will leave in detachments, the last contingent sailing from Havana, it is planned, on the first day of April. This gradual withdrawal, covering the period immediately preceding and succeeding the inauguration, on January 28, of President-elect Gomez, will provide against any possible disorder, and the arrangement, it is announced in Washington, has the entire approval of the incoming Cuban administration. The presidential electors met at Havana on December 19 and offi-



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HON. TRUMAN H. NEWBERRY.

(The new Secretary of the Navy.)

cially declared José Miguel Gomez and Alfredo Zayas President and Vice-Pres-

Sound Finances to Start With.

Governor Magoon has authorized the new President to issue bonds to the amount of \$15,000,000 for each of the next three years. Money to be devoted to public works already undertaken, and including the paving and paving of the city of Havana and the installation of a water sewer system in the city of Cienfuegos. Governor Magoon announces that all the business of the provisional government since November 1 last has been paid in full. It is confidently predicted that this provisional government will close its administration without leaving any floating indebtedness, indeed, with a real balance in the treasury.

The Overtake in Haiti.

The latest (although, it is feared, not the last) revolution culminated during the first days of last month in the flight of President Nord Alexis, for the past six months the head of the Haitian Government, the assumption of supreme authority by Antoine Simon, the commander of the forces of the victorious revolutionists. The

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es of election were gone through with by the legislative chambers on December 17, and the provisional presidency of General Simon unanimously confirmed. It is perhaps not quite accurate to refer to the downfall of the aged Nord Alexis, now in his eighty-ninth year, as a revolution. It was merely a presidential election in the way to which Haitians have been accustomed for almost all the century of their existence as an independent state. Very rare, indeed, have been the presidential elections in the history of the Black Republic when a change of chief magistrate was not brought about at the point of the bayonet. The quiet, orderly elections have almost uniformly been those at which the head of the state has been strong or acute enough to make the people sanction his continuance in office. Almost all the presidents of Haiti have been ignorant, vain, despotic, and corrupt. The aged Nord Alexis has had a record perhaps not as criminal and despicable as his predecessors. But he has been a true despot, and has, moreover, been long enough in office to excite the active hostility and envy of more than one powerful military chieftain. Into the barbarous, opera bouffe details of Haitian politics and internal warfare it is unnecessary and would be unprofitable to go. Up to this writing no European or American interests in the island, which are purely commercial, had suffered injury from the governmental overturn. The attitude of the United States is that of an attentive spectator. How much better it would be for the Haitians if the United States Government would assume toward them the same attitude in financial affairs that it now maintains toward the neighboring republic of Santo Domingo!

Senor Castro Sails for Europe. With Señor Cipriano Castro, President of the Venezuelan Republic, on an extended tour in Europe, ostensibly for purposes of recuperating his personal health, but presumably for reasons of state or personal finance; with Dutch warships in the Caribbean halting and seizing some of the best vessels of Venezuela's navy, and the Venezuelan people rioting and burning Castro's effects in Caracas, the affairs of that much-discussed and much-condemned Latin-American republic have again taken a dramatic hold on the world's attention. Late in November President Castro, with his wife and a large suite, set sail from La Guayra on a French steamer, leaving the Vice-President, Dr. Juan Vincente Gomez, in charge

of the government. Señor Castro announced that he was visiting France and Germany solely for the purpose of submitting to a delicate surgical operation. Keen observers of the South American statesman's career, however, who have seen the tight corner into which he and his government have finally been driven by the diplomacy of almost all the civilized countries of the world for a final settlement of claims against him, particularly in view of the fact that his personal wealth (which has been variously estimated at from \$6,000,000 to \$60,000,000) is invested in Europe, have asserted that Señor Castro is really seeking an asylum in the Old World from the wrath of his offended countrymen. His stay in Paris, which was brief, was not interfered with, since his activities were limited to those of a private traveler. Upon his arrival in Berlin, however, while he still maintained the attitude of a private citizen, the welcome extended by the German Government and the information given to the press by some of his supporters indicated that reasons of state entered largely into the visit. It was reported that the Venezuelan President was endeavoring to cure a loan for his country and that he intended, during his stay in the different European countries, to effect some sort of a settlement of all outstanding diplomatic pecuniary claims against Venezuela.

And the Dutch Seize His Ships. Meanwhile the Dutch Government, which had lost part because of Castro's refusal to revoke the embargo against Curaçao (the details of this were set forth in a special department of this REVIEW in a number), had determined upon radical measures for bringing the Venezuelan Government to terms. President Castro having refused to revoke the embargo by November 7, commanded by Holland, the Netherlands Government, on November 7, revoked the embargo of 1894, by the terms of which France had agreed to prevent conspiracy and rebellion from her West Indian possessions. On November 12 the Dutch cruiser *De Eendracht* stopped the Venezuelan coast-guard vessel *La Guayra* (or *Alexis*), boarded her, put her in charge, and towed her into Willemstad, the capital of Curaçao. The Venezuelan crew was put ashore at Cabello and proceeded to Curaçao. The government a communique from the chief officer of the *Gelderland* announced that "Her Majes

Holland has given orders for her warships temporarily to sequester and embargo all Venezuelan Government vessels." In a subsequent official announcement by the Governor of Curaçao it was declared that "the capture by our warships of coast-guards and war vessels is not to be construed as an unfriendly act against the Venezuelan people. It is merely a reprisal against Castro's government, which refuses to give satisfaction for his unfriendly acts toward Holland. The seizing of these vessels will render it impossible for the Venezuelan Government to carry troops or ammunition to and from the various ports." The next day the Dutch battleship *Jacob van Heemskerck* captured another Venezuelan ship, the *23 de Mayo*.



THE DUTCH WARSHIP THAT HAS BEEN SEIZING VENEZUELAN SHIPS.
(A snapshot of the battleship *Jacob van Heemskerck*, taken just after her return to Curaçao with the Venezuelan ship *Atir*.)

*Is It
Blockade
or War?*

Acting-President Gomez at once declared the captures by the Dutch warships as an act of war against Venezuela, and further decreed the large cities of the republic under martial law. The news of Holland's action aroused a great deal of indignation in the Venezuelan cities, and, rather significantly, was the occasion of a series of grave demonstrations against the government. There were riots at various places throughout the republic, the demonstrators demanding the abolition of the obnoxious government monopolies in many foodstuffs and insisting upon the deposition of President Castro. The Dutch Government has announced to the world that it is satisfied it is acting within its rights from the standpoint of international law in preventing the carrying of munitions of war intended for use against its colony. A communication to this effect has been sent to the Venezuelan Government through the German Minister at Caracas. No notice of actual blockade, however, has been sent out by the government at The Hague, although an effective blockade actually exists. Until some more radical development than the seizure of coast-guard vessels is reported the United States Government will not attempt any intervention whatsoever. Indeed, the statement may be ventured that the United States Government and

*Reform of
the House of
Lords.*

the American people are relieved that at last some measure of punishment is to be meted out to the Castro government, and the satisfaction is none the less real because the United States itself is relieved of the necessity for administering the punishment.

Although the British Liberals have apparently failed in accomplishing the main legislative purposes which they promised their constituents at the last general election, they seem to be in a way to achieve one highly important result,—that is, the reorganization of the House of Lords. After many months of discussion in Parliament, and much popular agitation throughout the country, the Licensing bill, which provided for a tax on the liquor business and the gradual curtailing of the trade, came up for vote in the House of Lords and was rejected by the peers by the decisive vote of 272 to 96. The rejection of this measure, which had already passed by large majorities in the Commons, as well as the defeat and abandonment of the Birrell Education bill, rendered acute the tense situation between the two houses of Parliament, and the peers themselves now seem to recognize that governmental and popular feeling is so strong that they must submit to some reorganization. Nearly two years ago a committee was appointed by the Lords themselves to consider the reformation of the upper chamber. The report of this committee, submitted early last month, proposes to abolish heredity entirely as the sole qualification for membership. It proposes further that the holder of a seat in the Lords must either

working out a task huge, complex, delicate. Such instructions were prepared and handed over to the commission. When they were made public, statesmen, students, and jurists the world over saw in them the handiwork of a genius, one of the most remarkable examples of organic law and distribution of powers known to history. This document, this *magna charta* of the Philippine nation in embryo, was signed by President McKinley, but every word of it was written by Elihu Root.

In one sense it was Mr. Root who made Mr. Taft. President McKinley chose Taft to go to the Philippines to carry out the instructions, and the sequel shows that Mr. McKinley must have been guided in this selection by an inspiration almost divine. Taft was young, inexperienced, but whole-souled, a prince of zeal and performance. It was Root who guided him, trained him, helped him, encouraged him, held up his hands, smoothed out the roughest parts of the road, and minimized the opposition of public sentiment at home till Taft, the apostle of American method and the test of American efficiency in a most difficult and altogether new task, could have time to get on his feet.

A GREAT TRIUMVIRATE,—ROOSEVELT, ROOT,
TAFT.

We see Mr. Root helping President Roosevelt settle the anthracite coal strike, one of Mr. Roosevelt's greatest unofficial achievements. We see him virtually managing the State Department during the absence of Mr. Hay, and this at a time when the Boxer war in China was hourly producing the most delicate and difficult of diplomatic and military questions.

We see him, a little later,—yielding to the persuasion of his old friend, Mr. Roosevelt,—leaving his law office in New York, sacrificing a princely income, and returning to the Government grind as Secretary of State. For years he has been the guide, the philosopher, the mentor of the energetic young President. Mr. Roosevelt has done almost nothing of importance without first consulting Root; if not Root, then Taft, and preferably both together. It is not unfair to say that these three men have run the Government. Never were three men better adapted to team work found working hand in hand,—Roosevelt the patriotic, progressive, energetic reformer and statesman, the popular hero, the leader of public opinion; Root the analyst, with his long look ahead,

his comprehensive grasp, his almost infinite knowledge of Government affairs; Taft, with his great wholesome common sense, his sympathy with the people, his trained perceptions, his knowledge of actual administration work. Root and Taft have been by Mr. Roosevelt's side in all his progressive measures; they counseled with him almost hourly in his campaign for corporate control and the enactment of the Railway Rate bill. It was long ago written in the book of fate, wherein there are chapters devoted to appreciation, to friendship, and to gratitude, that when he left the Presidential chair Mr. Roosevelt would try to put one or the other of his friends in his place. It did not matter much from his viewpoint, or the public's, which of them was chosen.

WORK IN THE STATE DEPARTMENT.

During the last three and a half years the public has known Mr. Root as Secretary of State. In Washington he has been looked upon as the all-round counselor of the President, incidentally presiding over the State Department. Notwithstanding the scope and multiplicity of his activities, his work as Foreign Minister has been equal to the highest traditions of that office. Perhaps his most brilliant achievement in diplomacy is the pact of peace with Japan,—an "understanding" between the two governments which removes the last remaining source of disagreement between them. It is now generally known that while the famous "exchanges of notes" which the jealously strict constructionists of the Senate try to construe as a treaty is nominally confined to an expression of amity as to the Pacific Ocean and the Chinese Empire, actually the most delicate and dangerous question of all, that of Japanese emigration to the United States, has been settled at the same time. The Japanese Government has virtually prohibited all emigration of coolies or workmen to the United States, thanks to the diplomacy of Mr. Root, and the jingoes who have so industriously made war and rumors of war between the United States and Japan now find their occupation gone. For years it has been axiomatic in Washington that if trouble were ever to come between the United States and Japan it would come over this question of immigration. An anti-Japanese riot in San Francisco, for instance, followed by chauvinistic outbreaks in both countries and the enactment of a Japanese exclusion law by our Congress, would almost surely

to war. This danger is now removed for all. How Mr. Root does all these things is a mystery in Washington, but he does them. He protects and perpetuates the "open-door" principle laid down by Mr. Root. He preserves the integrity of the Chinese Empire, he leads Japan into the paths of peace.

SETTLING DISPUTES WITH CANADA.

Mr. Root has settled many of the long-standing questions between the United States and Canada, and others are in fair way of adjustment,—the Newfoundland fisheries, the inland fisheries, the Niagara-power dispute, the boundary-marking contention, and many others. In pursuance of his policy of applying the personal equation wherever possible he visited Ottawa as the guest of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, and won the hearts of our Canadian cousins. When Mr. Root leaves the State Department he hopes to have all, or nearly all, of the old disputes between the United States and Canada disposed of or in process of adjustment,—what may be called "a clean desk."

IMPROVING RELATIONS WITH LATIN-AMERICA.

Disconsolate indeed are all the Latin-American diplomatists in Washington. They look upon Mr. Root as their great and good friend, and sincere are the tears they shed because he is leaving the State Department. His visit to South and Central America, his assurance to all those countries that the big United States was their friend, seeking nothing in selfishness, but willing to do much in helpfulness, has brought on a new era in the relations between our southern neighbors and ourselves. Secretary Root has done much to make the Hague Conference a reality instead of a beautiful dream, but the best practical application of the Hague principle is found in his creation of a Central American court for preservation of peace between the states of that region. He has settled

more pending questions than any former Secretary of State, he has secured the ratification of more arbitration treaties than any of his predecessors,—something like forty, all told. He has established better relations between the State Department and the Senate than have existed for many years, despite the natural jealousy and antagonism between them, simply because he has gone ten times to the Senate Foreign Relations Committee where his predecessors went once, with exposition and explanation. And not to speak of countless minor achievements, he has reorganized the Diplomatic and Consular Service, taken politics out of it, and put it upon a basis of merit and efficiency.

A LIFE-SENATORSHIP?

Mr. Root leaves the State Department, to the great regret of President-elect Taft, largely because he is wearied of the onerous social demands made upon the Secretary of State and his family. As Senator he will be able to keep his residence in New York City and escape the social responsibilities of diplomatic life, which are irksome to him and to Mrs. Root. But he will enter the Senate with greater prestige than any new member of that body has enjoyed in our generation. For him there will be no period of probation, no standing upon the waiting list in deference to musty Senatorial tradition. He will instantly become a personage in that body,—an intellectual force of the highest type and usefulness. And as Senator for life from New York he will be a power for good and sanity and constructiveness in all branches of our Government, a friend of the Taft Administration, and a champion and interpreter of its policies. It is within reason to say that during the next ten or twelve years, if his life be spared, Elihu Root will be the most potent man in the Government next to the occupant of the White House, as he has been for ten years past. This is a career scarcely second to the Presidency itself, and in some respects superior to it.



THE NEED OF POSTAL SAVINGS-BANKS.

BY GEORGE V. L. MEYER.

(Postmaster-General of the United States.)

IT is an interesting fact that the two States which have the most conservative banking laws for safeguarding the investment of savings-bank funds have far greater deposits than any other States. One-third of the savings-bank deposits, as recorded by the Comptroller of the Currency, are in New York and one-fifth in Massachusetts, or more than one-half of the entire deposits in the United States, showing conclusively that the people appreciate security as well as opportunity. With savings-banks as numerous as they are in the New England States, where every other inhabitant has a savings account, it is a striking illustration to point to the Southern, Middle, and Western States, where there is about one savings account on an average to every 150 of the population. If the deposits of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Maryland, Iowa, and California are added to those of New England and New York about 98½ per cent. of the entire deposits will be accounted for, leaving only 1½ per cent. in the remaining thirty-two States.

TO RECEIVE WAGE-EARNERS' DEPOSITS.

The object of postal savings-banks will be to afford through the postoffices, particularly in the remaining thirty-two States, opportunity as well as security for the workman to deposit his savings.

The large majority of deposits in the national and State banks are active accounts, continually drawn upon, and therefore do not furnish the great resources necessary for new enterprise. The accumulated sums of the wage-earner placed in savings-banks for permanent safety (the greater portion of which is allowed to remain and increase) are of vast importance to the financial strength of a community. If the number of people in other parts of the United States depositing their small savings can be brought up to something like the proportion in New York and New England the outcome will be increased financial strength and vast additional resources in the places where the money is deposited, enabling the establishment of new enterprises and improvements.

Postal savings-banks in foreign countries transfer the savings of a district to the capital or central office, where the money is invested in the public debt, but under the plan proposed for the United States the Postoffice Department merely acts as the agent to deposit the money in the national banks in the districts where it is brought to the post offices. Thus the money will be kept in the localities where it belongs, a source of advantage to capital and labor in those communities.

The national banks receiving the deposits are to pay the Government a rate of interest of not less than 2¼ per cent. The Government will pay 2 per cent. to the depositor in the postal savings-bank. The experience of England has shown that one-quarter of 1 per cent. is sufficient to pay all incidental expenses and still leave a margin of profit.

The British postal savings-banks were established in 1861. For the last five years there has been a deficiency due to the reduction in the rate of interest on consols, in which the postal savings are invested, to 2½ per cent., but for the entire period up to 1908 the net gain has been about \$5,500,000.

Mr. George E. Roberts, of Chicago, in his criticism of postal savings-banks, has spoken of them as an "economic crime." Is it fair to charge the Postoffice Department with having committed a crime, if it should be the means of affording in all localities an accessible and at the same time absolutely safe place for the people to put by some of their spare earnings from the profits of their labor? Is it not rather an economic blessing to encourage the laborer in his thrift in order that he may meet the necessities of old age and infirmity?

THE OPPOSITION OF BANK INTERESTS.

A Nebraska banker has criticised the postal-savings proposition and has attempted to prejudice the minds of the bankers generally by stamping it as Socialism. Is it not rather beneficent for the Government to encourage economy and thrift in communities where the proper opportunities for savings are not now given? Is it not advisable for the Govern-

ment to do for its people that which the people cannot individually do for themselves?

Certain savings-bank interests have been influenced unduly in their opposition to postal savings-banks by the fear of losing deposits. I would call to their attention the fact that no accommodations in the way of discounts or payments by check are to be afforded by the postal savings-banks. The people to be reached are in the main those who, because of locality, have not had the opportunity to place their money in safe-keeping, or through prejudice or fear have kept it in hiding. It should be remembered that the deposits that bear interest will be limited to \$500 for each individual and that not more than \$100 can be deposited in any one month. The rate of interest will be 2 per cent. per annum, an evidence of good faith on the part of the Government that it has no desire to enter into competition with existing financial institutions, particularly as the banks in the nearest localities are to be used as depositories and not the United States Treasury.

It is quite probable, as has been stated by some opponents, that in times of panic the deposits in the postal savings-banks would increase through withdrawals from banks, because the people have absolute confidence in the Government; but there must be borne in mind the limited amount each individual could deposit in any one month in a postal-savings depository. During panics when the contraction of the currency is so detrimental to business and financial interests, the postal savings-banks would be the agencies for turning the deposits back into the channels of trade, because the money brought to the post-offices would be redeposited at once in the national banks in the localities where it had been temporarily withdrawn.

The Nebraska banker previously mentioned acknowledges that he does not want postal savings-banks established because in times of panic they would give a place of security for the deposits of the laboring man who cannot afford to buy a safe-deposit box. He feels that if there are no postal savings depositories the greater portion of the deposits will remain in the regular banks. This broadminded banker forgets or ignores the

fact that the damage in this country during financial disturbances has been caused by a contraction of the currency, due to the withdrawals and consequent hiding of funds. There is sufficient currency, provided it can be kept in circulation at such times, and one of the greatest advantages of postal savings-banks would be their ability to prevent contraction of the currency and to turn back into circulation the money which otherwise would go into the pocket, the tin can, or the stocking. Hoarding increases as the real need for money becomes more pressing. When everything is prosperous the timid are sure to come forth with their hoarded funds in order to participate in the good times. But let them be frightened by the signs of danger and hiding begins again.

No opportunity should be lost in encouraging thrift. The nation whose people husband their resources is the strong and progressive nation. The danger to our people is wastefulness and extravagance. Money in the past has been made easily, and money that "comes easy, goes easy." As the country continues to grow every effort that is proper and fitting should be made to increase the stability of the nation and the comforts of our people as a whole. The mere fear of some bankers that their deposits may be temporarily or slightly affected should not bear weight.

FEEDERS TO BANKING INSTITUTIONS.

By those who have studied the question without preconceived ideas of hostility, it is believed that the establishment of postal savings-banks instead of being a detriment to existing financial institutions would in reality prove to be feeders, because the very people who had learned to deposit in postal depositories a portion of their earnings, which had been in the habit of wasting or keeping in hiding, would realize later on that they could double their income in the regular savings institutions. The Government would do nothing in the way of a move in this direction, having performed its duty and having taught habits of thrift and saving which had temporarily lost its function and led back again into active use.

THE PETROLEUM RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

BY DAVID T. DAY.

(In charge of petroleum investigations, United States Geological Survey.)

FROM 250,000 wells, located on 9000 square miles of territory in the United States, 1,806,000,000, or nearly two billions of barrels of petroleum, have been produced in the fifty years of life of that industry.

This short period of fifty years has been characterized by colossal changes in industrial conditions, actually brought about in important cases by the oil trade itself.

Thus, petroleum has contributed half a dozen ingenious methods of boring deep holes for the many industrial purposes involving penetrating deeply into the earth. These methods have stimulated the search for artesian water. They have aided the production of salt and developed the mining of rock salt and its transportation to points of consumption by hydraulic methods. Directly due to the petroleum industry is a wonderfully effective method of producing sulphur by which America now dominates the world's market from a deposit inaccessible to the ordinary methods of mining.

In transportation it has developed the tank car now adopted for the transportation of liquids of all kinds,—even acids,—the basis of many chemical industries. Petroleum developed transportation by pipe lines, one of the most significant trade advances of modern times.

In trade relations petroleum developed one combination after another because the pipe line was the collecting instrument of the manufacturing companies instead of the distributing agent of the independent transportation companies, the common carrier, and it thus came about that the conception of the "trust," as a form of industrial combination, originated in the petroleum trade and was there developed.

In social economy, this fifty years of petroleum has given to the United States a light so bright and so cheap as to tempt the poorest citizens to read at night. This light at night is better and cheaper in the United States than anywhere else on earth, and to this is due the greater average intelligence of the people of this country.

It is the purpose here to consider what store of petroleum is known within the limits of this country, and at what rate it is being exhausted, to what extent the use is wasteful, and to suggest, if practicable, methods by which its use may better serve the interests of present and future generations.

NATURE'S SUPPLY.

As at present actually known, petroleum occurs in the areas shown on the accompanying map of the United States (page 51).

Appalachian field: Oil is unknown, and improbable, east of the Allegheny Mountains. Parallel with their western flank, the Appalachian oil belt extends from western New York to Tennessee. It crosses western Pennsylvania, the birthplace of this enormous industry. There the supply is becoming exhausted. It has declined to one-third its best rate of production. This high oil mark was only seventeen years ago, and we may look for practical exhaustion in less than ten years. The field extends south across West Virginia and for a short distance in eastern Ohio. Farther south there are moderate supplies in Kentucky and Tennessee.

It happens that the oil of this Appalachian field (always known as Pennsylvania oil) is different from that of the rest of the United States,—slightly different, indeed, from any other in the world. It is most easily converted into an oil for lamps and yields the greatest percentage. This lamp oil also happens to be the very finest produced on earth,—in fact, much better than any other lamp oil except that from Ohio and Indiana, and the oil from this latter field costs more to refine.

The oils farther south, in Kentucky and Tennessee, are progressively poorer, but much better than Russian or any other foreign oils with which they come in competition.

Lima-Indiana.—Our second great field in historical development is the Lima-Indiana field in northwestern Ohio and east-

ern Indiana. This oil is more uniform than the Pennsylvania oils. It contains less gasoline and less lamp oils, and the presence of organic sulphur compounds results in an average of $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1 per cent. of sulphur, which can only be removed with ingenious and comparatively costly processes.

Illinois and Mid-Continent.—Just west of the Indiana line in Illinois a strip of territory thirty miles long by an average of six miles wide is yielding a comparatively enormous quantity of oil free from sulphur than the Ohio-Indiana oil, but containing occasionally sufficient asphalt to class it with the oil from the next field to the west, the Mid-Continent field, comprising the pools in Kansas, Oklahoma, northern Louisiana, and northern Texas. This field is yielding a flood of oil, causing an embarrassment to the refineries, and especially to the transportation companies.

Gulf.—To the south is the Gulf field where, in southern Louisiana and in Texas, the past eight years has seen the rise and now the gradual decline of several remarkable oil pools, all characterized by a heavy black asphaltic oil, also handicapped by sulphur. This year a great field of better oil has been found at Caddo in the northwestern corner of Louisiana. It is accompanied by the largest supply of natural gas known in the world. The criminal waste of this gas at present is the sensation of the fuel world.

IN THE FAR WEST.

California.—With the sulphur omitted, oils otherwise similar are found in many areas in California between Los Angeles and San Francisco, where other fuel is so scarce as to make this oil a boon to the railroads and to industrial enterprises.

Minor Developments.—The above are the great fields. West of the Mid-Continent and east of California are the smaller pools,—as thus far developed,—of Colorado and Wyoming, with promises of fields in New Mexico, Utah, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, and Washington, and Alaska.

There are other regions of considerable extent where there is no geological improbability of finding oil. Such geological improbability consists in rocks greatly disturbed and broken up to such a depth as to prevent profitable drilling to undisturbed sedimentary rocks that could furnish good storage for oil.

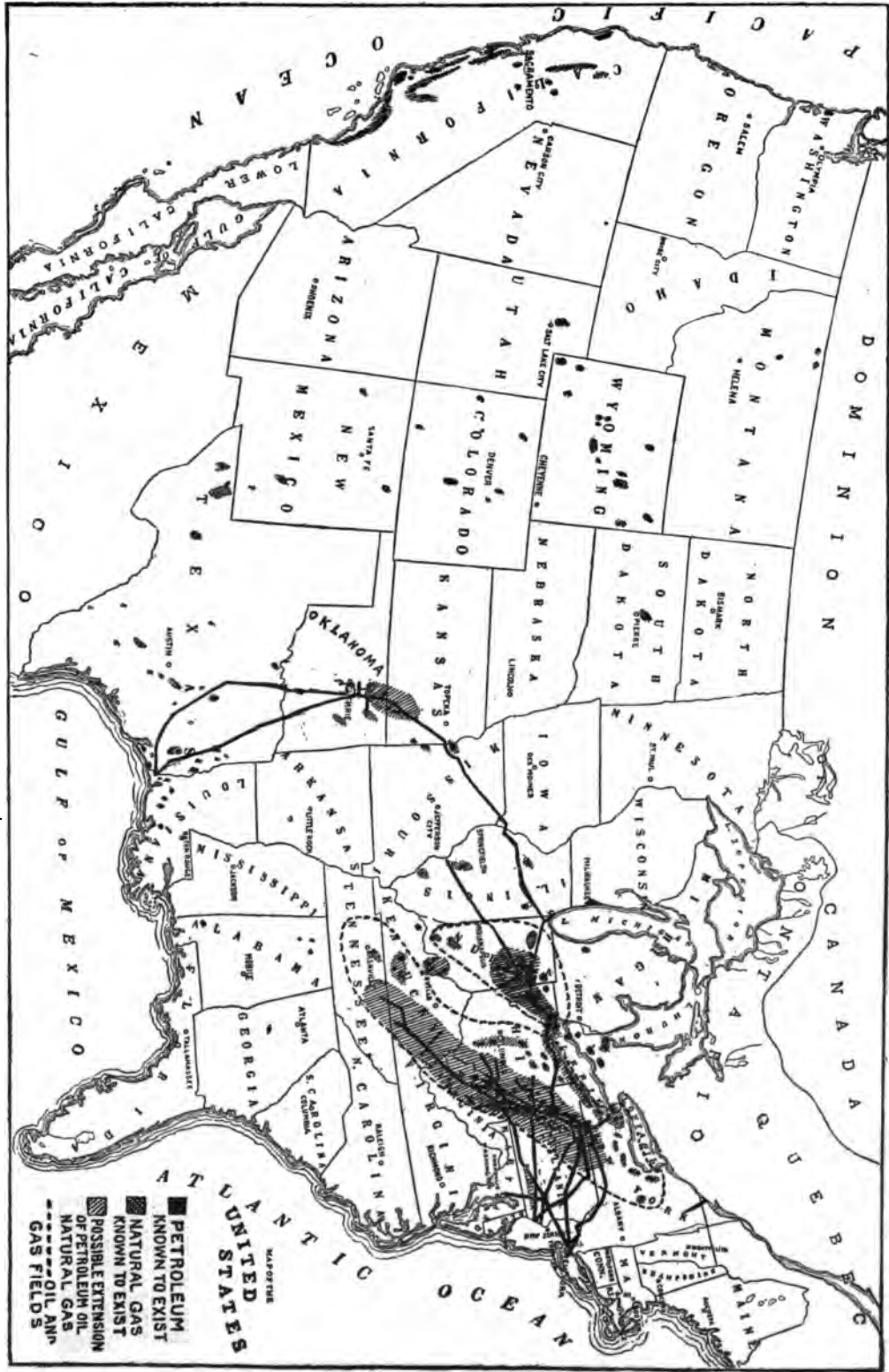
Measured, the States show the following estimated oil-bearing areas in square miles:

Alaska	500	New York.....	300
Alabama	50	Ohio:	
California	850	Eastern	115
Colorado	200	Western	535
Idaho	10	Oklahoma	400
Illinois	200	Pennsylvania	2,000
Indiana	1,000	Tennessee	80
Kansas	200	Texas	400
Kentucky	400	Utah	40
Louisiana	60	West Virginia.....	570
Michigan	80	Wyoming	750
Missouri	30		
New Mexico.....	80	Total.....	8,850

The amount of oil obtainable from these known fields is of course only a matter of conjecture based upon what the fields have yielded already and upon the thickness and relative porosity of the oil-bearing strata. The estimates of different authorities will vary between wide limits, but they will all agree that the known fields are being exhausted at a rate so rapid as to mean cessation of the industry within a few decades unless the expected new fields are found, and this reliance upon unknown sources of supply after a few decades seems to be the characteristic attitude, as if these new fields of great size were a foregone conclusion.

With the certainty of exhaustion of the present fields by the present generation, it is not a matter of vital argument whether such exhaustion comes in ten years or forty. For example, the available petroleum in the actual productive areas of the West Virginia fields has been estimated by Dr. I. C. White, State Geologist, as roughly 5000 barrels per acre. This is far more than has been obtained in the Pennsylvania and New York region or than is likely to be obtained there before the exhaustion of the field. Eight hundred barrels per acre would be nearer the average yield for the total area considered an oil bearing. In other States, small areas, such as Spindle Top, Texas, have yielded far more than 5000 barrels per acre. If such a large average is assumed for the known fields of United States, a total product of twenty-billion (25,000,000,000) barrels would be expected before the present fields are exhausted. Judging, however, by the rate of decrease of the older fields, a yield of 1000 barrels per acre would seem ample except for the Illinois, Mid-Continent, and California fields. This reduces the present total yield to less than half the above, or 12,000,000,000 barrels. Approximately 2,000,000,000 barrels have already been extracted.

Carrying out the increasing rate of production, the industry would be brought to an abrupt end by exhaustion, except in Pennsylvania, in about 1920. The petroleum is, however, not capable of abrupt exhaustion, for a petroleum well will not



THE PETROLEUM AND NATURAL GAS FIELDS OF THE UNITED STATES.

oil faster than its own rate. Included in the calculations to which these figures are due are wells which, starting with 500 barrels as the product of the first day, have "settled down" after a few weeks to five barrels per day, and after fifteen to twenty years yielding about one-quarter of a barrel per day, are still being pumped.

PRODUCTION OF PETROLEUM.

The production of petroleum has been a national industry for just half a century. Previous to this there was sporadic production of petroleum without any definite market. The industry really began when Kier and Ferris, merchants, of Pittsburg, perfected a lamp with a suitable glass chimney by which petroleum was made capable of yielding a steady light far brighter than any other artificial illumination known at the time. It was the demand for petroleum thus caused which put the industry on a permanent basis, and the need which quickly developed for a large supply preceded the drilling of the Drake well at Titusville in 1859, which initiated the flood of petroleum in succeeding years.

In this half century 1,806,608,463 barrels of petroleum, or 240,919,676 tons, or enough to twice fill the Panama Canal when completed, has been produced, worth a little less than \$2,000,000,000. New petroleum fields have been found and developed more rapidly than the rate of production in the older fields has decreased, so that the rate of production has shown a rapid increase from 500,000 barrels in 1860 to 166,000,000 barrels in 1907. We produce almost as much oil as milk.

This rate of production means that, beginning with 1860, in each period

of nine years as much petroleum has been produced as in all of the years preceding. It is a reasonable presumption that in nine years from now our product will be 1,800,000,000 barrels more, or a total product at that time of 3,600,000,000 barrels of oil. Within that time production in the Appalachian field, including the States of New York, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, eastern Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee, will have been reduced to a negligible quantity; the fields will practically be exhausted. The Lima-Indiana field,—that is, western Ohio and Indiana,—will likewise have been exhausted, and the greater portion of this supply will have been furnished by Illinois,

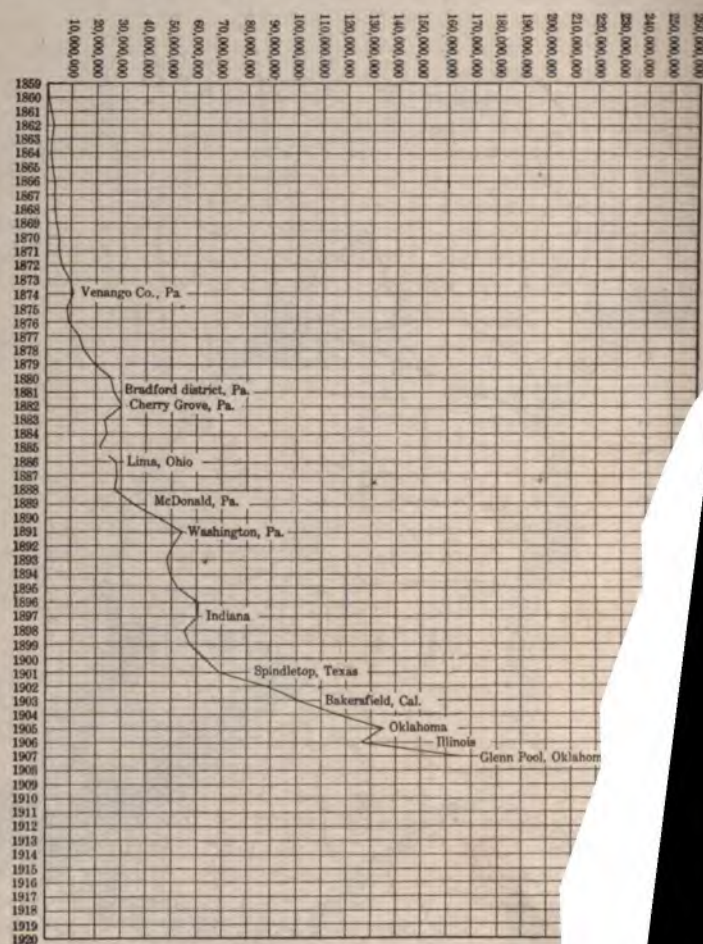


DIAGRAM SHOWING THE RATE OF PRODUCTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

(This shows very clearly how the production is in accordance with the requirements, and that the great increases are incident to the discovery of new fields. The names of these fields are in the diagram.)

the Mid-Continent field, and others farther west.

The graphic table on the preceding page shows the rate of production indicated above, and also contains notes showing the dates at which prominent discoveries of petroleum have increased the total yield in different parts of the country.

The money expenditure necessary for producing this much petroleum includes a cost of \$550,000,000 for drilling the wells and outfitting them with pumping apparatus. It has cost \$60,000,000 for trunk pipe lines, in addition to the gathering lines from the wells. It has been necessary to expend \$23,000,000 for steel tankage to hold this oil during its temporary storage before it has been refined. Over 20,000 tank cars are in direct use in the petroleum industry. More than 5000 tank cars are used for other commodities. All these are omitted from the 20,000 used for oil. For the oil-tank cars the expenditure has been over \$20,000,000. The 82,109 wells producing our present supply are worth \$150,000,000. An expenditure of \$100,000,000 went for wells that proved failures. It requires 45,000 workmen to operate these wells, and they receive an aggregate of \$40,000,000 in wages.

REQUIREMENTS OF THE PETROLEUM TRADE.

The study of the graphic table presented above is sufficient to demonstrate that the production of petroleum has been influenced not by any regular increasing demand for petroleum on the part of consumers, but by spasmodic accidental discoveries of new oil fields. With the addition of each field the individual producer has realized upon the discovery by extracting the oil at the greatest rate of speed possible, throwing the product upon the market to the greater or less demoralization of the trade, and with absolutely no regard whatever for the industry's requirements. The necessity for this method is due to the fact that a given well draws not only from the land held by one lessee, but frequently from part of the land under the adjoining leases; hence the effort of each lessee to extract the oil before it is obtained by his rival.

Steadying Influence of Exports.—The chief steadying feature of the trade upon which the purchaser of petroleum has relied has been the exporting of the excess of production to less-favored countries in proportion as the spasmodic increase in supply exceeded the demand at home. Another steadying fea-

ture has been the use of the crude oil by railroads and other large consumers of power in the place of coal when the surplus supply resulted in a price below what may be considered the normal value, and where material essentially more valuable than coal as a producer of power in most parts of the country was brought into competition with coal by the excess of oil supply.

Increased Refining Capacity.—With each addition to the petroleum production in the United States there has been a rapid development in the capacity of the refining plants of the country in order to utilize the product to greater advantage than by unloading the crude on foreign countries or consuming it as fuel oil. Once developed, this refining capacity demands a continuance of the increased supply, and when the first flood of oil from the new field of production shows a tendency to decline it has been stimulated by an increase in price for the crude oil. This results in increased drilling in the old fields in proportion as the production of oil per well declines.

This growth of the refining capacity means a plant in the United States worth \$12,000,000 for land, \$15,000,000 for buildings, \$75,000,000 for refining apparatus, including tankage for refined products and the distribution of the product by tank cars, tank wagons, pipe lines, and a fleet of over 500 vessels, including barges and scows. It gives employment in the refining business alone to 18,744 people.

Foreign Refined Market.—The desire of foreign nations to purchase our oils must become an increasing factor in the future as the oil supply of Russia and other European countries continues to decline. Thus, a few years ago the oil production of Russia, for one or two years, exceeded that of the United States, while the difference in conditions at the present time is shown by the fact that the excess of the United States production in 1907 over 1906 amounted to a large proportion of the entire production of Russia. There is no statistical evidence that the increasing production of East Indian petroleum will overcome the increasing demand for American oils abroad.

"If."—Perhaps something of the money expenditure which the oil industry gives to the United States each year in the employment of labor and in the manufacture of the necessary supplies, may be grasped by what this would have meant had the conditions existed in Russia for the development of a

industry. The oil fields in Russia are necessarily regulated by what they can produce, even for such purposes as burning for power. The amount of oil producible in Russia and other European countries is very limited, and the proportion furnished depends on trade supremacy. In the matter of transportation, geographic location, Russia has the advantage of a short distance by a pipe line from the great Baku oil fields to a deep sea harbor at Batoum. The other essential factors are more complicated. The Russian Government permits the sale of concessions for monopolies such as oil production,—concessions which are not known in the United States; but complications arise in the peaceful enjoyment of such concessions due to the changeable attitude of the government toward industrial enterprise. Further, the strong and characteristically American personalities have not been developed in Russia as in the United States.

If the conditions above described had been reversed,—our oil development in this country transferred to Europe,—it would have meant, in addition to the Russian pipe lines, a pipe line system from Roumania and Galicia to Austria, Germany, and France. It would have meant oil produced at the German seaboard at prices, taking into consideration the low cost of chemicals and of labor, such as to prohibit exports from this country, and, in fact, at such low prices that oil would have been imported and would have followed the course of other commodities affected by low wages in European countries, unless this labor and cheap material difference had been offset by a protective tariff on oils. Under this imaginary reversal of conditions,—even the best of them in the Roumanian oil fields,—oil would cost 30 cents a gallon in the petroleum centers, such as Pittsburg, or three times the present price, for oil costs this much in the city of Bucharest, within 100 miles of the oil fields, and the wages paid there by the refiners are not half those paid to American workmen. The very impossibility itself of such a reversal affords a good illustration of the enterprise of the American oil industry and the satisfactory trade conditions characteristic of the United States.

PROBABLE DURATION OF THE SUPPLY OF PETROLEUM.

These considerations show that at the present rate of increase in production, supplies of petroleum in the known deposits

would be less than the requirements of the trade in the next decade, except in California. There are no indications that the rate of consumption will decline until a decrease is necessitated by exhaustion of the supply. Then history shows that the decline will at first be rapid, and finally very slow. Considering the temptation to use petroleum in increasing quantities as a luxury fuel for the generation of power, at present under steam boilers and in the next few years to a far greater extent in internal combustion engines, no reasonable outlook for additional supplies of petroleum can be counted on to delay the exhaustion of the oil fields of the United States beyond the present century, unless the waste of these supplies is stopped by some strong artificial restraint.

NATURE AND EXTENT OF WASTE IN THE EXTRACTION OF PETROLEUM.

Storage.—Waste, as understood in the natural-gas industry, has been markedly absent in the use of our petroleum supplies. In fact, it would be unjust to as remarkable an activity as has ever been known in the industrial development of the United States if attention were not called to the energy shown by the consumers of crude petroleum in utilizing to the most practical advantage and with a minimum amount of waste the floods of oil spasmodically offered for sale by the most reckless exploitations of the oil pools by the oil producers.

Lack of Foresight Abroad.—The record of the United States in this regard stands out pre-eminently above the work in the other oil fields of the world. In Russia, lack of foresight in the opening of unusually strong gushers has not only led to enormous waste in the oil, but floods of oil overflowing from insufficient earthen reservoirs have taken fire to the destruction of large cities. In fact, nowhere in the world have conditions so similar to the emergencies known in the oil fields in the United States been met with such foresight and prompt treatment.

Evaporation.—Another kind of waste which has characterized the oil fields of the West and the East, and which has been almost entirely avoided in the United States, is that to which petroleum is more susceptible than any other mineral product, even except water, and that is evaporation. As one recognizes, the most valuable portions of the various petroleum in the United States are those which volatilize with great

the gasoline and lighter burning oils. A thin layer of any ordinary light crude petroleum will become heavy and valueless by exposure to the sun of a single day, and this has been a great loss in the open earthen tanks which have been greatly used in Russia. In the United States, on the other hand, only under very exceptional circumstances is an open earthen tank found as an evidence of lack of preparation for a gusher which proved unexpectedly large. Our oil is preserved in steel tanks, often holding as much as 55,000 barrels each. A single tank holds as much as the annual product of Italy. The wonderful rapidity with which these tanks have been constructed to take care of the most reckless production is a tribute not only to the engineering skill of the oil transportation companies, but to the promptness of the iron industry in furnishing steel, to the technical ability of the contractors, and to the inventive genius which has brought about the building of these tanks with such rapidity, and yet with such accuracy as to hold this oil without appreciable leakage or evaporation.

It is not sufficient to simply call attention to the fact that no recommendations on this point are necessary from those not engaged in the industry, but it is necessary to pay tribute to the success of the operators in avoiding this waste.

Essential Uses.—The only kind of waste to which the utmost attention should be called is in the utilization of petroleum. It is only fair to this easily exhausted material that it should be used only for the purposes where it is essential and where there is no other material which can fill its place. Petroleum is economically essential in furnishing light to country homes and to every small establishment not in connection with a gas or electric supply; and, further than this, even when it is sold at the highest prices at which it has been marketed in the United States, petroleum still constitutes the cheapest source of light per candle-power. Coal can never be converted into electric light in competition with lamp oils as to cost. The economic necessity, therefore, of securing the greatest amount of illuminating light from a given crude petroleum is evident.

Absolute Necessity of Oil for Lubrication.—But a still more essential use for petroleum is for lubricating every bearing in every kind of machinery in all our complex civilization. Not a pound of coal can be converted into power by any means without the

necessity of a proportionate amount of lubricating oil. Every ton of coal converted into power requires at least one-half pint of lubricating oil. The conservation, therefore, of a proportionate amount of lubricating oil consistent with all industrial activity must offer a part of the general plan for civilized progress.

Unnecessary Uses.—Instead of being limited to the essential uses above described, petroleum has been and is being used to a large extent for fuel by burning it under steam boilers, especially on railroads, and as a source of power in every form on the Pacific Coast. Whenever a large increase is made in the production of petroleum, with a corresponding decrease in price, the producers are grateful for an outlet for their depreciated oil by selling it for such low-grade uses where it brings not more than one-hundredth part (and has brought as low as one-thousandth part) of the maximum price for petroleum products, and yet much of this crude petroleum at other times is converted into the far more valuable products mentioned above. Further, use of petroleum has been a most helpful implement in the crusade for good roads. The skillful application of petroleum residues to poor road surfaces is so simple, and the results are so instantaneously helpful to the community, that this use can almost be called justifiable, in spite of the fact that coal-tar residues, waste products of the coking and illuminating gas industry, serve the purpose well enough.

Exports.—From the standpoint of the conservation of American interests for America, the most profligate waste of petroleum products has been in their exportation abroad. For this waste there is the plea of humanity that every gallon of illuminating oil which finds its way into an otherwise poorly lighted room is the most efficient missionary for the dissemination of knowledge, and where kerosene oil is cheapest intellectual development is highest as a general rule over the earth. But this export trade has not been based upon a desire for missionary work, but a necessity on account of the frenzied effort to realize on the petroleum stores in the earth. When the export trade can be continued upon a wise regulation of our oil production the missionary value of the kerosene will be increased.

What such exports require in the way of capital it is difficult to grasp in mere figures. The great steel tanks characteristic of Amer-

ican production have been mentioned. Now think of a single tank,—in the form of a steamship holding double as much oil as our largest storage tank. This is only the largest of the fleet already referred to.

METHODS OF PREVENTING OR LESSENING THIS WASTE OF PETROLEUM.

Checking Unnecessary Production.—The manifest means of preventing this waste is by checking the inordinate production so that the use of petroleum will be limited to the purposes for which this fluid is essential. Every acre of oil-bearing public land should be withdrawn from every form of entry and be subjected to a suitable and fair system of lease.

Better Combustion.—In so far as the use of petroleum as a source of power is concerned, a prompt study should be given to the development of internal-combustion engines capable of using crude petroleum or any form of residuum.

HOW CAN SUPPLIES OF PETROLEUM BE EXTENDED?

Prevention of Waste in Extraction and in Use.—In the extraction of petroleum, the legislation tending to the capping of gas wells to preserve the pressure in the oil fields and to prevent the unnecessary encroachment of water is already sufficient in most of the States, but not in all. After the practical exhaustion of the field, this encroachment of water may be looked upon as a means by which, as a rule, the remaining petroleum can be washed into smaller but still profitable pools,—a system which is already intelligently utilized in this country.

Discovery and Development of Substitutes.—Alcohol from grain, potatoes, and from various waste products can be used in place of petroleum as an illuminant and for power in place of gasoline under the stress of necessity. There is no substitute for mineral lubricating oils, animal and vegetable oils being excluded as entirely too expensive. The production of artificial petroleum from various vegetable and animal waste products has received sufficient study to indicate the

possibility of good results from scientific research in this direction.

Necessity of Scientific Research.—There is, however, at present no scientific establishment where such experimentation is receiving any public encouragement. Far more important at the present time than this is the establishment and maintenance of scientific research for the purpose of determining the conditions of accumulation of petroleum in the earth, and, if possible, the primary origin of petroleum itself, for the purpose of enabling the prediction of the occurrence of petroleum deposits in the earth by the study of the geological conditions, and without the necessity for enormous waste of money in haphazard drilling for new fields.

Deterioration and destruction of petroleum are a necessary consequence of its use when consumed either as a fuel or as a lubricant. The methods for reusing lubricating oils have been developed to a high stage of efficiency, but the consumption of lubricating oil still increases proportionately with all industrial activity. The greatest benefit can undoubtedly come from more fundamental studies of the constituents of various crude petroleum for the purpose of obtaining from each oil the greatest proportion of valuable constituents. Greater progress would undoubtedly have been made before this but for the large amount of crude material offered for consumption and the necessity of disposing of it quickly for any use which would yield a market.

Better use of petroleum resources would have been stimulated had fundamental studies as to the nature of various petroleum been carried out by pure scientific research to a sufficient extent to furnish a sounder basis for technical development. For example, we know that Pennsylvania petroleum does not yield the oils from which dyes can be made. But we have lately learned that the lowly Texas oils and the California oils are rich in dye material. Finally, a most fruitful field of research goes beyond the mere extraction of good oils out of bad, and gives promise of transmuting any undesirable residue into the most necessary grades.

STATE CONTROL OF WATER-POWER.

BY CURTIS E. LAKEMAN.

IN these days of widespread interest in the conservation of natural resources and in governmental regulation of public utilities it is perhaps hardly necessary to point out that the water-powers of the country are one of our most valuable material resources, constituting, when developed, a public utility of the highest order. Valuable as this gift of nature is at present, the time is at hand when it will be infinitely more precious. At every turn we are met with a fresh statement of the impending exhaustion of the country's fuel supply and of the early advent of an age of electricity generated from the waterfalls of the wilderness and transmitted great distances to the centers of civilization. Indications of preparation for the coalless age on the part of those best informed and most concerned may be found in the eagerness with which water-power development is being carried forward all over the country and new sites sought out and occupied. The inevitable ascendancy of hydro-electric power has already begun. As a public utility of such vital consequence to the welfare of future generations it is indeed time for the present age to take critical account of its extent and the manner of its use, to the end that the widest and wisest distribution of this form of public wealth may be attained. No more than franchises for the development of transportation, lighting, communication, and other public services should the privilege of utilizing water-power be permitted to inhere so exclusively in a few individuals that they are enabled to absorb all the immense profit of distributing such service to the public, and so dictate the terms under which the people shall participate in its benefits. In fact, the supervision of the development and use of this fundamental resource falls peculiarly within the purview of the wider field of governmental activity toward which we are advancing.

NEW YORK'S FORWARD MOVEMENT.

In the enactment last year of a law directing its State Water Supply Commission to undertake a critical survey and estimate of the water-powers of New York, the Empire State, under the leadership of Governor Hughes, has originated a project of public control of water-power which should arouse

wide interest among all who are concerned with the relation of government to natural resources and to public utilities. Inaugurated quite independently of and earlier than the widely heralded "Conservation" movement in the federal Administration, this experiment in State administration is so unique in the annals of the American commonwealths that it deserves a brief review. In his first message to the Legislature, on January 2, 1907, Governor Hughes, after discussing the forest preserves of New York, said: "In this connection it is well to consider the great value of the undeveloped water-powers thus placed under State control. They should be preserved and held for the benefit of all the people and should not be surrendered to private interests. It would be difficult to exaggerate the advantages which may ultimately accrue from these great resources of power if the common right is duly safeguarded." In the next paragraph the Governor discussed the powers and duties of the State Water Supply Commission, which had been created in 1905 as a tribunal to insure the equitable division among the cities and villages of the State of sources of public water supply and the lands necessary for proposed extensions of municipal water-works. To this discussion the Governor added: "It remains to be considered whether it is not advisable to provide a more comprehensive plan, embracing in a clearly defined way the matter of water storage and the use of water courses for purposes of power. The entire question of the relation of the State to its waters demands more careful attention than it has hitherto received in order that there may be an adequate scheme of just regulation for the public benefit."

In answer to these recommendations the Legislature of 1907 enacted the so-called Fuller bill (Chapter 569 of the Laws of 1907), which directs the State Water Supply Commission to "devise plans for the progressive development of the water-powers of the State under State ownership, control, and maintenance for the public use and benefit and for the increase of the public revenue."

RECOGNITION OF PUBLIC INTERESTS.

Space does not permit a discussion at this point of the long chain of events which after

many years led to the passage of this bill. Many attempts have been made in the past to have the State undertake a general policy of river regulation for the prevention of floods and the improvement of navigation. In too many of these instances the real object of the most ardent promoters of such schemes,—namely, the development of latent water-power for their own benefit,—has been but thinly disguised in the alleged purpose of insuring the “public health and safety.” Particularly have attempts been frequent to overcome the effect of the strict constitutional provision against the removal or destruction of timber on the State forest preserves, and to secure invaluable hydraulic privileges in these Adirondack forests. On the whole, “water storage” in New York State has not only failed to attain the development to which its importance to the general welfare of the public entitles it, but has even become a term full of sinister meaning, one of those pregnant phrases which involve a controversy, if not connotations of “graft,” in their barest mention. It seems clear that this is chiefly because in the past the principle has never been adequately maintained that the people at large should receive advantage or compensation in some form for the enormous benefits which would be conferred on a few private interests. A public not yet educated to the means of making organized use of the State’s natural resources for the general good was nevertheless for once almost unanimous in the effective expression of a sentiment that these resources should not be indiscriminately given away. The result has been a system of negative preservation involving the repression of a development which has been and is now demanded by consideration of the welfare of the present and future generations.

WORK OF THE WATER-SUPPLY COMMISSION.

Upon the enactment of the Fuller bill in answer to the Governor’s suggestions the State Water Supply Commission immediately undertook the critical survey of the water-powers of the State, which was intrusted to it. The act prescribed with full detail the nature of the information to be secured regarding possible developments, and directed that estimates should be made showing the total of horsepower which could be obtained at each site suggested, the cost of construction, annual maintenance and depreciation of the proposed reservoirs, dams, and other works, together with the probability of selling the power, the probable gross and net revenues

therefrom, and the length of time required to pay off the cost of construction, land, and water rights, and the interest thereon. Each particular development was to be reported on separately, but considered as a part of one whole State project. Finally, a draft of a bill should be prepared providing for carrying into effect the recommendations made, with a fully detailed financial plan for the issue of the bonds of the State to pay the cost of construction and making provision for a sinking fund for the redemption of such bonds.

IMPORTANT CONSTRUCTION PROJECTS.

The commission, in view of the short time that was allowed for the preparation of the progress report, which had to be submitted on February 1, 1908, to the Governor and Legislature, determined to select one or two of the most promising sites for power development and report on them in detail as concrete examples of what might be done, instead of spreading the appropriation over so large a general field that no specific results would follow. Under the direction, therefore, of John R. Freeman, the eminent hydraulic engineer engaged by the commission, studies were made of reservoir sites on the Sacandaga River, at Conklingville, Saratoga County, and on the Genesee River at Portageville. The findings on these two large and important possible developments, as embraced in the report of last winter, may be briefly summarized here.

At Conklingville on the Sacandaga River an earthwork dam with a masonry core can be safely built, which will store 26,000,000,000 cubic feet of water, creating a reservoir nearly as large as Lake George. This reservoir, by regulating the flow of the Sacandaga and the Hudson, would enormously increase the capacity of existing water-power plants on the Hudson, adding during the driest months of the ordinary year an average aggregate of 80,000 horsepower over and above that now developed at the thirteen present plants between the mouth of Sacandaga and Troy. This enormous quantity is greater than the aggregate developed water-powers of Holyoke, Lowell, and Lawrence, Mass.

It is proposed to build this reservoir every care to clear its shores of timber and brush, thus creating an attractive lake resort, greatly improving the region as a summer resort.

The second stage of development provide for a power-house with all

tenances near Hadley, three miles below the reservoir, where, with an available head of 200 feet, from 25,000 to 30,000 horsepower could be continuously developed twenty-four hours per day, seven days in the week, which would be equivalent to 60,000 horsepower during ordinary working hours. This power could be transmitted to Albany, Troy, Cohoes, Saratoga, or any of the communities within fifty miles, or it could be used to develop a new industrial community on the spot, greatly adding to the taxable property and wealth of the State. Even with the water thus completely utilized at the Hadley power-house, the minimum discharge of the Sacandaga River would be increased from 130 cubic feet per second, its present minimum rate, to 1700 cubic feet per second. This increase of 1570 cubic feet would still greatly benefit existing plants on the Hudson, adding, for example, 10,000 horsepower at Spier's Falls, one of the thirteen sites in question.

The other large project selected by the commission for detailed study was on the Genesee River, where the incidental object of flood prevention is peculiarly important. Surveys had been made in previous years on this stream, but no construction ever resulted. The commission selected a new site for a dam, above and entirely outside the limits of Letchworth Park, the recent gift of a public-spirited citizen to the State. At this point, near the village of Portageville, it was found that a dam can be constructed to create a reservoir fifteen miles long and one mile wide, impounding 18,000,000,000 cubic feet of water. This reservoir could be operated to generate 30,000 twenty-four-hour seven-day horsepower throughout the year (or 75,000 horsepower during working hours), which could be utilized on the spot, or transmitted to Rochester and neighboring communities. If developed at the reservoir site, the increase of the minimum flow of the Genesee would still add 13,500 twenty-four-hour seven-day power to existing plants at Rochester.

If the development were completed in two stages and the building of the power-house delayed some years, the use of the dam in the meantime for storage only would add 20,000 horsepower of twenty-four-hour seven-day power during the six dry months at Rochester, which figure would equal 50,000 horsepower in working hours.

Careful provision is made in the plans for constructing all works in such manner as to preserve intact the beauty of Letchworth Park and the Portage Falls.

A GENERAL STATE SURVEY.

After receiving the preliminary report embodying the foregoing features the Legislature of 1908 went on record in favor of the continuance of the investigation by granting liberal appropriations for the prosecution of surveys during the present season, which the Governor approved in their entirety. With a greatly enlarged force of engineers, the commission at once undertook a broad survey of the water-powers of the whole State, both developed and undeveloped, at the same time planning the completion of the Sacandaga and Genesee reservoir surveys to the point where actual construction might be recommended to the coming session of the Legislature. In addition it was decided to make detailed examination and surveys for the best possible development of the great power of the Raquette River, one of the largest power streams of the State. A special survey on the Delaware River was also undertaken, and studies for storage and power on several other streams were begun on the basis of existing data. Finally, a reconnaissance of the whole State is being made by experts in power development, and a careful census of existing utilized water-power is in progress.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S POSITION.

Such in brief summary is the story of New York's most recent attempt to determine the extent and value of its water-powers and to undertake a general program of their development for the public benefit. It is an experiment which may well be watched with interest, and which if successful may well serve as a model for other States to follow. Let us now examine what has been done by some of the other States and by the federal Government in the general field of public control of water resources. If not precisely similar in method to this original movement in New York State, many of these projects are nevertheless full of interest and instruction to the student of the general subject.

Aside from the widespread movement for the conservation of all natural resources, which resulted from the appointment in March, 1907, of the Inland Waterways Commission and its report of February, 1908, the most recent direct expression of the federal Government's attitude toward the particular question of water-power development is to be found in President Roosevelt's veto in April, 1908, of a bill to extend the time

within which a certain franchise-holding company was to construct a dam across the Rainy River in northern Minnesota. This bill was typical of a great number of similar bills regularly introduced in Congress, as well as characteristic of a tendency in legislation which is probably familiar in all State capitals. In this particular case, which President Roosevelt effectively used to emphasize the Administration's point of view, the company had obtained an original charter over ten years ago, which required them to begin work on the dam in one year and complete it in three years. It is well known that such franchises are sought in too many cases purely for speculative purposes, with the intention of selling the rights of construction as soon as they have become really valuable. The result of this is often the complete obstruction of actual development for a long time.

The President's veto message on this particular bill is a most important document in outlining what should be the attitude of Government toward the granting of franchises for water-power development. Instead of the present haphazard policy of granting valuable public franchises of this sort, the veto message urges the inauguration of a definite program with the following essential features: (1) A limitation on the grant in the nature of an option or opportunity for development of plans within a specified reasonable time; (2) an express provision making it the duty of a designated official to cancel the grant if the work is not begun or carried out in accordance with its provisions; (3) the assurance that the plans provide for the maximum development of navigation and power, or at least that they will not ultimately interfere with such maximum development; (4) a license fee, small at the outset, but capable of adjustment in the future, so as to secure a control of the development in the interest of the public; (5) provision for the termination of the franchise at a definite time, leaving future generations free to reconsider and renew it in accordance with conditions which may then prevail.

In the attempt to work out a wise and far-sighted policy of this sort in the granting by the federal Government of water-power franchises, and in the whole movement toward the wiser conservation of the material foundations of our prosperity, President Roosevelt has had widespread support, and we may be assured that the attitude toward these questions so auspiciously inaugurated

by his Administration will be continued under his successor.

WISCONSIN'S UNIQUE PLAN.

Up to the present time not as much as could be wished for has been accomplished by the several States of the Union toward the conservation and development of their water resources under a general and comprehensive policy. A few instances of progress in this direction may, however, be noted.

The State of Wisconsin has recently worked out a plan for encouraging private enterprise in the development of water-power and the improvement of navigation under public supervision, which is, as far as the writer is informed, quite unique in this field and possesses features of general interest. By the passage of Chapter 335 of the Laws of 1907, a private company, the Wisconsin Valley Improvement Company, was incorporated and authorized "to construct, acquire, and maintain a system of water reservoirs" on the Wisconsin River and its tributaries. All the State's riparian and flowage rights in the stream in question are assigned to the company and a wide authority of eminent domain is delegated. The company is to charge and collect reasonable tolls on all logs and timber floated in the stream and from the owners of each and every water-power located on the river which is benefited. The act is declared to be for public purposes and shall be construed favorably to the accomplishment of such purposes. The interesting manner in which the State retains specific control over the company is by a provision similar to that which has been successfully worked out in Massachusetts in the adoption of the sliding scale of charges for gas in Boston. The company is directed to make annual reports to the Wisconsin Railroad Commission showing its expenditures, stock issues, capital, and schedules of its charges. If the profits of the company increase beyond a certain point, it is compelled, under provisions of the act of incorporation, to reduce its toll charges in proportion. Through the means of these annual reports to the Railroad Commission the State is enabled to ascertain periodically the exact financial condition of the company, and thus to enforce, if necessary, the provisions of the charter relating to charges. The State also retains the right to take over the company when permitted to do so by constitutional amendment. The development of the Wisconsin water-power by private capital under this method of control will be watched with interest

POWER DEVELOPMENT FROM THE CHICAGO DRAINAGE CANAL.

An instance of the complete production and distribution of water-power under public ownership may be found in the plans of the Sanitary District of Chicago, the civil division of the State of Illinois incorporated to construct the sanitary and ship canal from the Chicago River to the Desplaines River. This canal was begun in 1892 and completed in 1900 by the people of Chicago at a cost of \$53,000,000, and was intended to protect the lake sources of Chicago's water supply by providing a channel for the removal and dilution of the city's sewage. It is intended that this channel shall eventually form the first link of the projected Lakes-to-Gulf deep waterway. At points along the course of the canal the immense volume of water carried from the lake becomes of great value for power purposes. At Lockport, Ill., a power installation, already partly completed, will eventually furnish 40,000 horsepower. A proposed extension to the canal would add some 22,500 horsepower to that capable of development at Lockport and Joliet. "It is the defined purpose of the Sanitary District," says the power prospectus, "to supply the municipalities within its limits such power as may now or later be required for their own use." The surplus power will then be thrown open to the general market at a general cost lower than that of steam-power. Sites for manufacturing will be leased by the district, and an industrial development similar to that at Niagara Falls is hoped for.

CHEAP WATER-POWER FOR ONTARIO.

Probably the most radical advance yet made in America toward the state ownership and development of water-power has been the movement in the Province of Ontario which resulted in the creation of two successive hydro-electric commissions with extensive powers. The movement grew out of a widespread demand for cheap power in this Province, which, owing to its distance from the coal-fields of Pennsylvania, experienced a general realization of the heavy cost of generating power from coal. Accordingly the first hydro-electric commission was constituted in 1905 to make an investigation of both the developed and undeveloped water-powers of Ontario. The result of the report of this commission was the creation of a second commission, which is still in existence. This body is given extreme-

ly wide authority, upon the application of any municipality in the province for a supply of electric power, to take the necessary steps to furnish this power, either building new plants and transmission lines, or entering into agreements with existing companies to furnish the required quota of energy, or if no satisfactory agreement can be reached to expropriate the plant and furnish the power to the municipality on behalf of the government, at rates based on actual cost of production.

WHY STATE SUPERVISION?

We have indicated in a general way the importance of water-power to future generations as a public utility of the first order, and the consequent necessity of safeguarding in one way or another the public right in this resource as against the excessive profit of a few. The instances of public control which have been reviewed are of general interest in so far as they represent progress in the direction of securing such safeguards. They illustrate, moreover, a few of the more specific reasons why the State or federal Government is better qualified than any lesser authority, public or private, to undertake comprehensive projects of river conservation by means of storage for flood prevention, power development, and the improvement of navigation. These reasons may now be briefly summarized:

The first and greatest reason for State action is that only in this manner can a full, comprehensive, co-ordinated, and therefore truly economic development of our hydraulic resources be secured. No one company or individual would be able, as a rule, to undertake the complete development of any given stream throughout the region of its effective flow. The undertaking would be too vast to be feasible, even if a market for all the power could be assured. It would involve a wide exercise of the power of eminent domain, which would have to be delegated to the company for the purpose. Furthermore, co-operation among mill owners and other interests for such a purpose is peculiarly difficult to arrange. The State, on the other hand, retaining the control of the whole stream, could develop such portions of its power as might be salable from time to time, yet always with the ultimate plan for a complete development in mind.

Another reason for State supervision, perhaps more local to New York, though potentially of wide application, is directly concerned with one of the most emphatic pro-

that has been made in this State against the building of power reservoirs,—namely, that they may be called the esthetic objection. It is too true that much bad reservoir practice has furnished good cause for the widespread notion that power reservoirs destroy the beauties of the natural river and result in scenes of destruction and desolation. Experience and the best engineering authority have conclusively shown, however, that proper reservoir building is only a matter of adequate expenditures under proper plans and careful supervision. It is not consistent with experience to hope that private companies, bent on immediate gain, will ever go to the extra, and to their minds unessential, expense of properly clearing reservoir beds of standing trees and underbrush before turning in the water. Only when the State does this work as a part of its general program, and with constant realization that this is a highly important aspect of any construction worthy of the State, can attractive rather than repulsive reservoirs be generally secured.

The State's great financial strength provides a third reason why the public authority may advantageously construct the controlling works for power development. The State can borrow the money needed for such expensive structures as storage reservoirs at a lower rate of interest than any corporation. A part of this saving may well be spent by the State in securing the adequate treatment and proper supervision necessary to insure attractive and healthful artificial lakes, which may be depended on to increase the property value of the whole surrounding region as a health and pleasure resort. The State can afford to take the long view and wait twenty or thirty or fifty years for the return on its money, whereas such delay in profitable result is prohibitive to the plans of the prospective manufacturers.

Aside from the foregoing considerations, one of the most cogent reasons for the adoption of public policies of water conservation by the several States is to be found in the many indirect benefits which the public receive. Assuming that power development is the prime object of water storage, widespread incidental benefit must necessarily result in mitigation of flood damages, in the deepening of navigable river channels, in the

dilution of sewage, and in the driving back of brackish tidal water from river sources of public water supply, all of which benefits will follow the regulation of fresh-water flow by means of forests and artificial reservoirs.

In all these ways, then, the State would profit by a general program of river conservation, and for the reason given it would seem that the State and federal governments, each in its proper sphere, is the proper authority to originate and carry out such projects. If not actually owned by the State, water-storage and power developments must at least be controlled by the public. In this direction New York State has taken an advanced position. Since the passage of the Fuller bill and Governor Hughes' prompt and public-spirited action in refusing to approve in its original form a bill to give a St. Lawrence River power company a perpetual franchise without compensation to the State, the Empire State may be regarded as committed to some form of public control of water-power development. Just what the details of that policy will be is a point still to be decided on the basis of the information obtained by the critical survey now being made. There are several alternatives. The State may build its reservoirs, power plants, and transmission lines, and develop and market its own power, either furnishing it to municipalities for strictly public uses or encouraging the development of new industrial centers, to the consequent increase of taxable property.

Again, it might develop the power for delivery to a distributing and transmission company, or, as now seems more likely, it may be thought wisest that the State should not thus enter the field of complex and technical private industry, but should rather confine itself to the storage of water and its sale to companies or individuals in condition for reliable use in the production of power at their private plants, retaining also such general supervision of all its waters as will insure the guarding of the public right in them as the sources of public supply and the means of public profit. This principle once established, the present administrative and legislative authorities of the State may pass on to the future with the conscience of high duty well performed, and others may make profitable use of the example provided.



ONE OF MANY ABANDONED MILL-DAMS THAT MIGHT BE UTILIZED IN PRODUCING ELECTRIC CURRENT.

POWER FROM THE FARM BROOK.

BY DONALD CAMERON SHAFER.

“WASTE is being eliminated from the industries of the United States,— it must soon perish from the face of the earth,” said a distinguished German commissioner after an inspection of the great industrial cities of this country. “No glaring red light illuminates the sky over the made-to-order city of Gary, Ind., such as you see in Cleveland, Pittsburg, Birmingham, and other steel cities. At Gary the hot gases from the blast furnaces are saved to run great gas engines which generate electric power to drive the steel mills, to run the street-railway system, and to light the buildings and streets. The piles of anthracite coal dust, formerly burned at the mouths of the mines in Pennsylvania and West Virginia, are now washed and the culm saved to fire furnace boilers and railway locomotives. Every bit of scrap metal, wood, and other material about the great industrial plants at Schenectady, N. Y.; Lynn and Pittsfield, Mass.; Pittsburg, Pa.; Milwaukee, Wis.; Fort Wayne, Ind., and Dayton, Ohio, is saved and turned into dollars. The greatest economy in this world is the development of the great waterfalls of America and the turning of their wasted energies into electricity for heat and light and power. The United

States has set an excellent example in this respect which foreign countries are not slow to follow.”

“It is true that waste is no longer tolerated in the industrial world,” answered the president of one of the great manufacturing companies, “and that the greatest rewards go to the men who solve the problems which increase the efficiency of our great industries by saving the waste. But the problem to conserve our great natural resources is complex and difficult. Within the next forty years the sawmills of the United States will be all but silent, and thousands of coal-cars will be standing idle and empty on the sidings, unless something is done to stop the criminal waste of the trees, which grow so slowly, and of coal, which will never grow again.”

“You admire the big motors which drag the trains of electric cars,” said Dr. Charles Proteus Steinmetz, the electrical engineer, “but, do you know, that for every horsepower that is used by one of these motors a little more than a horsepower must be generated somewhere along the line? In most cases this electrical power is generated by a steam engine. The steam engine demands great quantities of coal. When our coal is

gone, what shall we do to generate electricity? True, we use now, to some extent, the natural force of water, but we use very little of the water-power we have at our command. With the spring freshets the rivulets, creeks, lakes, and rivers are filled to overflowing, and all that power goes to waste, destroying farm land and flooding villages and cities. In time we shall have to harness every stream that has the least motion. We shall guard with large storage dams every bit of energy the water has, although a great deal of natural beauty must perish in the process.

"While we are economizing in most things and neglecting the water-power, we are shamefully wasting our great natural supply of coal and other carbon fuel," continued Dr. Steinmetz, "and as we near the end of coal, oil, and gas, the only remaining source that will keep us Northerners from freezing is the water supply. The present development of the great rivers and waterfalls of this country is only the beginning. In the near future the power of the rivulets and streams will have to be collected and used by the farmers and country villagers, where coal is costly and hard to obtain."

WHY WE MUST HARNESS THE RIVULETS AND STREAMS.

That this warning is not untimely is evidenced by the figures taken from the last census reports: In 1902, 297,157,554 long tons of coal were mined in this country, of which 36,940,710 tons were anthracite. It is estimated that close to half a billion tons were mined and consumed in the past year. Manufacturing alone consumed 173,249,666 tons in 1905, to say nothing about 150,000,000 tons used by the steam locomotives, and the millions consumed by the steamships, and to heat our homes and office-buildings.

According to the Government's geological experts, we waste 200,000,000 tons of coal every year in this country, owing to improper mining methods. Through working the lower beds of the coal first, the mining of the adjacent higher beds becomes impracticable. Again, much coal is left as pillars to support the roof of the mine. We are using what is best and cheapest, and this neglect and wastefulness will cost succeeding generations more for their coal. We leave underground almost one-half of our supply; in Vancouver, British Columbia, 98 per cent. is mined.

It is estimated that with the present extravagant and careless methods of mining

coal fully 50 per cent. of this fuel is left in the ground where it cannot be recovered. A well-known geologist has estimated that the coal-fields of Pennsylvania, at the present rate of production, will last but ninety-three years. This estimate is figured at the present rate of production, and the demand grows by leaps and bounds every year.

A stream of mineral oil running over the ground is quickly noticed and the waste immediately stopped. A coal mine afire is apparent to all, and everything is done to extinguish it. But because escaping natural gas is invisible people do not recognize and appreciate its intrinsic value. Water-power may be neglected, but it cannot be totally wasted and exhausted, for water-power will always be here so long as gravitation exists and the sun shines. It does not hurt water-power to be utilized; after the water leaves the turbines there is just as much of it as there was before. In developing water-power we are utilizing the force of gravity,—the greatest natural force,—which is pulling the water toward the center of the earth. Water-power is but the energy of the falling weight.

America is still too large, too rich in natural resources, and too young to be compelled to harness every small stream at once; but experiments have already been crystallized into practical applications. The farmers are busy to-day harnessing their small water-powers, and, as the necessity for electrical power increases, the small rivers, streams, and brooks will be made to turn countless electrical generators to light the buildings, furnish an abundance of heat, and drive the wheels of every industry.

The development of the water-power of small streams is just beginning, but the movement is general all through this and foreign countries. Nearly 75 per cent. of the 5,737,372 farms in the United States boast of a small creek or two rioting boisterously through the bushy glens and rocky ravines or singing and playing through the daisy-spangled meadows. Nearly every one of these streams is available for horsepower.

As the land loses its fertility and the population of the country increases it is necessary to introduce more careful methods of farming. In a number of countries in Europe land is so valuable and carefully cultivated that an acre is made to support a whole family. Land is so precious in Japan that it would be looked upon as criminal waste to use so much of it for fence stakes as we do

in this country. The exhausting of the soil in New England is already a serious proposition. Hundreds of wornout farms, once worth millions of dollars, are abandoned in New York State, though they formerly produced the finest wheat in the country. The cheapest and best way to revive this unproductive soil is to feed it with nitrogenous fertilizer obtained from the free air by an electrical process, already employed in Sweden and other European countries, where cheap electricity from water-power is available. When all the little streams are generating cheap electricity the farmer will have an abundance of the best fertilizer for the asking, and there need be no more exhausted land.

The farms are crying for more help, but greater still is the call from the rural districts for more power!

With power,—cheap, reliable power,—the farmer can run more labor-saving machinery and do with fewer hired hands. He can produce and harvest his crops with less cost and greater profits.

If farm products are to be kept in reach of the city workingman the farmer must have more power and a cheap fertilizer.

It was the noisy cataract that answered when the world lifted up its voice for more mechanical energy to drive the industrial wheels of the cities. Now it is the whispering meadow brook which volunteers, in its silvery, murmuring tones, to do the hard work of the country districts, to enrich the soil, and to take the place of coal. The streams which for ages sang in musical accompaniment to the Muses of poesy now dance in mechanical rhythm to the enchanted pipe of the fair goddess "Electra." To the ears of the electrical engineer Tennyson's brook now sings:

*"Engines may come and engines may go,
but I give power forever."*

And water-power is the cheapest as well as the most permanent source of energy in the world.

Just as coal energy is the heat of the sun stored for our use, even so is water-power heat energy stored in the streams, awaiting a harness and bridle to do the work of man. Every drop of water sucked up by the heat of the sun from the Seven Seas and carried by the wind-borne clouds, to be deposited in the distant mountains, is just so much stored energy to be used in racing back to the great oceans. Few and scattered are the great waterfalls giving millions of horsepower, but



PICTURESQUE SOURCE OF ELECTRIC POWER.

the land is spider-webbed with countless streams, big and little, which represent enough energy to do all the farm and industrial work in this country many times over, and leave enough energy to light every city and town and to furnish heat and light for every building. Enough water rolls past St. Louis to turn all the wheels of the United States, and it is said, upon excellent engineering authority, that enough water-power is still undeveloped in the State of Massachusetts,—where water-power is already extensively utilized,—to equal the flow of Niagara. The extent of the water-power going to waste in this country is beyond the average human comprehension and intelligence.

It is good that this is so, for we shall need it shortly!

Already the finger of progress points knowingly toward the rivers and streams for future power, and the throbbing, sibilant voice of the steam engine echoes the warning of the engineer that the coal supply is rapidly being exhausted. Then the people will have to flock to the torrid zone to keep from freezing in the winter, and the wheels of industry will stop unless all the water-power is developed and the energy turned into heat and power.

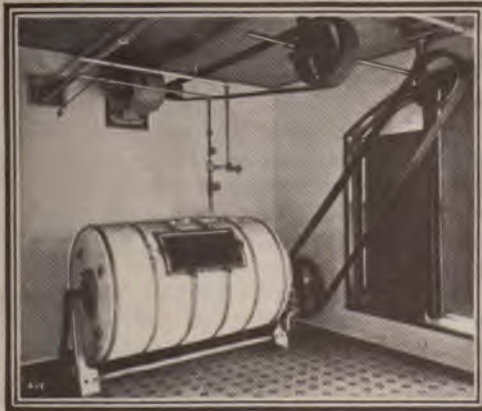
"The problems of progressive farming

have been solved by the meadow brook," said the New York State agriculturist as he lounged deep in the shade of the farmhouse porch and listened to the steady hum of the harvesting machinery. "The discouraging, never-ending hard work, which in the past has done more than any one thing to drive the boys from the farm, is no longer a grim necessity now that the little pasture streams can be turned into electrical energy to do the work of threshing, churning, separating, unloading and pressing the hay, even to milking of the cows and the turning of the hateful grindstone.

"Electricity has too long been a faithful servant whose labor could only be enjoyed by the residents of the cities and large villages, while the farmer, far removed from the central stations and electric transmission lines, had to do without. Happily, this is no longer true, and the gladsome day has arrived when we countrymen can partake of the manifold comforts of an electrically lighted home, or watch the mysterious current do the hard work, even as our city relatives, and at considerable less cost."

It speaks well for American invention and industry that the dairyman of New England and the agriculturist of the Middle West can harness the trout streams flowing through their meadows and pastures just as economically as the multi-millionaires can bridle the mighty torrents of Niagara, the outlet of Victoria-Nyanza, or the falls of Titicaca. The development of large water-powers is the greatest economy the industrial world has ever known, and the saving to the countryman in developed power from the smaller streams is just as great in proportion.

There are many reasons, which magnify



OPERATING THE FARM CHURN BY ELECTRICITY.

in importance every year, why the country resident is interested in electric power. Farm help is so very scarce, and the cost of such labor is so exorbitant, that the future of agriculture would be dark, indeed, but for the foreign emigrant and power-driven machinery. The present high price of farm produce is largely due to the fact that the farmers cannot keep pace with the demand, with the soil getting poorer and poorer each season, and the cost of farm labor increasing in alarming proportion every year. Prices for farm products are steadily advancing, notwithstanding that farming, as an industry, has made gigantic strides in the past few years, keeping equal pace with the improvements inaugurated in other occupations. Practical machines have been invented for almost every class of work about the farm, but nearly all this modern machinery requires some form of mechanical energy.

UTILIZING OLD MILL-DAMS.

A century ago the Eastern States were almost entirely covered with virgin forest. Steam power was almost unknown, and to satisfy the demands for lumber, flour, and cloth every small creek which offered sufficient natural advantages was harnessed and put to work. The sawmills clattered night and day, but made little headway against the great forests stretching far to the west. Yesterday the army of invading settlers was clearing the land as fast as the axe could lay low the giant trees and fire could burn them where they fell. To-day the forests have gone forever, and where once the great trees shaded the leaf-strewn earth now spread the broad fields of grain and meadow and orchards heavy with growing fruit. Their cruel work done, the axe and the old-fashioned sawmill are idle to-day because there are no more trees to fall. The flour and gristmills have followed the wheat to the great West. The tiny woolen-mills, where home-grown wool was carded for the farmers' wives and daughters to spin and weave into cloth, have been superseded by the electric-driven power looms located in the cities. But the decaying buildings and the old machinery remain; the former to tell over and over the story of America's wonderful progress, and the latter to afford excellent fishing and swimming places for the neighborhood youngsters.

Gone are the old "up-an-down" saws, the crude wool-carding machines, and the water-millstones,—but the water-power



MILKING COWS BY ELECTRICITY.

there. With the disappearance of the forests the water-power is considerable less, but later-day invention has produced a turbine water-wheel which operates at a saving of 60 per cent. over the wooden mill wheels. Even though the dams be isolated, the power can now be changed to electrical energy and transmitted any distance to the farms or villages.

All through the States of New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Maine, Vermont, and in numerous other States in the Union these old mill-ponds are being repaired and used to generate electrical power. A large percentage of the small villages now supplied with electricity have repaired old dams and equipped the power-house with modern machinery at a trifling cost.

THE COUNTRYMAN'S SILENT PARTNER.

Through an old pasture on the farm of Jared Van Wagenen, Jr., at Lawyersville, N. Y., runs a very little brook, its green banks fringed with cowslips and buttercups. A little more than half a mile from the house there is an old mill-dam and a decrepit sawmill, built a century ago. The sawmill is slowly following the forests it helped to deplete so long ago, but the banks of earth about the ancient dam are strengthened every year by the fibrous roots of the giant willows.

"I never heard the splash of the water over the broken apron without regretting that so much energy did nothing but make a little

noise," said Mr. Van Wagenen. "Five years ago I began to seriously figure out the problem of getting some of this energy to the house, where I could use it. On account of the distance electricity was the only form of energy which could be transmitted. Had I wanted to construct a municipal plant costing \$100,000 there would have been whole libraries of advice. But a plant of half a dozen horsepower, that must run for a week at a time without any one going near it, and be controlled from a distance, offered problems not solved in books."

This little farm plant, which works so successfully, consists of a nine-inch upright turbine of five horsepower, running with a fifteen-foot head. The dynamo, which is a three-kilowatt, or four-horsepower, machine, will take care of sixty ordinary lights; will drive a milk separator, milk the cows, turn a grindstone, fanning mill, or feed grinder; cut the ensilage, or drive a dozen other small machines. Considering the enormous variety of work which this diminutive plant is capable of doing, without any special attention, and the amount it saves, it is the perfection of industrial economy. It is capable of doing the work of three hired men, and will furnish all the comforts of electric heat and light besides at a very insignificant cost for maintenance. Mr. Van Wagenen gave the installation cost something like this: One three-kilowatt dynamo, \$130; one small turbine water-wheel, \$60; one water-wheel governor, \$75; line wire, running about 900 pounds to



A MOTOR-DRIVEN GRIST MILL IN A BARN,
(Saving the expense of buying feed.)

the half mile, \$65; other incidentals bring the cost up to about \$350. The total installation costs less than a hired man for a year.

Ten miles east of the Van Wagenen farm, near Howe's Cave, is located the home of Frank Casper. Fifteen years ago Mr. Casper purchased for \$50 a small dynamo and a quantity of electrical fixtures at a sale in Binghamton. He installed the dynamo in his sawmill and wired his own house for electricity. Every night since then this little generator has been producing a continuous current of electricity, with no further attention than an occasional oiling, to light the large country home and all the outbuildings. Through the kindness of Mr. Casper a nearby church is also illuminated, and even the streets of the tiny settlement are nightly ablaze with electric lights. The actual cost of this current is practically nothing. The dynamo and turbine paid for themselves more than a dozen years ago. Besides for lighting purposes the current is used to drive small motors and to heat the vulcanizer in the garage as well as to charge the storage battery in the automobile.

Twelve miles to the west of the Van Wagenen farm the hamlet of East Worcester, with less than 200 inhabitants, boasts all the comforts and conveniences of electricity. An ancient sawmill storage-pond has been reconstructed. The old mill was changed into a power-house, and to-day the village

has so much cheap electricity that the current is transmitted to Worcester, five miles away, and to Richmondville, seven miles away, and sold to light the streets and homes of the sister villages.

In a number of communities where there is abundant water-power and the farms are close together the farmers have joined issues and erected a mutual plant, dividing the cost of building and maintenance in proportion to the amount of electricity used. The surplus is easily transmitted and sold to more distant neighbors.

At Little Falls, N. Y., the milking at several dairies is done by electric power operating milking ma-

chines. The stables are electric lighted, and small motors do the farm work.

In the great West, where water is very scarce, a number of farmers are utilizing their windmills to generate current for light and power. A storage battery is provided to store away enough electricity to last a day or two in case the wind fails. At Noblesville, Ind., a man has constructed a plant which is a combination of both wind and water power. The fourteen-foot windmill drives a plunger pump which delivers water to a hydraulic accumulator. This water, under constant pressure of seventy-five pounds, is used to drive a one-half-horsepower turbine water-wheel direct connected to a one-quarter-horsepower dynamo. This plant develops only enough current for household purposes. In the California plains, far from other power source, even the sun is harnessed to develop electrical power for farm work. Huge reflectors follow the course of the sun and focus the rays on a boiler. The steam is conveyed to a small engine which drives the generator.

The great plantations of South America, the tiny farms of the Swiss Valley, the tea and cotton fields in India, the ranches of the African veldt, as well as the farms in the United States, are beginning to use electricity for agricultural purposes.

The number of central stations in the country supplying villages and cities with electric light is 5577. Of this number, 435

exist in towns of less than 5000 inhabitants; 1,466 are located in villages of less than 1000 inhabitants. The total output of these stations is 5,000,000,000 kilowatts a year. Besides these figures 193 towns and villages are supplied with electricity from neighboring plants.

THE PRODIGAL RETURNS WITH NEW IDEAS.

In the past fifty years a steady stream of country people has poured into the cities; now the pendulum is swinging back and the city people are flocking to the country. The city men and women bring with them their love for city comforts and, fortunately for the development of water-power, have not forgotten all their old-time hatred of farm work. Being infused with these new and advanced ideas, the country districts are making progress as never before. Telephone lines are stretching to nearly every farm all over the country. The pasture streams are being harnessed to do the farm work, blooded stock prevails, and crops are cultivated upon scientific principles. It is the young men who are doing these things,—the young men with a modern education, their minds rich with the knowledge and enthusiasm of this progressive age.

The former residents of the city grasp and understand new things better and quicker than their country neighbors. Electricity is so common to the urban householder that he gives it never a thought when he presses the button for light, heat, or power; but to the majority of the country people the strange properties of electricity are almost as much of a mystery as they were to the priests of Magi in Zoroaster's time.



PROF. CHARLES P. STEINMETZ.

(Who says that water-power will keep us from freezing and do our work when the coal supply is exhausted.)

In one of the little villages in New York State, where electric lights were being installed from a neighboring waterfall, an elderly woman was badly frightened because the electric-light wires passed her house. Her neighbors had talked of the dangers of electricity to such an extent that she was afraid of the insulated wires, which she thought contained all the power of the very lightning. Other residents of the settlement would not have their houses wired until they saw how



A TYPE OF THE ELECTRIC PLOW USED IN GERMANY.

harmless the lights are in the homes of their friends. As a matter of fact, there is not the slightest danger of being seriously hurt by a 110-volt, or ordinary lighting, circuit.

CITY COMFORTS IN THE COUNTRY VILLAGES.

The haven of rest for the farmer seems to be a snug little cottage in some rural village where the taverns and stores are always open, where the shade is deep and cool in summer, the sun warm and pleasant in fall and spring, and the nights are quiet withal. Nine-tenths of the population of such country villages, up to a thousand people, and over, is made up of retired farmers and their families. These residents have money enough to be free from care and they want to enjoy all the comforts of life. Fortunately, these little villages are nearly always located in the midst of a wealth of natural resources. The spring water of the hills is confined in a small lake and piped to the village to be distributed at a trifling cost to the various houses and to offer the very best fire protection. These municipal water systems depend upon gravity for the pressure, and cost nothing to run except for occasional repairs. In nearly every instance the introduction of the water system is followed by sewers, either installed by the village, if it is incorporated, or by individuals. The telephones leading out to the various farms are centered

in the villages. The next improvement is to install electric lights. Frequently the electric apparatus is purchased by some mill owner who finds himself with plenty of cheap water-power on hand and very little mill work for it to do. Or, in these days of reinforced concrete, dams are easily and cheaply constructed. Where the fall is only about six feet a dam of the "flow" type is erected, and if the fall is as great as forty-five feet the smallest turbines are sufficient. The greater the fall the less water required for a given horsepower. Once the dam is ready the generator is installed, direct connected to a modern turbine water-wheel, and lo! the tiny settlement is soon ablaze with electric light and vibrant with electric power.

Good roads, good water, and plenty of cheap electricity for the interurban trolley, the electric lights and the motors, combined with a wealth of pure air and fresh food, make the country an ideal place in which to live. The suburban areas about every city are creeping further and further into the rural districts. Each day the countryman becomes more citified as he rubs shoulders with his urban neighbor, and the things which once were thought extravagant luxuries for the wealthy city people are now deemed proper necessities to be enjoyed by all.

Such are the magical changes brought to the country by electricity in the past fifteen years.



THE SEVEN-HORSEPOWER
DYNAMO.

A SMALL WATER-POWER DEVELOPMENT NEAR
ASHEVILLE, N. C.

METHOD OF CON
FROM HOUSE



SALVATION ARMY COLONISTS EMBARKING AT LIVERPOOL FOR CANADA.

THE SALVATION ARMY AND ENGLAND'S UNEMPLOYED.

BY AGNES C. LAUT.

A SUDDEN squall on Saskatchewan River drove our canoe in on the north shore for shelter at what looked like a half-breed's rahch-house. For fifty miles above there had not been a sign of life or settlement. For twenty-five miles below,—we afterward found,—there was not a neighbor. The nearest railroad must have been at least forty-five miles away. As we scrambled up the muddy river banks and crossed the barnyard toward a mud-wattled log house, with staring blindless windows on each side the central door, we were perfectly confident this was the domicile of some Indian or half-breed rancher come so far afield to have free pasturage. The yowl of mongrel dogs that greeted us strengthened this expectation; but when the door opened, there stood no swarthy native! At this very Back of Beyond, under as adverse circumstances as you can imagine for a tenderfoot, the door opened on a typical English factory hand. I might

almost say, on a type of generations of factory workers, warped in body, dwarfed of brawn and brain, with the spindly limbs and bulging forehead that come from only one thing,—years of emaciation, of under-pay, and poor food, and, sometimes, no food at all.

Inside the house was one single big room, down the center of which ran a home-made table covered with the cluttered food and dishes of a week's bachelordom piled up for Sunday cleaning. There was a stove and there were a few chairs. Of beds, none was visible; only a pile of rugs to be used on the floor for the night.

The boy who opened the door was one of half a dozen brothers who came out from England four years ago, when the great agitation of the unemployed first began to be so serious in all parts of the British Isles. They had come so far afield in order that they might homestead adjoining quarter-sections and might all live in one house. When they



A TYPICAL ENGLISH FAMILY BOUND FOR CANADA.

arrived they had less than \$1000 all told,—that is, the capital of each represented barely \$150. They had belonged to that great and increasing class of people in England,—unskilled laborers,—whose savings can never under any possible circumstances exceed a few hundred dollars, and who constantly live on the ragged edge of the Great Abyss, for the simple reason that any temporary stoppage of work will topple them over the edge into destitution. They had been of the class which,—Canadian labor unions declare,—ought never to be allowed to enter the Dominion, because they can never make good and only cut the wages of skilled labor below the living standard. They were exactly representative of the class whom Canadian charity organizations protest against admitting to Canada, because out of work during winter in Canada means death, or support at some one else's expense.

Yet this family of English boys has negated every prediction regarding their class. They have not crowded to the already over-

crowded cities. They have not entered into competition with artisan labor, and have not cut wages to a sweatshop basis. They have not added to the winter's unemployed, and they have not fallen back on charity for support. They have made good. Each boy owns 160 acres of land worth on the market \$10 an acre,—that is, each boy is worth \$1600 in place of the \$150 with which he came to Canada; and altogether they have, besides their farms, fifty-five head of cattle and some twenty horses,—another \$4000 all told. To be sure, they have not yet furnished their house; but you must remember that four years ago the unemployed of England had neither furnishings nor fuel, nor for that matter, as I saw them march the streets of London, could very many of them boast the possession of shirts. Old newspapers tucked under closely buttoned coats did duty for underwear, though the lack of socks inside tattered boots could not be hidden. And while these boys were still in the bare state of the newcomer who will not go in debt, they had a vegetable garden of ten acres that was more absolute security against want than all the free soup kitchens in London.

Face the facts of the case squarely! Four years ago these lads had only \$150 each between them and pauperism. To-day they are secure against want. Four years ago they belonged to the class that whines round you in the streets of the old country cities with pusillanimous plea for dole because of women and children whom they ought never to have had. To-day they presented us with vegetables from their garden, for which they refused to take pay. The change represents more than a transition. It is a new birth



PEOPLE WHO MAKE UP THE AVERAGE SALVATION-ARMY



GROUP OF CHILDREN OF THE TISDALE COLONY.

birth to manhood and freedom and independence and security.

THE UNEMPLOYED IN LONDON.

Go back four years! It is a November day in the streets of London. Night is settling down with a drizzle of brown fog and sleety rain. There has been a procession of 10,000 unemployed through the city this day, not of unemployable men, but of able-bodied men willing to work; so madly keen to obtain work that they trample one another for the chance of it at the dock gates, at the factory doors; men who cannot get work and whose families are dying for lack of work. And these 10,000 unemployed do not represent a fraction of all the unemployed in Great Britain. The marchers disperse, not to homes,—they have none,—but to haunts. Here, on the King's Way as the carriages whisk through the fog to theater and restaurant, gathers a line of one, two, three thousand men, shivering and shifting and waiting patiently ten hours at a stretch,—for what? For a single bowl of soup! Down on the Thames Embankment are women and young girls, as well as men, huddling on the iron

seats, sleeping against one another for warmth, surreptitiously stealing covering from the chill fog by drawing shawl or flap of the next neighbor's tattered rags across shoulders and knees. And during these times of great distress, when everybody is talking of the unemployed, the policemen have a habit of keeping close to the river-side of the broad highway, for the desperate people, who *may not work, must not* suicide. Or go down to Whitechapel near one of the Salvation Army shelters! As the night deepens the crowd of huddling old women outside becomes more vociferous, pushing and clamoring for entrance; but the door is shut. The shelter is filled to overflowing, and the weary, ragged forms outside,—one can hardly call them human beings made in the image of a God,—sink to the wet pavement, drawing shawls and skirts over shoulders to pass the night in a sleep stupor, nodding and muttering and moaning to wake with a start and sink again to a horror worse than any nightmare imagined by fiction. Or go inside the shelter! These hatless women with the rasping coughs and fierce hungry eyes are not unfit, are not derelicts, are not paupers!



A SETTLER'S HOUSE AT TISDALE.

They are people desperate for work, though £16,000,000 is annually spent in Great Britain to relieve distress.

That was four years ago. To-day the distress is manifoldly worse. It is utterly beyond the tinkering methods of individual charities. *There are to-day seven million people in Great Britain in actual want from lack of work.* The thing is appalling. The mind cannot grasp it.

THE SALVATION ARMY COLONIZATION WORK.

There, then, are the two pictures, the poor in the old land and the poor in the new land. Comment is unnecessary! Since 1906, when the unemployed assumed such tragic importance in England, the Salvation Army has brought to Canada more than 50,000 people; at last enumeration, close on 55,000 people. There is room for 50,000,000. Look at the figures and take in what they mean. I am dealing with facts. *Of those 50,000 Salvation Army colonists less than 1 per cent. has failed to make good!* Is there a single other class of immigrants of whom as much may be said?

The Salvation Army immigration work has been systematized to a degree. In a winter, twelve, twenty, as many as eighty thousand applicants in hard years, apply to the army for aid to emigrate. Out of these the army, with its thousands of records on file, weeds the unfits, physically and mentally, the vicious, the paupers. I confess after seeing how vicious a vicious English pauper can be, I do not wish he could be transferred to Canada, but I wish *one* Canadian winter

could be transferred to him where there are no soup kitchens. He would not then live and perpetuate his species. This may sound brutal, but when you have struggled to raise such people only to prove they cannot be raised with a derrick and do not want to be raised, there does not seem to be any valid reason why they should be allowed to prey on the public. "Only the grace of God can do anything with those old country people who have been pauperized by years of vice and free charity," said Margaret Scott, of Winnipeg, who may best be described as the Jane Addams of the Northwest. Where no records are on file with the army, special officers are detailed to look up the man's or the family's past. Men and women with black marks against their past are not sent as colonists. If the applicant has a little money, then the army colonization department will advise, report on land, investigate every offer of land or work, and protect the tenderfoot from sharks moral and financial. Passage is booked on ship for the emigrant, or the emigrant goes on the army's own chartered ships. Special trains are reserved from London to Liverpool. Breakfast awaits the emigrant there. Army officers accompany the ship. Meals are ready on the Canadian side of the ocean. Officers accompany the army trains westward and conduct the newcomers to their new home whether on land or in lumber woods; and the last words are: "*Expect hard work.*" No rosey-hued pictures of easy success are used to lure the colonist. Here is the card which General Booth presents to each emigrant on the army's chartered ships.

*God carry you safely to your new home
Fearlessly calculate upon hard work. Bravely
meet difficulties. Do your duty by your families.
Help your comrades. Make Canada
home that will be a credit to the old land. In
God first. Stand by the army. Save your soul.
Meet me in Heaven!*

If the applicant has a family or dependents, then either the applicant or the dependents must guarantee the support of the dependents during the colonist's absence and the preparation of the new home. Special care is taken of all young girls emigrating under the auspices of the army. The army encourages the settling of Salvation Army colonists in solid groups as likely to prevent the growth of independence and the native feeling of the newcomer; but every army colonist is kept in touch with his officers, and it is impossible to exaggerate the need of

dom of this. Harrowing cases are continually coming to light in Canada of unfit and friendless colonists brought out by charitable organizations, who take no more care of their wards after bringing them to port. What the danger is to a young and friendless girl need not be told here, and, unfortunately, Canada's laws are slack to the point of barbarity in just this respect.

If the applicant to the army is absolutely without money, but otherwise blameless and worthy, then one of two courses is followed: The Unemployed Workmen's act authorizes municipal authorities to aid the unemployed in emigrating. If this cannot be done, owing to short term of residence in a county, then the army advances a loan for passage and expenses till the colonist becomes established. When I said that less than 1 per cent. of the 50,000 had failed to make good, I meant that less than 1 per cent. had failed to return the loan.

One cannot but wonder if half the £16,000,000 annually spent to relieve the distress of poverty in England were applied to such systematized colonization whether there would be any unemployed question at the end of five years; for if there is one thing more than another that modern investigation has proved it is that while charity may be cheaper than justice, the necessity for charity is in the long run the most wasteful extravagance any nation can have.

A COLONIST'S EXPLANATION.

"Why," I asked the youngest of the family of boys on the Upper River, "why do so many Englishmen fail in Canada?"

"The free soup kitchens in the old country spoil them," he answered. "The free soup kitchens and the labor union hours. A fellow can't succeed in a new country on labor union hours. He has got to work harder when he's his own boss, work till his job is finished, and he has to finish quick in these short seasons or he will be out of hay and lose his stock, or he won't get enough potatoes in in spring to save buying food in winter. You see," he repeated, "it's the



THE NEWCOMERS' HOTEL AT TORONTO.

(Property of the Ontario Government; furnished and managed by the Salvation Army for the accommodation of emigrants.)

free soup kitchens. They get a man in the way of not depending on himself. Then, when he has work, he spends his wages foolishly, in the grog-shop, and doesn't look ahead. When he comes out here there are not any soup kitchens; and if he does not look out for himself he can't get on. He drifts away from the land to town, where there's help; and then he goes back to England and curses the country."

"Perhaps lonely," I suggested.

"Lonely! There's no time to be lonely out here. . . ."

Warped of body this young fellow was from long emaciation in his past somewhere; but warped of body he will not be in the next generation. The whole mental tone of the resentful whining typical out-of-work had already changed to sturdy, alert, hard-working independence. Farther down the river we came on another colonist, not a Salvationist, but one of the English Church movement. She, too, showed the same signs of an emaciated ancestry; but the next generation of her is no pauper type. Such rubber-ball bits of bouncing health-glow as her children you could seldom see. Ten years have worked the transformation.

Thousands of examples could be given of Salvation Army colonists making good in Canada, but nearly all may be epitomized thus: "Family found in London absolutely destitute in 1906 or thereabouts; now on land worth from \$800 to \$3000; debt to the army all paid or being paid; children in sit-

uations or at school;" but this brief epitome tells nothing of the transition from physical and mental anguish to physical and mental well-being,—of the change from homeless wanderings in the clammy city fog, amid the multitudinous roar of a life pitiless as the God Moloch, to absolute security from want beside the red glow of one's own hearth fire, where the God preached by Christianity does not seem so far away.

Sometimes the newcomer is sent to the railroad camp; sometimes to the lumber gangs; often, very often, to learn the methods of the new country by hiring with a Canadian farmer; but always the aim of the army is to put the man on his own land, beside his own inglenook, free of debt. When the colonist has no money, he is, of course, conducted to the free land areas, where the \$10 registration fees and three years of homestead duties secure him title to 160 acres. When he has a little money, land can be bought at from \$5 to \$10 an acre; but nearly all the Salvation-Army colonists have

been taken to the free land and helped to choose good areas. Many colonists have settled in slightly wooded sections, where they can build their first house without cost. Hiring out with farmers in summer, with lumber gangs in winter,—tides past the first year and raises money to buy stock and implements. Wages paid run from \$20 to \$40 a month with board; so that the beginning of the second year usually sees the colonist with a team of horses, a couple of cows, and sufficient seed to begin farming for himself. Big wheat farms require too much capital for a beginner; so that nearly all the army immigrants are engaged in mixed farming, which is less chancey and always insures a living spite of frost or drought. Once the man is established in his own place work and soil will do the rest, banishing forever the hungry-eyed spectre,—Anxious Fright. So far, no Salvation-Army colonists have fallen back failures on the community for support. Whether they will continue to make good,—only time will tell.



IN A LUMBER CAMP ON THE UPPER OTTAWA, WHERE ARMY COLONISTS FIND WORK.

THE NEW CAMPAIGN FOR CIVIC BETTERMENT.

THE PITTSBURG SURVEY OF SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS.

BY PAUL U. KELLOGG.

(Director of the Survey.)

MUSEUM-GOERS, to the tire of their necks and the quickening of their mental faculties, have for generations marched about plaster reproductions of the Coliseum or the glorious hill of Athens. These casts have brought back to Londoners, New Yorkers, and Chicagoans,—wherever the museum idea struck root,—the art and amplexness of form into which the spirit of empire and of city-state were crystallized. During the past month one American city has reversed this process. It has held an exhibit which has presented a rigorous cross section of the civic standards the community has thus far attained. It has put itself before itself and looked at itself fearlessly and without fooling. That city is Pittsburg.

PITTSBURG'S SELF-REVELATION.

On November 16 last, Pittsburg threw open the doors of its most beautiful building,—Carnegie Institute,—to the unflattering confessional of photographic lens and death-rate chart. In rooms above the halls of architecture, with their gods from the gables of the Parthenon, façades and arches of the Renaissance, it showed the worst barracks in the city,—Tammany Hall and Yellow Row (which have been torn down through the instrumentality of the Bureau of Health),—and hundreds of other shacks and lodgings which must go. The frescoed corridor, where Mr. Alexander's heroic paintings have spiritualized the steel mill and industrial progress, led up to a hall where there was a frieze 250 feet long, of little, crude silhouettes done with a stencil on cambric. They stood, each one, for a man, woman, or child who died last year in Pittsburg of typhoid fever, and there was a sign which indicated that a jury of sanitarians would hold the municipality responsible for seven-ninths of these deaths. They were needless. You could go from the archeological galleries, where the bones of the diplococcus and other prehistoric mammals were displayed,—relics leading back to the geolog-

ical eras when Pittsburg's coal-fields were in the making,—to another gallery where a great death calendar showed by grim red crosses the workmen killed in Allegheny County in the course of industry in one year. The exhibits were not all iconoclastic. Many were constructive. There were pictures of the huge filter-beds of the five-and-a-half-million dollar filtration plant which the city is throwing into operation in its spirited fight for clean water; there were charts showing the reduction in typhoid fever from 593 cases in October, 1907, to 96 cases in October, 1908, and this after an epidemic of thirty-five years' standing. The house plans and general layout of some of the model mill towns which were shown set new standards for industrial districts.

There is art in the lines and symmetry and weathered mellowness of a battered Doric column. And just so there was inspiration and a sense of the forward drive of America in this imperfect, half-developed, life-reckless, struggling image of itself which this town looked out upon. Admittedly there was less of cultural grace in this civic exhibit than in the classic plasters of the customary museum. But of the quickening new breadth of vision which grew out of the exhibit (the tired necks mounted up into the tens of thousands) there were many evidences. Civic reform became good copy for the newspapers. The Engineering Society of Western Pennsylvania endeavored to round up its full membership in attendance; here was new work for the craft. Bishop Canevin came for fifteen minutes, stayed for two hours and a half, and sent out a ringing message to his people to attend. City councils, boards of trade, civic clubs, had separate evenings. Labor leaders went back to their locals and urged a grand turnout on a Sunday; and heading the work up, a civic improvement commission was announced by the Mayor, representative in membership and, perhaps, broader in scope than any hitherto commissioned in an American city.

AN ERA OF CIVIC REFORM.

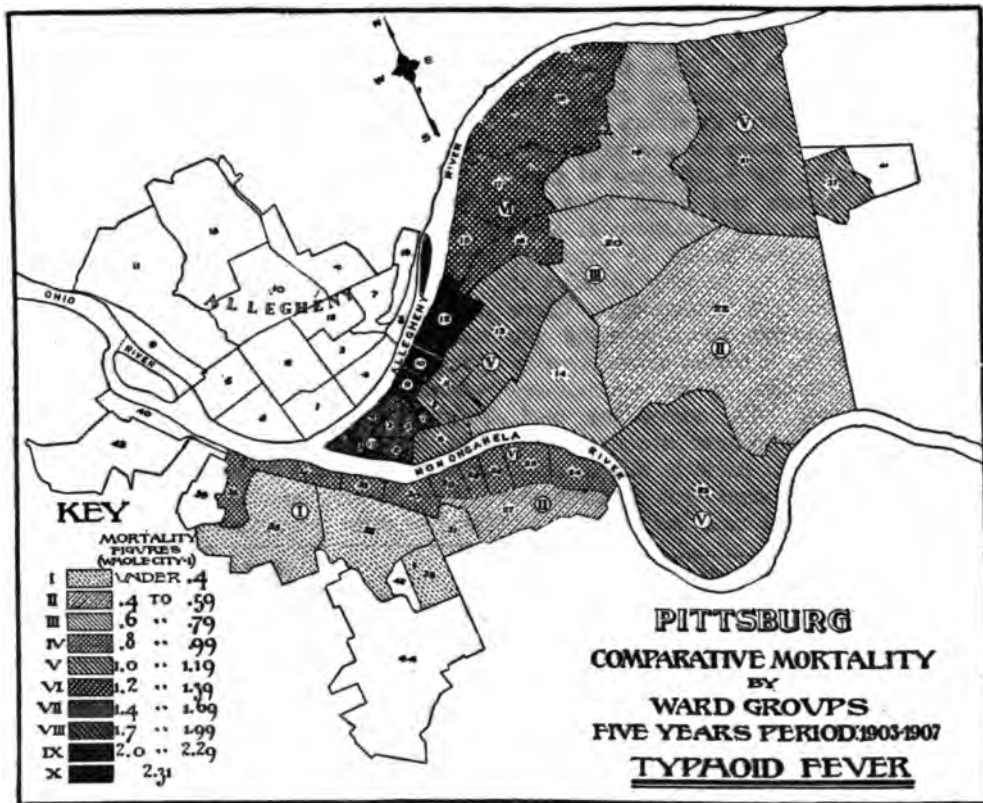
The occasion of the Pittsburg Civic Exhibit was the joint convention in that city of the National Municipal League and the American Civic Association, which brought civic leaders and representatives of municipalities to Pittsburg from all parts of the country. A combination of events in the civic history of the city gave it special significance. In 1906 George W. Guthrie, a Democrat, was elected on an independent ticket as Mayor of Pittsburg; and for three years Pittsburg has had a reform administration comparable in many respects to the Low régime in New York, one which has brought relief and retrenchment after years of factional fighting within the Republican machine. In December, 1907, by a decision of the Supreme Court, Allegheny City was finally merged with Pittsburg, and the greater city now takes rank with Boston, St. Louis, Baltimore. Early in the fall the city celebrated its one hundred and fiftieth anniversary, and a street pageant stirred local pride and loyalty in its interpretation of the stages of progress from the blockhouse days of Washington's youth to Pittsburg's present leadership as a great industrial capital. The Civic Exhibit came, then, at a time when aggressive movements were asserting themselves in Pittsburg for the advancement of civic well-being, and to this end the city is in position to draw upon the body of facts collected throughout the past year and a half by what has been known as the Pittsburg Survey. This Survey is affording Pittsburg a first-hand inventory of civic and living conditions.

A NATIONAL REFORMATORY AGENCY.

The exhibit as a method for social reform is a modern invention. Perhaps the first compelling example of it in this country was the Tenement House Exhibit, which was opened by Governor Roosevelt in 1900 in New York, and through which the Tenement House Committee of the New York Charity Organization Society inaugurated the campaign which resulted in the creation of that new piece of municipal machinery, the Tenement-House Department. Baltimore had the first of the tuberculosis exhibits in this country, which have developed so surprisingly into a series of traveling exhibits and into the great international show which has been exhibited during the past few months in Washington and in New York.

Baltimore has had also a remarkable clean-milk show; and sweated-industries exhibits have been held in Philadelphia, Chicago, and Boston. The Congestion Show in New York last spring gave graphic representation to another vital phase of the municipal problem, as did the Taxpayers' Exhibit in mid-fall in New York, which held departmental and borough budgets up to critical analyses. It will be seen that all of these exhibits had to do each with a special problem or need. It has been the distinction of the Pittsburg exhibit that it has been rather a reflection of many phases of the city's status and thus enabled the ordinary citizen to see the town as a whole. The national significance of this type of exhibit was immediately recognized. The American Civic Association passed resolutions urging that it be taken to other of the industrial cities; and requests have come in from Detroit, Chicago, and Cleveland. The Bureau of Health and Filtration, the Tuberculosis League, the Juvenile Court, the Civic Club, the Playground Association, Kingsley House, the new Associated Charities, the Architectural Club, and the Pittsburg chapter of the American Institute of Architects are some of the organizations which put forward the needs of the city as they see them.

More, the Pittsburg exhibit was made the means of focalizing upon one town the facts and preachments of several of the important movements to which I have already made reference. It was carried out under a Citizens' Reception and Entertainment Committee, of which Oliver McClintock, a business man of standing, was the head, but was organized under the direction of Benjamin C. Marsh, secretary of the Committee on Congestion of Population of New York. Point was given to the elaborate exhibit transferred by this committee to Pittsburg by maps showing those city blocks which have been built up solidly, comparable to the lower end of Manhattan. Charts and placards showed the meaning of the town-planning bill now before the British Parliament, and there were maps illustrating the activities of the Continental cities along these lines. Similarly, a large section of the New York Taxpayers' Exhibit was transferred to Carnegie Institute, by the Bureau of Municipal Research, and it is announced that hereafter, instead of lump-sum estimates, Pittsburg departmental chiefs will itemize their figures. Again, the New York City Club exhibit of traction was installed by John P.



Fox, together with his notable private collection from European sources. This attracted noteworthy attention in connection with the present involved transit situation in Pittsburgh.

UNIQUE METHODS OF THE SURVEY.

The central hall was given over to the exhibit of the Pittsburgh Survey, which comprised seventeen sections and was organized by Frank E. Wing, associate director. The working plan of the Survey as a piece of interstate co-operation is, itself, interesting and the first of its kind for an American city. It has been called the Pittsburgh Survey, not because its findings apply solely to Pittsburgh, but because the Pennsylvania steel district has been the laboratory where the work has been done. The responsible organization initiating and carrying out the plan has been the Charities Publication Committee, a non-commercial board, which publishes *Charities and The Commons*, and is a constituent committee of the New York Charity Organization Society. The work has been financed by appropriations from the Russell Sage Foundation for the Improvement of

Living Conditions. The undertaking has enlisted the co-operation of some of the foremost national leaders, East and West, in sanitary and civic work. A group of these experts were brought into Pittsburgh in September, 1907, and made a quick diagnosis of the situation, on the basis of which a series of investigations was prosecuted throughout the year.*

The exhibit offered an opportunity for bringing out in their local bearings certain suggestive lines of inquiry. The Survey had the advantage, on the one hand, of being an independent impartial student of the situation; and on the other, of enlisting co-operation from settlement workers, sanitary inspectors, school teachers, probation officers, physicians, lawyers, claim agents, employers, and labor leaders. A series of large-size wall maps showed the physical problem underlying Pittsburgh, administrative areas, and social institutions. Charts and diagrams analyzed the make-up of the wage-earning population and the sources of the immigrant labor

* The first publication of the reports will be in three special numbers of *Charities and The Commons*, and, later, in a series of volumes issued by the Russell Sage Foundation.

force, and there were a group of remarkable drawings in charcoal by Joseph Stella, and photographs by Lewis W. Hine, illustrating types of workers. By systems of cross hatchings, the spread of new dwellings over the urban district was shown on one hand; and on the other hand, the localization of those wards where disease and death rates are highest, and where that undertow of morbidity must be checked before the Pittsburg case rates get down to the level of cities of corresponding size and importance. There was a section on water, which gave the cost of typhoid fever for a period of one year to workingmen's families in six wards,—expenses for doctors' bills, nurses, ice, food, medicines, funerals, the most intensive analysis of disease costs yet made in this country. The total for 448 cases was \$59,262.50. There were over 5000 cases last year.

TYPHOID FEVER

Is a preventable disease

Known by modern science to depend for its very existence upon lax methods of handling food, drink and waste.

THE PITTSBURG SURVEY

Has made a concrete study of the cost of TYPHOID FEVER in six typical wards (8, 11, 21, 25, and 26), for a period of one year, July 1, 1906, to July 1, 1907.

The results given below are for 448 cases, which the investigator was able to locate, out of 1,029 cases reported for the given period.

The loss in Wages and Expenses for these 448 cases was as follows:

Loss in wages.....	\$28,899.65
Hospital expenses.....	4,166.50
Doctors' bills.....	12,899.00
Cost of nurses.....	1,965.50
Medicines and drugs.....	2,640.60
Milk.....	1,810.10
Ice.....	629.20
Servants (extra).....	861.50
Other expenses.....	1,204.45
Funeral expenses (twenty-six deaths).....	3,186.00
Total.....	\$59,262.50

Average cost in loss of wages and expenses for each typhoid patient....	\$130.00
Average expenses and loss in wages for each typhoid death.....	\$2,240.00

The death calendar for industry in Allegheny County, with its 526 red crosses for one year, raised two groups of questions.

One placard read:

CAN PITTSBURG CUT DOWN ITS INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS?

526 men were KILLED at work in Allegheny County in 12 months.

Pittsburg has stamped out SMALLPOX. Its physicians are fighting TUBERCULOSIS. The municipality is checking TYPHOID. Cannot engineers, employers, foremen, and workers get together in a systematic campaign to reduce accidents?

And another made these significant statements:

51 per cent. of those killed were married men with families to support.
30 per cent. of those killed were single men partly or wholly supporting a family.
What takes the place of the wages of these breadwinners?
What resources of their own have these families to fall back on?
What share of the loss is shouldered by the employer?

A neighboring section was given up to conditions among the 611 women and girls who make "stogies" in Pittsburg, one of the group of industries employing wage-earning women. A column of photographs showed strippers working in damp, unventilated cellars, families sleeping and working in the same rooms, and a typical sweatshop interior. The housing exhibit was twofold, indicated by these two placards:

WANTED

A STATE LAW TO EMPOWER the Bureau of Health to CONDEMN and VACATE Unsanitary Dwellings.

WANTED

PITTSBURG MONEY to go into hundreds of LOW-COST MODERN HOMES for Pittsburg's Workers.

A further section interpreted the need for more and better housing in the mill towns. The provision of shelter in the steel district has broken down, so far as the immigrant working population is concerned. These three placards put the pith of the matter:

HOMESTEAD

Has no ordinance against overcrowding. In 21 courts the Pittsburg Survey found 1,308 persons living in 595 rooms.

Of 239 families, 51 lived in one-room tenements. 157 lived in tenements with an average of three or more persons to a room.

HOMESTEAD

Has no ordinance prohibiting privy vaults. No ordinance requiring an adequate water supply. 26 PRIVY VAULTS WITH 144 COMPARTMENTS.

In twenty-one courts the Pittsburg Survey found The SOLE toilet accommodations for 1,308 people. Only three tenements with running water in them. An average of fifty people to each yard hydrant or pump.

IF THE PITTSBURG DISTRICT

Swells in Population In the next ten years as it has in the past ten. **WHAT WILL BE THE RESULT?**

A series of sections showed housing plans and specifications of the Co-partnership Tenants, Limited, England, the Bourneville

Trust and the Krupp Company, Essen; not with the idea of comparing the most progressive housing work in the old country with the worst American conditions, but with the idea of drawing upon the experience of the world for suggestions in meeting the housing needs created by the razing of old shacks and the swelling of the populations of our industrial districts. The spirit of the Survey in this field and the general movement for the improvement of living conditions were put forward at the opening session of the conventions by Grosvenor Atterbury, architect of the Phipps Tenements, and by Robert W. de Forest, chairman of Charities Publication Committee, vice-president of the Sage Foundation, and former Tenement House Commissioner of New York.

There were those, of course, who were afraid such a civic exhibit would give the city a black eye. If Pittsburg were singled out and held up to view, it would hurt business and manufacturers would keep away. The reverse has proved to be the case, so far as can be judged by the developments of the past month. The delegates from all parts of the country in attendance at the Civic meetings recognized scenes and facts only too familiar in their own cities. But they recognized also that here was a city that was not afraid to face them, that was ridding itself of the most serious health drain (typhoid fever) upon any American city, was making a tenement-house census, and was proposing big, broad-gauge measures to provide an adequate, sanitary supply of shelter for the great industrial forces drawn into its river valleys. Here was not a city lying down, but a city aggressive, informing itself, purposeful.

There is no better way of gauging this attitude than in some of the editorial utterances of the local press. The *Pittsburg Sun* took to task a contemporary which had responded to certain criticisms with the assertion that "We get there just the same." Said the *Sun*:

It is more comfortable to the body politic to rest in the fool's paradise of assurance than it is "getting somewhere" that seems to be desirable. It is better, however, if more disquieting, for this body to know that there are serious morbid conditions in it which must be remedied even at the cost of some pain and effort in order that what is achieved in material ways may bless us and become permanent.

On ways ahead, the *Pittsburg Gazette-Times* had this to say:

Only by organized effort, the effort of so-called utilitarians directed into beneficent chan-

nels, but spurred by the same restless and determined spirit which animates these men in their private business, can Pittsburg come to be such a community of comfort and contentment as its place in the world demands.

But perhaps the most formidable assurance of Pittsburg's approach to the future lies in the prompt action of Mayor Guthrie in appointing the Pittsburg Civic Improvement Commission, and the known utterances and accomplishment of the man at the head of it, Mr. English, who in his three years' presidency of the Pittsburg Chamber of Commerce, gave new scope and meaning to the function of that body of business men.

At some future date Pittsburg may well have another civic exhibit, when the line of typhoid silhouettes has been further reduced,—perhaps to the zero point,—when the civic framework of Pittsburg has been as radically improved, as its waterways will be improved when the full series of dams of the Allegheny and Monongahela are completed, when the anti-smoke campaign has been so far successful that the museum directors will no longer have to scrub and whiten their architectural models, and when there will not be so much rank truth in the analogy of the economist who compares the torsos of the Greek deities to the maimed or disproportioned bodies of too many modern factory workers; and when Mr. Carnegie,—who knows?—instead of presenting foreign nations with huge replicas of the skeleton of the diplodocus, may send out a new physical norm for the *genus homo*, specie American steel-worker, scored not only as to tonnage and output efficiency, but as to length of effective trade life; and ask the world to beat it.

With Pittsburg on the march in a civic sense, other American cities may have to look out for their laurels. The point has not been better put than in an address at the opening of these civic meetings by Robert A. Woods, of South End House, Boston, himself an old Pittsburger and a collaborator in the Pittsburg Survey. He said:

We all remember how Chicago, on account of some of the crude moral by-products of its growth, came to be an object of scorn from many sources at home and abroad. By creating the World's Fair and by the exceptionally intelligent organization of civic and social betterment, Chicago has compelled the respect of the country and the world. Pittsburg succeeded Chicago as the chosen example of the cynics; Pittsburg is substantially taking to heart these large plans for associated and public enterprises through which alone, as all the world is finding, a twentieth century city's prosperity goes hand in hand with its honor.

THE TARIFF, ITS REVISERS, AND THE TRUSTS.

BY HERBERT E. MILES.

[Mr. Miles has recently appeared before the Ways and Means Committee at Washington in behalf of the independent manufacturers and the consumers. Mr. Miles is a manufacturer of farming implements, wagons, and carriages.—THE EDITOR.]

NO good business can permanently endure unless it is conducted systematically and based upon principles of equity and common sense. The tariff is the greatest business proposition that ever comes before the American people. It is all inclusive, vitally affecting every industry, its progress or retrogression, the cost of living, the volume and nature of international trade, and all other material interests of our 90,000,000 people. And what might I not say as to moral effects.

In these days of infinite complexities a man does well if he knows his own business thoroughly. It is ridiculous, therefore, to expect the consumer to advise intelligently on tariff rates. It is as impossible for some fifteen Congressmen constituting a Ways and Means Committee to take up a tariff once in a dozen years and learn much about it in a hasty and cursory examination. The House of Representatives is a rapidly changing body. No Ways and Means Committee since the Civil War has contained any number of men who had had any previous experience in tariff-making. Each committee was new to its task. A tariff bill is made by the majority members of the Ways and Means Committee, the minority being excused from attendance while the work is in progress. Mr. McKinley himself was the only man of the majority members of the Ways and Means Committee which framed the McKinley bill who had had previous experience.

So of the Wilson bill, there were only three members of the majority who had had previous experience, and that as minority members on the McKinley committee, where, as stated, they had too great consideration for the majority even to be present when the work was done. These three men, with others wholly inexperienced, made the Wilson bill. There were of the minority members of the Wilson committee five Republicans of previous experience, whose experi-

ence, however, was neither desired nor made use of.

This so-called free-trade measure gave its first protection to the Standard Oil Company. A friend of mine asked Mr. H. H. Rogers, manager of the Standard Oil Company, how he got that tariff. Mr. Rogers answered by putting his head back and laughing. No better comment was possible. This so-called "free-trade" Wilson law put tariff upon sugar, which caused sugar stocks to go up ten points in forty-eight hours. A Senator from Louisiana exposed a sugar man who offered him \$30,000 in money at that time. "Bought, bought, bought," said President Cleveland.

The Dingley committee had among its majority members only four men, Messrs. Dingley, Payne, Dalzell, and Hopkins, a newspaper editor, and three attorneys, and Mr. McMillan, of the minority, with previous experience. That men so inexperienced should have hastily made a tariff for this nation was worse than a blunder,—it was a crime. They only made a great, blind jab at the task. They began wrong by taking classifications more than a generation old, inapplicable to our time, having neither knowledge nor time to consider that important phase of the subject adequately. Consequently, we have had 30,000 lawsuits on classifications alone, nine-tenths of which might have been avoided. They put together in one classification, for instance, buttons, stoves, electric fans, revolvers, nails, dress trimmings, railway cars, enameled portraits, "cannon for war, and crosses for churches." With the enactment of this law the United States Congress went into the trust-making business up to its eyes. It was controlled by no guiding principles, no rule of measurement. Rates were doled out like liquor at a revel.

Congress, in its refusal to establish the machinery necessary to the securing and collation of exact and underlying information

in the making of the coming tariff, rests only upon a bullheaded insistence upon ancient habit, and back of this insistence is seen the ugly visages of trusts, a great part of whose revenues comes from the excesses of loosely made tariffs.

The present Ways and Means Committee has upon it only two men who have had previous experience in tariff-making,—Chairman Payne and Mr. Dalzell.

Contrast the probabilities of their accomplishment with what was done in Germany: There a body of twenty experts worked five years in the preparation of the German tariff, consulting in that time 2000 other experts. Their inquiry was exhaustive, non-partisan, semi-judicial. "No proof, no protection," was their requirement. The nicest possible balance was made between all interests, domestic and foreign. The report of this commission was held up by the German Reichstag many months, for there, as here, the right to make a tariff rests with the legislative body, the commission acting only as the servant of that body. In the end, however, the legislature made only one change of consequence in the bill as recommended by the commission. The Agrarians gave it an unfair twist to their benefit and in so far to the national hurt. Excepting in this respect the bill has proved almost perfect, and is, in extreme degree, the cause of the marvelous advancement of Germany as a manufacturing nation and a world power commercially. No more beneficent and intelligent legislation in commercial directions has been vouchsafed any nation.

Fifty years ago, before we had trusts, it made small difference how high the tariff was, for the consumer was protected by internal competition. As I heard a Governor of Massachusetts say twenty-five years ago, "What difference would it make if the tariff on four-cent cotton was \$1000 a yard?" None, because cheap cottons are made in this country at the lowest possible cost and, under competition, sold at that cost plus a very small profit. In competition only the consumer found protection. And let us not forget that the consumer requires protection even as a condition precedent to special legislation protecting the manufacturer or any other class. When, however, Congress makes a duty so high as to be prohibitive of imports it shuts out foreign competition, leaves the domestic consumer wholly dependent upon home production and subject to trust exploitation.

Take my own business, for instance: a 20 per cent. duty would more than cover the difference in cost of production here and abroad. The duty is, however, on many of my products, 45 per cent. In this prohibitive duty lies a Congressional permit amounting to an invitation that those engaged in my industry consolidate, form a trust, and under this Congressional permit, which delivers the home market to us exclusively, add to our prices the difference between the necessary 20 per cent. of protection and the 45 per cent. given in the law. Intelligent business men are to be expected to make use of an advantage like this especially granted by Congress, and this is just what every one of our big trusts has done.

A protective tariff is supposedly given primarily for the benefit of labor. It should measure, as Mr. Taft insists, the difference in the cost of production here and abroad. A glance at the list of our great industrial trusts shows to what outrageous bounds went the makers of the Dingley law. The Standard Oil Company, for instance, which heads the list, has a total wage cost of 6 per cent., while the duty is for the main part 99 per cent., or fifteen times the wage cost, and this, remember, first given in the so-called free-trade Wilson law and continued in the Dingley law. The needlessness of this rate is evidenced by the fact that this trust shipped abroad last year \$78,228,819, selling it on the international market, as the Bureau of Corporations discloses, at 35 to 65 per cent. less price than charged our domestic consumers. The tariff batters this one trust to the extent of \$35,000,000 per year, and yet Congressional "dignity and economy" propose to leave the consumers open to dozens of like abuses rather than spend \$100,000 per year on a safeguarding commission.

Take the Steel Trust, which shipped abroad over \$40,000,000 of rolling-mill products to the open markets of the world at 20 per cent. under the prices charged home consumers, adding, to this extent, the tariff to its domestic prices and making such profits as the world had never dreamed of until the formation of this trust with the especial assistance of the Dingley law. Lobbying isn't costly when it brings such returns and doubles prices in a few years.

Steel costs as little to produce here as anywhere in the world, as stated by Mr. Carnegie recently, yet the tariff on iron bars, base sizes, was made \$12 per ton, or 80 per cent. of the then cost, and against \$1 addi-

tional cost for small sizes \$4 more was added to the rate, making \$16.

Every woman who has bought a new stoveid in the last twelve years, every farmer who has bought a plow, every boy who bought a pocket-knife, has made an unnecessary and forced contribution, by order of Congress, to the Steel Trust, and likewise to every other industrial trust in the United States, for I use steel only by way of illustration and because some of its best men agree with me.

The total wage cost to the Steel Corporation for mining, transportation, and conversion into rolling-mill products is 25 per cent. of the selling price; the tariff is from 17 to 65 and 80 per cent. of total costs. We may in a large measure attribute the foundation of a locomotive trust to the Dingley law, which gave locomotive builders 45 per cent. tariff, although locomotives are shipped abroad freely, and none can be imported. There are few builders, and they could not be expected to continue as independent and competing manufacturers with the invitation of Congress to combine and add what they wished of 45 per cent. duty to their selling prices. Likewise the Linseed Oil Trust, formerly competitive, with only 3 per cent. total wages in cost of refining and a 50 per cent. tariff. The importations being practically prohibited, they graciously accepted the invitation of Congress and added 30 to 50 per cent. to their selling prices.

Glucose, made of corn, and of course more cheaply here than elsewhere, bears a tariff of 55 per cent., the total wage 7 per cent., domestic production to the value of \$24,566,932, and the ability to do without protection manifested by exportations to the extent of \$3,000,000 per year.

It is clear beyond question that every big trust gets about one-fourth of its selling price by grace of Congress at the expense of the consumer, and that Congress must change its ways, or independent endeavor must entirely cease in the more important forms of production, as it is rapidly ceasing.

This does not mean that protection shall be withdrawn from trusts, for they and their workmen are as much entitled to protection as are others. It does mean, however, that one law, the Sherman act, shall not declare trusts and combinations in restraint of trade criminal, and another law, being the tariff, offer an extreme inducement for the formation of trusts in violation of the other law. When Congress stands upon its dignity in

this matter and insists that it will do what its own members elect, it is time that the people speak with a voice that can be heard not only in Washington but perchance around the world. The question is largely whether Congress shall hear the voice of the people or shall longer listen to the insistent, and heretofore compelling, voice of great private interests. What has been every one's business has been no one's business. We must have a commission to control the tariff, or we must do away with protection, an impossible alternative. Tariff-making in its formative steps must be taken out of the realm of politics, away from selfish interests and secret influence, and placed in the hands of men selected for the work, high-minded, semi-judicial, non-partisan, acting with that judgment and integrity for which our courts are distinguished, and, what is very important, with ample time to do the work well.

An excessive and trust-making tariff is a blow at labor, in that it diminishes hours of work by curtailing the output of the smaller factories, raises the cost of living beyond reason, as is shown on every hand, and lastly because, by diminishing the profits of old-fashioned competitive employers, it keeps down the wage-earner's daily rate and his chance for a share in the better profits that should obtain. It is entirely beyond question that Mr. Taft sees these things clearly. He has dedicated every fiber of his being to the making of a just tariff based upon evidence and fact, and giving full and equal justice alike to the customer, the wage-earner, and the manufacturer. This is a great dedication in more ways than one. The country supports him. Congress as a whole is against him, but yielding slowly. Every patriotic citizen should require of his Congressman and others the support of Mr. Taft, and the final settlement of the question in a general way by the institution of a commission or board of experts who shall not act only semi-occasionally and spasmodically, but shall devote their lives ably, impartially, and continuously to the problem.

The Ways and Means Committee certainly desires to serve the country, and to make illustrious its members. Why should they not desire such necessary assistance as will enable them to rival Germany in their tariff accomplishment and be forever distinguished as makers of the first honest and just tariff made in this generation,—a truly protective measure?

HOW CANADA LOOKS AT AMERICAN TARIFF-MAKING.

BY ANDREW MACPHAIL.

CANADIANS are not insensible to the movement which is gathering head in the United States for freer trade. They have heard Mr. Carnegie say that in one industry at least protection was no longer required. They heard Mr. Vogel, speaking for the tanners before the Committee on Ways and Means of the House of Representatives, say that they would willingly agree to a reduction of the duty on leather in exchange for free hides. They have heard Mr. Taft's innocent inquiry, "Where are the consumers?" and Mr. Hill's declaration, "If this Congress does not revise the tariff the next Congress will." They have read in the *Nation* that "Mr. Taft, during his Presidency, could do nothing more useful than to join Canada and the United States by new and far-reaching reciprocity treaties." They realize that during the last forty years the situation in the United States has changed, that the mills of the twin cities St. Paul and Minneapolis require hard Manitoba wheat; that the furniture-makers of Michigan require lumber; that the purveyors of news print require pulp-wood; that the manufacturers of New England require coal for their engines and food for their workmen.

In Canada also there is a desire for freer trade largely stimulated by the increased cost of living and by the belief that protection leads to the corruption of public life. A memorial to the government in 1906 by the Dominion Grange, the Farmers' Association of Ontario, and the Manitoba Grain Growers' Association reads: "We ask, in the coming revision of the tariff, that the protective principle be wholly eliminated; and as proof of our sincerity we will gladly assent to the entire abolition of the whole list of duties on agricultural imports." A resolution of the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, which claims to represent 200,000 organized workmen, reads: "That, while free trade in labor is held by our employers to be necessary for the protection of their interests, we hold that free trade in the products of labor is equally necessary for our well-being."

CANADA'S ATTITUDE TOWARD ENGLAND.

There is one question upon which Canadians have made up their minds. They will make no proposals, and they will have nothing to do with any proposals, which would put England at a disadvantage. What arrangements the United States shall make about the import of goods is for them to decide. If they decrease their tariff it will be because that measure appears best in their own interests. If it should turn out to be in the interests of Canada also Canadians would not object. If, on the other hand, Canada should reduce her tariff, it will be because it suits her own purposes; and, if it should suit the United States, Canadians will not object.

But England is now a partner in the Canadian deal, and the final answer will be that we are doing business with England just now. Our hearts and our treasure lie there. England is treating us handsomely. A respect and affection has grown up between us. She sends us the most charming of her nobility to grace Rideau Hall. She professes satisfaction over the hand we gave in South Africa, and makes us feel that we played the man. When we go to London she makes much of us; and now they say that they are going to tax themselves for our benefit; and, owing to increasing preferences on our part, they will send us their goods at a cheaper rate than we pay at present, and so reduce the cost of living in Canada. In short, the springs of loyalty to a noble tradition, of affection for kinsmen who yet occupy the old homes, of a wider patriotism, of a desire to be full partakers in the glory of a remembrance of old achievement, which during generations of absence had dwindled to a small trickle, have broken forth afresh. This is the basis of the new imperialism, and it must be taken into account by all who would deal with Canada.

CANADIAN-AMERICAN RECIPROCITY.

For fifty years, from 1846 to 1896, Canada made a continuous effort to gain entrance

into the markets of the United States. The movement began in the former year, when Great Britain abolished the Corn Laws, through which the colonies lost a preferential duty for their products in the mother country. The Governor-General, Lord Elgin, went to Washington in the hope of obtaining a treaty, which he succeeded in doing by skillful diplomacy and unbounded hospitality in the year 1854. For twelve years the arrangement gave general satisfaction, but was abrogated by the United States in 1866. Then began the efforts for its renewal, which were continued for thirty years. In 1865 when the Canadian Ministers were promoting Confederation in England, they urged the policy of renewing the treaty, and efforts were made through Mr. Adams, American Minister in London, and the British Minister at Washington, Sir F. Bruce, but the negotiations failed. The same year Messrs. Galt and Howland went to Washington and secured permission to send a delegation representing all the Provinces, but they returned empty handed. The next negotiations were those of 1869 conducted by the British Minister at Washington and John Rose, the Canadian Minister of Finance; but it is difficult to know precisely what offer Canada made, as the negotiations were believed to be private, and the papers referring to the subject are now lost. Again, in 1871, reciprocity made its appearance, but the American commissioners declined the proposal on the ground that "the renewal of the treaty was not in their interests and would not be in accordance with the sentiments of their people."

In 1873 the National Board of Trade of the United States memorialized Congress to appoint a commission to frame a treaty, and the Canadian Government replied that the subject, if approved of by Congress, would receive their fullest consideration. In 1873 George Brown was appointed British plenipotentiary for the negotiation of a new treaty, and a draft was made of a treaty to remain in force for twenty-one years, but the United States Senate adjourned without even taking a vote upon it. Finally, in 1879, a higher tariff was enacted in Canada, but it retained the previous offer of reciprocity. The only result was that Congress passed a retaliatory law. In 1887 the opposition in the Canadian Parliament put on record their adhesion to the principle of unrestricted reciprocity. In 1888, at the conference over the new fishery treaty between Secretary Bayard, Sir Julian Pauncefote, Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, and

Sir Charles Tupper, a settlement was offered "in consideration of a mutual arrangement providing for greater freedom of commercial intercourse." The American plenipotentiary, however, declined to ask the President for authority to consider the proposal. The Canadian elections were fought out upon the question of unrestricted reciprocity, which had been adopted by the Liberals, and they were defeated, largely owing to the belief that such a measure would lead to political union with the United States. The Conservatives, however, upon their return to power renewed the attempt in 1892 with Secretary Blaine, but the negotiations were broken off. Finally, upon the accession to power of the Liberals, Sir Wilfrid Laurier took the matter up afresh, but he returned with a final message to his own people: "There will be no more pilgrimages to Washington. We are turning our hopes to the Old Motherland."

CANADA'S INCREASED FOREIGN TRADE.

The abrogation of the Elgin-Marcy treaty in 1866 brought much hardship to Canada. For a series of years before the denunciation of the treaty by the United States the traffic between the two countries had an average yearly value of \$75,000,000. For a corresponding period after the abrogation the value of the trade declined to \$57,000,000 a year. The aggregate of Canada's foreign trade for the last year in which the treaty was in force amounted to \$160,409,456; the year following it declined to \$139,202,615. The loss fell with greivous force upon the agricultural community, which had then no foreign markets but the United States. Under the stress of those bad times there was a small though bitter cry for annexation. In the seventh year, however, Canada's foreign trade had risen to \$235,301,203. The balance of trade was against the United States.

To the credit of Canada her people sought new paths, and in a few years were competing with the United States in the foreign markets of the world. Goods which had previously sold in New York and Boston were now sold in the Maritime Provinces, in Newfoundland, in the West Indies, and in England. Canada learned in a hard school the valuable lessons that she had lakes, and seas, and rivers of her own whereon she might freight her goods in ships built from her own forests. The Canadians, led by Macdonald, faced the situation boldly. They replied by the enactment of a policy of protection which had in it a certain justification for being char-

acterized as national. The scattered colonies which fringed the northern border of the United States were driven together by a community of interest which in time developed into community of sentiment.

RAILROAD EXPANSION.

This desire for reciprocity with the United States arose from a perception of the simple geographical fact that the mountains of America, and consequently the valleys, run in a northerly direction. The refusal to grant reciprocity compelled Canada to convert North and South into East and West. That has been done by the system of railways and canals. Canada has built 25,000 miles of railway at a cost of \$1,200,000,000, and of this 20 per cent. has been contributed from the public funds. Upon the public business \$365,000,000 has been expended; that is the amount of the debt, but there is upon deposit in the banks more than \$500,000,000. At the moment there are two more transcontinental railways building, one of which will cost \$150,000,000.

For the sake of encouraging her industries Canada contributed in bounties on iron and steel \$9,000,000, and to-day Canadian rails are selling in India against the world. Last year goods were manufactured to the value of \$718,000,000, and yet the home market is not fully supplied.

It is useless to pretend that Canada has no interest in proposals which may be made for freer trade with the United States. The Maritime Provinces are especially concerned, since for forty years they have suffered most from being cut off from trade with the adjoining seaboard of New England.

In spite of the recent world-wide depression the tables of trade and navigation for the twelve months ending March 31, 1908, show that the year yielded the largest foreign trade in the history of Canada. The exports were \$280,006,606, and the imports \$370,786,525; of these exports agriculture yielded \$246,960,968.

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES GREATER THAN FROM ENGLAND.

And yet, notwithstanding these mutual efforts to hamper the exchange of commodities between the two countries, the imports from the United States last year amounted to \$210,652,825, and the exports to \$113,516,600. England took \$134,488,056 and gave back \$94,959,471. These tables show, curiously enough, that tariffs, and preferences,

and surtaxes, and spite enactments are under ordinary circumstances but minor influences on trade movement. Canadians, for example, bought from the United States last year, according to the tables, almost twice as much as they exported to that country; and they exported to Great Britain 40 per cent. more than they imported from it. In spite of a customs preference of one-third in favor of British goods, imports from the United States are greater than those from Great Britain, with a tendency to grow even more rapidly. Exports to the United States have doubled within the last nine years, while in the same time the exports to Great Britain have only increased by about one-third.

The attitude of the United States toward Canada has been that of the petty trader who declines to do business with a man because their fathers had a disagreement. To his own hurt he blinds himself to the fact that a transaction may be profitable to both parties to it. This attitude on the part of the United States was not entirely unreasonable. Indeed, if ever there was a case in which retaliation was likely to do good, here was one,—a large community side by side with a smaller one, two peoples descended from the same stock, speaking somewhat similar languages, living in the same environment, and separated by a boundary which was wholly artificial. The United States was also aware that Montreal was a center of conspiracy against the North, and that ships had gone from Canadian ports to force their blockade.

But all this old bitterness has passed away and the frame of mind of Canada at least is one of good-natured banter toward an elder brother. Young men from the United States are coming to Canada in increasing numbers. They are found in factories, offices, universities, churches, and clubs. They are crowding the Western lands. They make good citizens because they take hold of Canadian institutions, and, helping to work them, become Canadians.

Canada is now so secure in her political status as part of the empire that she has no fear of what trade can do. The preference which is granted to England has a basis in sentiment, but also in the necessity for cheaper goods. Sixty-two per cent. of the people live on or near the farms. They are vitally interested in cheaper goods from the United States or from England. The only reservation they make is that in any readjustment of the tariff England shall not be put at a disadvantage.

GIFFORD PINCHOT AND HIS FIGHT FOR OUR NATIONAL RESOURCES.*

BY HEWITT THOMAS.

ONE of President Roosevelt's callers, the other day, when the Conservation Conference was in session in Washington, told the President that he was anxious to help out in the conservation movement and was ready to receive orders and instructions from the Chief Executive.

"Go and see Gifford Pinchot," said Mr. Roosevelt. "I guarantee he will keep you as busy as he has me."

When Theodore Roosevelt admits that he has been "kept busy" by any one the inference is distinctly favorable to the man who has kept him busy.

Old Sir Dietrich Brandis, Europe's famous forester, to whom Mr. Pinchot bore a letter of introduction, back in 1890, told the young man he ought to go to the Nancy (France) Forest School. Pinchot asked when the next train started for Nancy. He took that train. As a student of forestry he visited all the great forests of Europe. That was after he was graduated from Yale, after having prepared himself at Phillips Exeter. From the moment he entered the Forest School in France until now, he has followed his speciality.

The first example of practical forest management in the United States was started by him on the Vanderbilt estate at Biltmore, N. C. It came about through a magazine article on the subject which Mr. Pinchot had written and which attracted the attention of Mr. Vanderbilt, who then had some 100,000 acres in forests on his North Carolina estate. Next Mr. Pinchot had an office in New York as a consulting forester,—the first one of his profession in America.

In 1896, when Hoke Smith was Secretary of the Interior, he asked the National Academy of Sciences to report on a national forest policy for the forested lands of the United States. The Academy made Mr. Pinchot a member of the commission, and it was this commission which set the boundaries of the first forest "reserves,"—now national forests,—proclaimed by President Cleveland

in 1897. He afterward served as a special agent, and reported on all forest reserves.

During the Spanish-American War the Department of Agriculture started a little branch office, called "The Division of Forestry," of which Gifford Pinchot was made "chief." "The Division" boasted of eleven persons. Six of these were clerks and five were scientists. Two were "foresters." There was no field equipment. That was all there was to forestry in the United States at that time. There were not a dozen professional foresters in the whole country. Scarcely any one knew or cared anything about forestry. But Pinchot had ideas of his own. He began at once by offering practical assistance to forest owners. Thus immediately the field of action, as the Secretary of Agriculture said in one of his later reports, shifted from the desk to the woods. And there it has remained.

This has been Mr. Pinchot's idea all along. He has just finished a complete reorganization of the Forest Service, and as a result more than 400 persons who were in the Washington office have been distributed into six district headquarters in the field. Hereafter, whenever possible things are to be administered on the spot. Even in the present Washington office force there is a constant shifting from office to forest and back again that puts actual life and blood into everything, and brings into the Washington office an atmosphere breathing of forest, and mountain, stream, saddle, and camp.

The Spanish War having given us the Philippines, the President sent Mr. Pinchot to map out a forest policy for the islands. In 1905 the Government forest work, which had been divided between the Interior and the Agricultural Departments, was consolidated and put under the administration of the Forest Service. This change marked the beginning of a new era in the protection of the people's rights in the public domain. With the assembling of forest administration under one head, the fight for the public's right in the forests began.

Mr. Pinchot was a prominent member of

* A recent portrait of Mr. Pinchot forms the frontispiece of this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

the Public Lands Commission which President Roosevelt appointed in 1903, and which investigated the public lands thoroughly and submitted a general public lands policy. From this and the existing forest policy the development of a broader and more comprehensive plan was inevitable,—that is, a policy for the conservation of the country's natural resources. In his speech at Jamestown, Va., nearly two years ago, President Roosevelt reviewed these policies and added:

So much for what we are trying to do in utilizing our public lands for the public; in securing the use of the water, the forests, the coal, and the timber for the public. In all four movements my chief adviser, and the man first to suggest to me the process which has actually proved so beneficial, was Mr. Gifford Pinchot, the Chief of the National Forest Service. Mr. Pinchot also suggested to me a movement supplementary to all of these movements, one which will itself lead the way in the general movement which he represents and with which he is actively identified, for the conservation of all our natural resources. This was the appointment of the Inland Waterways Commission.

As chairman of the National Conservation Commission (which now includes the Inland Waterways Commission as one of its four sections), Mr. Pinchot is now the head of the great conservation movement, which embraces not only the preservation of our forests, but also a plan for the proper use and development of all our natural resources,—waters, forests, lands, and minerals. This is Mr. Pinchot's own idea, his chosen profession, his life's work. That may explain his enthusiasm, his hard work, and his willingness, if necessary, to fight for that which he believes to be right.

It is a fact, perhaps too well known, to need mention here that the friendship between Roosevelt and Pinchot is perhaps closer than any other friendship the President has. They play tennis together, take long walks together, chop trees together and, together, plan for the advancement of the great conservation movements which they represent.

The President's particular fondness for "Gifford," as he calls him, is well known. It is a personal friendship out of which a politician might make much. But no one ever knew of Mr. Pinchot trying to "play" it for the least personal advantage or selfish aggrandizement.

Mr. Pinchot occupies a unique position in the Government. Officially, he is the head of the Government Forest Service. And as

that service administers some 168,000,000 acres of national forests,—an area more than equal to that of the German Empire,—and employs some 2500 men, that in itself is a mighty big job. But Mr. Pinchot's usefulness stops not at that. With his wonderful genius for organization, and his able associate, Mr. Overton W. Price, he finds opportunity to devote himself to even larger duties. A man in close touch with official Washington declares that Gifford Pinchot has supplied as many ideas and practical working plans to the great "uplift" movement, personified by President Roosevelt, as any member of the President's cabinet,—if not more.

Mr. Pinchot in traits of character is a rare and admirable mixture. Modest as a girl, he is a fighter who knows not when to relent. The possessor of millions of dollars, he is in dress, custom, and manner, simplicity itself. With the bluest of blue blood, dating back to the Huguenots of France, he is a thorough democrat, showing no arrogance and despising display. Though having authority over an immense empire, Mr. Pinchot is cut off from no one or barred by no batteries of secretaries, no series of inner doors. There are no barriers about him such as are commonly found in Washington officialdom in cases where there is much less power and authority.

Yet, accessible as he is, he does his work with celerity and dispatch. There is no backing and filling. He sees the point instantly and decides at once. One of the men who knows him best said of him: "I attribute Gifford Pinchot's success to his readiness to act while the idea is hot." An idea once approved with him means instant action. Present a suggestion to him,—and one of the secrets of his success is that he courts the fullest possible suggestion from those about him,—and it is, "now, how can we do this?"

And the fact is, he is doing things,—big things. Secondly, he is doing them fairly and squarely. He is getting results, and those results are for the benefit and enjoyment of all the people. He is applying "common sense for the common good."

Call him dreamer if you will; he dreams for the welfare of the people. Say he is an enthusiast, but an enthusiast seeking to safeguard the people's rights. But never forget that when dealing with Gifford Pinchot you are face to face with an intensely practical, hardheaded, farsighted man to whom self-interest is never a consideration, to whom the right is always the controlling motive.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE PEACE MOVEMENT AND CIVILIZATION.

ELLEN KEY, the famous Swedish writer, contributes an exhaustive and appealing article to *Nord und Süd*, in which she shows by many cogent arguments the wickedness, the mad futility, of war, as well as the inevitable trend to a more rational and better state of international comity. We reproduce some of the salient points of her essay:

The majority of mankind, however, far, as yet, from making the desire for peace a measure of culture, regard it as a promoter of it. They still consider progress as being the material,—and, where possible, the spiritual,—ascendency of their own nation, and look upon the friends of peace as whining weaklings, open only to the appeals of sentiment, blind to the requirements of "historical necessity." The actual conditions that occasion war they maintain are an outcome of unalterable, elementary impulses, of racial, psychological, economic laws. The greatest cause of war remains what it always was: the need of a nation or race to spread, the need of bread, of a market,—in a word the impulse of expansion.

Powers that engage in war now do, to be sure, bear witness to the growing strength of the peace sentiment by not *openly* avowing it to be undertaken for their own interests, but in order to disseminate or protect civilization; just as equipments go on in order to,—secure universal peace.

Another cultural gain of war is claimed to be the selection of the most valuable elements for mankind; but who does not know that the most capable nations cannot hope to prevail against those stronger and richer? The older, often more interesting, civilization, is mercilessly sacrificed to mercantile interests; language, the chief instrument of culture, is suppressed when politically expedient; upon a like ground the conqueror destroys the processes of justice,—the basis of civilization. And if the violated nation defends its speech, its laws, its cultural gains, it is not termed patriotism, but,—rebellious separatism.

We all know, the Swedish writer continues, that the craving for bread and for power are elementary impulses; that the expansion idea is for the present an explosive force which no peace movement can destroy; that the crime of the strong against the right of the weak is at present a fact; that war is the last recourse to settle deep-seated differences.

But while all,—advocates of peace as well as war-patriots,—know that war under the given conditions is a natural necessity, the former believe that those conditions may be changed, while the latter maintain that they are unalterable. The prosperity of one people is still the decline of another. The fear of one that it will be robbed of its essentials of life by the other is to-day not an unfounded one. "Self-defense is the first law of nature,"—this applies to nations as well as individuals; but a citizen can worthily perform his duty to his country by defending it against injury or insult, and yet repel the chauvinist demands which seek to do violence to his conscience as a citizen of the world,—for example, if his own land has transgressed the law of nations, sinned against the international ideals of civilization.

True progress, Ellen Key maintains, consists in finding the point of union between one's own and other nations, where the welfare of one coincides with that of the others. "While the advocate of war boasts of martial memories, and inflames national and race hatred by all sorts of devices, the patriot of civilization pursues an exactly opposite course. And that is the course all women should follow!"

Real Trend of the World Nations.

The question whether there is actual danger of an approaching conflict between England and Germany is the occasion of a penetrating and very suggestive article,—appearing in the *Deutsche Revue*,—by Prince Lichnowsky, a member of the Prussian Upper House. In the course of it he pictures the basic tendency of the great nations, remarking that in politics isolated phases are to be differentiated from the general, fundamental strain.

In view of the dangers that threaten English rule in Asia on the part of Russia and Japan, as well as of the economic convulsion which would follow even a successful war with Germany,—England's best customers,—the Prince concludes that a conflict is not to be apprehended as imminent. Some of his arguments, particularly those regarding Great Britain's prospective relation to the Latin nations of Europe, are profoundly significant. He says in substance:

Germany's relations with England have for a number of years formed the most important part of her foreign policy. A war with France,

—necessarily based upon the aid of Russia,—was rendered improbable since the death of Alexander III., and Russia's reverses in the East, while the evidently weak martial equipment and the internal dissensions of the latter almost precluded the idea of her attacking the strongest military power of the Continent. The less the danger from these two sides, the more prominent became the question whether a naval war with the greatest fleet of the world was to be looked for. What could Germany's weak sea equipment accomplish as opposed to England's tenfold greater strength? What would she have to defend against the latter, bound as the two peoples are by ties of blood, admiring it as she does in so many ways? But experience has taught that the growing British ill-humor must be reckoned with; that the increase of the German fleet, of its commerce, its colonial strength, occasion displeasure in England, and that discussions and preparations for war are proceeding there; furthermore, that England's ruler and ministers are intent upon getting in close touch with most of the powers, while evincing but a weak desire in that direction as regards Germany. In spite of friendly visits and speeches an anxious feeling that a complication with a superior opponent is impending cannot be dissipated. The point that ever anew occupies both nations is the uncertainty whether one is arming against the other.

England's relations with the Latin countries of Europe, and particularly with France, may be noted, says this writer.

The old animosity between the two nations naturally paled when France passed her zenith as a world-power. From foe and rival she became with time a confederate,—according to the old, oft-proved principle in politics of making a friend and protégé of a nation no longer to be feared. And the French will naturally

always espouse the side of the strongest opponents of Germany. Their readiness to meet the wishes of England in colonial questions was evidenced in Egypt. This circumstance suggests the thought that in the course of centuries a similar process may take place in the French colonies. England is on the point of assuming an attitude of protection to the Latin states of Europe similar to that of the United States to the Latin states of America. Italy's bent is to seek England's support, and Portugal, the weakest politically, points the way that the other Latin nations must,—though it may be in varynig measure,—eventually follow. Gazing, then, into the politics of the future, we must reckon first with the *English* group, to which the Latin states of Europe will belong, the African colonial possessions, and, it may be, the future independent republics of Australia; second, the *German*, with which may be reckoned Austria and Hungary, perhaps also Holland and a portion of the Orient and of Africa; third, the *Russian*, with the greater part of Asia, excepting China proper and both Indies; fourth, the *Japanese*, which includes the islands of the Pacific, China proper, and the Indies; and, finally, the *American* group, which, under the leadership of the United States, embraces the whole Continent.

The Prince concludes with the belief that the English will realize that they would lose more than they could gain by a war with Germany, adding that there is ample room for both nations in Africa and on the broad seas. German foreign policy, he remarks, should guard against exaggerations, which arouse English mistrust and annoyance, as well as against stinging remarks, which have the effect of "disturbing the habitual English complacence."

WILL THE ANGLO-SAXON STOCK SURVIVE IN AMERICA?

AMERICAN immigration is a unique phenomenon in the world's history; and the remarkable fact in connection with it is that the people of the United States have become so accustomed to the ever-increasing influx of denizens of the Old World that they are apt to lose sight of the tremendous possibilities which so large a foreign element involves. It is estimated that since 1820 about 25,000,000 Europeans have come to America; and concerning this enormous army of immigrants much food for reflection is supplied in an article by Mr. William Z. Ripley in the *Atlantic Monthly* for December. He says:

Wave has followed wave, each higher than the last. . . . Since 1900 over 6,000,000 people have landed on our shores. . . . The newcomers, if properly disseminated over the

newer parts of the country, would serve to populate no less than nineteen States of the Union. . . . They could, if properly seated in the land, elect thirty-eight out of the present ninety-two Senators of the United States. Is it any wonder that thoughtful political students stand somewhat aghast?

Along with the great increase in immigration has come a remarkable change in its character. Whereas in 1876 only 20,000 Italians landed on the western shores of the Atlantic, no fewer than 300,000 arrived in the year 1907. In the decade 1860-1870 the British Isles, Germany, Scandinavia, and Canada supplied 90 per cent. of our immigrants: in 1890-1900 only 41.8 per cent. But Austria-Hungary, Italy, and Russia, which in 1860-1870 sent only 1 per cent., in 1907 contributed about 900,000. Classifying the immigration to America in 1907, according

to race groups, Mr. Ripley finds the result to be as follows:

Alpine race.....	194,000	(one-sixth).
Jewish race.....	146,000	(mainly Russian, one-eighth).
Mediterranean race....	330,000	(one-quarter).
Slavic race.....	330,000	(one-quarter).
Teutonic race.....	194,000	(one-sixth).

Some of the statistics in Mr. Ripley's paper are as startling as they are interesting.

In one block in New York there are 1,400 people of twenty distinct nationalities. There are more than two-thirds as many native-born Irish in Boston as in the capital city, Dublin. With their children, mainly of pure Irish blood, they make Boston the leading Irish city in the world. New York is a larger Italian city to-day than Rome, having 500,000 Italian colonists. It contains no less than 800,000 Jews, mainly from Russia. Thus it is also the foremost Jewish city in the world. Pittsburg is said to contain more of that out-of-the-way people, the Servians, than the capital of Servia itself.

With all this ethnic diversity in the population the question is whether these racial groups will continue their separate existences or will coalesce to form ultimately a more or less uniform American type.

Will the progress of time bring about intermixture of these diverse types or will they remain separate, distinct, and perhaps discordant elements for an indefinite period, like the warring nationalities of Austria-Hungary and the Balkan States?

Among the factors tending to favor intermixture are the extreme and ever-increasing mobility of our American population and the ever-present inequality of the sexes among the foreigners. In 1905 Russia sent 50,000 womenfolk,—more than the number from England, Germany, and Sweden combined,—and Austria-Hungary transplanted hither 78,000, or three times as many as came from England, Ireland, and Germany. On the other hand, among the Italians the proportion of men to women, formerly six to one, is still three to one. What, asks Mr. Ripley, are these men to do for wives? They may write home or go home and find brides among their own people, or they may seek wives in America. This probably the majority do.

Of the influences tending to hinder ethnic intermixture the most important is the effect of segregation of the immigrants in compact colonies. The Mediterranean, Slavic, and Oriental peoples "heap up in the great cities. . . . Literally four-fifths of all our foreign-born citizens now abide in the twelve principal cities of the country, which are mainly in the East." This concentration

tends to promote the conservation of the purity of racial stocks. Again, barriers to intermarriage are often based upon differences in economic status.

The Italian "Dago" is looked down upon by the Irish, as in turn the Irishman used to be characterized by the Americans as a "Mick," or "Paddy." Any such social distinctions constitute serious handicaps in the matrimonial race.

Racial intermixture, to a greater or less extent, being inevitable, is the result likely to be a superior or an inferior type? "Will the American of 200 years hence be better or worse, as a physical being, because of his mongrel origin?" Mr. Ripley states that evidence to support both sides is to be had for the seeking.

A very important factor in the solution of the question is the birth-rate. Benjamin Franklin estimated six children to a normal American family in his day. At the present time the average is slightly above two. The rate of reproduction of the foreigners after their arrival in the United States and their "surprisingly sustained tenacity of life" greatly exceed those of the native-born American. In Massachusetts, for instance, the birth-rate among the foreign-born is three times that of the native-born. "Even among the Irish the fruitfulness of the women is 50 per cent. greater than for the Massachusetts native-born.

The contest for supremacy between the Anglo-Saxon stock and its rivals in America may be stated in another way.

Whereas, only about one-ninth of the married women among the French-Canadians, Irish, and Germans are childless, the proportion among the American-born and the English-Canadians is as high as one in five. A century ago about 2 per cent. of barren marriages was the rule. Is it any wonder that serious students contemplate the racial future of Anglo-Saxon America with some concern? They have seen the passing of the American Indian and the buffalo; and now they query as to how long the Anglo-Saxon may be able to survive.

On the other hand, evidence is not lacking to show that in the second generation of these immigrant peoples a sharp and considerable, nay in some cases a truly alarming, decrease in fruitfulness occurs. The crucial time among all our newcomers from Europe has always been in this second generation. The old customary ties and usages have been abruptly sundered, and new associations, restraints, and responsibilities have not yet been formed. . . . In some communities the Irish-Americans have a lower birth-rate even than the native-born. Dr. Engelmann, on the basis of a large practice, has shown that among the St. Louis Germans the proportion of barren marriages is almost unprecedentedly high.

AMERICAN ENERGY, AS SEEN BY A FRENCHMAN.

TO see ourselves as others see us is invariably instructive, if not always productive of pleasurable feelings. More often than not our transatlantic critics are apt to be somewhat blind to such good qualities as we may possess; at the same time they evince a remarkably acute perception in discovering our little weaknesses. All the more agreeable, therefore, is it to read an article like that on "l'Energie Americaine," by M. Firmin Roz, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Here there is no superficial handling of the subject, no presentation of "impressions" gained during a tour of a few weeks in the country whose people the writer seeks to describe. On the contrary, M. Roz treats his theme exhaustively, going back to the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers, and laying under contribution more than a score of writers, including such prominent authors as Paul Bourget, J. Huret, Félix Klein, Paul Adam, and Th. Bentzon. What first strikes all observers, he says, in the character of the American of the United States is his hardy activity, his appetite for action, and his *élan*. These qualities, he considers, are in great measure an inheritance from the first settlers.

The Puritans of Yorkshire disembarked on a land that offered them nothing, but promised everything. It invited to labor; and the pioneer had only to advance in order to conquer. Property spread out before him, unbounded, free, and offered to his simple effort. And the development of industry, the progress of steam and electricity, and the discovery of mines resulted in a tenfold expansion of energy, initiative, and daring. An unexploited world awaited the hand and mind of man; and man responded to this appeal.

There was no burdensome legacy from the past to hamper the free hands of the workers: their effort turned spontaneously toward the future. Action was concentrated toward a single end,—the production of wealth. This was a primordial condition of life before it became an ambition. Whereas other peoples have expended their energies in safeguarding their frontiers from enemies or rivals and in realizing their dreams of military glory, the colonists of New England and the citizens of the young Republic devoted themselves solely to economic development and to "the most intense labor." The latter characteristic, says M. Roz, continues to the present time. "It stamps each individual with its imprint, and thus reduces to uniformity the continually increasing diversity

of races and peoples thrown by immigration on the shores of the Western Hemisphere.

Physical energy of effort, says this writer, dominates the entire psychology of the American.

Pioneers, trappers of the North, cowboys of the Western solitudes, seekers for gold, soldiers of fortune,—all subsist by this force of energy. This initial necessity has never changed. One finds it even among the kings of industry, of railroads, and of finance.

Initiative is one of the fundamental traits of the American character. The most curious evidence of this, M. Roz thinks, is the disinclination manifested by the average American for the "ready-made careers." Another American characteristic is the love of risk. "It is not enough to say that the American is not afraid of it: he loves it. It is a condition indispensable to his success. Risk has for him the attraction of an adventure. The American disdains ruin as heroes disdain death." But the one thing concerning which this French writer is most enthusiastic is the way Americans work.

For, before all, this community works. Here one sees labor intense and marvelous. Transported to the New World and directed by enterprise, science has here been deliberately put to its practical work, which is not to govern life, but to serve it, to increase its means without philosophizing as to its ends. . . . It has furnished man with an incomparable material which assures to him victory in all contingencies. America has become an immense workshop wherein labor unceasingly perfects its instruments and its products. . . . All efforts are directed toward one immediate end: to produce more quickly, more cheaply, and better. And the results achieved have been astonishing.

Referring to the need of perpetual effort in regard to organization and adaptation, in consequence of the diversity of elements of which American society is composed, M. Roz claims that the three principal factors in this connection are religion, education, and "social action." He cites the observation of M. Henry Bary: "The moral unity of the American nation is a religious and a Christian unity. Profoundly religious, it gives to all denominations absolute liberty." The remarkable progress of Roman Catholicism in the United States is due to "its intimate harmony with the national spirit." As regards education it has merely an utilitarian end.

The young American seeks instruction not from any love of science, but because to-day science signifies for him dollars and fortune. . . . There are schools for everything; for all the sciences, all the arts, all the handicrafts,

in fact, for every need. M. Jules Huret assures us that in the city of Boston alone there are more than 600, where one may learn anything from cookery to musical journalism. And he adds: "Employment is guaranteed in the last-mentioned field, for there is a continually increasing demand for musical critics in all the cities of the United States (!)."

Under the heading of "social action," M. Roz pays a high tribute to the work done in America in the fields of Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations and of settlements like Hull House in Chicago.

WHEN PUBLICITY PLAYS DETECTIVE ON MUNICIPAL DISHONESTY.

EACH succeeding census of the United States establishes a noteworthy tendency on the part of the American people,—namely, that of congregating in the cities. In the first year of the last century the population of the United States was 5,308,483, and Baltimore, Boston, Charleston, New York, and Philadelphia were the only cities with more than 10,000 inhabitants. In 1900 the total population was 76,303,387, and there were no fewer than 545 towns with 8000 or more inhabitants, the percentage of the whole being 32.75, as against 3.24 in 1800. As this tendency to herd in cities is evidently destined to increase rather than to diminish, the problem of city administration will soon concern more than half of the people of the United States, writes Mr. Raymond L. Bridgman in the *Atlantic Monthly* for December; and he also puts forward the assumption that, besides being the greatest problem of the times, municipal government is the greatest political evil in the United States. This observation is apropos of a study of a new application of statistics "which has brought fresh promise of success to the reformers of municipal governments," and whose potency lies in the application of percentage of results to expense in the different cities, whereby comparison between different departments becomes possible, down to small details.

It has come in local form, but the idea is national; and it is a fair presumption that the idea will speedily have national standing. Its local application has manifested itself in two States only,—Ohio and Massachusetts. . . . The only report published by Massachusetts is presented in such admirable form that it is in itself a most encouraging promise that a large measure of reform in municipal management will be attained through the comparisons of percentages of expenditures to results obtained.

The report in question is issued by the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor, of which Mr. Charles F. Gettemy is chief, and is entitled "The Cost of Municipal

Government in Massachusetts." It is thus characterized by Mr. Bridgman:

This is the first report of the sort ever published in this country, perhaps in the world, and it is of such a pioneer character as to make it appear as if it must, by the very force of its method and application to municipal problems, be followed in all its essential characteristics by every other State in the Union, especially by all those with one or more large cities.

The Massachusetts law under which the report was produced was passed in 1906. It requires each city and town to furnish annually to the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor

a return containing a summarized statement of all revenues and all expenses for the last fiscal year of that town or city; a detailed statement of all receipts and disbursements of the last fiscal year, arranged upon uniform schedules prepared by the Chief of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor; statements of the income and expense of each public industry maintained or operated by such city or town; . . . a statement of the public debt of said city or town, showing the purpose for which each item of the debt was created and the provisions made for the payment thereof; and a statement of all current assets and all current liabilities of such city or town at the close of its fiscal year.

The importance of this statistical work to the welfare of the cities will be apparent. Chief Gettemy himself states that formerly "there was no uniformity in the classification of the Massachusetts accounts, and in many cases no bookkeeping worthy of the name." It was simply impossible for any student of municipal finance, confronted with the utter chaos that existed, to make any comparisons of a selected number of cities. What the average citizen wants to know, and what he is entitled to know, is how the percentage of expense in the different departments compares with that of similar departments in other cities. The report under notice not only gives this information, but it also shows the percentage division of expenses between the municipal departments themselves, under the respective heads of

general administration, police, fire, public health, charities, and so on. There are thirty-three cities in the State of Massachusetts, and the average for all of the thirty-three is given, as well as the items severally for every city by itself.

The advantages of this system of comparisons by percentages are obvious.

It is now so easy to check up the work of any mayor, board of aldermen, street commissioner, or any other official who has a responsible position, that the average citizen can see easily and intelligently what the situation is. . . . The official or department can be compared with his or its own past. . . . If the administration is honest . . . then it gets credit in a way which has not been possible hitherto. . . . If here is a city department which stands No. 1 of all the cities of the United States . . . the man who has made the record possible will get credit for his ability and honesty.

On the other hand, this publicity resulting from the comparisons of percentages will play the detective upon every dishonest and inefficient department head. Where the spoils system is in full sway, dishonesty will

be exposed; revolt on the part of the citizens is sure to come, and the dishonest official will be driven from office. "The light of publicity will shine about every department as it has not hitherto done"; publicity will have the effect of making officials feel more responsible; and honorable pride will be stimulated by the certainty that if the official does well the fact will be duly advertised to his fellow citizens. Another result is inevitable: public intelligence in public affairs will be raised, with a corresponding elevation of the efficiency of the service.

The readers of Mr. Bridgman's article are reminded that all this advance does not concern the scheme of government at all.

It does not involve any charter amendments. . . . It has nothing to do with the suffrage, with systems of balloting, or any phase of the election law. . . . It is simply a system of reducing finances to a form suitable for comparison, and letting the system do its perfect work. . . . But it must not be forgotten that it takes men to reform. Figures will never do it of themselves.

"THE UNCHANGING ENGLISH,"—A FRENCH OPINION.

IN a remarkable article in the *Revue pour les Français*, Baron Pierre de Coubertin declares that England is immutably stable, despite occasional appearances to the contrary. The Socialists at Westminster, the treaties with Japan, and understandings and agreements with other powers, have made no impression on the fundamental insularism which rules Great Britain's foreign policy. To quote his words:

We are passing through one of the periods when England carries on work beyond her boundaries. She has always worked in the same way. The centuries have seen her, first exercising her activity on something beyond her frontiers, then falling back upon herself to watch and await results. Her desire, like the instinct which impels her to exterior action, is controlled by her determination to guard the absolute independence, which is the marrow in the bone of the British political system. Great Britain's internal policy is composed of three elements: First, the two parties,—Conservative and Liberals; second, the monarchy; third, the radicalism, which is always a surprise to the foreigner. The virulence of the radicals is of little more effect than to give savor to the English life. Twenty-two years ago an astonishingly passionate demand was made for the suppression of the House of Lords. That body stands where it stood then, the only difference being additional

strength, gained during its returns to the public favor.

England's ideas do not progress, continues Baron Coubertin, nor do they stand still. They are in incessant action, "but their motion is circular, they revolve and, as a result of their revolution, return to the starting point."

Morally, England falls back upon herself; for that reason, if for no other, she will always be an independent force, however she may be assailed by foreign foes or by schisms. As far as the peace of the nation goes, radicalism cuts no figure. The bold plans and the land talks of the radicals do nothing but add color to the picturesque.

All that England is to-day, all that she is to be in time to come, this writer maintains, is contained in the schools, as the oaken timbers of the ship are contained in the acorn.

The foreign mind regards the great colleges of Oxford, Cambridge, and the rest, as the schools of England; but to hold that opinion is to err, because the universities do not represent the nation. Their influence is limited to the higher of the classes. They are venerable,—those splendid temples of learning; we revere them as the glorious legacy left by the past; yet should they disappear to-morrow, England would find that they have had but little to do with the formation of her public mind. But to lose the public school would be to lose a factor of the national power and change the character

of England. The English themselves do not know all that the public schools mean to them, nor does any one recognize the colossal strength of their influence, past and present. Their action is direct and indirect,—direct, on them who attend them; indirect, on the private schools. The public schools force the private schools to maintain an appearance of the effort and the excellence of public schools. The public school is a living organism; a society which, though held within narrow boundaries, embraces all forms of the active and reactive collectivities of civilized society at large. Never, in any country, has pedagogy possessed a more finely finished or more smoothly-running system than we find in the English schools. . . . The school teaches the English lads the lesson of life; to be a man and to rule his conduct by the high law of the citizen's duty to himself and to his fellow-citizens.

The general idea of the English school, says this French writer, is to stand firm; and to teach the child to stand firm, to stand his

ground, is the chief business of the schools. "The work of the schools is,—why not say it frankly,—to form the Englishman's ideal; the gentleman. In this England has never changed."

The national mind of England, Baron Coubertin maintains further, is changeless. "This is a great fact, a marvelous fact; it is doubtful if any country but England could produce its like."

The French, the Germans, the Americans, the Russians,—all have changed. The English have not changed, nor have they shown any of the symptoms of change. If now and then, here or there, London gives us the impression of something new, even as we gaze, it assumes the always strong and durable, though vague and indefinable aspect of England; and by that we know that it is English. Such is the English mind in the year of Grace, 1908.

THE VERDI "RETREAT" FOR OLD MUSICIANS.

A GRAPHIC description of the Retreat for Old Musicians, in Milan, founded by Giuseppe Verdi, is given in a recent issue of *Hojas Selectas*, the illustrated Spanish monthly of Barcelona. Within this building repose the remains of Verdi and those of his wife, Josephina Strapponi. Certainly a nobler monument was never erected. After entering the edifice, which is built in the Venetian style, the first rooms the visitor is shown are those constituting the Museo Verdiano. Here are gathered together many mementoes of the life and work of the great composer, such as the rude harpsichord on which, as a child, he made his first timid essays at composition; the Viennese *cimbalo* used by him in his youth; the grand piano upon which he composed his "Othello"; manuscripts of his operas, and fine busts of the composer and his wife, by Vincenzo Gemito. The room in which Verdi died was transported intact from his home, and its contents have been preserved unchanged.

The central court gives entrance to the upper story, where dwell the aged musicians. The founder left 75,000 lire (\$15,000) in government bonds as an endowment for the institution and, in addition to this, the product of the royalties on his works, under the condition that the management of the Retreat shall only expend the sum of 50,000 lire annually from this latter source during the first ten years, so that, from the remainder of the revenue, a capital might be accumu-

lated to increase the endowment of the foundation. Because of this restriction, which endures until 1912, the Retreat shelters only thirty-six men and seventeen women at the present time.

The right wing of the building is assigned to the men and the left to the women, and there is no intercourse between the sexes in the interior of the institution. The inmates assemble in their respective refectories, each of which is supplied with a piano, so that, by evoking their favorite melodies, they may have recreation during the long winter evenings. Each wing ends in pleasant gardens, bounded by terraces, whence the plains of Lombardy can be discerned in the distance.

In this way these musicians and lyric artists, whom old age has robbed of the means of subsistence, tranquilly pass the last days of their existence.

The idea of their approaching end sometimes casts a shade over the faces and dims the eyes of these poor old people, for whom life has again become endurable. On the lower floor there is a room, only opened three or four times during the year. Black funeral cloths, fringed with gold, hang from its walls; in the center rises a sumptuous catafalque. One after the other those who lead the way along the pathway of death will come to rest upon this, and the survivors will chant the funeral hymns with timid and tremulous voice.

On such occasions the idea that their time may come to-morrow, in the ceaseless election of death, takes stronger hold of the survivors. Theirs is the tranquil but incurable sadness of those who have reached the evening of life and dread the eternal night.

WHAT THE UNITED STATES NAVY OWES TO PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT.

WHEN the Presidency of Theodore Roosevelt comes to be critically analyzed by the historians of the future there can be little doubt that their unanimous opinion will be that one of the greatest services rendered by him to his country was the development of the navy, which rendered possible the remarkable cruise of sixteen battleships, a convincing evidence that the United States had entered the rank of world-powers. Now that this cruise is practically a *fait accompli*, it is amusing to recall the prognostications of "trouble" abroad and the hostile criticisms of the President to which it gave rise. And perhaps the most noteworthy outcome of the whole voyage was the setback which the prophets of evil received in the fact that the particular nation whose ire the advent of the American fleet in Pacific waters was certain to rouse was the very one whose welcome to the officers and men of the United States Navy was such as to fairly stagger them by reason of the magnificence of its hospitality. The cruise itself was really the successful issue of the President's labors in naval reform.

The American public knows President Roosevelt as an advocate of a greater navy, writes Mr. Henry Reuterdahl in *Pearson's* for December, but few know the amount of attention and thoughtful study that he has given to the navy and its affairs; how earnestly he has worked to make the sea forces of the United States efficient; how he has endeavored to improve the organization of the Navy Department so that the navy will be at all times prepared for war.

There are no votes in the navy; but he has been fighting for an adequate navy because he believes it is right to do so,—fighting for it as he would have fought for the Union or the abolition of slavery had he lived at that time. The President believes that there should be more interest in the actual state of the navy as a fighting force, and he has made it plain that he desires that the navy should be known intimately by our people and that they should take as intelligent an interest in our navy as the British do in theirs. . . . He believes that it is the absolute duty of Congress to provide for the maintenance of a strong naval defense. . . . In order to do so we must advocate more and better ships. . . . Our national honor and whole being depend upon the existence of a powerful navy. With a fleet of ships in each ocean and with the Panama Canal completed the country can look forward to years of peace and prosperity.



HENRY REUTERDAHL.

(The artist and correspondent who has been criticising navy equipment and management.)

It is now nearly twelve years since Mr. Roosevelt became Assistant Secretary of the Navy. Having been a profound student of naval affairs, he brought with him to the department "a full understanding of the meaning of preparedness as an element of sea power."

He came to his desk like a whirlwind: he was there to work and not to play the politician. . . . Mr. Roosevelt's dynamic energy opened up the labyrinth of red tape and he shook off the lethargy of tradition and routine. He said: "I am trying to devise a system by which, if a captain of a ship which was tied to a navy-yard dock saw a coil of rope on the dock and wanted it, he could get that coil of rope without going through an endless mass of red tape. Under the present system the captain would have to write to the commandant of the yard, who would send his letter with his endorsement through the proper officer of the yard to the Assistant Secretary, who would refer it to the proper bureau of the Navy Department, whose chief would refer it to the commandant of the yard, who would again send it back to the captain of the ship, who would then be able, on proper application through his executive officer, to get that coil of rope ten feet away from where his ship lay. What I am trying to do is to work out a scheme by which the captain of that ship could get that rope without all that red tape."

Red tape and office routine have not been

the only obstacles against which the President has had to fight in his efforts for navy reform. He has had to overcome opposition on the part of certain overcautious navy officials and "resistance on the part of legislators who are disposed to exploit the navy for their own and their constituents' selfish ends." The President strongly believes that the navy can only be made better by changing the present administration of the Navy Department. He says:

I have from time to time recommended the reorganization of the Navy Department; it is absolutely necessary, and we will work and work until we get it, and we shall get it.

The President may be fitly described as the apostle of preparedness and straight shooting. In 1900, says Mr. Reuter Dahl, "a well-informed officer reported that 'the navy has never been in a relatively more inefficient condition.'" The United States Navy Department has no policy determining the program of shipbuilding, as is the case with the naval bureaus of other nations. The ram *Katahdin* is "now a million dollars' worth of scrap iron." The *Charleston*, *St. Louis*, and *Milwaukee*, cruisers, "are the evidences of ill-spent money. They cannot fight, and they are too slow for scouting." Each cost about \$3,000,000. The battleships *Idaho* and *Mississippi*, which cost another \$10,000,000, "are slower than the rest of the fleet." Lieutenant Sims, reporting on the defects of the *Kentucky*, described her as "a slaughter-pen with unprotected guns and open turrets." These are some of the elements of unpreparedness for war which have convinced the President that "the navy possesses no real fighting power." In his annual message of 1906 he said: "It was a waste of money to build the modern single-turret monitors." On the recent cruise each officer was required to report upon the characteristics of his own ship.

The final report was signed by Rear-Admiral Evans. The freeboard was declared too low, the guns were too near the water, the position of the armor belt was questioned. The torpedo defense was found inadequate, the ammunition hoists were too slow, and the open turret was condemned. The broadside guns would be unable to fire even in ordinary trade-wind weather. It was a severe arraignment. The judgment came from the men who have to handle the ships in battle.

In the summer of 1908 Commander Key called the attention of the Secretary of the Navy to defects in the battleships *North Dakota* and *Delaware*, under construction. His letter was "considered disrespectful and

insubordinate; it was pigeonholed and not acknowledged."

This came to President Roosevelt's ears. Again he did the unusual and unprecedented, and took the matter out of the hands of the Navy Department. He at once ordered a board of officers to meet in conference to investigate the truth of the charges and recommend what changes could be made in the construction of these ships. . . . The conference substantiated practically all criticisms made by Commander Key.

But it is in the matter of straight shooting that the President has worked a complete reform in the navy. The father of modern gunnery, as Mr. Reuter Dahl reminds us, was Captain Percy Scott of the British cruiser *Terrible*, whose ship in 1901 established the world's record,—100 per cent.,—for accuracy, making eight hits in a minute with a six-inch gun. Only actual holes in the target counted as hits. Lieutenant Sims formed a friendship with Scott on the China station. He was allowed to witness the British practice, and he gathered full details of the system. At that time the American gunners were firing at imaginary targets and making one hit as against six of the British.

Worse than that, the *New York* fired during an "efficiency practice" 428 shots and made eight hits. . . . Sims pointed out that "upon our naval gunnery depends the existence of the nation," and he pictured what the outcome would be should we fail to improve our shooting. His earnest appeals landed in the official pigeonholes of the Navy Department, where they were buried or suppressed. This was in 1901-'02. . . . But the Navy Department continued its policy of doing nothing. . . . Sims as a last resort appealed directly to President Roosevelt. He ordered Sims' reports to be printed and distributed to all the ships in the service. Furthermore, an official test was made and five battleships of the North Atlantic fleet were sent to sea for target practice. Shooting at a condemned lightship with the fleet firing all their broadsides resulted in three hits. These three hits represented the fighting efficiency of five of our battleships which had cost the country \$30,000,000. In 1901 the British cruiser *Terrible* had all alone hit the target 114 times.

President Roosevelt soon saw that something had to be done. Overriding criticism by the bureaus, he made Sims inspector of target practice. He also established prizes, and the gun pointers received extra pay on becoming expert. "Target practice was transformed into a sport, and a gun crew into a football team. The effect was instantaneous; the officers and men tackled the new system with vim and enthusiasm." As a result, one year after the lightship affair 50 per cent. of hits were obtained in the first practice.

Sims had for two years recommended improved gunsights, which the bureau system had persistently rejected. The President again intervened. He ordered that all guns should be fitted with new sights. The change required three years and cost "hundreds of thousands of dollars." But the money was well expended. At 6000 yards and over "many of our turret guns have made over 50 per cent. of hits at targets 30 by 60." In 1905 the *Wisconsin* "fired with her thirteen-inch guns eighty-eight shots, and made eighty-eight hits at 1600 yards. The American gun pointer is now without a peer."

Mr. Reuter Dahl's article is a pretty severe arraignment of the bureau system, and it is difficult to see how the detailed charges of inefficiency which he offers can be disproved. But there is ample testimony to the fact that the nation owes a mighty big debt to the President.

By intelligently using the "big stick," overcoming the inertia and resistance of the bureau system, President Roosevelt has increased our naval preparedness and established a new era. In a few months he will be out of the White House, but the standard that he has set must be maintained. Retrogression should not be permitted.

WAS PARADISE AT THE NORTH POLE ?

THE cradle of the human race has always been a favorite subject of inquiry, both scientific and non-scientific; and speculation has run riot in attempts to locate the Garden of Eden. In our own day scholars and trained theologians like Cheyne ("Traditions and Beliefs of Ancient Israel"), Friedrich Delitsch ("Wo lag das Paradies?"), Gunkel ("Die Paradieserzählung"), St. Clair ("The Garden of Eden"), and others have propounded new locations for Eden almost solely on the ground of new conjectural identifications of the four rivers of the Paradise described in Genesis. The sites proposed are widely distant from one another and include Jerusalem, Somaliland in Africa, a place in the German Rhineland, and the Scilly Islands. In an interesting article on the recent literature on this subject in the *Methodist Review* for November-December, Dr. William F. Warren wisely remarks that the discovery "of the unknown country in which our race originally took its place among the living tenantry of the earth" must be by proper scientific methods.

To students of language, of early arts, of social institutions, civilization, government, religion, no less than to the anthropologist, a knowledge of the true starting-point of the development about to be studied by them is a desideratum comparable to no other.

The fact is that a comprehensive treatment of the problem,—a treatment in which all the lines of evidence entitled to a hearing are taken into account,—is extremely rare.

Trained scientists and untrained writers in scientific lines have often taken the data of some one field of nature-knowledge and have therefrom attempted to show where the cradleland of our race must have been. Thus one has used facts of geography only, another the teaching of

the biology of his day, another the views of contemporary paleontologists, another the facts of early language history, racial characteristics, ethnic relationships, and so on.

It is in this way that hypotheses have been advanced according to which the human species originated in Equatorial Africa, in Aus-



REV. WILLIAM F. WARREN, D.D.

(Leading exponent of the theory of the polar cradle of the human race.)

tralia, in Southern Asia, and "possibly" at the poles,—the blacks at the southern and the whites at the northern. But "by no such narrow procedures as these is this problem of problems ever to be solved."

Twenty-four years ago Dr. Warren himself published a more comprehensive treatment of the subject than had ever before been attempted; and his work, entitled "Paradise Found: The Cradle of the Human Race at the North Pole," has since gone through eleven editions.

The conclusion reached was that the primeval homeland of our race was a,—later submerged,—circumpolar continent within the Arctic Circle. Some of the lines of evidence then presented were as follows: First, the overwhelming majority of Biblical scholars have openly and definitely abandoned the idea that the problem can ever be settled by any imaginable interpretation to be put upon the Garden of Eden narrative in Genesis. Second, the earliest habitable portions of the slowly cooling and gradually solidifying globe must have been the circumpolar. Third, at one stage in the secular cooling of the earth-mass the biological conditions in the circumpolar regions must have been more favorable to the origination of the floral and faunal life-forms than any existing on any portion of the earth's surface to-day. Fourth, the scientific surveys of the floral and faunal life-forms of early geologic ages have led the chief authorities to the conclusion that the earliest diffusion of vegetable and animal species over the earth proceeded from one center rather than from two, and that this one was within the Arctic Circle. . . . Seventh, the early spread of shipless paleolithic men over all the continents is more easily explained on the theory of a primeval Arctic point of departure than on any other yet propounded. Eighth, the traditions and mythologies of the oldest nations contain data which are incapable of credible interpretation except as faint memories of a time when far-off ancestors lived in a circumpolar region. . . . No reviewer of the treatise has ever disproved, or even challenged, any one of these representations of the "pertinent facts." . . . Years have passed, but the writer has felt no misgiving as to the outcome of the discussion. Had it been otherwise, treatises well adapted to dissipate every doubt were every now and then appearing. With amazing erudition, in a work of more than a thousand pages, John O'Neill set forth the circumpolar, and indeed the Arctic, standpoint of every early mythology. Independently of him, a native Sanskrit scholar of India, Tilak, in a work translated and reproduced three years later in Germany, next claimed that the earliest Vedic hymns were composed in the lands of "the Midnight Sun," and that the far-off ancestors of the Hindus must have come from those lands. With even stronger evidence from the Avestan literature he substantiated the like claim of a high north origin for the Iranian stock. Independently of him, a constantly growing line of investigators,—successors to Latham and Schrader and Penka,—have in successive treatises made it more and more difficult to doubt

that the Arctic region was the cradleland of all the Indo-Germanic peoples. Meantime paleontologists and anthropologists of every school have been accumulating fresh facts, and men of the standing of Kriz, Moritz Wagner, Haacke, Rawitz, Wilser, in Germany; and Scribner, Wortman, Dolbear, and Wieland, in America, are from year to year renewedly directing the gaze of all searchers for origins, animal or human, to "Arctogæa," the zoögraphic zone whose zenith is the polar star.

It is worth noting that as early as 1844 Count Björnstjerna, of Sweden, in his "Theogony of the Hindoos," had remarked: "It is possible that the appearance of man took place at the same time in both regions [the two poles]; perhaps the white race in the countries about the North Pole, and the black race in those about the South Pole."

Dr. Warren calls attention to the wide prevalence in ancient thought of two paradises, one on the earth and the other in the heavens; usually connected by a "bridge," "ladder," or "pillar." This medium of intercommunication was in every instance "coincident in position with the upright axis of the heavens and earth." Moreover, in the ancient Babylonian conception of the world the polar summit of the earth reached to the floor of the second heaven. Egyptologists, too, hold that in the mythology of the Nile Valley the heavenly On, the throne-city of the sun, was at the north pole of the heavens. Dr. Warren's theory is not without support among modern scientists. Our own anthropologist, W J McGee, maintains that "it is now more certain than two decades ago that men existed in Tertiary times." Mr. Samuel Waddington, a distinguished member of the Anthropological Institute of Great Britain, holds that "the evidence clearly shows that our ancestors were in North America during the later portion of the Tertiary epoch, and that they came there from or by the Arctic regions, Bering Straits, or Greenland." And Mr. Edward Clodd, in his "Story of Creation," unhesitatingly declares: "It is therefore to the North Pole . . . that all evidence points as the area of the origin and distribution of life." The trend of recent literature on the subject seems unmistakably to be toward the conclusion that "the cradleland of the animal kingdom was within the Arctic Circle"; and, as Mr. G. Hilton Scribner suggests, "the *homo sapiens* may have reached his human stage after his animal progenitors had left the circumpolar country and while they were en route from polar to equatorial regions."

THE FEMINIST MOVEMENT IN CHINA.

IN recent numbers of the REVIEW we have noticed the remarkable awakening among the women of Persia, Turkey, and Algiers. Now China has to be added to the list of countries the women of which are "striking for their rights." According to M. Albert Maybon, in *La Revue* (Paris) for October 15, the signs are unmistakable that Chinese family life is destined at no distant date to undergo a complete transformation. It must be admitted that the present condition of woman in China cries aloud for amelioration. It is an axiom in the Middle Kingdom: "The daughter is subject to her father; the wife to her husband; the mother to her son." The family is the basis of the state, and the subordination of the woman is the fundamental law of the family. The *raison d'être* of the legal marriage in China is to give to the deceased members of the family male descendants who shall care for their sepulchral existence: in due course these descendants will celebrate the domestic rites, and the entombed ancestors will be made happy.

The daughter does not count for anything. At eight years of age her feet are deformed. She enters the gynæceum, or women's apartment, thoughtless and ignorant. Between twelve and thirteen she is married, her husband having been selected without consulting her. From this moment she is free of parental control and devotes herself entirely to her new life. If she presents her lord with no children, he may repudiate her. Commonly the husband purchases other women, who become wives of the second rank; and the children of these are admitted to equal rights with those of the legitimate wife. If the latter be childless, her existence is an intolerable one. . . . To terminate it she generally has recourse to suicide. In the case of widowhood, if she belongs to the poorer class, she may remarry; if, on the other hand, she mourns a mandarin, she is condemned to widowhood for the rest of her days, and she must dwell with her deceased husband's parents, of whom she has become the property. Only when a woman has borne numerous sons does she attain to an enviable position: now she is honored in respect of a long line of heirs through whom the memory of their ancestors will be kept green.

The feminist movement in China may be said to have originated with K'ang Yeou Wei, who is known as the "modern Confucius," and who was the author of the revolution of 1898. In 1891 he published some exegetical works on the Chinese classics, and in connection therewith created no small surprise by anticipating "a democracy in which the masses should partake of the responsi-

bilities of government, and in which the two sexes should enjoy equal rights." Since then the movement has been steadily growing. Anti-footbinding societies have been established; numerous young women's clubs have been formed, and some of the members have boldly proclaimed themselves as "girls who follow their own will." At Peking and Shanghai a "gazette for young women and girls" has appeared; and in a recent number of the *Pei king niu pao* one reads the following:

O ye two hundred millions of Chinese, our sisters, listen! In China it is said that man is superior and woman inferior; that man is noble and woman vile; that man should command and woman obey. . . . But we are not under the domination of man. The nature of man and of woman is the universal sense of Heaven. How, then, can one make distinctions and say that the nature of man is of one sort, and that of woman of another? for the celestial principle has neither form nor figure.

Recently the second wife of the celebrated Yuan Che-k Bai, president of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, said in the course of an address:

It is stated that the population of China numbers 400,000,000. But, if one deducts from this figure the Chinese women and considers them as ciphers, China has but half of its inhabitants. . . . The woman who remains in ignorance wrongs not only herself, but also her family and her country.

A notable sign of the times is the eagerness with which translations of European books are being read by Chinese women. In place of the works of native authors there is a constantly increasing demand for those of Dumas, H. G. Wells, Jules Verne; and even "Robinson Crusoe" has had such a vogue that "Man Friday" has become quite a popular hero. The adventures of the indomitable Sherlock Holmes (who in Chinese becomes *Fou-euell-mo-se*) have "capped the most marvelous in the national literature." It is noteworthy, too, that one of the prominent romances recently published in Chinese has for its title "Free Marriage."

One feature of the feminist movement is that to a certain extent it is receiving official endorsement, indirectly if not directly. At the suggestion of the wives of certain ministers the court has decided to send thirty young women abroad to study medicine and the industrial and the fine arts. And in the new code of education for women occur the following:

The good education of the citizens of the empire depends upon the good education of its women.

There are certain undesirable customs in China: some men regard women with scorn; others treat them harshly.

Women, like men, should practice the professions: they ought not to pass their lives in eating and gossiping and with no employment.

But the same act recites that:

Women should remain subject to their fathers, mothers, and husbands.

When proposals are made tending to a free *rapprochement* of the sexes, these should al-

ways be combated. The woman should not have the right to choose her husband, etc.

And the Minister of Public Instruction forbids

the pupils in the schools to take part in meetings for the purpose of criticising the administration, and in conferences organized by young men; to form clubs, associations, to direct journals, to write on the social evolution, etc.

From all of which it will be seen that the fair "progressivists" have still some fighting before them.

A TRIBUTE TO CHARLES ELIOT NORTON.

"**M**ORE than he could ever have dreamed, the passing of Mr. Norton has stirred among those whose lives came within his influence a deep sense of 'loss in all familiar things.' There can be no more tender consecration of a human memory. What he meant for so many of us is shadowed in the fact that, when one tries to write of him, the pen will hardly trace any prefix to his name. Norton alone we have always called him among ourselves,—partly in admiration, partly in affection. Any intruding word now seems tinged with perfunctory untruth." These words occur in a graceful and touching tribute to the late Harvard professor from the pen of Prof. Barrett Wendell, in the current number of the *Atlantic Monthly*. Himself a former pupil of Professor Norton, Professor Wendell is able to draw largely on college reminiscences, and his observations on his old mentor indicate the peculiarly cordial relations which existed between the teacher and his students.

Referring to the fact that thirty years ago it was the fashion of some to pretend that, compared with his erudite colleagues, Norton was a man rather of culture than of learning, Professor Wendell admits that temperamentally this might be true.

Mere information he valued at its own insignificant worth. Whatever he knew, throughout the years of his unceasing acquisition, he cared for only when he could perceive its relation to the system of truth and of wisdom toward which his aspiration stayed courageous. His learning was never a thing apart; it was a part of himself. Yet the better you knew him the more you marveled, not only at its range, but at its accuracy,—an accuracy superficially submerged in the ease of his mastery. Thus, whenever we found ourselves in the presence of literature, of fine art, of history or philosophy, of politics, or even of the men and the

deeds of each passing year, we grew experienced and secure in faith that Norton knew it all before us,—that we might turn to him, at any moment, should opportunity serve, for instant, resolute opinion. This opinion would often differ from your own; it might even excite you to passing resentment; but it could never be ignored. It became, you could hardly tell when or how, a factor in your habitual estimates of life. When such an influence has persisted through five and thirty years, the world can never again seem quite the same without it.

As a teacher, his supreme trait was his "exquisite precision,—of manner, of speech, of knowledge, and even still more of conviction." . . . He used to make his instruction penetrate natures on which the instruction of so many other men only impinged." An interesting example of this is cited:

In a lecture about some aspects of the fine arts of Greece he uttered devastating comments on the contrast between Greek articles of personal adornment and the machine-made scarf-pins, or watch-chains with dangling appendages, then observable in any company of American youth. A classmate of mine subsequently reproached him, in private, for lack of sentiment. The boy possessed some golden ornament, in the form of a horseshoe, affectionately given him by his mother; he was proud to wear it, he said, for her sake. Norton's reply, I believe, was gentle but final: an object of piety, he pointed out, is not consequently a thing of beauty. My friend's ardor of resentment took some time to cool. Years afterward, though, I met him at a Roman goldsmith's, choosing some trifle for his wife. The horseshoe still gleamed not very far from his heart, where it belonged; but, as he showed me two pieces of delicate workmanship between which he was hesitating, he asked me, seriously and simply, which I thought Norton would prefer.

The least salient yet perhaps the most extraordinary phase of his culture was his faculty of acquisition, which he had learned to use with remarkable certainty and swift-

ness. Professor Wendell recalls a notable instance of this:

In 1897 a committee of which we both were members authorized me to select, during a short visit to London, a number of books, to be given as prizes to Harvard students. At different times, for a good many days, the matter engaged my punctilious attention. The books, finally chosen, were sent to America. Lists of them, left in my possession, reminded me from time to time of what they were. If any one could carry in mind what that invoice contained, I should have supposed it would have been I. Meanwhile, having agreed with other members of the committee to intrust the purchase to me, he never saw either list or books until we assembled at Harvard, one autumn afternoon, to assign the prizes. The books were spread on a large table. For ten minutes or so he looked them over; and I like to remember that he said something approving my choice. Then he sat down in some comfortable place from which he could not see the titles. The assignment of prizes began; one book allotted to this student, the next to that, and so on. By the time we had dealt with a half dozen I could not have told you what was on the table or what had never been there,—still less what had been assigned to whom, and what not. Norton, meanwhile, not only kept the whole fortuitous collection, of forty or fifty volumes, clearly and firmly in mind; from his distant chair he reminded us with unflinching accuracy of just how we had disposed of every book already dealt with.

Of Norton's relations with his students, Professor Wendell says:

He not only encouraged us; he was always willing that we should turn to him for counsel. Of the men who thus youthfully came within range of his influence, all who survive are now older than he was then. None of us, I think, has been very close to him in later life; yet none has ever forgotten him. So far as we have accomplished anything in literature or in art,—and even though our work may mostly have little endurance,—we have tried to make it sweeten life and never vulgarize,—a constant element of our strength has sprung from the welcome he gave us when want of welcome might have meant starvation. He never pretended to approve us without reserve; but he understood that we were trying to be real. We can never fail in gratitude for our passing share in the greatness of his friendship.

The personal reticence of the late professor had a peculiar grace, counting intrusion beneath the dignity of friendship.

When he spoke or wrote, publicly or in private, about friends who had gone before him, he was scrupulous to extenuate nothing nor ought to set down in malice. Above all else, however, he was punctilious in respect for their domesticity. Anecdote he loved; gossip he disdained; scandal he despised; shameless intrusion he so detested that his incessant care was to guard others, perhaps excessively, from the consequences of their own unpremeditated utterance. Not to reverence his example were disloyal.



PROF. CHARLES ELIOT NORTON.

(The late New England scholar, student, and man of culture.)

At times there was something almost repellent about the calm certainty of his conviction. "In controversy, he would sometimes appear so sure of himself that you were prone to fancy his vision infirm." In this connection the *Boston Transcript* remarked (anent the late professor's attitude toward art and artists of the present day):

Professor Norton has been accustomed to say that there had been no sculpture since the ancient Greeks and no painters since the great Italians of the sixteenth century and the Renaissance. So conscientious in his convictions has he become . . . as to be unable to change them.

This trait was, however, more apparent than real. His students who sat under him knew the inspiration of his encouragement; and perhaps what was most helpful to them, says Professor Wendell, was his friendliness to aspiration.

Equally was he the friend "of men themselves called great." Carlyle, Ruskin, Matthew Arnold, Emerson, Longfellow, Curtis, Lowell, and Howells,—the list of his friends might lengthen long. And, adds Professor Wendell:

Seek, and you shall not find a single one, among the seemingly greater about him, ignobly distorted by his companionship.

GUGLIELMO FERRERO: ROME'S NEW HISTORIAN.

FEW visits of eminent foreigners to the United States have evoked so much interest in American literary circles as that of Signor Ferrero, the historian, of whom an appreciative notice, from the pen of Sibilla Aleramo, appears in the December *Putnam's*. And the interest is fully justified by both



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GUGLIELMO FERRERO.

the man and his work. "Ten or twelve years ago," says this writer, "there appeared in Italy a new writer full of ideas,—a rarity in this country. He was a young man of only twenty-five, but his book, "Young Europe,"—a collection of studies made in Germany, Russia, England, and Scandinavia,—had an immediate success."

Thus Guglielmo Ferrero became instantly famous. The son of a Piedmontese railway engineer, he was born at Portici, near Naples, in 1871. Educated in Tuscany and Umbria, he studied law at Pisa, and took a diploma in belles-lettres at Bologna in the school of the great poet Carducci. . . . At an early age he began his travels. At eighteen he was invited by Cesare Lombroso to collaborate in his work, "La Donna Delinquente" ("The Female Offender"), and his name may be seen on the title-page beside that of the famous psychologist. His doctoral thesis, "Les Symboles dans le Système juridique," had the honor of an immediate

translation into French. . . . Italian and foreign periodicals immediately solicited contributions from Ferrero's pen; a great Milanese journal engaged him to write a weekly article; and the Lombard Society for Peace asked for a course of lectures on militarism.

Then came an interval of quiet, and in 1902 the first volume of his masterwork, "The Greatness and Decline of Rome," proclaimed to the world that a new name must be added to the list of great historians. Ferrero's intellectual activity, "which had been spread over a variety of subjects, now became concentrated."

Since then only a few articles, suggested by important events, have appeared from his pen. He has also rounded out his life by his marriage with Gina, the youngest daughter of Professor Lombroso, herself laureate in science and medicine. . . . Tall and thin, ascetic and imperious at once, he is more a man of the North than of the South. In speaking, he becomes animated, and his words flow rapidly and easily like his written prose.

ROMAN HISTORY FROM A NOVEL VIEWPOINT.

To the present, five volumes of Signor Ferrero's history of Rome have appeared. According to the preface, those yet to come will treat of "The Cæsars," "The Cosmopolitan Empire," and "The Decadence of Rome." The five volumes already published tell the story of "The Conquest of the Empire." Concerning these the writer says:

In Signor Ferrero's history, for the first time in Italian literature, this past, which formerly has only revealed to us almost fabulous heroes,—called Pompey, Cæsar, Cleopatra, Brutus, Augustus, etc.,—unfolds before us like a vast stage on which the masses play a great part,—the agricultural aristocracy, the new commercial middle class, the turbulent people of Rome, the provinces, the tax-collectors in all the centres of the empire. Figures stand out on this background,—agitators such as Cataline, governors enriched by graft, such as Verres, young provincial Italians such as Cornelius Nepos, Cicero, and Varro, hurrying to exercise in the capital their oratorical, poetical, and scientific talents; later on, Horace and Virgil, and powerful bankers like Atticus the friend of Cicero, and Mecenas the friend of Horace. Then the great enemies of Rome emerge, such as Mithridates and Cleopatra. Finally, in high relief appear the great captains, legislators, and conquerors,—Lucullus, Cæsar, Augustus,—makers of empire and playthings of fate.

It was in the ordinary course of things that such a vast work should be criticised as well as admired.

Such a work of interpretation and synthesis could not obtain unreserved assent from delvers

in the same fields, philosophical and historic. Its author has been most reproached for not ignoring contemporary history, for comparing modern economic and social facts and conditions with ancient, for often employing a terminology of the present day. Does he lessen the dignity of history when he speaks of "capital" and "syndicates," when he compares the electoral college of Clodius, commanded by Cæsar and gathered from the idle and the freedmen supported by the state, to Tammany Hall? The truth is, there are astonishing points of similarity between the Roman democracy and that of our own times. . . . But some modern terms are scarcely appropriate. For instance, the influence of women like Fulvia, the wife of Antoninus; Julia, wife of Tiberius, even of Livia, wife of Augustus,—an influence obtained by intrigue,—has nothing to do with what we know as "feminism," which is the opposite, that is to say, the right of defense and of individual development, obtained openly, by means not characteristically feminine, but simply civic, human.

But, after every critic has had his say, it cannot be denied that, from the point of view

presented by Signor Ferrero, the actions of historic personages acquire a new value.

He shows us the work of Lucullus completely unappreciated by his contemporaries; Cicero is no longer a mere advocate or dilettante philosopher; his orations gain high political significance, his "De Officiis" and "De Republica" become socially influential works. Cæsar, seen in his actions, is no longer the demigod of many historians, but a man who wished to reconstitute the democratic party, enlarge the policy of Lucullus, and form a personal government, and who did not succeed; a great man, but not a great statesman. . . . Augustus, who was not the comedian some historians have thought him, but wished sincerely to construct the republic without sacrificing the old institutions, having tried several times to retire to private life, had to resign himself to becoming the head of the state. He governed wisely for forty years, during the dissolution of the ancient institutions. The empire was consolidated, to remain united for two centuries.

It has been asked "Was a new history of Rome needed?" To this question Signor Ferrero's work is itself the best answer.

CLÉMENCEAU, THE "MARVELOUS OLD MAN."

NO other European Premier has had as checkered a career as Georges Clémenceau, First Minister of the French Republic. Just how varied and strenuous this life has been is set forth in virile graphic style by Mr. Vance Thompson in a recent issue of *Human Life*. In general characterization of Clémenceau Mr. Thompson says:

It is when you see him in parliamentary battle that you get the full measure of the man. You see his courage, his contempt for fools, his superb self-confidence. He is no orator as French orators go, full of the Jauresque fury of words. There is wit; there is irony, and there is a dangerous power of invective. Few men, other than Paul Déroulède, have cared, or care now, to face Clémenceau in debate, for of all these politicians of to-day and yesterday he knows so many things. And of that discouraging fact they are aware.

A very important point in Clémenceau's career, we are told, was his sojourn in the United States.

Kindly memories must stir in him, for Clémenceau has thrown all his influence for many years to bring about the friendliest relations with the United States. England, too, succored him when he was an outlaw from his own country. And Clémenceau has paid his debt in full to England. To him and to no other man is due the *entente cordiale* which has bound the two nations, so unfriendly five years ago, into a kind of brotherhood. He has made popular,—in the Latin civilization of France,—the harder ideals



From *Illustration*, Paris.

CLÉMENCEAU, IN HIS NATIVE VILLAGE.

(The French Premier loves to steal away from the cares of state to his native town of Bocage, in the Vendée. He is here walking with a cousin, for the Premier is of peasant stock.)

of the Anglo-Saxon world. I do not think this was done out of any definite policy. Rather, I believe, it was the result of sentimental fondness for American and English ideas,—a grateful memory of his own early days. Clémenceau is not one to execute a coldly conceived plan. He is a Prince Rupert of politics. He loves battle. And when he fights for an ideal it is because something has stirred his blood. Now in binding France to England he has paid royally for the hospitality and comfort given him in the dark days of the Commune and the darker days of Panama. It is for this new alignment of the nations he will be remembered in history,—not for Dreyfus warfare nor the crusade against the Catholic Church.

One notable phase in the Clémenceau character is gratitude. That he pays off old scores in politics is simply what is true of every political fighter. Hard blows are the rule, not the exception, in the political arena. Our last Presidential campaign gave ample evidence of that. Mr. Thompson says, in illustration:

Through him [Clémenceau] England has made peace with her ancient enemy Russia. Through him the German war-lord has been hemmed in on every side and instructed in the beauties of peace. That so great a work should have been due to an impulse of gratitude would be strange indeed were not Clémenceau exactly

the kind of man he is. Up to the age of sixty-seven he owed scores right and left,—scores of money, vengeance, and affection. He has paid them every one in due negotiable coin. When he was hooted down in a Panama parliament only one voice was lifted in his behalf,—it was that of a young deputy named Pichou. To-day, under Clémenceau, he is Minister of Foreign Affairs. Paid in full. Courage is good; and you can't help admiring the corsair-like battle Clémenceau has made for half a century; brain is a good thing and you rather like the Clémenceau brain, with its cynicism and keen vision; but it is as a debt-payer that Clémenceau will gain your greatest approbation,—for whether in vengeance or gratitude he pays. The marvelous old man!

What strikes most in Clémenceau, concludes Mr. Thompson, is his astonishing vitality.

For the years you know of he battled with failure, obloquy, and indigence; and then of a sudden his star rose,—a gray Saturn creeping up into the place of power,—and triumph tasted sweet upon his old lips and made him young again. His name will go down into history,—not as that of a great man,—but somehow or other the world will not willingly let die the memory of this bold, sneering, desperate old man who snatched,—at sixty-seven!—the mastership of France. It is at once too exceptional and too dramatic.

SARDOU, AS SEEN BY HIS CONTEMPORARIES.

A STRIKING sentence in the eulogy upon the late Victorien Sardou, which appeared in the *Figaro* (Paris) sets forth the point of view of all intelligent Frenchmen on the career and influence of the dramatic author who has just passed away. The writer says:

The church, so long ostracized because of the advantages given the opposition through the separation law, came into her own again at the obsequies of Victorien Sardou. Added to the splendid spectacle of a funeral according to the strict Catholic rite, Paris saw the body of the only dramatic author ever decorated with the French order of the Legion of Honor escorted to the church by official representatives of the national government, the army of the republic, and the municipality of Paris.

The government was represented on this occasion by M. Doumergue, Minister of Public Instruction, who, in the course of his address, declared: "Sardou served his country in other ways than by his dramatic labors; he gave his authority and his experience for the defense of French letters." In the course of a long oration upon the same occasion, M. Paul Hervieu, speaking in the name of the dramatic authors of France, said:

The name Victorien Sardou means more to us than the appellation of a dramatic author. It is



VICTORIEN SARDOU, JUST BEFORE HIS DEATH.

our rallying cry. It is the symbol of indisputable authority, of ruling power for good, of long years of passionate devotion to the art and the literature of France and to the Society of French authors.

In a biographical article in the *Monde Illustré* an anonymous writer tells us:

Born in Paris in 1831, Victorien Sardou produced his first play at the age of twenty-three. This production, entitled "*Maison des Etudiants*," fell flat. Sardou, however, was a born playwright, and his failure did not dishearten him. He was an artist who sketched close to nature, a musician who harmonized everything he touched, a dramatic author of versatile and powerful imagination. "*Madame Sans-Gêne*" was written in answer to those sarcastic critics who taunted Sardou with being a "jobber of the drama." After "*Madame Sans-Gêne*" the critics were silent. . . . Sardou was the incarnation of dramatic work: vaudeville, legitimate drama, histories, sketches of current man-

ners and habits, everything dramatizable. With all, he was an expert stager of plays, kind, and indulgent, but determined and tenacious. . . . Sardou was a walking encyclopedia. His memory was unailing and to the last every one consulted him and depended on him.

In a long appreciation appearing in the *Annales M. Emile Faguet* says:

The bases of his nature were, first, anxiety to know all things and to acquire just judgment and sagacity; and, second, a many-sided mind incessantly in action. . . . He had by birth the art of combining the activity of his mind with a thousand different tastes and literary impulses. That perhaps was his only secret. He lived his life, a well balanced one, constantly solicited from all sides, constantly interrupted, incessantly renouncing himself, and taking for discipline and moral exercise what other men deplored as interruptions. As a whole, his life was useful, beautiful, supremely intense, and wonderfully fruitful for good.

THE TERCENTENARY OF JOHN MILTON.

IT was a happy idea, that of duplicating in New York the celebration in the church of St. Mary-le-Bow, London, of the three-hundredth anniversary of the birth of John Milton. The simple fact that the poet should be thus honored simultaneously in the Old World and in the New is a sufficient answer to those who are wont to complain that Milton is not appreciated to-day to the extent that he ought to be. The appropriateness of the New York celebration was happily set forth in the letter written on the occasion by Ambassador Bryce:

It is well the occasion of John Milton's birth should be celebrated in America, not only because he was a friend to some of those who planted the institutions of England on these Western shores, but also because he was the man who best expressed in verse of unsurpassed beauty and the inspiration of incomparable strength those ideas of the Puritans of the seventeenth century which so profoundly affected the American spirit.

Of the numerous articles in the magazines and in the daily press to which the anniversary gave rise, one of the most interesting is that by Prof. Harry Thurston Peck in the current issue of the *Cosmopolitan*, entitled "The Many-Sided Milton." Speaking of the remarkable contradictions in the character of the author of "*Paradise Lost*," he says:

According as we view him from one angle or another, he seems quite inconsistent with himself. Indeed, there are several Miltons, each of them almost unrelated to the others. What has

the young Milton, expanding under the blue skies of Italy, writing sonnets to pretty girls or singing in blithesome mood of "spicy nut-brown ale" and tipsy dance and jollity,—what has he to do with the dour Latin secretary to the Commonwealth, inditing grave despatches of state, or hurling foul names at the Lord Protector's enemies? And still another Milton is the Milton who wrote "*Paradise Lost*," dignified, austere, and yet benignant. We are apt to think of Milton as the strictest of religionists, and it is hard to reconcile this aspect of the man with his neglect of public worship and with the fact that in his later years he had no prayers at home. And then there is the harsh, stern, tyrannical Milton who made even his children hate him,—the schoolmaster and writer on education, who, nevertheless, would not have his eldest daughter even learn to write.

When Milton's blindness came upon him, "his daughters were his slaves, and, like all slaves, they united against their master."

Thus, if Milton made them read to him for long hours, and rated them for their mistakes, they took their revenge in petty pilfering, and they sold for their private gain many of the books he loved.

Professor Peck thinks "it is pleasanter to draw a veil over this chapter of a great man's life," and we agree with him.

The Poet's Deep Scholarship.

Alluding to Milton's erudition, Mr. J. E. G. de Montmorency, in the *Contemporary Review*, characterizes him as a scholar in the fullest sense.

His scholarship was the fruit of untiring labor. When the slight, beautiful boy went to Christ's College, Cambridge, in 1624, and was there nick-



JOHN MILTON AT SIXTY-TWO.

named "The Lady," from his singular physical charm, he was already learned beyond the wont of a learned age. . . . Already a complete master of Greek, Latin, French, and Italian, and a student of Hebrew, he remained at Cambridge eight years, and enriched his scholarship with all that the university could offer.

This writer instinctively compares him with Shelley.

They had everything in common except character. . . . Each wore the mantle of song from childhood, each was steeped in classical tradition, each looked with burning heart on the political and social discontents of his own age. Their respective visits to Italy illustrate this fact. . . . Milton returned to England, untarnished in morals and with a European reputation for culture and learning. Shelley found his grave in Italy,—the grave of almost infinite powers. . . . I would deliberately compare "Prometheus Unbound" with "Paradise Lost" as a further instance of a kinship hardly paralleled in the annals of literature.

Milton's Public Services.

Referring to Milton's labors for the commonwealth, Mr. William Aspenwall Bradley, in the *New York Times Book Review* for December 5, says, that,

though they claimed twenty of his best years, they probably did not seriously interfere with his artistic development, or greatly lessen his productivity as a poet. They merely satisfied that fierce need for personal participation in political affairs which was part of his nature, and which

forged meanwhile to a higher temper the slow-rising power within him, purging it of all latent elements of weakness. The Puritan revolution gave him, in a sense, the ideal subject for his great poem, and it gave him, too, in the hard discipline which his work as Latin Secretary and pamphleteer imposed upon him, the power to treat this subject not as he might have treated it in his young manhood, with an unripened exuberance of extraneous ornament, but with all the spare muscular energy of a mind intellectually athletic.

Mr. Bradley brings out clearly another point, Milton's treatment of nature. He says:

In a sense Milton is the pioneer in the introduction of nature as a major theme in English poetry, so greatly did he enlarge the scope of the old pastoral form by introducing into it elements of direct nature. But it is nature uninterpreted, nature without mystery or life of its own, nature seen always objectively and as landscape, that he depicts it.

"Our Supreme Literary Man."

Mr. Wilfred Whitten has an article in *Putnam's* for December. He repeats there in a question asked by him in the *Academy* eight years ago, whether writers of to-day "sufficiently remember and attend on Milton as our supreme literary man."

For Milton is the greatest workman in words whom writers of English can watch and understand. Every young writer should learn from Milton what our language can do, and every young critic what our language has done.

It will be remembered that Macaulay, also, regretted that Milton's prose writings should be so little read. He considered that, viewed merely as compositions, they deserved

the attention of every man who wishes to become acquainted with the full power of the English language. They abound with passages compared with which the finest declamations of Burke sink into insignificance. Not even in the earlier books of the "Paradise Lost" has the great poet ever risen higher than in those parts of his controversial works in which his feelings, excited by conflict, find a vent in bursts of devotional and lyric rapture.

His Intellectual Vastness.

A reverent analytical appreciation of Milton appears in the current *Atlantic Monthly* from the pen of the Rev. George A. Gordon. This analysis of the poet's distinctive gifts is worth noting:

In Milton there are no concealments, no pretensions, no sudden surprises, but one continuous amazement over sustained power. As he writes with pathetic fidelity to his own character, in his blind eyes alone, which appeared as if their vision was perfect, was he a dissembler, and that against his will. What we find in Mil-

ton are vast knowledge vitalized by an imagination unsurpassed for compass and originality in human history, pathos deep as life, an ear for harmony faultless and sure, strength in every energy of mind, and grandeur in every instinct of his being. There is in Milton no humor, no persuasive sympathy with light-heartedness and laughter, no happy setting of our human pilgrimage in the sweet heart of nature as in Chaucer, no union of legend and dreamy, mystic spirituality as in Spenser, no divine variety such as we find in Shakespeare, no palpitating, irrepressible lyric humanity as in Burns.

In Milton we meet, as in no other poet in our tongue, the stately march of vast powers, the noble vision of the ideal side of existence, rapt regard for moral and eternal issues, prophetic insight and prophetic fire, oracles of splendor in music like that of the spheres, an organ voice, as Tennyson says, with an anthem sublime, moving in its mighty monotone, a monotone admitting every variety of color and shade, weaving into its majestic fabric the weariness, the sorrow, the despair, and the victory of great spirits, its warp and woof: the light and darkness of the world.

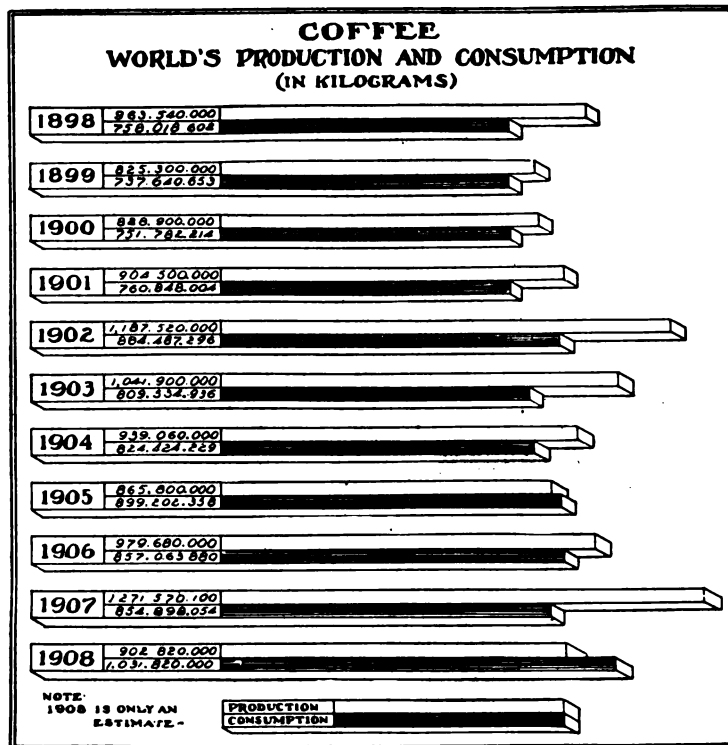
COFFEE, THE WORLD'S DRINK.

A GRAPHIC and informing editorial review of the coffee situation,—production and consumption,—appears in the November number of the *Bulletin of the International Bureau of the American Republics*. According to the writer, during the year 1908 Brazil, the producer for the world, gave us 11,500,000 bags; Central America exported 1,500,000 bags, and Venezuela came third with 950,000 bags. The East Indies, including Java, produced 697,000 bags, and Haiti sent abroad 50,000. The article referred to has the following to say of the introduction of coffee into Europe:

The first coffee shrubs grown in Europe were carefully raised and studied in conservatories by French and Dutch scientists in Paris and Amsterdam. The energetic Dutch were quick to perceive the economic value and possibilities of coffee, and in 1600 the first tree was transported from Mocha, Arabia, to Batavia, Java, by one Nicholas Witsen, of Amsterdam. This tree flourished in its new home, and, as the climate, geographical position, and soil of Java and the adjoining Dutch Indies proved favorable to coffee-raising, the plant multiplied with wonderful rapidity in those far-off Oriental possessions of Holland, and the foundation was thus laid for one of the principal sources of her commercial prosperity.

Romantic stories are attached to the introduction of coffee into the New World.

It is, for example, asserted that De Clieux, a Norman gentleman and naval lieutenant, sailed in 1723 from France for Martinique, in the West Indies, and took with him a coffee-tree intrusted to his care by a physician. The voyage was long and tempestuous, but De Clieux shared his scanty portion of drinking-water with the plant, which, though weak upon its arrival in Martinique, recovered under De Clieux's watchful care. From this tree, it is said, came all the coffee-shrubs in the island, which more than supplied all the coffee required for the consumption of the whole of France. According to





THE COFFEE-TREE AND BERRIES.

Rossignon, the ancestor of all the coffee-trees in Brazil was grown in the Jardin des Plantes of Paris, but other authorities assert that a Portuguese named Joao Alberto Castello Branco planted in 1760, in Rio de Janeiro, a coffee-bush originally brought from Goa.

As to the color and size of the beans, the writer of this article says:

The color and size of the berries differ very much, as is demonstrated in a table published

by Arnold, which represents the number of grains that can be contained in a small measure capable of holding fifty grams of water. It contains 187 of the dark, fine Java coffee, 203 of Costa Rica, 207 of the good Guatemalan, 210 of the good Caracas, 213 of the Santos, 217 of Mocha, 236 of Rio, 248 of Manila, 313 of western Africa. In other words, Java beans are the largest, as fewer of them enter into the measure, and the scale diminishes until it reaches western Africa coffee, of which 313 beans fill the same measure that will contain 187 of Java. The same author maintains that coffee becomes better as it ages. Java coffee of superior quality is not exported until six or seven years after it has been picked. As it becomes drier, when it is roasted, it produces a richer cream.

As to the culture of coffee, the writer says:

The successful cultivation of the coffee-bush requires an expert knowledge, which can be gained only by experience and by experiment. The plant flourishes best in well-watered and drained regions, in a hot, moist climate, at considerable elevation, in a rich soil. Other conditions being favorable, it can withstand occasional light frosts. The rainfall should be 75 to 150 inches per annum, well distributed over all the seasons. Irrigation, when required, as in certain portions of Arabia and Mexico, must be intermittent, so as to avoid a water-soaked soil. The soil must be porous, as an impervious stratum within reach of the taproot (which is thirty inches long) is fatal, for no sooner does the taproot reach it than the tree falls off and dies.

IS MODERN GERMANY HOPELESSLY DECADENT?

THIS question has been answered in the affirmative time and again by many a distinguished foreigner visiting Germany and studying the German people. However, just as strong as the assertions of these visitors are the denials on the part of German men of science, who have always maintained that the great masses in Germany are as healthy as ever and that a country whose inhabitants during the last thirty years have increased at the rate of nearly 700,000 a year need not fear the fate of Babylon or of Rome.

It is all the more significant that now from their own rank and file a serious cry of warning is raised, from a man who for years has studied the economic conditions and the moral standards, the literary and art life in Germany, and who, during many years, has retained his optimistic confidence in the future of the German people. That this man should now turn pessimist proves that the conviction of the seriousness of this decay is grow-

ing stronger and stronger in Germany herself.

Dr. Otto Schmidt-Gibichenfels, the well-known ethical German writer, publishes an essay in the *Hammer*, a bimonthly published at Leipsic, in which he speaks of this perversity in Germany. He does not refer to certain scandals which have attracted such attention during the beginning of this year, but of what he calls "the perversion of healthy nature and true culture which permeates large classes of society, and which has wormed its way into all domains of ethical and even esthetical life." He says:

In business life, in politics, in social life, on the stage, in literature, in the daily papers, in magazines, in art exhibits, wherever we look, we find the unnatural, the ugly, the common, the low in the lead. It is true that this fashion is created by certain circles in the large cities, but these circles set the fashion, dictate the taste to the entire material and spiritual life of our times, and they carry the germ of decadence in such

stratas of society which are still comparatively healthy.

Dr. Schmidt-Gibichenfels admits that he has for years underestimated the danger of this disease, that he has placed too much confidence in the soundness of the independent educated middle class of the nation. But he sees this class becoming economically more and more reduced, intellectually less and less influential. "The struggle for existence," he comments, "uses up all their power. There is neither time nor money nor strength left for the common weal, for the cause of culture."

The heaviest burden of these most critical conditions is borne by such writers and artists who still belong to the healthy class, and who still make a fight against the morass of perversity around them. It is well-nigh impossible for them to find a publisher for their work, a stage for their plays, or a room for their exhibits. All the easier is it made to the overcultivated, financially oftentimes independent decadent dilettante. He finds open doors for his productions, no matter how inferior they may be. Minor talents of decadent nature, or rather because of their perverse character, reign supreme. They not only find publishers, managers, but they also find critics who, thoroughly imbued with the same germ disease, declare the output of these so-called artists the very flower of modern thought and art. Publishers after all are business men, so are managers and art dealers. What they want are "hits" and "sure things." Serious and clean works are therefore almost barred from the market, which is flooded by a literature of perversity to such a degree that soon no thinking person will feel inclined to buy any books or to see any plays whatever. The deplorable fact that a book like "Briefe einer Verlorenen" ("Letters of a Prostitute") has seen an edition of 100,000 in a short time, and that another book, still more inferior, more absurd, more lying, called "Letters of Another Prostitute," has been sold by tens of thousands, prove that the publishers know their public only too well.

These are the conditions as he finds them. Of course, he does not diagnose the case without at least trying to find a remedy, but he admits in the end that he cannot find one. He says:

If the government would step in, all the liberal papers would raise the hue and cry of oppression, of attempts against the liberty of press, art, and science. Can the publishers or managers help? Hardly. For no one seems to know any more where to draw the dividing line between the good and the bad. What to the one is disgusting, represents to the other the highest perfection in art. And to ask the dear public to help the sane, and to help itself? Whoever has tried it knows that it means a miserable failure. It seems impossible to hold up fate. Whither we go? Whoever knows history cannot doubt it. We must not be deceived by the fact that our economic conditions are still seemingly healthy. The intellectual level of a

people cannot sink lower and lower without dragging the economic level along.

Can Germany's Illness Be Cured?

The recent humiliation of Germany through the latest acts of her head has been impending many years, almost since the beginning of the reign of William II., observes the Polish *Zgoda* (*Harmony*), of Chicago. All Europe has seen that in Bismarckian Germany, and most of all in Prussia, decay has begun along the whole line. "So great, however, was the prestige of the Germans' victory over France in 1871 and of Germany's political domination of the whole world that some people stubbornly shut their eyes to that which they saw."

The poisoner of Germany was the same man who created her political greatness. Bismarck was a man of genius, but devoid of moral bases in public life. Hence, he rendered such services to his Fatherland with his genius as nobody else before him, yet at the same time he poisoned it through his lack of morality. Bismarck's principle was "Might before right,"—which is simply a translation into other words of the old vicious principle, "The end justifies the means." The resulting abscesses on Germany's body are of various magnitude and of various degree, and accordingly they have various names. Hakatism [Polonophobia], haughtiness, the unrestrained desire of rapine, the delighting in the tortures of weaker peoples, guile and falsehood in the relations with other nations, an itching in the fingers for other people's property, boastfulness, and garrulity,—all these are various symptoms of one disease, blood-poisoning through the criminal principle, "The end justifies the means." Parallel with this manifestation in the political life of the German nation there exists a depraving of its private life and an attendant disappearance of intellectual forces in the nation. Every educated man can without reflection enumerate the names of half a hundred Germans of genius that rendered gigantic services in art and science in the period, let us say, from 1830 to 1880. How many great Germans, however, could we give of the present moment? With the exception of a few octogenarians, who have not yet passed into the grave, we have not one German name to which mankind could bow with respect and gratitude. Bismarck, and after him nothing but Eulenburgs, Bülowes, Zeppelins, and the garrulous William II.

But it is not for the Germans of to-day to demand of their government morality in politics, continues this Polish journal, since they themselves are "corrupted to the marrow of the bone by the mania of conquest."

Millions of Germans are raving to-day about a great German empire from Berlin to Bagdad, about the complete annihilation of England, about the seizure of Belgium and Holland, and finally about the transformation of France into a German park in which the tired warriors and diplomatists of the "Vaterland" may enjoy a deserved rest.

LOMBROSO ON THE HAPPINESS OF LUNATIC AND OF GENIUS.

PROF. CESARE LOMBROSO, of Turin University, the famous Italian alienist and criminologist who some years ago, in his book "The Man of Genius," set forth the correspondences that he believed existed between genius and insanity, has written an article entitled "Happiness in Idiots and in Geniuses," which may be found in the issue of the Roman *Nuova Antologia*. The professor here shows that supreme happiness is enjoyed by maniacs and by men of genius, a happiness far transcending the emotions of ordinary mortals, but that the duration of this blissful state differs strangely with the two classes mentioned. In maniacs, the feelings of great felicity endure permanently, indefinitely, while men of genius experience them only for the briefest moments. And he bridges over the distance between these two classes by a trait which he finds very common in them both,—that is to say, megalomania. It may perhaps be well to note that Professor Lombroso is usually considered as very much of a pathological experimentalist; this does not necessarily mean that he goes by guess work, but his theories are not always of such a nature that they can be accepted as conclusive. Nevertheless, his ideas are invariably interesting and provocative of thought and discussion; "The Man of Genius" was attacked and defended all over Europe.

Pleasure is usually a fugitive thing, he commences; it lasts but a short time, and is followed by long periods of annoyance or weariness or regret. Pain, on the other hand, is more persistent and continuous, so much so that cessation therefrom is often accounted a state of enjoyment. Here, incidentally, mention is made of an instrument constructed by the author of this article for measuring the intensity and duration of pleasure.

Strange to say, the state of complete and lasting happiness, so foreign to sane persons, seems to exist in maniacs. Any one who visits a lunatic asylum for a few hours, where he hears desperate shrieking, imagines that he has come to a place of suffering. But after remaining there for some little time, you agree that only there can be met a type of happiness so prolonged and so complete as to offer the key to the condition of joy that is so extremely fleeting in normal beings. . . . The most common delusion of one afflicted with progressive paralytic dementia is that of wealth: millions of *lire*, five hundred billions, all the money in the



CESARE LOMBROSO.

world, to the limit of the idiot's imagination and powers of arithmetic. But mostly the delusion of importance or greatness expresses itself in all manner of forms without particular cohesion. The idiot first boasts of his physical qualities and capabilities, his excellent singing, his enormous weight, his chest of steel, his speed that enables him to run a thousand miles a minute, his bodily secretions of fine wines and precious metals. The women boast of their beauty, of the jewels and ornaments they possess, of the children they give birth to,—twins every day,—and of their husbands, who are princes and emperors. The very entrails of the maniac seem attuned to the height of festivity, as if through intoxication; and this air of perennial joyfulness radiates externally from eyes shining with satisfaction in the height of conscious pride. . . . A man will brag of having dug a tunnel through the whole earth, of having slain ten lions, of singing bass, baritone, and tenor all at once, of having a thousand odalisks in his harem; and he will promise you palaces and honors as the reward of a trifling favor or a kind word. To-day he is general of Europe, king of Rome and the stars; to-morrow he will be pope, anti-pope, coin-specialist, and prime minister. And with the decline of his mentality his elation increases. A woman who was a hopeless case of paralytic dementia persisted in repeating on the two last days of her life, and even in the throes of death, "Oh, how happy I am! How happy I am."

Then there are some peculiar lunatics afflicted with what is known as the circulat-

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ing mania. For a few months in the year they manifest extraordinary activity and cheerfulness; they rush about transacting innumerable business affairs, they talk incessantly with a most exuberant flow of language, they display immense altruism. But all of a sudden they collapse, their energy leaves them, and their buoyancy as well; they take to their beds and refuse to speak to any one or to touch food. Instancing some men of genius analogously smitten who enjoyed periods of marvelous exuberance and buoyancy and creative fervor, which were succeeded by long fits of the most terrible, calamitous depression, the author cites the names of Poe, the philosophers Comte and Schopenhauer, the French poets Verlaine, Baudelaire, and Gérard de Nerval.

Stating that with megalomaniacs happiness is of yet shorter duration, because they are so sensitive on the subject of their ambitions, so apprehensive that these be opposed or thwarted, Professor Lombroso passes on to some cases of geniuses who had megalomania. Tasso and Cardano wished it inferred that they were inspired by God, Mahomet declared openly that he actually was. Any criticism of their opinions they looked upon as extreme persecution. Newton was said to have been murderously infuriated against his scientific contradictors. The Poet Lucius would not rise when Julius Cæsar entered the Assembly of Poets, because he considered himself the better versifier. The Poet Lenau, in an access of delirium, fancied he was King of Hungary. Wezel, a German novelist, conceived the idea of starting a bank and of making his own bank notes; he finally believed he was God, and gave his books the title, "Works of God Vezelius." The Princess di Conti, informing Malherbe that she could show him the most beautiful verses in the world, he replied: "Excuse me, I have already seen them; because if, as you say, they are better than any others, I must have written them myself." Victor Hugo was governed by the obsession of being not only the greatest of all poets, but the greatest of all men, of all countries, of all ages.

But genius is also allied with melancholy:

One might suppose that all of these, in their imagined greatness, would be the happiest of men. However, this is by no means the case, for the worm of the persecution idea gnaws at the most roseate visions of geniuses, as if they were actual maniacs. It is almost proverbial, this tendency to melancholia among most thinkers, which corresponds to their hyperesthesia. . . . Just because their sight reaches further than the ordinary, and because occupied with

too sublime flights, they have not the habits of mind, and because,—like unlike people of mere talent,—the quickly unbalanced, therefore genius is despised and misunderstood by the majority. They do not perceive their points of contact with the rest of mankind, but who do see the intricacies of conduct, and the fact that they disagree with those generally accepted. Every one remembers that Rossini's *Il Barbiere di Siviglia* and Beethoven's *Fidelio* were hissed, Wagner, and in our country Boito because of his opera *Mefistofele*. "There has never been a liberal idea," writes the famous novelist Flaubert, "which has not been unpopular, not a true one that has not scandalized the multitude!"

And as examples of melancholy associated with genius, the author reminds us of Galileo Bruno, the renowned philosopher and astronomer,—burnt by the Holy Inquisition for his views on the nature of God and the constitution of the universe,—Goethe, Burns, Byron, Cooper, Comte, the Italian dramatist Alfieri, and his compatriot, the essayist Leopardi. The professor also dwells upon the case of the Italian physicist and mathematician, Cardano, to exemplify the frequent connection of megalomania with the mania of persecution. Cardano, he relates, declared himself the seventh genius of creation, adding that only one was born every ten centuries; he asserted that he had learned Greek and Latin in three days, had solved 40,000 problems, and made 200,000 discoveries; he claimed to have risen again after death. This man was haunted by the notion that he had innumerable enemies, who were all conspiring against his life, and he accused the faculty of the Paduan University of attempting to poison him. Cardano was in the habit of wearing a suit and head dress of thick leather; in the daytime he would wear leaded soles weighing eight pounds, and at night would roam about armed to the teeth, his face covered with black cloth.

Yet there is compensation for those melancholic fits so frequent in celebrated thinkers and writers.

Geniuses, indeed, enjoy moments of brief but supernal felicity. These are the moments of creative frenzy, which in so many respects resemble the psychic accesses of epileptics; only, since not an ordinary brain is being agitated by convulsions, but a great mind, instead of some atrocious bestiality or dark crime there results a work of lofty character. Beaconsfield writes that he feels as if there were but a step from intense mental concentration to madness. He says that he can hardly describe what he feels in the moments when his sensations are abnormally acute and intense, that everything about him seems to be alive, that he seems to be raving, and is scarcely sure that he really exists. Anal-

ogous are the confessions of St. Paul, Nietzsche, and Dostojewski. . . . And the illustrious Beethoven says: "Musical inspiration is to me that mysterious state in which the whole world appears to shape itself into a vast harmony, when every feeling and every thought I have seem to resound within me, when all the forces of nature seem to become instruments for me, when my whole body is seized with violent

shivering and my hair stands up on end."

Thus, concludes Lombroso, "may complete happiness be found, by a strange contrast, only in the extreme condition of paralysis. But in the first case it is enduring and sterile; in the other, spasmodic and fruitful."

WHO WILL WIN IN PERSIA,—SHAH OR PEOPLE?

A DEEP interest in the progress of Constitutional reform in Persia is manifested by the Russian press and the Russian public generally. Russian publicists are very well informed on Persian affairs, and, therefore, the following summary of events in Persia, which appears in a recent number of the *Russkoye Bogatstro*, is noteworthy.

The great Iranian race, says this serious Russian review, which withstood for nearly 5000 years both the foreign barbarism and the native tyrant and usurper, now stands at the crossroads. Rapidly summarizing the events of the present revolutionary movement, the writer in the *Russkoye Bogatstro* says:

In 1906 the Shah Muzaffar-ed-din reluctantly signed a "harat" assuring the Persian people of a constitution and free institutions. This manifesto was confirmed by Mohammed Ali Mirza, who had succeeded his father to the Persian throne. But from the very beginning there was felt a reactionary tendency on the part of the Shah and those surrounding him. The Liberal ministry was dismissed. Even the Moderate Conservatives could not hold their places, and the reactionaries enjoyed the confidence of Ali-Mohammed. The Liberal movement was finally stifled, and its leaders fled beyond the boundary. The troops of the Shah have not succeeded, however, in stamping out entirely the opposition movement. The struggle for liberty soon blazed up in full vigor, and there is all reason to believe that the reactionaries have had only a premature victory.

The struggle, in its latest phases, was centered around Tabriz, the nest of the revolutionaries, with their chief Sattar-Khan. The latter demand the convocation of a medglis before disarming, which the Shah refuses.

Eynud, the general of the reactionary army, has given Tabriz an ultimatum, but has acted from the beginning without decision. And there are other indications unfavorable to the cause of the Shah. A proclamation has been issued by the Mushtaid, or Ulems, of Nedzef, declaring that "the preservation of Islam and the power of the government depend upon a constitutional order of things." Now Nedzef, a small town in Turkish Asia, is noted for the

grave of the Khalif Ali, and is for the Shi'ite sect just as holy as Mecca or Medina. The Ulems of Nedzef, therefore, enjoy great authority in the Shi'ite-Mussulman world, of which Persia constitutes a part. A proclamation such as this could not but sow dissension among the troops of the reactionaries, and it was therefore unwise of Eynud to hesitate in his operations against Tabriz, even after the date of his ultimatum had expired. Meanwhile another proclamation was issued by the Ulems of Nedzef calling for a holy war against the Shah's government. And when an attack was then made by Eynud on Tabriz he was beaten back with heavy loss, whereupon many warriors deserted to the revolutionaries. In opposition to the proclamation of the Ulems of Nedzef, however, the Ulems of Kerbel (where Hussein, the grandson of Mohammed, was killed), always at variance with the former, have issued a proclamation on their part to the effect that those opposing the present system were apostates. The Chief Ulem, at Teheran, also made the same proclamation. This declaration strengthened very much the government of the Shah. Many arrests have been made, and, on the other hand, an ordinance was issued to convoke a medglis, the elections for which were to take place on October 14 and its opening on November 1. At the same time a firman was issued changing a few statutes in the fundamental laws and prescribing regulations for the elections.

But the Tabriz government was not idle either. It reorganized itself and recruited its army, and vigorously continued its propaganda. Soon many cities between Tabriz and Teheran were seized by the revolutionaries. The cause of the Shah went from bad to worse, and finally the news came to Teheran that the army of Eynud had deserted to the enemy, and that he himself barely escaped with his life. At the same time, another proclamation was issued by the Ulems of Kerbel, reversing their previous opinion, and declaring themselves now to be in full sympathy with the revolutionaries.

Under these unfavorable circumstances a new expedition has been dispatched by the Shah's government against Tabriz. This expedition was headed by the Russian colonel, Lyakhov. Lyakhov has organized the Cossacks of the Shah according to the organization of the Donan Cossacks, and now he is making the expedition with

them. On the way to Tabriz he has been joined by the remnant of Eynud's troops and by the robber band of Kakhim. Now the "Cossacks" have gone on the expedition without hope of victory. The fragment of Eynud's army has been demoralized, and the Kakhim's band joined the expedition rather for the sake of plundering than for assisting the Shah.

Since this review was written the cause of

the people has virtually triumphed. Reports of the struggle over the constitution are conflicting. It is fairly certain, however, that the monarch has acceded to the principal demands of his people. England and Russia have semi-officially announced that they will recognize only a constitutional régime at Teheran.

THE RECREATION OF YOUNG CITY GIRLS.

ANYTHING appearing in the public prints over the signature "Jane Addams" compels attention. In a recent issue of *Charities and the Commons* this estimable lady makes one of her characteristic appeals, which municipal authorities throughout the country would do well to heed.

It is estimated that to-day there are in the United States no fewer than 3,000,000 young women engaged in earning a livelihood. Lawyers and doctors, merchants and manufacturers, storekeepers, telegraph and telephone companies are eager to obtain their services and to profit by their labor. All day long, at the typewriter, the sales-counter, the sewing-machine, or the loom, and then, in the evening,—what? We quote here:

Never before in civilization have such numbers of girls been suddenly released from the protection of the home and permitted to walk unattended upon city streets and to work under alien roofs; for the first time they are being prized more for their labor power than for their innocence, their tender beauty, their ephemeral gayety. Society cares more for the products they manufacture than for their immemorial ability to knead over the bread of life and reaffirm the charm of existence. . . . The love of pleasure will not be denied, and when no adequate provision is made for its expression it turns into all sorts of malignant and vicious appetites. Seeing these, we, the middle-aged, grow quite distracted and resort to all sorts of restrictive measures. We even try to dam up the sweet fountain itself because we are affrighted by these turgid streams.

But it is the city itself that has failed in its obligations in this matter, turning over to commercialism practically all the provisions for public recreation.

We need only to look about us to perceive that quite as one set of men have organized the young people into industrial enterprises in order to profit from their toil, so another set of men, and women also, I am sorry to say, have entered the neglected field of recreation and have organized enterprises which make profit out of their invincible love of pleasure. . . . Apparently the modern city sees in these girls only two possibilities, both of them commercial: first,

a chance to utilize by day their labor power in factories and shops, and then another chance in the evening to extract from them their petty wages by pandering to their love of pleasure.

In every city arise so-called "places,"—gin-palaces they are called in fiction; in Chicago we euphemistically say merely "places,"—in which alcohol is dispensed, not to allay thirst, but, pretending to stimulate gayety, it is sold solely to empty pockets. Huge dance-halls are opened to which hundreds of young people are attracted, standing wistfully outside a roped circle, for within it 5 cents will procure for five minutes the sense of allurements and intoxication which is sold in lieu of innocent pleasure. These coarse and illicit merrymakings remind one of the unrestrained jollities of Restoration London, confusing joy with lust and gayety with debauchery.

Looking at the girls streaming along our city streets one may perhaps see only "the self-conscious walk, the giggling speech, the preposterous clothing, but through the huge hat with its wilderness of feathers the girl announces to the world that she is here. She proclaims that she is ready to live." We have no business, says Miss Addams, to commercialize pleasure. "Almost instant success attends the first efforts of the city in making municipal provision for recreation."

Chicago has seventeen parks with playing fields, gymnasiums, and baths, which at present enroll thousands of young women and girls. These same parks are provided with beautiful halls which are used for many purposes, rent free, and are given over to any band of young people who wish to conduct dancing parties subject to city supervision and chaperonage. Many social clubs have deserted neighboring saloons for these municipal drawing-rooms, beautifully decorated with growing plants supplied by the park greenhouses, and flooded with electric lights supplied by the park power-house. In the saloon halls the young people were obliged to "pass money freely over the bar," and in order to make the most of the occasion they usually stayed until morning. . . . The free rent in the park hall, the good food in the park restaurant supplied at any cost, have made possible three parties closing at eleven o'clock instead of one party breaking up at daylight, too often in disorder.

LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

THE BEST BONDS.

"I NOTICE the *Evening Post* advises bonds, not stocks, now," said a New York newspaper reader to a financial acquaintance last month. "I have a legacy to invest, but I've never bought bonds. What do you think are the best?"

"It depends on what kind you need."

"What kinds are there?"

"One kind is best to be turned into cash, at an emergency, without loss of time or money; another is best to hold onto and get high income out of; and a third has the best prospects to rise in price, together with a protection against loss."

"How much of each?"

"Tell your banker how much of your salary you save, how soon your children will need educating, and so forth, and he will make you out a list and a plan."

"You will find it quite entertaining to study bond individualities. You'll soon see why there is no single 'best bond' for a fam-

ily to depend on, any more than a single best medicine or best food."

This conversation featured in the investment of one reader of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. It seems proper to repeat it here for the information of others, because it is under the three heads mentioned above that recent articles in financial periodicals have this month been reviewed, commented on, and illustrated by typical bonds.

The interest in bonds at present is genuine and judicious, as the *Evening Post's* article demonstrated. It appeared December 12, and ran in part:

The "outside public" abandoned the stock market two or three weeks ago, and has not come back; but it has not abandoned the bond market, where, indeed, a very healthy and reassuring investment movement is in progress. That movement is no less gratifying because it is absolutely normal. In fact, one of the oddities of this very odd afterpanic year has been the very belated arrival of the investor in that portion of the market.

THE BEST FOR PROFIT.

"THE real charm of the convertible railway bond strikes deep into the psychology of investment. It has a kind of 'heads I win, tails I don't lose,' quality."

"The owner of the convertible bond enjoys somewhat of the speculative emotion without its serious risks. If the stock rises he sees his bond rise, too; if it falls his bond falls also, but not often below a certain investment rate point."

This neat description is from the *Railroad Age Gazette* of December 11. It remarked on the high popularity of the "convertible" at present; out of \$40,000,000 bonds bought on the New York Stock Exchange during a typical week, \$5,000,000,—one out of eight,—were convertibles. But this professional journal did not stop to explain just how it is that an investor can buy a chance of gain without an equal risk of loss.

An example may be supplied by turning to the Exchange sales of the same week that the above appeared. Two hundred and sixty-eight notes-of-hand of the Atchison Railway,

unsecured by any lien on property, were sold at 102-102 $\frac{3}{8}$. And these prices were materially higher than those of any other 4 per cent. bonds of this road,—even the general mortgages.

Why? Because the Atchison 4s of 1955 are convertible into *Atchison stock*, dollar for dollar, face value. A \$1000 bond is good for ten shares of stock any time the holder wishes up to June 1, 1918.

Obviously, the bonds will usually sell a little above the stock. The latter passed 110 in 1906, and 108 in 1907. The road is improving its earning power, and the stock eventually is expected to go even higher. At present, it is a couple of points below par. Before it reaches 103, those who purchased the "convertibles" the week ending December 11, will be able to sell at a profit.

Now for the other side: During the sharp break in the fall of 1907, this *stock* sold down to about 66; these *bonds* only to 80.

Again, in February, the stock slumped to 66, and rose little above 72; whereas the

bonds held between 85¾-88½. Since July, they have stayed above 90, as would be expected in any normal times of the promise to pay of the Atchison Railway, a road strong enough to have earned all its interest charges more than twice over even during the tough year ending June 30, 1908.

Other convertibles worth attention are the Pennsylvania 3½s, the Delaware & Hudson 4s, the New Haven 6s, and, among "industrials," the American Tel. & Tel. 4s, and the General Electric 5s.

For those who sell, the convertible has the advantage of attracting the public, holding old stockholders (to whom the bonds are offered at a lower price) and yet involving no mortgage.

The caution for the investor is to figure out what he is paying for *just a bond*. If the price is not too high for the yield,—and if the company's credit is high enough for safety as with the enterprises mentioned above,—the convertible bond is certainly "the best for profit."

THE BEST TO HOLD.

HALF the story of trolley, electric light, gas, and telephone bond investment lies in this quotation from *Moody's Magazine* of last month:

"Not being so well known as railroads, the public utilities frequently sell at lower prices even when they are a better security."

Here is big income,—5 per cent. and more,—if the buyer is in position to hold on. His interest may be as safe as human ingenuity applied to protection of plant, etc., can make it; also his principal, when due; but a forced sale in the meantime might bring a loss on the bonds, "not being so well known." So anticipate cash needs, as by owning good railroad bonds, or keeping enough in banks before buying most utilities.

The other half of the story appears from the words italicized in this further quotation:

Records show that the *discriminating* selection of stocks and bonds in public utility companies have, during the past ten years, proven the most profitable and safe kind of investment

which can be found. *The best* of them being based on public franchises, located in growing communities and serving to the community light, heat, or power, which is an absolute necessity, are in a far stronger position than a number of other lines of productive effort.

Of course, it is idle to ask a busy man, or a woman with no taste for money matters, to learn "discrimination" in this field.

Indeed, it is a mistake, even for people fairly informed on finance, to rely too much on their own judgment in finding "the best" utilities. They follow no uniform methods of accounting, as do the railroads.

So the first "discrimination" must be turned on the banker. Plenty of firms specialize in public utility securities. Some take up one branch only, as gas or electric bonds. Of all these firms, some show by far the longest and strongest records of having consistently sold their clients "the best." Only as coming from such a firm do statements of earnings and prospects impress the educated investor.

THE BEST FOR EMERGENCIES.

"YOU have simply got to exercise your brain to make anything out of these big-issue, 'listed' bonds. The public takes for granted that anything selling high must be safe,—anything selling low must be cheap. A few take time to get the facts behind the bond. They are the successful investors."

The vice-president of one of the strongest American banks made this remark last month to the writer. The latter had just commented on the morning-newspaper accounts of the month's big railroad and banking event. They were entitled "The Rock Island Situation." "But they might just as

well be headed 'The Balkan Situation,' or written in Assyrian, for all the practical good they will do to ninety-nine out of a hundred readers."

"Yes," said the vice-president, "and there you have a good part of the reason why the Rock Island refunding 4s are now selling at only \$900 on the \$1000."

What the banker had in mind makes a good story. It brings in some entertaining bits of American history, and American finance,—both the old-fashioned kind, and the new "high" kind.

And to tell this story before the review

purposed herein of articles from the *London Statist*, the *Railway Age Gazette*, the *New York Evening Post*, and *Wall Street Summary*, will furnish a typical "brain exercise" for readers in search of "the best bonds for emergencies."

The Rock Island refundings are fair representatives of the kind of bond that can be sold in a hurry. They are listed on the Exchanges of New York, London, Amsterdam, Hamburg, and Berlin. More than \$72,000,000 of them are owned, not only by investors and dealers in America, England, Holland and Germany, but also by the 137 New York State savings banks, for which they are "legal," and which are big buyers of railroad bonds; and they are also in demand by National banks, which are allowed to send them to the Treasury in exchange for Uncle Sam's deposits.

LINCOLN'S PROPHECY.

One of the first to have a vision of the old Rock Island's empire was Abraham Lincoln. In 1860 he was attorney for the little "Chicago & Rock Island" line. Its track ran west from Chicago, striking the Mississippi at the island which gave the road a name. There it had built the first railroad bridge across the big river, the main artery of commerce of the day.

A howl went up from the river-steamboat owners. They actually got an order from an Iowa judge that the bridge should be torn down as an obstruction to navigation!

But Lincoln read the future better. He carried the case to the Supreme Court of the United States and won it. He even dared to prophesy (as Frank H. Spearman recalls in "The Strategy of Great Railroads") "that the time would come when the number of passengers traveling by railroad would equal, and perhaps exceed, those traveling down the river by boat."

PIONEERING, PROFITS, AND CONSERVATISM.

The rest is history. Within sixty years the Rock Island had thrown out some 3700 miles of track, penetrating Illinois and ten States and Territories west of the Mississippi, which had meanwhile grown in population from about 3,000,000 to more than 14,000,000.

The name "Rock Island" got to mean not only pioneering, but also profits and conservatism. Despite its spells of sudden growth, it never defaulted on the interest or principal of its debts.

Moreover, it passed the crises of the Civil War, 1873, 1884, 1890, 1893 (and to bring the matter up to date, 1907) without even the cessation of its yearly cash dividend.

The strength and conservatism of this old-fashioned road in 1897 were significant. Four of its directors had served for sixteen years. The average term of service was about nine and three-quarter years. These cautious gentlemen had lowered dividends to 2 per cent. during '95-6-7, but did not fail to spend a reasonable amount to keep track, engines, and cars in good shape. Yet this period bankrupted the Union Pacific, Northern Pacific, Atchison, Baltimore & Ohio, Erie, Reading,—indeed, one-third the railroad mileage of the United States!

Certainly the performance must have been unusual to confuse the public mind so that the very name of the road is now generally obscure, except to those who live on the line, and to dealers in bonds.

THE NEW DIRECTORS.

After W. H. Moore, D. G. Reed, J. H. Moore, and W. B. Leeds were elected as directors of the Rock Island Railway, in 1901, some two thousand miles were soon added to the road, stretching it to El Paso, Galveston, Memphis, and other strategic points. This aroused some comment; the new directors were not all known as railroad men; it had been the consolidation chiefly of big "industrials," such as National Biscuit, Diamond Match, and the tin-plate mills afterward sold to the United States Steel Corporation, that had made their imagination and daring conspicuous.

But this was nothing to the criticism of "Rock Island," by financial and public prints, beginning August, 1902, when two new corporations appeared,—the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific Railroad, and the Rock Island Company.

The first of these owned something valuable,—most of the stock of the old Railway. The second was hard to interpret, except as merely a means to control the first, through ownership of its stock, at a smaller investment of money.

And the two together, after deducting all duplications of securities exchanged between one company and another, had made \$202,500,000 face value grow where only \$75,000,000 had grown before!

The mystery to most security holders is easy to imagine. Sunday papers and sensa-

tional magazines made great copy out of this exploit of "high finance," often through hasty and inaccurate statements, of course.

Naturally, the new companies still represent "Rock Island" to the popular mind, although they have *absolutely no lien on the earnings of the old Railway.*

Of course, the *Railroad*, though only a "paper" company, had a function that was real enough. For instance, it soon added to its holdings of *Railway* stock the entire stock of the St. Louis & San Francisco. By swapping traffic between the two roads, enormous savings seemed possible.

Only the successful event can justify such daring to the public mind. So far, the "holding" of the 'Frisco has not done its part toward raising the market prices of the *new* stocks and bonds to anything like their face value.

PROSPECTS FOR THE "RAILROAD" AND THE "COMPANY."

It is fair to report before finishing with the two new corporations, that many observers from other than a stock market viewpoint give them a good chance to pull through. This chance has looked better since last month, when Speyer & Co., one of the largest American underwriting firms, bought \$30,000,000 of the 'Frisco's new 5 per cent. bonds. "This means much to the company," suggests the *Wall Street Summary*, "as great banking houses always investigate every phase of a bond before offering it to clients."

Of course, earning power, past, present, and prospective, has been considered, together with the magnificent territory served.

The company serves a veritable empire, which is growing rapidly, and with the immense prestige which the name of Speyer & Co. gives to a security, the new bonds should be rapidly absorbed by investors.

The country traversed is productive and most judges believe that the Southwest is one of the most promising sections in the United States for the development of railroads.

Here is apparently an investment opportunity, at the price merely of a simple mental feat,—to wish both the company and the *railroad* well, but *to forget all about them*, and get at "the facts behind the bond."

WHAT THE SECURITY IS.

The Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific *Railway* was operating and owning or leasing in its own right, on June 30, 1908, 7969 miles of road, 1386 locomotives, 809 passenger cars, and 39,581 freight cars; also terminals

and entrance into most of the great cities of the Mississippi Valley,—from Chicago on the Great Lakes, to Denver in the Rocky Mountains; from Minneapolis and South Dakota in the North, to El Paso and the Gulf of Mexico in the South.

This is the railroad behind the bonds under discussion,—its first and refunding mortgage gold 4s, due April 1, 1934. Last month in these pages it was shown that a bond investigation could be briefly put and clearly grouped under three heads,—legal, financial, and personal,—to answer the bondholder's three questions: What is the security for my principal? What are the earnings to pay my interest? and What kind of men are running this road?

A copy of the mortgage shows the bond to be a first lien on 1148 miles of the *Railway* and a second lien on 5649 miles more. All things considered, the rate is moderate.

Another point of strength "has probably not received sufficient investing notice," explains the *Wall Street Journal* of December 16, as follows:

The Rock Island 4s rest for their safety on terminal properties in St. Paul, Minneapolis, and St. Louis, and on various other properties, including equipment shops. The point to be regarded is that the enhancement of terminal property with the growth of city valuation is constantly giving an increased security to any bonds that are based thereon. If there is anything that gives existing railroads a natural monopoly it is the almost insuperable difficulty of new lines getting independent terminal relations with the competing points from which they draw and into which they distribute traffic.

Finally the bonds are named in the New York law, and for ten years have more than satisfied its tests as to earnings, and proportion of stock to bonds.

SECOND—EARNINGS.

A key to the second answer (and also the third) is furnished by the articles formerly referred to, which have appeared in reputable and accurate journals of finance. To supplement at this point, the reports of the *Railway*, the old and original "Rock Island," make pretty good reading. They are separate from the reports of the *Rock Island Company*.

After the object of the game is grasped,—to run your big railroad machine so as to make money, yet to leave it at the end of the year a better machine, in better traffic territory,—a file of railroad reports are not half as bad as they look.

The New York *Evening Post*, a newspaper.

which rarely fails to show the darker side, commented thus on the report of the *Railway* for the year of hard sledding ending June 30, 1908, which showed not only all fixed charges earned, together with a 5¼ per cent. dividend on the stock, but also a surplus left over of \$788,000:

When it is recalled that the Baltimore & Ohio, the Louisville & Nashville, the New York Central, the New Haven, and a number of other roads created deficits last year in order to pay dividends, it does not appear from the foregoing statement that there was any cause for alarm in the Rock Island situation. *Nor was there, as far as the old railway company was concerned.*

Of course, 1907-'08 was exceptionally tough on railroads. A sounder idea of the Rock Island's ability to pay is seen by reference to the consecutive reports of the road. During each of the five years preceding the net earnings averaged about twice the entire amount of fixed charges. July, 1908, and the following month show recovery toward similar figures.

THIRD—PERSONAL.

The two representatives of the operating force of the old Rock Island are typical Western railroad men. Both have worked up from the bottom, and in the very country in which their present work lies. These men are B. F. Yoakum, chairman of the executive committee, and B. L. Winchell, president of the road. The record of the positions they have held reads like a directory of Mississippi Valley railways. Neither is beyond middle age, and both have displayed the grit and aggressiveness that Westerners like.

Here again the figures tell the story. The road has not been, probably could not be, as economically run as some others partly in its territory, such as the Atchison. But the figures of increasing revenue per ton per mile, and increasing load per train during the last few years, excepting, of course, the hard times just over, show that opportunities are not being neglected.

"Material improvements," writes the *London Statist*, "have been effected in recent years in the condition of the roadway of the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific."

In 1904 nearly 60 per cent. of the roadway was laid with rails weighing less than seventy pounds, whereas at the end of June last less than 50 per cent. of the road was laid with these light rails, and over 50 per cent. with rails weighing over seventy pounds per yard.

Ballast is another significant item. Looking at the reports, it appears that some 60 per cent. of the road is now ballasted per-

manently with rock, burned clay, gravel or cinder as opposed to sand or dirt. This is an increase of about 5 per cent. over last year, and is a fair percentage for a road with lengthy new extensions in new territory.

A careful and accurate journal, the *Railway Age Gazette*, also finds no cause for alarm in the fact that for 1908 the company spent 9 per cent. less than for 1907 in "maintenance of way." A reduction was natural, and in fact desirable, since the gross earnings fell off 3 per cent. and net 16 per cent. A year ago the *Gazette* had said:

It is evident that the Rock Island has now reached the point where its maintenance expenditures are not only fully taking care of the current depreciation of the property, but making up for insufficient maintenance expenditures in the past.

To consult the *Railway's* reports again: Over and above this full maintenance, there has been spent during the last three years some \$12,000,000 extra "on the road." Even during 1908, there are big items like nearly \$600,000 for bridges and culverts, nearly \$500,000 for ballast, and more than \$300,000 for heavier rails and fastenings. For 1907, these amounts were more than \$700,000, \$1,000,000, and \$240,000 respectively. These three are a few of the many items of the \$12,000,000 expenditure in three years, *in addition to* the regular maintenance charges on the road. The latter on comparison show up proportionately well with its prosperous rivals like the Northwestern, Burlington, Atchison.

It is hard to find that so much extra money could have been spent on the road without material improvement.

People who want to keep some of their money in quickly saleable form can certainly get hints from the above as to means of investment. Nobody who knows anything would pronounce the Rock Island refundings, or for that matter any other single bond, "the best" for emergencies or for any other purpose. It is apparent, however, that merits are found in this bond which would be expected to command for it a better price, were it not for a cloud of public confusion which the near future may clear.

Any investment banker of standing can supply a file of the road's reports, a copy of the mortgage behind the bonds, and trained experts to comment upon these for the investor's benefit. Such a consultation is an investment safeguard which it is foolish, and nowadays needless, to omit.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

A FEW OF THE SEASON'S NOVELS.

It is evident that Miss Marie Corelli has not lost her ability to tell a good story, nor has her ardor and vigor been impaired. These qualities are quite evident in her latest romance, "Holy Orders" (Stokes), which she has subtitled "The Story of a Quiet Life." This highly dramatic tale of the Cotswolds, one of the prides of rural England, is also a powerful temperance tract. The central figures are the devoted, retiring vicar of the little church at Shaebrook,

and a very beautiful, heartless village girl, whose highly reprehensible and occasionally "impossible" doings end in a luridly described balloon ascension which results in her death. Americans, says Miss Corelli in her preface, do not understand the real England, since most of them only know a little of London, which is not really English. Americans also, she believes, do not understand the extent of the evil wrought on rural English populations by the tyranny of the drink traffic. Therefore she tells us about these things. In the story "Holy Orders" all the power for evil exercised by the community brewer is set forth in the author's highly colored, swiftly moving style. The reader cannot escape the conviction that the writer is terribly in earnest over her theme. A little too highly dramatic, perhaps, is "Holy Orders," but still undoubtedly a good story.

More than forty years after the appearance of "Under Two Flags," "Ouida's" first successful novel, and but a few months after the death of that gifted writer, there appears a novel entitled "Helianthus" (Macmillan), which was completed during the very last days of the novelist. It is a grandiose tale upon a grandiose theme. International relations and great political and diplomatic movements in modern Europe are seen from the standpoint of the court of Helianthus, which may be identified with Italy. Among the actors in the drama will be recognized imaginative but startlingly suggestive portraits of many of the rulers of modern Europe. The style is vigorous and suggestive.

A novel by the author of "The Martyrdom of an Empress" is one of the noteworthy features of the season's fiction. This story, "The Cradle of the Rose" (Harpers), is a dramatic romance of modern France, treating of a conspiracy growing out of the church and state crisis in the province of Brittany, that Ireland of the French republic. The beautiful, accomplished, and wealthy wife of an English diplomat, who is absent on an Asiatic mission, returns to her native Brittany on a visit, finds herself recognized as a feudal princess and as the head of a royalist insurrection. There is also a young Breton nobleman, an ex-naval officer, who is the hero, and a number of extraordinary situations handled in an original and fascinating manner.

Maxim Gorky's latest novel, "The Spy: The Story of a Superfluous Man," has been translated by Thomas Seltzer and published by B. W. Huebsch, of New York. This novel is in the vivid, intensely realistic Gorky style, depicting the actual life of the Russian of yesterday, of to-day, and perhaps of the immediate future. In it we see the workings of a strange society, the Russian Secret Service, a more remarkable organization even than the Society of Tramps described by Gorky in his earlier tales. The atmosphere is one of deceit, murder, lust, filth, and blood, but we catch glimpses at times of the beautiful potentiality of the Slav peoples for idealism. Very vivid and heart-moving is the



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MARIE CORELLI.

(Author of "Holy Orders.")



B. L. PUTNAM WEALE.

(Author of "The Forbidden Boundary.")

description of the devotion of the revolutionists and their street demonstrations on that day following the proclamation of the Czar's famous liberty manifesto. The translator has completed his task in a workmanlike manner, and, moreover, has succeeded in communicating much of the spirit and temperament of the original.

Very few living writers can put into a short story the mysterious, haunting atmosphere of the Far East as successfully and subtly as B. L. Putnam Weale, whose volumes on travel, description, and political speculation ("Manchu and Muscovite," "The Reshaping of the Far East," etc.) have been noticed from time to time in these pages. The same vigor, yet haunting (this is the only word) quality that characterized his "Indiscreet Letters from Peking," published two years ago, are soaked into a volume of short stories just brought out by Macmillan, entitled "The Forbidden Boundary." There are other stories in the volume, but the one which gives the title is perhaps the most noteworthy. It is built upon the mysterious physical and temperamental changes that result from the crossing of Eastern and Western races,—the fateful transformation that results from the occult taint in the light-brown woman."

The trilogy begun by Mr. F. Marion Crawford with his novel "The Primadonna" and continued in "Fair Margaret" is completed by the appearance of "The Diva's Ruby" (Macmillan). All of these stories deal with the young English girl, Margaret Donne, who became a great soprano, had many adventures, and finally married the man of her choice. One cannot help becoming affectionately attached to all Mr. Crawford's characters, villains as well as heroes, and it is good to see that in this final volume of the three the action ends as it should,—in the reward of virtue and the discomfiture of villainy.

In "The Revolt of Anne Royle" (Century), Miss Helen R. Martin has, we think, done as keen and clever a piece of character delineation as in her former novel, "Tillie, a Mennonite Maid." This later book is a love story pure and simple, and its main theme is the development of the character of the historian, whose "revolt" ends happily for her and the man she loves.

There is much excitement, much movement, and a great deal of that delicious improbability which reminds the reader of Stevenson, Haggard, and Jules Verne in W. C. Morrow's romance, "Lentala of the South Seas" (Stokes). We have the shipwreck of a band of colonists on a volcanic island in the South Seas, their many and thrilling adventures with the natives, and their escape from imminent death through the heroism of the mysterious Lentala. The love motive is clean and novel. There are eight illustrations in color by Maynard Dixon.

The motive used by Mr. Robert Hichens in his powerful novel, "The Call of the Blood," is employed with slightly different treatment by him in his latest romance, "A Spirit in Prison" (Harpers). It is in Italy that Mr. Hichens' atmospheric power and charm are at their best, and what better parts of Italy than Sicily and Naples could be found for the movement of such an intensely human story as this? There is the beautiful peasant girl betrayed by the elegant gentleman, the influence of the church, the description of Italian scenery, and the intense love passages for which Mr. Hichens is justly famous. There are some graphic illustrations by Cyrus Cuneo.

We are not accustomed to regard Mr. W. H. Mallock as a novelist. He has taught us by his contributions to political, economic, and general philosophy to look upon him in an entirely different light. In his book, "An Immortal Soul" (Harpers), however, he has given us a really clever romance, the central theme of which is the dual nature of a fascinating English school-girl.

A well-sustained little story of Japanese social and political life which makes pleasant reading, and, moreover, ends as it should, is Mrs. Hugh Fraser's "The Heart of a Geisha" (Putnams). The frontispiece illustration and border decorations are by Ludwig Holberg.

In "Jennie Allen" Miss Grace Donworth has created, we believe, a really new character, as deliciously original as "Mrs. Wiggs." Jennie's homely philosophy and kindly views of life in general are set forth in a series of "letters" to her friend, Miss Musgrove. The volume containing these letters, which is effectively illustrated, is brought out by Small, Maynard & Co. under the rather long title: "The Letters of Jennie Allen to Her Friend, Miss Musgrove."

Dr. S. Weir Mitchell is as much at home in the Philadelphia of 1792 as in the Philadelphia of 1909. His last novel, "The Red City" (Century), pertains to the period of President Washington's second administration. The chief characters in the story are a young French Huguenot refugee and a Quaker lass, while Hugh Wynne himself figures in the tale and such personalities as Jefferson and Hamilton pass and repass. The narrative in no way falls behind Dr. Mitchell's earlier efforts in historical fiction.

Another book by Dr. Mitchell just brought out (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.)



W. W. JACOBS.
(Author of "Salthaven.")

is a story for boys, entitled "A Venture in 1777." This gives the experiences of some Philadelphia boys who, during Howe's occupation of Philadelphia, were able to render a service to Washington at Valley Forge.

The humanity and humor which fairly reek from all that Mr. W. W. Jacobs writes are irresistibly characteristic of his latest story, "Salthaven" (Scribners). Mr. Jacobs writes some more about skippers and mates and seamen and a lot of other folks with whom they come in contact, who are big hearted and genuine and irresistibly funny without being silly. This volume is illustrated with pen sketches.

Mr. F. Hopkinson Smith's "Peter" (Scribners) is a refreshing outbreak of wholesome optimism. We should all like to believe that such a lovable old bachelor as Peter could sur-

vive in modern New York business life, but whether he is a possibility in that sense or not, it is good to have met him even in the pages of fiction. There is nothing in Mr. Hopkinson Smith's style of novel that is either morbid or unwholesome. In all his work there is breeziness and an abundance of good nature.

While exhibiting imagination, power, and the forceful delineation of character, the "fact story" which James Hopper and Fred R. Becholdt have written, under the title "9009" (McClure), is not exactly a work of fiction. Indignation over "facts" concerning the treatment of convicts in American prisons has spurred on the authors to reveal in calm but graphic language many of the existing evils. Number 9009 is a convict,—the authors name him John Collins,—who revolts against the system of spying, treachery, and betrayal with which a convict must identify himself in order to become a "trusty." The story is not a biography, but, the authors insist in their preface, "everything that happens to 9009 within the prison is something which has happened to some convict in some American prison at some time."



Cover design (reduced.)

The latest,—and last,—novel of that clever delineator of New York society life, Mr. Herman Knickerbocker Vielé (Mr. Vielé died on December 14) is entitled "Heartbreak Hill" (Duffield). This is the story of an attractive little girl and a stepfather. Mopsie Beatoun is horrified at the thought of any one taking the place of her own father, and so she runs away to live with an aunt. The book is the chronicle of her life and doings among her relatives at Heartbreak Hill, and the story has been subtitled by the author "A Comedy Romance."

HISTORICAL WORKS.

The appearance in Italy, some years ago, of the first volume of Ferrero's "Greatness and Decline of Rome" proclaimed to the world that a new name must be added to the list of great historians. The ability to take such a worn theme as Roman history and treat it in any way so as to command even the slightest public attention is in itself an evidence of intellectual power. When, however, all the facts and evidences of a vast subject of this sort are marshaled with such philosophical acumen, such analytical skill, and such power of illumination as has been shown by Signor Guglielmo Ferrero in his "Greatness and Decline of Rome," such a history is truly epoch-making. In one of our "Leading Articles" this month we present a few of the details of Signor Ferrero's career, with some sidelights upon the general structure of his great work. Four volumes have now appeared in English from the press of Putnams,—the first and second translated by Alfred E. Zimmern, fellow and tutor of New College, Oxford, and the third and fourth in the translation of Rev. H. J. Chaytor, head mas-



COLLIER'S FAMOUS PICTURE OF HUDSON'S LAST HOURS.

Frontispiece (reduced) from "The Conquest of the Great Northwest."

ter of Plymouth College. Another volume in English is announced for early publication, and two or three more in the original Italian are yet to be written. Volume I. has for its subject "Imperialism and the Republic," Vol. II. is devoted to Julius Cæsar, Vol. III. to "The Fall of an Aristocracy," and Vol. IV. to Rome and Egypt. Succeeding volumes will treat of "The Cæsars," "The Cosmopolitan Empire," and "The Decadence of Rome." Signor Ferrero's viewpoint throughout the entire work is that of a strictly impartial observer, with no theory to prove. His general conclusion is that the causes which led to the downfall of Rome may be summed up, as in the case of the history of other human societies as,—*"the growth of a nationalist and industrial democracy on the ruins of a federation of agricultural aristocracies."* His stories of the rise and fall of Julius Cæsar, of the death of Cicero, and of the intrigues and character of Cleopatra are among the most masterly and fascinating of historic pictures.

The absorbing, romance-studded career of the Hudson Bay Company is presented in her own graphic way by Miss Agnes C. Laut in a two-volume work, "The Conquest of the Great Northwest" (Outing Publishing Company). In this vivid account of the "Lords of the Outer Marches," Miss Laut tells how the domain of

the great fur company extended from Alaska to San Francisco and down to Mexico, across to the Missouri and the Mississippi, and north again to the St. Lawrence. "Yet more, the Hudson Bay adventurers had a station half way across the Pacific, in Hawaii." The empire of this great corporation was much larger than all Europe. Miss Laut has attempted to tell the story of the company "only as adventurer, path-finder, and empire-builder, from Rupert's Land to California,—feudal lord beaten off the field by democracy." Where the empire-builder merges with the colonizer and the pioneer, Miss Laut has dropped the story. In preparing for this task the author traveled over most of the country ruled by the great Hudson Bay Company. She also sailed to Europe and back again to examine archives and to talk with men who know intimately of the company's achievements. Very careful notes and references and some hitherto unpublished sketches and photographs add to the historical value and charm of these two volumes.

Two of the new volumes in the American Commonwealths series (Houghton, Mifflin Company) are: "Wisconsin, the Americanization of a French Settlement," by Reuben Gold Thwaites, and "Minnesota, the North Star State," by William Watts Folwell. Wisconsin has now been a member of the American Union for sixty years, but its forests and waterways were known to the French Jesuit missionaries and traders very early in the seventeenth century. Mr. Thwaites very properly devotes nearly half of his volume to the periods of French and British domination, dating the Americanization of Wisconsin from the lead-mining era of 1825 and the succeeding years. Professor Folwell's narrative of Minnesota's growth is naturally briefer, since it begins with a much later period. Not a few of the early settlers who went into Minnesota Territory in the '50's of the last century are still living. The State has had a wonderful development, in spite of occasional setbacks like the Indian wars of the '60's and the grasshopper plague of the '70's. Professor Folwell has given special attention in this volume to Minnesota politics, analyzing the careers of a number of Minnesota's leading public men.

We have received the first volume of a compendious work devoted to "The Missions and Missionaries of California," by Brother Zephyrin Engelhardt, of the Franciscan Order (San Francisco: The James H. Barry Company). This writer has laboriously compiled from original sources the most important information regarding the Jesuit, Franciscan, and Dominican missions on our Pacific Coast. The present volume is principally confined to the missions of lower California, but contains many references to the work of pious Catholics in other parts of America. A volume on the history of the missions in upper California is promised for the near future.

STUDIES OF THE AMERICAN TYPE.

In a little book, entitled "The American as He Is" (Macmillan), Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia University, has gathered together the three lectures delivered by him last year at the University of Copenhagen. Dr. Butler's discourses were based on the general contention that "for a genuine understanding of the Government and of the intellectual and

moral temper of the people of the United States, one must know thoroughly and well the writings and speeches of three Americans,—Alexander Hamilton, Abraham Lincoln, and Ralph Waldo Emerson."

Senator Albert J. Beveridge, in two trenchantly written little volumes, also considers the American type, under the titles: "Americans of To-Day and To-Morrow" and "Work and Habits" (Altemus). These little brochures are full of Senator Beveridge's optimistic philosophy.

Mr. John Graham Brooks has rendered a useful service by bringing together in a volume entitled "As Others See Us" (Macmillan) excerpts from a number of the most distinguished foreign criticisms of American institutions. Mr. Brooks has done much more, however, than merely to present extracts from the writings of Bryce, de Tocqueville, Harriet Martineau, and other notable critics of the past century. His own connected comment on these criticisms is sane and enlightening as well as kindly. It is clear that much of the criticism voiced by these foreign observers many years since, bitterly resented as it was by contemporary American opinion, was not altogether in vain, if an American writer at this day can profit so fully from what the critics said and can turn it to such good account in a book of this kind.

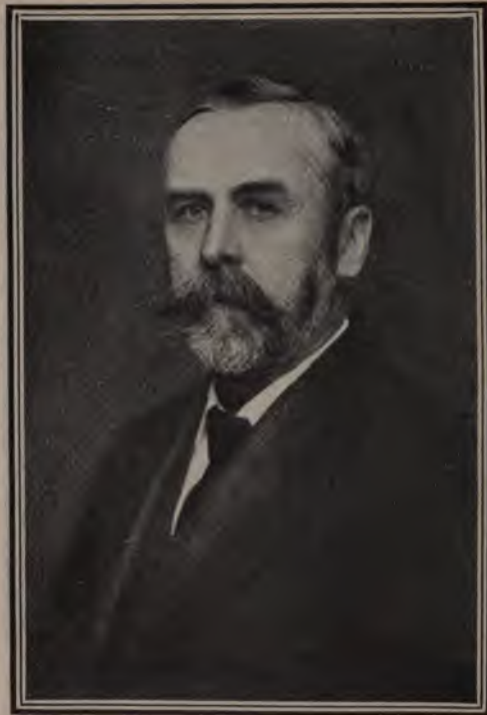
DESCRIPTIVE ART BOOKS.

Two recent volumes on English art and artists are noteworthy. Dutton & Co. bring out a "History of British Water-Color Painting," by H. M. Cundall, with a biographical list of painters and fifty-eight colored illustrations. Duffield publishes "Stories of English Artists, from Vandyck to Turner," selected and arranged by Randall Davies and Cecil Hunt, with copious illustrations.

From Duffield also we have a companion vol-



THE LATE HERMAN KNICKERBOCKER VIELÉ.
(Author of "Hearthreak Hill." See page 123.)



JOHN GRAHAM BROOKS.
(Author of "As Others See Us.")

ume to the one on English artists, entitled "Stories of the Flemish and Dutch Artists," selected and arranged by Victor Reynolds, considering, with colored illustrations, the Dutch painters from the time of the Van Eycks to the end of the seventeenth century.

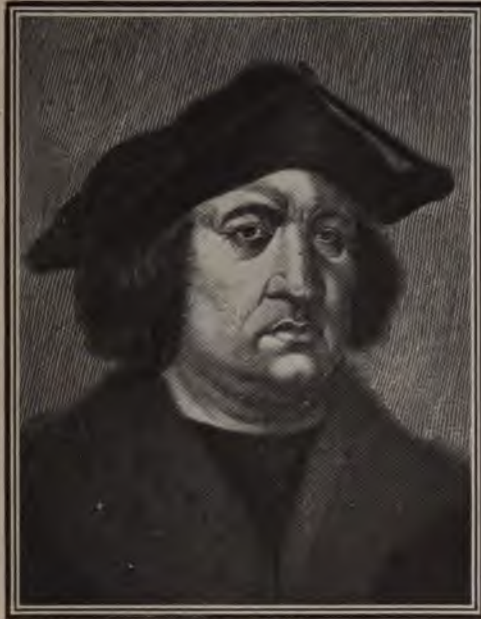
One of the thorough and serviceable editions of the classics the publication of which marks the present holiday season is the six-volume Eversley edition of the complete "Works of Alfred Lord Tennyson" (Macmillan), edited by Hallam Tennyson and annotated by Alfred Lord Tennyson. The edition is very satisfactorily printed and bound, and to the first volume there is a portrait frontispiece of the poet from a painting by George Frederick Watts.

Dutch art receives consideration, also, in the little art gallery guidebook (McClurg), entitled "Holland," by Esther Singleton. The illustrations in this little volume are full page and in tint.

Italian art is considered in a volume by Grant Allen, with sixty-five reproductions from photographs, under the general title, "Evolution in Italian Art" (Wessels Company).

NEW EDITIONS.

It was worth while rendering More's "Utopia" into modern English. This rendering, by Valerian Paget, under the title "More's Millennium," has been brought out by the John McBride Company. Students of English literature will not dispute the late Prof. Churton Collins' verdict, that as a romance and a work of art the "Utopia" ranks with "Pilgrim's Progress" and



SIR THOMAS MORE.

(Whose classic sociological romance, "Utopia," has just been issued, rendered into modern English.)

"Robinson Crusoe." It may, however, be new to many readers of history that Benjamin Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, and more than one other of the builders of our American republic drew their inspiration largely from this "Utopia" in preparing our Constitution. Moreover, as Mr. Paget points out in his introduction, "we are still busy discussing to-day the same burning questions around our parish pumps."

Five little volumes in the New Medieval Library, reprinted in imitation of the original binding and illustrated in tint, come from the press of Duffield & Co.: "The Book of the Duke of True Lovers," translated from the French of Christine de Pisan; "The Babees' Book, Medieval Manners for the Young," from Dr. Furnivall's texts; "The Chatelaine of Vergi," translated from the thirteenth century romance of Raynaud; "The Legend of the Holy Fina, Virgin of Santo Gimignano," translated from the original Italian of di Coppo; and "Of the Tumbler of Our Lady," translated from medieval French.

Among the new editions of the classics are: Kingsley's "Water Babies," with color plates by Arthur Dixon, published by Nister in London and imported by Dutton; the centenary edition of Poe's prose tales (Duffield), with pictures in color by E. L. Blumenschein; "Alice's Adventures in Wonderland," with illustrations by Millicent Sowerby, published by Duffield & Co.; "The Spring Cleaning," by Frances Hodgson Burnett (Century), with illustrations by Harrison Cady.

BOOKS ON MUSICAL TOPICS.

New translations of many of the famous Latin hymns of the early and middle ages, with

biographical notes about the authors of the better known, have been published in book form (Grafton Press), from the pen of Dr. Daniel Joseph Donahoe, under the title "Early Christian Hymns." All that body of song contained in the Roman Breviary, together with many others, make up the volume.

The books on musical topics or of musical interest which have appeared during the present season include: Two volumes in the Musicians' Library, brought out by Oliver Ditson,—"Songs from the Operas for Mezzo-Soprano," edited by H. E. Krehbiel, and the second volume of piano compositions by Johann Sebastian Bach, edited by Ebenezer Prout, with a frontispiece portrait of the composer; a collection for the piano of Gottschalk's compositions (Ditson); three little volumes of technical musical instruction,—"The True Method of Tone Production," by J. Van Broekhoven (H. W. Gray Company), and "Twelve Lessons in the Fundamentals of Voice Production," by Arthur L. Manchester, and "Paneron's A B C of Music," edited by N. Clifford Page (the two latter being in the Music Students' Library, brought out by Ditson); an illustrated book of simple suggestions on "Piano Playing" (McClure), by Josef Hofmann; and "The Psychology of Singing" (Macmillan), "a rational method of voice culture based on a scientific analysis of all systems, ancient and modern," by David C. Taylor.

PROBLEMS OF RELIGION AND ETHICS.

In a book entitled "The Future Leadership of the Church" (New York: Student Department, Young Men's Christian Association), Mr. John R. Mott, who is the general secretary of the World's Student Christian Federation, gives the results of studies carried on during the past six years in all parts of the world, undertaken with a view to learn the causes of the notable recent dearth of able candidates for the Christian ministry. The fact that Mr. Mott's discussion is chiefly based on interviews with a great number of men throughout the world who may be supposed to have this particular subject most at heart gives special value to his statements.

The attempt to approach religion from the standpoint of psychology is a matter of comparatively recent endeavor. In the serious consideration of this subject it may be said that the thinkers of the United States of America have taken a leading part. A résumé of what has been accomplished by investigations in this field, in the form of a textbook, has just come from the press of Scribners under the title "The Psychological Phenomena of Christianity." The author is Dr. George Barton Cutten (Yale), author of "The Psychology of Alcoholism." In this volume the whole range of the phenomena of Christianity has been included, abnormal and normal, pathological and healthful. As far as possible the supernatural aspect of religion has been avoided, and the discussion of the human side as evidenced in the "behavior of the soul" (as far as this may be known at all) forms the basis of consideration.

In a helpful little brochure entitled "Life Questions of High-School Boys," which has been brought out by the New York State Young Men's Christian Association Press, Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks (political economy and politics, Cornell University) makes some sug-

gestions to young men on how to meet liberally and manfully the problems and temptations likely to assail them during the first years of their high-school life.

STUDIES OF NATURE.

A very thorough and painstaking account, in the form of a text-book, of the life, behavior, and influence of the bacteria that concern American country life has been prepared for the Rural Science series (edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey) by Dr. Jacob G. Lipman. This volume, which appears under the title "Bacteria in Relation to Country Life" (Macmillan), is really a discussion of the problem of health and comfort in the country as affected by these minute organisms which float in the air we breathe and in the water we drink and perform an important work in the soil from which our food is extracted. Dr. Lipman is soil chemist and bacteriologist for the New Jersey Agricultural Ex-



ANTONI VAN LEEUWENHOEK, THE DISCOVERER OF BACTERIOLOGY.

(From an old print.)

periment Station and associate professor of agriculture in Rutgers College. The volume is illustrated, having for a frontispiece a portrait of Antoni van Leeuwenhoek, the Dutch discoverer of bacteriology, a portrait we herewith reproduce. Another book on the subject of soil composition and potentiality, a little larger in purview than Dr. Lipman's work, is a new revised and enlarged edition of Mr. A. D. Hall's work "The Soil" (Dutton). Mr. Hall, who is a director of the Rothamsted Station, subtitles his book: "An Introduction to the Scientific Study of the Growth of Crops."

Mr. Frank M. Chapman, the curator of birds in the American Museum of Natural History, at New York, is known not only as an expert in all matters relating to birds, but especially as a successful photographer from nature. The latest volume from Mr. Chapman's pen is entitled

"Camps and Cruises of an Ornithologist" (Appleton's), and is embellished by 250 photographs made by the author. Mr. Chapman's special work during the past seven years has been the collecting of specimens during the nesting season of birds, and making field studies and photographs on which to base a series of "habitat groups" of North American birds, designed to illustrate not only the habits and haunts of the birds shown, but also the country in which they live. These points are well brought out in the text and illustrations of the volume before us. It is understood that Mr. Chapman has furnished much assistance to President Roosevelt in his preparations for the forthcoming African trip.

THE SCIENCE OF HEALTH.

One of the most readable and entertaining, if not always convincing, books on the philosophy of health we have ever had the pleasure of reading is Dr. Woods Hutchinson's "Instinct and Health" (Dodd, Mead). Dr. Hutchinson, who is lecturer on clinical medicine at the New York Polyclinic and has already written extensively for the periodical press of the country on health topics, addresses this book not to invalids but to the ordinary, normal individual. In vivid style he explodes many popular fallacies regarding eating, drinking, breathing, and so forth. "It isn't so very dangerous to be alive," he says, "only we must know how to live,—and so many of us do not."

Two other books of this same general character are "Mind and Work," by Luther H. Gulick (Doubleday, Page & Co.), and "Mind, Religion, and Health" (Funk & Wagnalls), by Robert MacDonald. Dr. Gulick's little volume aims to point out clearly the effect of mental condition on physical efficiency,—"the vital relation between one's mind and the daily work." The sprightly style and vigorous thought is indicated by such chapter headings as "The Habit of Success," "The Mental Effects of a Flat-top Desk," and "The Time to Quit." Dr. MacDonald, who is in charge of a prominent Brooklyn church, attempts in this volume to give an appreciation of the Emmanuel movement and to show how its principles can be applied in promoting actual physical health and adding to our mental contentment.

A FEW BOOKS FOR THE YOUNG.

"A Treasury of Verse for Little Children" is a square octavo containing a goodly number of remarkably well-chosen selections made by M. G. Edgar (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.), with profuse illustrations, both in color and black and white, by Willy Pogany, that are most decorative and effective.

G. P. Dutton & Co. are the importers of a number of children's books by English authors, printed in Germany, that are perhaps sometimes lacking in spontaneity, but are certainly put together with a knowledge of nursery requirements, for they are overflowing with pictures, and each book treats of a variety of episodes, so that the childish mind finds ample satisfaction in their pages. Among these is a long octavo, "The Nursery Picture Book," "The Motor Car Model Book," full of "cut-outs;" a box of four little volumes called "The Old Farm Story Book;" a thick volume with picture, prose, and verse, in "Chatter Box" style,



Cover design (reduced).

called "Our Own Story Book," and a little volume "The Ducklings Go A-Swimming," with verse far above the average, by J. H. Jewett.

"The Land of the Lost," by Allen Ayrault Green (Small, Maynard & Co.), with colored illustrations, is an "Alice in Wonderland" story, rather forced in its humor.

Harper & Bros. publish "In the Open," stories of outdoor life, by William O. Stoddard, and "Adventures at Sea," stories by a number of writers, all of them dealing with youthful heroism in a very wholesome way. A book we can recommend.

One of the most delightful picture books of the year is "Dream Blocks," by Aileen Cleveland Higgins (Duffield & Co.), with pictures by Jessie Willcox Smith, that are full of the true essence of childhood, and delicate in their colors. The verses, written *à la* Stevenson, are sometimes without point, but the author coins some happy phrases, as when she speaks of a "New Dress," "When It's So Sunday Clean," and of "My nicest, clean-faced kiss." It's a pity the book is not better bound.

"Persis Putnam's Treasure" (Little, Brown & Co.), is a story of Nan's camp and many happenings in outdoor life, appropriate for girls of fourteen to sixteen.

A book for smaller children, say, eight to ten, is "Dorothy Dainty's Gay Times," by Amy Brooks (Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Company).

"Irma in Italy," by Helen Leah Reed, illustrated (Little, Brown & Co.), is a story of a girl's adventures and travels in sunny Italy.

From Henry Holt & Co. comes "Pete, Cow-Puncher;" from W. A. Wilde Company comes "Six Girls Growing Older," and from Loth-

rop, Lee & Shepard Company come "The Boat Club Boys of Lakeport," "A Full-Back Afloat," "All Among the Loggers," and "Four Boys on the Mississippi."

OTHER BOOKS OF THE SEASON.

It might not be easy to adequately characterize the latest book of Mr. Austin Dobson. It is a collection of literary thoughts upon literature, particularly upon eighteenth century books and associations. This volume, which the Macmillans have brought out under the title "De Libris," is permeated with Mr. Dobson's quaint, erudite literary lore, both prose and verse, and is interlarded with a number of charming pen sketches, some by himself and some by well-known artists. The one we reproduce here is from a hitherto unpublished sketch by the late Kate Greenaway.

In "The Memoirs of the Comte de Rambuteau" (Putnam), edited by his grandson and translated from the French by J. C. Brogan, we have a record of the experiences of the Chamberlain of Napoleon I. This admirable master of ceremonies saw the Emperor in his familiar and every-day relations, and gives in this volume an animated account of the way the court entertained officially and publicly, as well as the way it informally amused itself.

In "How to Understand Electrical Work" (Harpers), William J. Onken, associate editor of the *Electrical World*, and Joseph B. Baker, technical editor of the United States Geological Survey, give simple explanations of the philosophy and mechanical application of electric light, heat, power, and traction in daily life. The book, which is very copiously illustrated, tells the boy all about how and why "the wheels go 'round."

A finely illustrated volume in color, "Ancient Tales and Folk-lore of Japan" (Macmillan), by Richard Gordon Smith, retells in story form most of the picturesque traditions and legends of the land of the chrysanthemum.



ONE OF THE HITHERTO UNPUBLISHED SKETCHES BY THE LATE KATE GREENAWAY, REPRODUCED FROM AUSTIN DOBSON'S BOOK "DE LIBRIS."

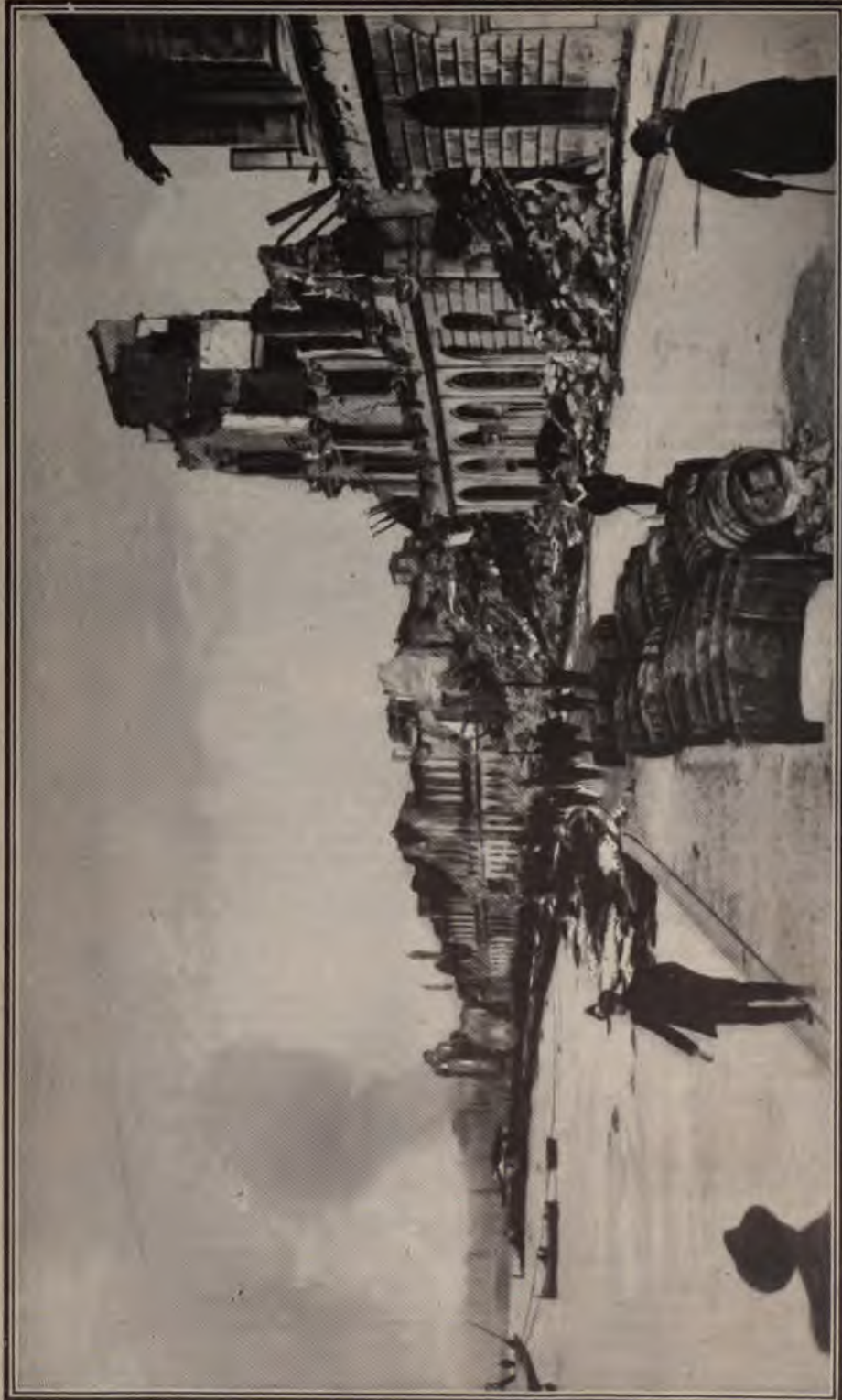
THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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Photograph by Brown Bros., New York.

THE WATER-FRONT OF MESSINA, SICILY, DEVASTATED BY EARTHQUAKE, TIDAL WAVE, AND FIRE.—SEE PAGES 150—153.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

VOL. XXXIX.

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY, 1909.

No. 2.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*The
Lincoln
Centenary.* Abraham Lincoln was born on February 12 in the year 1809. The one-hundredth anniversary of his birth will be very generally celebrated this month. Centenaries of great events, such as the American Declaration of Independence and the Fall of the Bastille, have been observed as notable public occasions, but never before in the history of the world has the one-hundredth anniversary of the birthday of any man been celebrated with such depth of feeling and such widespread concurrence of opinion and sentiment as will mark the tributes paid to the memory and achievements of Lincoln at this time. Lincoln, more than any other man, typifies the American nation as it developed in the last century. The growth of the States beyond the Alleghanies, with their blended American stock and their national spirit, was what availed to hold the Union together in the time of its crisis, and Lincoln was the product of that growth. If we can even now see with some clearness that Lincoln's work was to preserve the Union, and to enable this nation to work out its destinies as one great political and social entity, that paramount fact will become ever more conspicuous as time moves on and the great landmarks of history loom up in true perspective above the smaller things.

*Lincoln's
Fore-
sight.* Lincoln saw that slavery was a bad and obsolete business, making the South peculiar, and tending to divide the country. He could see that this country had to be reasonably uniform in its racial character and in its social and domestic institutions in order to have a solid and prosperous future. He knew that slavery would have to go in any case, because its retention was in the face of the laws of

modern civilization. But he could also see that in the hot-headed and foolish strife about slavery the nation might be divided and wrecked beyond recovery, with consequences of incalculable harm through long centuries to come. There were many people in this country so fanatical and so little gifted with a sense for the real movements of political, or social, or economic history, that they would willingly have smashed forever the American Union in order that slavery might be abolished on Monday rather than on Tuesday or Wednesday. Gradually, some of the descendants of those impatient idealists have begun to see that the things in Lincoln's creeds and programs for which they have been accustomed to apologize as of the compromising sort were the very things that will establish his majestic place in history. Slowly and painfully they have been learning that the question of slavery was only part of the larger question of race, and that the exact moment of emancipation was not more important than the method and the circumstances.

*The Union
Was His
One Aim.* Lincoln made it his business to save the Union for the benefit of all peoples and all races then living and afterward to live within its boundaries. To have kept slavery out of the Territories and to have held it strictly within the lines of the slave States would have led inevitably to some orderly mode of emancipation at no distant period. Southern historians and statesmen will yet arise who will see how truly Mr. Lincoln stood for policies that would have been best for the Southern States. The unity of the country being conceded as a *sine qua non*, Mr. Lincoln would have been ready to favor any reasonable method of emancipation, whether immediate

or gradual. All the facts of modern progress were with Mr. Lincoln in his forecast of the future.

*The West
Controlled the
Future.*

This frontiersman of Illinois, who was familiar with the natural resources of Iowa, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Kansas, and the new West at large, had only to use his mind and his imagination to see that slavery was in a hopeless position, and that the worst thing that could befall the South would be a successful secession. For it was obvious on a little thought that the future of every country must depend upon the quality of its population. Meanwhile, the great West was becoming rich and powerful through the opportunities it gave to hundreds of young men and women from New England and the Eastern States and to countless thousands from the British Isles, Germany, and other European lands. The slavery system, on the other hand, was not only keeping white immigrants from the South, but was also keeping the great majority of the Southern white people ignorant and poor, massing them in the uplands and mountain districts. With the success of secession there would have been a practical if not a legal reopening of the foreign slave trade and the growth of population in the Southern States would relatively have been a growth of the labor class,—that is to say, of negro slaves. Thus in the case of a future war with the North and West, the fighting strength of the South would have been fatally impaired through its relative loss of white population, while the West would have been rich, populous, and dominant. The growth of negro population would have brought increasing danger of race conflict, and a possible repetition in

parts of the South of the history of San Domingo. The War was better than that.

*Lincoln
Was
National.*

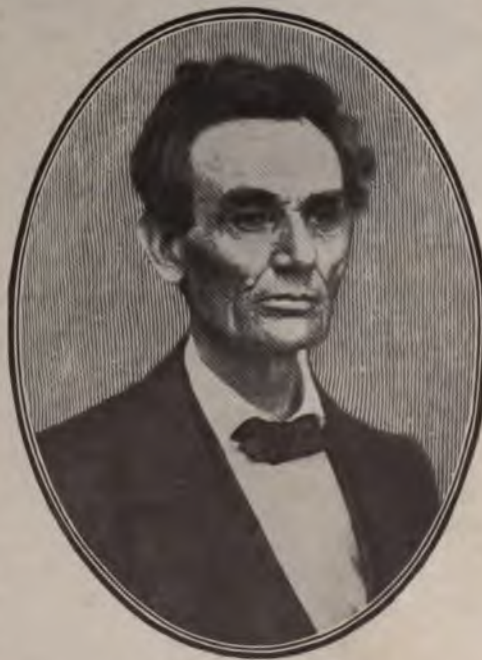
Thus, all the scientific facts in the situation were against disunion, and Lincoln had a keener instinct for their practical appreciation than any other public man of his time. Jefferson and others of the early Southern statesmen had grasped the same ideas; but the cotton-raisers and the technical constitutional lawyers of a generation later than Jefferson lost the power to see facts in their large bearings. Lincoln was not Northern; he was not Southern; he was not Western; he was simply national, and he happened to be wholly

and entirely right. So much for Lincoln's statesmanship. It was broad and strong, and its principles were for the welfare of all parts of the nation. The statesmanship of Douglas was temporizing and far less elevated, although it had the one great merit of being directed toward expedients that would prevent separation and war, and it was based upon the belief that if time could be gained and disruption staved off, the arguments for union and nationality would grow constantly stronger, and the postponed problems would somehow get themselves worked

out. To honor Lincoln, therefore, is above all to recognize the value of our nationality.

*Pioneer Life
as a Training
School.*

It must not be thought surpassingly marvelous that a great leader like Lincoln should have risen from humble conditions. While it may not be so easy for Europeans to understand it, Americans ought not to be unmindful or ignorant of the processes by which in this country we have developed personality and individual power to think and to lead. It is not



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

(From a photograph taken in 1860.)

as if ours had been a country of crystallized castes or social orders. There has been ample opportunity for poor boys in our pioneer communities; and the practice of democratic government in localities has proved itself an excellent school. Abraham Lincoln was born with fine mental powers and great physical prowess. He was a natural leader, and his environment, while different, gave quite as good a practical training for political leadership as did Washington's in early Virginia. Like Washington, Lincoln as a youth was self-reliant and venturesome. Like Washington, also, he applied his mind to the matters in hand whether of a public or a private nature. Lincoln was naturally studious, and he trained his mind partly in the study of books and partly in the practical school of life about him. Political questions were under constant discussion, the speeches of public men were available in the newspapers, and the art of public speaking was encouraged by all the conditions of the time.

*A Highly
Cultivated
Mind*

The practice of law in the West and South at that time was closely associated with current politics and with the legal and theoretical discussion of public questions; and Mr. Lincoln was in many respects better educated and better trained than if he had grown up in an Eastern town of that day and had gone through a typical Eastern college. From the very beginning of his career Lincoln had cultivated the art of expression. He had learned to speak convincingly, he had mastered the art of debate, and he had labored assiduously for exact and well-knit modes of utterance. Having found for himself a clear and concise use of words, he gradually acquired great felicity in speech, and many of his public utterances are models of the very best English style. Where a man of such power of mind is also master of such delicacy and precision in the art of expression, it is a great mistake to say of Lincoln that he was not a man of cultivation. He was not schooled in certain conventionalities of manner, and his ways were not always those of the polite society of large cities. But he was a man of a most highly cultivated mind. His interlineations could give a touch of polish and perfection to a state paper that went beyond the skill of the accomplished Mr. Seward, his Secretary of State; and he was easily master of finer and more fitting phrases than could be penned by Edward Everett, the great orator of the time.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

(From a photograph taken in 1864.)

*His
Fine
Humanity.*

Some of us, then, set Lincoln high on the pinnacle of fame for his statesmanship as our great nationalist. There are others who prefer to set him high for his mastery over men and his gifts of leadership. Still others dwell most upon his exquisite talent for speech and for literary form. But the great majority are those who prefer him for his qualities of heart,—for his humor, his tolerance, his kindness, and his humanity. In a letter to the editor of this magazine which we publish on page 171, President Roosevelt quotes a beautiful and touching letter written by Lincoln to an obscure woman whose sons had perished in the war; and the present occupant of the White House sees in that wonderful letter much that is characteristic of Lincoln's qualities and that makes his personality so cherished a memory and so fine a heritage.

*Already
a Colossal
Figure.*

Lincoln was fifty-two years old when he was inaugurated as President in March, 1861, and he was fifty-six when assassinated in April, 1865. There are hundreds of people still living who knew him, thousands who at some time heard him speak, and scores of thousands who remember having seen him. Yet so momentous was his period and so great

were his qualities that he already stands forth as one of the great figures of history, as certain of immortal fame as any other man who has ever lived. What he might have been able to accomplish if he had lived to complete his second term is beyond any one's power to conjecture. He would probably have become involved in a serious controversy with Congress. His point of view was very different from that of the harsh and implacable leaders who were responsible for the reconstruction policy and who undertook to convict President Andrew Johnson of high crimes and misdemeanors. His death was a great calamity, but doubtless it has helped to give that touch of peculiar dignity, pathos, and heroism to the accepted historical figure of Abraham Lincoln that so tragic an ending of a great career at its moment of climax must have bestowed. If he had fought Congress through four bitter years on its reconstruction policy, and then lived long afterward as an ex-President, the historical portrait would have lacked something of the bold, statuesque outlines that it now possesses.

*His
Heavy
Burdens.*

Calumny was forgotten in the mourning over his death. Few Presidents had been more belittled, or ridiculed, or misunderstood than Mr. Lincoln while in the White House. The years following the war were a period of fierce passion and prejudice, and were marked by much of that corruption that follows in the train of a great conflict. Mr. Lincoln, if he had lived, therefore, would have had a fight with Congress such as no other president had ever known. His personal burden was far greater than that which any other American President has had to bear, because, in addition to his ordinary tasks of public administration, he was carrying on a colossal war that lasted through his entire term. Mr. Lincoln was a man of peace, and the carnage and devastation of war were to him as hideous and detestable as to the most devoted member of the peace society. But he was sustained by a belief in the value of American union and nationality as a factor in the future and final peace of the Western Hemisphere and of the world.

*War for
the sake of
Peace.*

And in this faith Mr. Lincoln has been abundantly justified. We have fought no wars since his day except only that of ten years ago, which was merely an intervention for the

sake of ending a war and establishing conditions of permanent peace. Our unity as a nation has given us such strength and prosperity that we can use our influence with good effect at critical moments to help the entire world in its steady movement away from the barbarism of war toward the conditions of peace and friendship. At the end of the Civil War we were strong enough to secure settlement of differences with England by arbitration and to save Mexico from falling back under European control. We have in recent years signed many arbitration treaties, and, better than that, we have established relations of genuine friendship with all other nations. If the South had been successful, it would have been involved in a warlike future, with declining strength and prestige. Meanwhile the Pacific Coast would also have tried to break away and establish a government of its own, with the prospect of ultimate conflicts with the Asiatic powers. The one great guaranty of peace and prosperity for East, West, North, and South alike is to be found in that perpetual union which Lincoln lived and died to maintain.

*Respect
Due the
Presidency.*

The critics and cavilers of Mr. Lincoln's time seem small and narrow as we look back upon them from our vantage ground. The Presidency is so great a position that the American people do not intend to confer it upon any man who falls short of high patriotism, or of tried and approved qualities of character, both public and private. Unless, therefore, the sense of public duty be clear, no wise man will assail the chief magistrate. Further than that, any man who attacks the President of the United States with ridicule, with vituperation, or with allegations reflecting upon his conduct or his motives, is pretty sure to get the worst of the bargain and to have his name written down unpleasantly in some footnote to history, to the mortification of his descendants. A careful and dignified discussion of public questions may indeed involve constant differences of opinion; and the President's policies are always a fair subject of adverse presentation by opponents. But personal abuse only reflects upon those who are so unwise as to indulge in it. Even President Johnson, who was not as wise and tactful as he might have been, fares a great deal better in the verdict that history passes upon his times than do his assailants. As for President Roosevelt, the

recent flurries at Washington have been important only in the opinion of those who have been involved in the attacks upon him; and they can have no other general result than to put the present Congress in a rather pitiable light, when under better guidance and control it might have rounded out its term very creditably.

*Attacks
Upon
Mr. Roosevelt.*

Mr. Roosevelt has been the most popular President who has ever filled the office. The range of his acquaintance with public affairs and the unflagging industry and vitality that mark him beyond almost any other man of his generation have led him to try simultaneously to lead the country in a double-quick march of progress in every possible direction. His public spirit has been beyond all question, his intelligence and his information have been of bewildering extent, his actual achievements form a prodigious list, and his energy has seemed to a great many excellent men at Washington to have made him a trifle impatient and dictatorial. It takes a vast amount of vigor for any man in public office to exercise all the power that is theoretically available. It is not that Mr. Roosevelt has been a usurper of authority, but that his unceasing energy has shown the country,—for the first time since Lincoln and the exigencies of a colossal war,—how vast is the power that is reposed in the hands of our Chief Magistrate. If Mr. Roosevelt had lifted his finger for another term the Republican party would have nominated him with unanimity, he would have been easily re-



CONGRESS ASSUMES A FIRM ATTITUDE.
From the *Daily News* (Chicago).

elected, and politicians, whether in Congress or out of it, would not have wished to run the risk of fighting him. This, in fact, furnished one of the reasons why it was best that Mr. Roosevelt should retire. His influence was tending to become so prodigious that his legislative programs would have seemed more authoritative than Presidential recommendations ought to be. But when Mr. Roosevelt had made it plain that he was going to retire, and when the end of his term was so near that there was little to fear by way of punishment or reward, the temptation to snarl at him was as strong for a certain class of men as was the temptation to fawn upon his successor-elect. A good-humored and disinterested public across the length of a great land is able to understand both processes,—that of the cheap detractors who snarl at the outgoing President, and that of the hopeful sycophants who try to gain favor by praising the President-elect at the expense of his most valuable friend and closest public associate.



WHO WILL BELL THE CAT?
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

Certainly the gentleman in the White House has faced the comic little storm of detraction with no seeming disturbance of poise or temper; while the President-elect, with his sense of humor and his knowledge of the situation, could not fail to see the funny side of the frantic efforts of his own recent enemies to wedge themselves in between him and his most loyal friends and supporters. The attempt to differentiate Mr. Roosevelt from

his Administration cannot succeed. The Republican party put the stamp of its approval upon President and Administration alike in its platform last summer, and went still farther, in that it adopted the Roosevelt policies in good faith and without mental reservation. The record of the Roosevelt Administration has been made up, and it has been endorsed by the party and by the country. At the very moment, a few weeks ago, when the leaders of the Senate and the leaders of the House were trying to find some means by which to assert their own dignity as against the President, they were passing a bill to have next year's census taken under the spoils system, in order that Congressmen might have the benefit of conferring appointments upon their own followers. They were perfectly aware that this method would result in poorer work and in needless delays, besides costing the Government several millions of dollars more than a census properly taken under civil-service rules of appointment. The simple, obvious fact is that the present Congress does not do its work upon the same high level of public spirit that the President habitually shows. The country knows this to be true, and no personal attacks upon Mr. Roosevelt can change the broad fact.

*A
Petty
Controversy.*

The President's annual message to Congress at the opening of the session in December was not in point of fact an affront to Congress, but was a public document of great range, in which the President did his very best to set forth the conditions of public business and to recommend what he regarded as important measures for Congress to consider at the present session. Very subordinate to the great matters presented in this message was a section devoted to the work of the Government's Secret-Service officers. Congress in the preceding session had restricted the Executive in the use of the Secret Service, and the President asked for the removal of the restrictions. He held that such restrictions made it easier for criminals to violate the laws. He stated that if Congress did not wish the Secret Service to be used to investigate members of the legislative body, a restriction could be made to apply along that line; but that the President ought to have freedom to use the Government's detectives in tracing crime in the different executive departments. The House, under the influence of some of its leaders, chose to find in the President's lan-

guage a slur upon its honor. The attitude of the House was absurd and without humor, because the President could have had no reason to assail the honor and dignity of Congress as a whole, and certainly would not have chosen to insult Congress by an incidental sentence in the course of a long message of great dignity in which he was seeking most respectfully to secure the co-operation of Congress in the support of various public measures.

*How to
Punish
a President*

In its effort to persuade itself that it had a grievance, Congress was guilty of child's play, and made a laughing-stock of itself. Long days of valuable time in which Congress should have been considering public business were devoted to twaddling debate by way of trying to decide what to do with the President's message. The President, meanwhile, in answer to inquiry, had sent a special message fully explaining the meaning of his remarks on the Secret Service, and giving ample information. Congress finally decided to punish the President by "laying on the table" that part of the annual message containing the distasteful sentences, and also the whole of the special message relating to the Secret Service. The ground for laying the special message on the table was expressed in the statement that it was "unresponsive." In hitting upon this word "unresponsive" Congress felt that it had found a happy way to vindicate its dignity and settle the score. Meanwhile, the broad grin on the face of the whole country gradually penetrated the gloom of the House of Representatives, and the members who had neither thrust themselves forward nor yet been pushed to the front in the controversy were the ones who in the end congratulated themselves on their good luck. The fact is that Congress had not intended at this session to do much except pass the appropriation bills, and the fuss about the Secret Service quickly blew over as an episode in the history of a rather inglorious term of a body that will yet see better days.

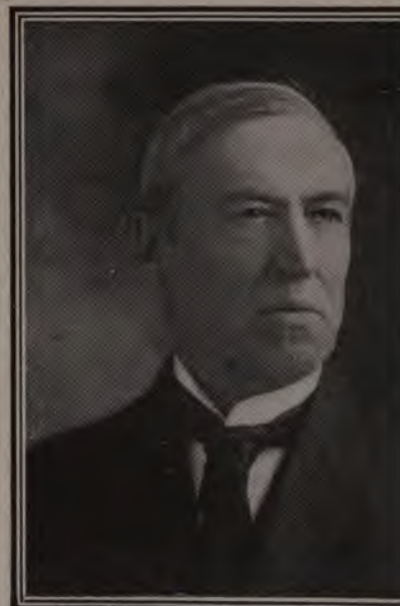
*The Dignity
of a
Senator.*

One of the incidents of the Secret-Service discussion was a disclosure that placed Senator Tillman, of South Carolina, in an embarrassing position. Senator Tillman has always seemed to be without restraint or nice scruple in the use of vituperative language. Generally it proves true that men who are reckless in speech are

not of delicate scruple in action; yet Senator Tillman has always been regarded as a man of personal honesty and also of a correct sense of honor as respects most matters of conduct that pertain to the position of a public man. The matter whereof he was accused last month did not involve any violation of law, but it must certainly be regarded as seriously involving the dignity of a public man. If the conditions under which old land grants were made have not been complied with by railroads or other corporations, it should be the endeavor of public men at Washington to secure reversal to the national domain and compensation to the treasury. If Western public lands that, when granted, had no market value have been held by land-grant companies until the timber on them is worth, perhaps, \$100 an acre, there is no equitable purpose served by invoking a clause in the conditions of the grant under which a Senator from South Carolina could secure these valuable lands in Oregon for himself and for all the members of his family at \$2.50 an acre.

**The
Obvious
Equities.*

Certainly the Government should be regarded as having some claim as against the holding corporation. But as between the company that now possesses and has for a long time held the land and outside speculators who wish to get possession of it at a small fraction of its value the preference would seem clearly in favor of the actual holders. It is perfectly true that a Senator of the United States has a right to buy and sell land and to make other investments. But it is a very different matter for a Senator to try to get the Government to dispossess a land-holding company in order that he himself might obtain some of the land at a very small fraction of its true value. If the company is to forfeit the land, it is the business of Senators to do their best to see that public interests are protected. If lands once granted from the public domain are illegally held, they should be forfeited to the Government and then disposed of under the land laws to actual settlers, or sold at their value on an equitable basis. But surely the Senator from South Carolina, when he proposed to acquire a quarter-section for himself and one for each of seven or eight members of his immediate family, did not intend to migrate to the Pacific Coast in order to become an actual occupant of such lands. Surely, the proprieties in cases like this are too obvious to be debated.



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HON. JAMES B. PERKINS, OF NEW YORK
(Chairman of the House committee that tried to impeach the President.)

*Motives
and
Public Effort.*

Senator Tillman disappointed his friends by his sorry display of himself; and he certainly did nothing to strengthen his position by vituperative attacks upon the President of the United States and afterward upon Attorney-General Bonaparte and Postmaster-General Meyer. There was no question of the country as to the propriety of those members of the executive department of the Government; and Senator Tillman would have done better to confine himself to an explanation of his own transaction. Senator Tillman was quite right in claiming that his conduct had not been that of a candidate. Whether or not it had been coming a Senator of the United States is a question that primarily interests his constituents in South Carolina, and it also has interest for the people of the United States at large in view of the fact that Mr. Tillman is one of our nation's great public servants and is presumed in his public life in the Senate not to be governed by the motives of private gain. The disclosures which compelled Mr. Tillman to explain his proposed deals were not due to the work of the War Service, yet curiously enough they came to light through the discussion of the work of the Government's investment agents.



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SENATOR TILLMAN, OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

Higher Standards for the Senate.

It is fair enough for the people of the United States to ask the several States to send to the Senate gentlemen representing the highest standards of public and private honor recognized in the States from which these men are accredited. The late Senator Hoar represented exactly the same standards of public and private honor that are regarded as essential in Massachusetts when a president of Harvard University is chosen. Mr. Hoar's standards were those of President Eliot and those of the gentleman who has now been designated to succeed Mr. Eliot. The standards of Senator Hoar were also the standards of the late Senator Platt, of Connecticut. These gentlemen are not named here in order to disparage other Senators now living. They are mentioned rather because they are not now living and because no one, whether in the Senate or out of it, will question the praise accorded them. These two gentlemen stood for high standards, as also did the two aged and distinguished Senators from Alabama who have passed away within a few years. The people of this country have borne with too much patience the low standards of

public life brought into the United States Senate by the exigencies of the "boss" system of party management as it has operated in many of our States, and by the use of money for the purchase of Senate seats. It is not strange that there has been revolt against such methods, and that many States have tried to secure a higher class of public servants by adopting some form of direct-primary election as a substitute for the convention system. Theoretically the convention system is probably a better one than the direct primaries; but the direct primary, however imperfectly it may operate, seems to afford some relief from the monstrous abuses that had been perpetrated through a convention system that has too often been dominated by professional party politicians or corrupt plutocrats and powerful corporations.

A Brighter Prospect.

There are many evidences that, whether under one system or under another, the people of the States are proposing to send strong men to the Senate. Mr. Elihu Root's selection by the Republicans of the New York Legislature to succeed Senator Platt was, last month, a matter of unanimous action. A better selection could not possibly have been made. Iowa, in sending Governor Cummins to the Senate to succeed the lamented Senator Allison, honored itself by giving to the nation a man of the highest rank of ability and character. Ohio, in choosing as the successor of Senator Foraker so upright and distinguished a member of the other house as the Hon. Theodore E. Burton, has acted in a way that meets the approval of the best sentiment of the country. A very remarkable outcome of the primary system is the election of Governor Chamberlain, of Oregon, last month, to succeed Mr. Fulton in the Senate. Governor Chamberlain is a Democrat and the Legislature is Republican. The Republican members of the Legislature had individually promised to abide by the results of the primary election in its test of popular sentiment on the question of a successor to Fulton. Although the State went strongly for Taft, Governor Chamberlain's strength gave him the lead in the popular expression for Senator. Every member of the Legislature has stood by his pledge, and Mr. Chamberlain will come to the Senate with unusual prestige. Although he is a Democrat, born and educated in the South, he is not a narrow partisan, and will be under peculiar obligation to take a lofty and

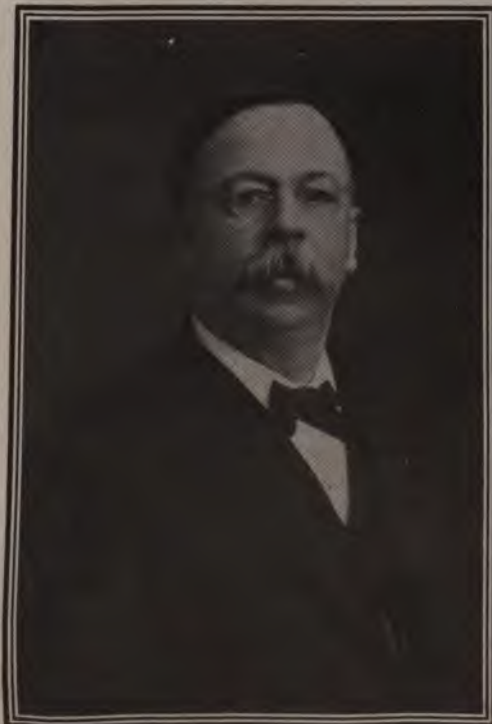
patriotic view of his senatorial duties. He is a leader in the movement initiated by President Roosevelt for the conservation of natural resources. The Democrat chosen by the Indiana Legislature to succeed Mr. Hemenway in the Senate is the Hon. Benjamin Franklin Shively, and not the Hon. John W. Kern. The country does not yet know much about Indiana's new Senator, and will hope that he may rise to the height of his duties and opportunities.

Unworthy Performances. With so many newer men of great force and ability now taking their places in the Senate, the time has come for a different order of affairs in that body. Some of its methods and some of its traditions ought to be promptly, if not rudely, upset. The Senate has now probably a majority of men in whom the country can afford to have confidence. It ought to enter upon a career of brilliancy and public usefulness, and it ought not to countenance proceedings unworthy of its responsibilities. Senator Culberson, of Texas, for example, is a gentleman quite generally respected. But the Senate ought not last month to have sup-



Photograph by Baker, Columbus.

SENATOR-ELECT T. E. BURTON, OF OHIO.



GOVERNOR GEORGE E. CHAMBERLAIN.
(Senator-elect from Oregon.)

ported him in a position that was manifestly not tenable. Mr. Culberson had presented a resolution calling upon the Attorney-General to state to the Senate the reasons why he had not prosecuted the United States Steel Corporation for having at a certain time in the past purchased the stock of the Tennessee Coal & Iron Company. The President readily gave the Senate all the information he possessed concerning the transaction in question, but denied the right of the Senate to demand from the Attorney-General a statement of the reasons why he had done a thing or abstained from doing it. Whereupon the Senate undertook to raise the theoretical question of its right to call upon heads of departments for information and papers relating to public matters. Here, of course, there was involved a complete change of the matter at issue. Calling upon an executive officer to afford it the use of papers and documents on file pertaining to a matter of public interest is a thing that the Senate has always been in the habit of doing. But to pass a resolution summoning a



HON. BENJAMIN F. SHIVELY.
(Senator-elect from Indiana.)

cabinet officer to make confession of his motives in not having done at some time in the past a thing that nobody had ever asked him to do is not merely a different affair altogether, but is ridiculous. It leads one to wonder how men of the average intelligence of the United States Senate can permit the time of a public body to be so wasted, when there are necessary matters pressing for consideration.

From the standpoint of theory, the demand upon a cabinet officer to tell "the reason why" is, of course, nonsense on its face. From the standpoint of the facts in the actual case the position of Senator Culberson is hardly less absurd. Under certain constructions of the Sherman Anti-Trust law it might be possible to bring action against a good many of the larger industrial and transportation companies of the country. As a matter of fact, rather than of theory, prosecutions have been undertaken against several large companies, not at the original instance of the Attorney-General, but always after specific and strongly supported complaints had been made, followed by investigations the results of which seemed to the Department of Justice to require proceedings in the courts. The practical answer to Mr. Culberson's attacks upon

Asking
"the Reason
Why."

the President and the Attorney-General for not prosecuting the Steel Corporation is the simple one that Mr. Culberson had never filed a complaint or called upon the Department of Justice to investigate the purchase of the Tennessee Coal & Iron Company's stock. Nor are the charges that President Roosevelt authorized that transaction, and was guilty of violating the laws by so doing, other than silly almost to the point of imbecility. President Roosevelt promised nobody any immunity, and discouraged nobody from filing complaints or from calling upon the Department of Justice to prosecute the Steel Corporation in the courts. In the matter of the enforcement of the laws, Mr. Roosevelt has done his best, has earned the confidence of the country, and will not lose it. But Congress should amend the laws.

Publicity
as Roosevelt's
Weapon.

Furthermore, the President has always been ready to give Congress information on public affairs, and there is no reason either practical or theoretical for trying to force an issue upon the extent of the right of Congress to call upon the Executive for documents and information. Mr. Roosevelt's chief instrument as a public man is that of publicity carried to a point beyond that reached by any of his predecessors. Congress has never been hampered in its legitimate work by failure to obtain any information possessed by President Roosevelt. His openness has been his chief protection in all his controversies. It would be easy to name some of Mr. Roosevelt's most conspicuous detractors in public life of whom it could not be so truthfully said that openness has characterized their careers. It is charitable to them not to pursue this line of comment any further.

Matters
in
Congress.

The opposition to the Postal Savings bill is strongly entrenched, and very little apart from the regular appropriations will be accomplished before the expiration of the Sixtieth Congress on the 4th of March. An attempt to increase the salaries of the President, Vice-President, Speaker of the House, and federal judges was the subject of a debate last month that was characteristic in its triviality of the greater part of the flood of talk that has recently filled the pages of the *Congressional Record*. In the face of Treasury deficits and without regard to the lack of final and definite plans, there was a determined effort to force a large River and Har-

bor bill through the present session by log-rolling methods. It is to the credit of Mr. Burton, chairman of the Rivers and Harbors Committee, who goes next month to the Senate, that the bill has been held down to \$10,000,000 for the continuance of important work that could not properly be checked or suspended.

*Mr. Taft
in the
Interval.*

Mr. Taft's mid-winter sojourn in the South was not in the nature of a retreat for rest and meditation. It was a period of publicity and platform effort almost as strenuous as the closing weeks of last fall's campaign. Mr. Taft, by the way, will have become in the full sense a President-elect when the votes of the Electoral College, which were cast on January 11, are counted in a joint session of the two houses of Congress on February 10. His speeches in the South have been conciliatory and sensible, and the hospitality of Georgia has been as unstinted as it would have been in like circumstances toward Mr. McKinley or Mr. Roosevelt. With the announcement that Mr. Knox would be Secretary of State, and his visit to Georgia, following the earlier announcement that Mr. Hitchcock would be Postmaster-General, the business of cabinet building, which had been going forward in the press as an open and public proceeding, came promptly within the veil of secrecy; and we are to know who will be in the next cabinet when the proper time comes. Mr. Taft, in



SENATOR CULBERSON, OF TEXAS.

accordance with long announced plans, was to start from Charleston on January 25 on his trip to Panama, and was to be back early in February, in time to complete his inaugural speech and be ready for the responsibilities that will begin on March 4. Nobody ever approached the duties of the Presidency with fewer enemies or with a more kindly disposed body of fellow-citizens.

*New York's
Model Banking
Laws.*

On October 21, 1907, in the confusion and dismay of panic week, Governor Hughes appointed, as Superintendent of the State Banking Department, Mr. Clark Williams, the young vice-president of one of the newer trust companies of New York City. Mr. Williams has now made his annual report covering a very notable year of wise banking reform, which has brought the State laws and regulations governing banks to a perfection that makes them a model for other commonwealths. A very large part of the credit for this achievement is due to the quiet and indefatigable Superintendent. That the result is of more than local importance is shown in the one fact that the banks organized under the State of New York have one-fifth of the entire banking resources of the Union. Of the twenty bills suggested by Superintendent Williams and passed by the Legislature, some of the most important are those increasing the legal reserve for State banks in Manhattan from 15 to 25 per cent., and



"COUSIN BILL," AND THE "SOLID SOUTH."

From the *World* (New York).



Photograph by Piri MacDonald

MR. CLARK WILLIAMS.

(Superintendent of the New York State Banking Department.)

requiring that the trust companies carry all of their 15 per cent. reserve in cash. State banks are prohibited from owning more than 10 per cent. of the capital stock of other banks, thus effectually preventing the "chain-banking" methods which did so much to make the unstable situation of October, 1907. The department has, moreover, inaugurated an ingenious and thorough method of credit reporting, by which the large borrowers of every bank are reported by the examiner to the New York office for card indexing, examination, and comparison, a method which will make it more difficult for rash financiers to get dangerously "spread out" to the detriment of the lending institutions. One of the most grateful reforms of the year is the vesting of bank receivership control in the State department, instead of receivers appointed by the court,—an arrangement which had resulted in a situation little less than scandalous. In the one failing institution Superintendent Williams was called on to handle,—the Home Bank of Brooklyn,—the salary cost was \$666 and the term of the receivership forty-two days. In nine other

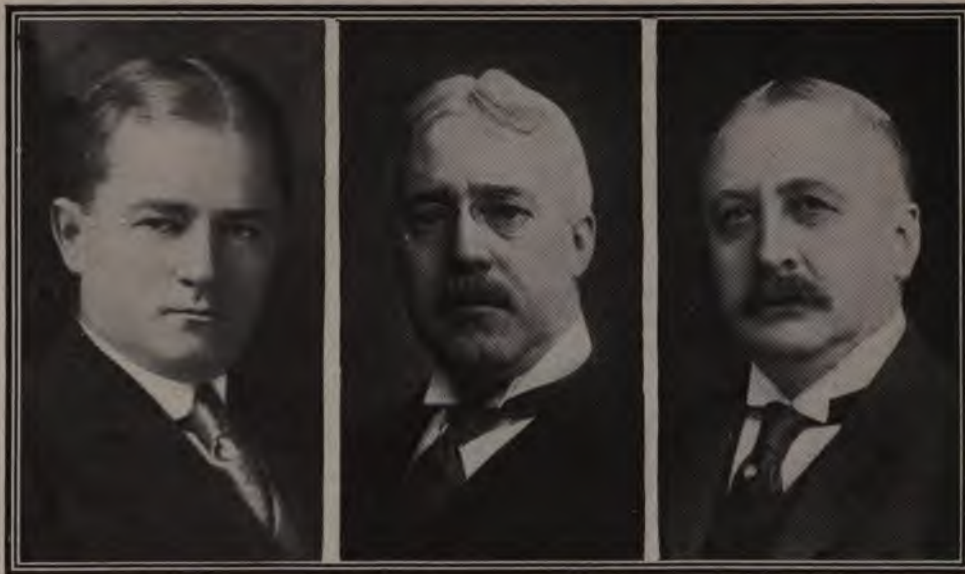
receiverships last year, handled under the old method, the fees ranged from \$20,500 to \$80,000 and the term from five to seven months.

*Future
Changes in
Banking.*

The Williams report recommends that new legislation be held to a minimum. The Superintendent considers it an evil that banks of discount, State and national, and even department stores, are competing with savings-banks by offering 4 per cent. interest on small deposits, the evil lying in the fact that the depositor who wants savings-bank quality of protection is seldom aware that he is not getting this. It is suggested that banks other than those controlled by the savings-bank law should be prohibited from giving interest on deposits under a minimum sum, and that, in any case, banks of discount and other institutions paying interest on small deposits should let the depositor know that they are not operating under the savings-bank restrictions. A matter of much importance, though not of legislative concern, is Mr. Williams' urgent advice that the State banks and the trust companies be admitted to the clearing-house, or else that they should form a clearing-house of their own. He sees serious danger in the practice of one institution acting as the clearing-house agent of another. That the confidence of depositors has been fully restored to the New York banks,—largely as a result of the clear-headed and active work of this department,—is strikingly shown by the figures of their resources before the panic, during the panic, and at the present time. The total resources of the trust companies just before the panic were \$1,364,000,000; in December, 1907, \$1,002,000,000; by last November they had risen to \$1,427,000,000. The State banks also have not only recovered their panic loss, but have gone ahead of their record in August, 1907.

*Some
New York
Bankers.*

Apropos of the improvement in New York banking laws and State supervision of financial institutions, may be noted the growing importance of New York's banks and bankers in relation to the larger affairs of the country. The presidency of the National City Bank has just now passed from Mr. James Stillman to Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip. Mr. Stillman is a banker and financier of great skill and success, but he has always been a private business man rather than a man of public activity. The same thing may be said of



Mr. H. P. Davison.

Mr. F. A. Vanderlip.

Mr. F. L. Hine.

THREE NEW YORK BANKERS OF GROWING PROMINENCE.

Mr. Baker, who has retired from the presidency of the First National Bank of New York and who is succeeded by Mr. Francis L. Hine. Mr. Vanderlip is much better known as an authority upon public finance than as a banker in the private and technical sense. He was a financial editor in Chicago before he became Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, and for some years has been vice-president of the bank over which he is henceforth to preside. Mr. Hine has been better known in business circles than in public affairs, but he is a man of wide interests and growing relationship to the country's development. Mr. Henry P. Davison, who has been one of Mr. Hine's associate vice-presidents of the First National Bank, has now become a partner in the firm of J. P. Morgan & Co., and as a member of the Monetary Commission, in association with Senator Aldrich, has been studying abroad the larger problems of currency and the adjustment and regulation of the issue of banknotes. The heads of the New York banking community are henceforth to be regarded as men of serious public responsibility, rather than as men merely trying to make money for the stockholders of their banks. Banking in our largest business centers now engages the talent of a number of the ablest and most public-spirited men in our contemporary life. There is no profession more honorable, and few which now afford a better field for service.

*Uncle Sam's
Balance
Sheet.*

The current discussion of the tariff has brought into prominence the fact that in the first six months of its fiscal year the nation had collected \$64,000,000 less than its expenditures during that period, and that the treasury balance had been reduced to \$163,853,332. At this rate of decrease a considerable deficit would appear within eighteen months, and the waning balance is used as an argument by the advocates of a radical tariff reduction who believe that larger imports at a lower rate would produce increased revenue, as well as by "standpatters" who deny that imports would be stimulated by reductions in the schedules to the degree of increasing the aggregate revenue. However this may be, a glance at the Treasury's statements of the past ten years does not give such a portentous aspect to this loss of \$64,000,000 in six months. The national finances seem to have a way of striking a fair balance through an average of ten years. Beginning with 1898, four years, 1898, 1899, 1904, and 1905, show expenditures greater than income, the deficiency for 1899 rising to over \$89,000,000. But for the whole ten years there is a surplus of nearly \$221,000,000. During the past two years the nation has spent vast sums of money, but it must be remembered that a great proportion of these sums paid out of income were for "improvements and additions." American railroads would

normally issue bonds to pay for analagous additions to their property, and most governments would be doing the same thing. The falling off in imports, which is largely responsible for the big bite taken out of our national surplus the last year, amounted to \$500,000,000. A recent report of the Department of Commerce and Labor shows that nearly four-fifths of this shrinkage in imports came at the Atlantic ports, a decrease of \$195,000,000 showing at New York alone. It is fair to assume that with the tariff uncertainties once done away with, the trend of revenue-producing commerce will again be toward the figures of 1906-'07.

The New York Gas Decision. Some of the most important economic questions that have been presented to the United States Supreme Court for many years were involved in the Consolidated Gas Case decided last month in favor of the City of New York. As usual in such cases the Supreme Court avoided a direct settlement or decision upon as many questions as possible. Such postponement of issues is a good thing for all concerned. It gives time for public opinion and for the advanced thought in economics and politics to grasp the situation and blaze the way for a solution. Until the full opinion of the court is printed, we must rely upon the brief summary handed down by Justice Peckham. He seems to allow natural monopolies the present value or cost of duplication of their land, mains and conduits, manufacturing plants, and the like, after full allowance for depreciation. It would appear, however, from the decision that a privately-owned monopoly can capitalize and make the public pay a return on the increased value of its land since its purchase, and on the value of the paving put over its mains and conduits by the taxpayers, while city-owned monopolies never ask the public to make a return on these values. The court also sustains a 5½ per cent. return on the physical valuation of a privately-owned monopoly, and considers 6 per cent. a fair return in the near future in this particular instance. On the other hand, the court excludes the capitalization of good will or going value, and appears to exclude any capitalization of franchise value except where, as in this case, the legislature is thought to have directly and in clear terms permitted such. The attitude of the court on this franchise matter will not be clear until the full decision is handed down. The court

also sustains the contention of the city that the result of a reduction of price in stimulating sales without a proportionate increase of investment should be taken into account in deciding upon a reduction in price.

*Reduction
In Price of
Gas.*

The decision and the testimony taken during the long continuance of the case will have a decided bearing upon attempts at regulation of price in other cities. The fact that gas of high candle-power can be sold for 80 cents at a profit of nearly 6 per cent. in New York on both physical value and over \$7,000,000 of early franchise values should be placed alongside of the fact that Chicago has been selling a similar quality of gas for two years for 85 cents and Boston a gas of somewhat lower candle-power for 80 cents. Lynn and Worcester, Mass., are selling for 85 cents, and several other Massachusetts cities, such as Cambridge, Fall River, Lawrence, Lowell, and New Bedford, for 90 cents. The largest Ohio and Michigan cities and Milwaukee, where coal and oil are cheaper, have been selling for even less than 80 cents. In almost all of these cases the low prices have been voluntary or from a fear that an investigation would lead the public to demand as low or lower prices. The evidence in the New York Gas Case clearly showed that it is impossible to decide off-hand what a reasonable price would be in cities varying in size, density of population, and situation with reference to coal and oil fields.

*Pittsburg's
Shame and
Hope.*

The recent arrest of seven Pittsburg councilmen on charges of gross corruption, together with the publication of some of the evidence, shocks the country. It had not been thought that the lower and more paltry forms of bribery were being practiced so shamelessly in any American city. There is cause for great encouragement, however, in the action of Mayor Guthrie, of Pittsburg, in naming a Civic Improvement Commission, comprising some of the foremost business, professional, and industrial leaders of the city. The matters bearing on the well-being of the wage-earning population, which fell within the scope of the Pittsburg Survey described in this REVIEW last month, will be taken up at once by this commission, and there can be no doubt that once the city government is purified and cleansed of graft, Pittsburg will make a distinct advance as an industrial community.

*A Famous
Boycott
Case.*

More than thirteen months ago, on December 23, 1907, Judge Gould, of the District of Columbia, granted an injunction after a full hearing of the case to stop the American Federation of Labor from continuing a boycott against the Buck's Stove Company, of St. Louis, which had been running for about nine months. The boycott had been kept active through the regular notices printed in the Federation's official paper. Under the law as established by the courts, this boycott was not lawful. Judge Gould could not have done otherwise, it would seem, than to grant the injunction. Late in December, some five weeks ago, about a year after the issuance of Judge Gould's injunction, another judge on the bench of the District of Columbia,—namely,

Judge Wright,—decided that the injunction had been violated. He convicted President Gompers, Vice-President Mitchell and Secretary Morrison, who, as chief officers of the American Federation of Labor, were accused of disobeying the mandate of the court. Judge Wright sentenced Mr. Samuel Gompers to one year's imprisonment, and sentenced Mr. Mitchell and Mr. Morrison to nine months' and six months' imprisonment, respectively. The sentenced labor leaders were admitted to bail, and an appeal was taken to the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia. It is understood that there would remain the right of appeal from this court to the Supreme Court of the United States.

*Some
of Its
Bearings.*

While the case is in the courts, it seems the part of wisdom not to comment upon it too freely. Whether or not the decision of Judge Wright may commend itself as proper in view of the law and of the facts, the utter lack of judicial tone and temper disclosed by the judge and the extraordinary fury of his utterances will



Copyright, 1909, by Harris & Ewing.
Samuel Gompers.

Frank Morrison.

John Mitchell.

THE SENTENCED OFFICERS OF THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR.

be regretted by all wise judges who feel that the honored traditions of the American bench must be carefully preserved in these days of searching criticism. Surely it could not have been anybody's high moral duty to keep up a boycott that had been legally enjoined. So long as the law is clear and stands unaltered, men who defy the law must be willing to take the punishment that the law provides for the preservation of its own dignity and authority. If the American people wish to have the right to boycott, then they must legalize the boycott. If the American people wish to bring under some new form of restriction the power of injunction that the courts now legally exercise, then let them demand of Congress and the legislatures the enactment of anti-injunction laws. The law as it stands must be obeyed until it is altered. When the Supreme Court of the United States has passed upon the case under discussion, the law as it relates to that case will be what the Supreme Court shall have declared it. The three men under sentence are by millions of people regarded as distinguished and useful citizens, patriotic in their aims,

and laboring for the advancement of the welfare of the masses of our people. Is it perfectly clear that they have with deliberate intent violated Judge Gould's injunction? This is a question that has been raised by the *Outlook* at some length. There is a legal question at issue that has to do with the constitutional power of the particular court to grant the injunction of 1907. We shall discuss this matter more completely when it has been passed upon by the higher courts:

*A National
Council of
Fine Arts.*

Singularly fitting at a time when the plans for an adequate Lincoln memorial in Washington have aroused unusually widespread public interest comes the announcement that President Roosevelt (by executive order on January 20) had appointed a National Council of Fine Arts. The function of this body is to pass upon the plans of all buildings and statues to be hereafter erected by the Government. The President, who acted upon the suggestion of the American Institute of Architects in appointing this council, said, in a letter to the Institute:

I shall direct all my cabinet officers to refer to the council, for their expert advice, all matters in their charge embracing architecture, selection of sites, and landscape work, sculpture, and painting. Moreover, I shall request the council to watch legislation and on its own initiative to make public recommendations to the Executive and to Congress with regard to proposed changes in existing monuments, or with regard to any new project. I earnestly advise your body to take immediate steps to secure the enactment of a law giving permanent effect to what I am directing to be done. The course you advocate, and which I approve, should not be permissive with the Executive; it should be made mandatory upon him by act of Congress.

The President further declared that he will request the council immediately to report and give its opinion on the character and location of the Lincoln memorial as suggested in the resolutions passed by the Board of Directors of the American Institute of Architects, and outlined on another page (206) of this number of the *REVIEW*. The names presented by the Institute of Architects and approved by the President as members of the Fine Arts Council are as follows:

Architects—Cass Gilbert, C. Grant La Farge, Walter Cook, William A. Boring, S. B. P. Trowbridge, John G. Howard, Glenn Brown, Thomas R. Kimball, John L. Mauran, D. H. Burnham, John H. M. Donaldson, George B. Post, Arnold W. Brunner, Robert S. Peabody, Charles F. McKim, William S. Kemes, James Rush Marshall, Abram Garfield, Frank Miles Day, William B. Mundie, and C. Howard Walker.

Painters—John La Farge, F. D. Millet, E. H. Blashfield, and Kenyon Cox.

Sculptors—Daniel C. French, Herbert Adams, H. A. MacNeil, and K. T. Bitter.

Landscape Architect—Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr.

*The
Poe
Centenary.*

Although American interest has centered so largely around the celebrations of the Lincoln centenary on the 12th of the present month, it should not be forgotten that another important centennial anniversary was commemorated a fortnight ago. Edgar Allan Poe was born on January 19, 1809, and the centenary was celebrated with appropriate ceremonies last month at various points throughout the country. The occasion was observed jointly in the city of Baltimore, where Poe was born and died, the exercises there being held under the auspices of the Edgar Allan Poe Memorial Association and Johns Hopkins University; at Richmond, Va., where he spent his boyhood; at the University of Virginia, which he attended for a term; at Brown University, Providence, R. I., where, after the death of his wife, he wooed Mrs. Sarah Helen Whitman, and in New York, where he lived the closing years of his life. There are not very many monuments to this genius,—for admittedly he was a genius. He has been regarded abroad for two generations now as the greatest American literary artist. Only a very modest stone marks his grave in Baltimore. A bust and tablet unveiled on the occasion of the anniversary celebration in Poe Park, opposite the Poe cottage in Fordham, New York City, is perhaps the most noteworthy of existing monuments. We reproduce this bust and tablet on page 227 of this issue of the *REVIEW*. The Poe Memorial Association, in Baltimore and Richmond, has accumulated more than \$5000 for the purpose of erecting a monument, and it is proposed also to place a memorial in the West Point library, opposite that of Whistler. Both these wayward geniuses of whom America is now proud were expelled from West Point for inattention to discipline. On another page this month we quote some of the representative critical estimates of Poe's work by living writers. It should be noted in passing that the other anniversaries of the season, those of Darwin, who was born on the same day as our first martyred President, and of the three masters of music, Chopin, Haydn, and Mendelssohn, are also appropriately mentioned in our pages this month.



CIPRIANO CASTRO, EX-PRESIDENT, AND FOR TEN YEARS DICTATOR OF VENEZUELA.

(From a photograph taken in Berlin in December.)

*Venezuela
Deposes
Castro*

The seizure of Venezuelan ships by vessels of the Dutch navy, early in December, caused rioting throughout the turbulent South American republic. Strangely enough, most of these demonstrations were not against the Dutch, but against the Castro régime. Immediately upon Señor Castro's departure from Venezuela Dr. Juan Vincente Gomez, the Vice-President, assumed the duties of the presidency, administering them avowedly in the name of the absent President, until late in December, when a plot to assassinate Gomez was discovered and frustrated. The latter at once assumed supreme control of the government, declaring Castro no longer President, and charging him with being implicated in the aforesaid plot. Gomez at once ordered canceled Señor Castro's "letter of unlimited credit" in Europe, and consolidated his power by deporting the military chieftains who had supported the former President, dismissing a number of the Castro ministers, and setting up a cabinet of his own choosing. He also took possession of the Bank of Venezuela. He then exacted loyalty from the military commanders and civil officials and established himself firmly in power at Caracas.

*And Improves
Her Foreign
Relations*

He demonstrated his good will and sincerity in foreign affairs by revoking on January 1 the embargo on Curaçao commerce, by offering fair and reasonable terms for the settlement of Venezuela's differences with the French Cable Company, and by agreeing, after some discussion with the United States Special Commissioner, Mr. W. I. Buchanan, to a plan which will ultimately result in the resumption of diplomatic relations between the United States and Venezuelan governments. Meanwhile Señor Castro, after several weeks of festivities in Germany, had submitted to a delicate surgical operation in Berlin, from which, however, he is reported to have fully recovered. At first he declined to believe the news of his deposition, but finally accepted the situation and announced that he would place no difficulties in the way of the present administration of Venezuela in settling pending controversies with foreign governments "even if this should involve my own withdrawal from activity in the affairs of the nation." What Señor Castro will do when he completely recovers his health is beyond prediction. According to the terms of the Venezuelan constitution he may return and demand his place again at the head of the nation. That he will do so under the present



DR. JUAN VINCENTE GOMEZ.

(Who has succeeded Cipriano Castro as President of Venezuela.)

circumstances it is difficult to believe, not to say, quite incredible.

*Cuba
Again Stands
Alone.*

Following the call of Provisional Governor Magoon, the Cuban Congress assembled on January 13, for the first time in a little more than two years, to effect a permanent organization, thereupon adjourning for one week, when it reassembled to canvass the electoral vote for President and Vice-President. Upon the official announcement that Gen. José Miguel Gomez had been elected President and Dr. Alfredo Zayas Vice-President, Congress again adjourned until January 28, when the President and Vice-President were officially proclaimed, and the entire administration of the Cuban Government formally turned over to these officials by Provisional Governor Magoon. The United States troops began leaving at the same time. Another highly important happening of the month in Latin America, although comparatively unnoticed in the daily press, was the signing by the representatives of the United States, Colombia, and Panama of three treaties covering long-standing disputes which concern the three nations. By the terms of the convention between Panama and Colombia the latter agrees to recognize the independence of the former, the boundary between the two countries is definitely set, and Panama agrees to assume that portion of the public debt of Colombia which existed prior to the revolution of 1903 and which had been contracted for the benefit of Panama in common with the other states of Colombia. The agreement between the United States and Colombia has particular reference to the right of navigation of Colombian vessels engaged in coastwise trade through the Panama Canal, while the agreement between the United States and Panama settles several minor questions which have been in dispute. These treaties will be submitted at once to the United States Senate, the Colombian Congress, and the National Assembly at Panama.

*Other Latin-
American
Happenings.*

Other events of particular interest in South and Central America and in the Caribbean regions during the past few weeks have been: The meeting on December 25 of the Pan-American Scientific Congress at Santiago, in Chile; the announcement that beginning on August 10 of the present year Ecuador will hold an international exposi-

tion to commemorate the one-hundredth anniversary of its independence; the approval by the Porto Rican Executive Council of the project to float a \$3,000,000 loan in the United States for irrigation purposes; the satisfaction rendered by the Government of Honduras to the Government of the United States for the indignity and insult offered some months ago to the American Consul at San Pedro; the ratification of arbitration treaties between the United States and Ecuador, Bolivia, Nicaragua, and Haiti; and the acceptance by the Government of Mexico of President Roosevelt's invitation to send a representative to the North American Conservation Conference to be held on the 18th of the present month.

*The
British
Parliament.*

The record of that session of the British Parliament which closed on December 21 was not, as already pointed out in these pages, very fruitful in legislation. Indeed the Old-Age Pensions bill, the provisions of which became operative on the first day of the present year, is the only measure of national importance emphasized in the program of legislation promised before election by the Liberal party, which has become a law. Several other im-



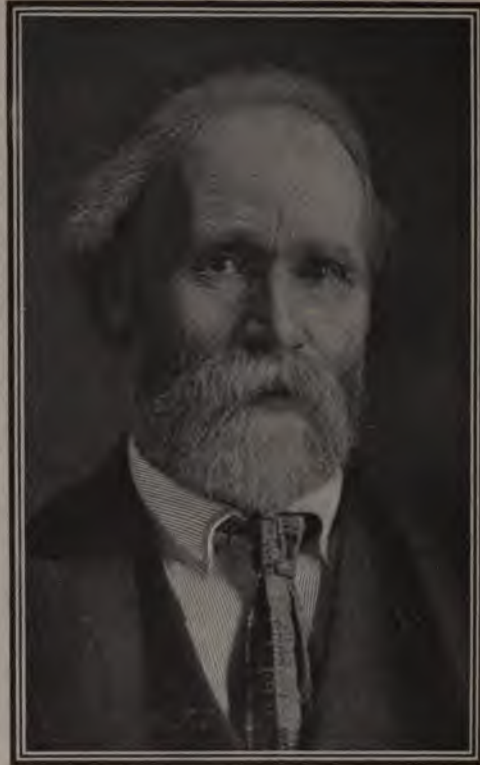
THE NEW YEAR'S GIFT TO BRITAIN'S AGED POOR
The new Old-Age Pensions law became operative
January 1.

From *Punch* (London).

portant bills have been passed, including the "Coal Mines Eight Hours act" and the "Children act." In its two specially urgent measures,—an education bill and a licensing bill,—the government was utterly defeated by the opposition of the House of Lords. The expenditure for which the Asquith government will have to provide in its coming budget, which will be presented early in the session beginning this month, will exceed the present revenue of the United Kingdom by at least \$100,000,000. A great part of this deficit, probably at least \$30,000,000, will be occasioned by the operation of the Old-Age Pensions law. One of the chief movers in the agitation which resulted in the passage of this law, Mr. J. Keir Hardie, chairman of the Labor Party in the British House of Commons, has been visiting this country, lecturing on Social and economic subjects. Another large section of the deficit must be laid at the door of army and navy increases.

*England
Facing a
Deficit.*

How will this deficit be made up? Mr. Chamberlain and his followers are still clamoring for a change from approximately free trade to a protective tariff. The "Pacificists" call for a reduction in the cost of armament, and many British economists are admitting the necessity of additional taxation. A foreign loan would seem to be inadvisable, since (as the *London Times* points out) British consols are now at the present time selling at 83 and 84, and the mere announcement of an attempt to borrow abroad would send them still lower. A royal commission, appointed some months ago for the purpose of considering the question of "reforesting" the United Kingdom, has reported that, without encroaching on agricultural land, and with a modest initial investment, a policy of reforesting could be inaugurated so that at the beginning of the next generation the profit to the state from the forests would be over \$100,000,000. Meanwhile, employment would be given to a vast number of men now idle from causes not their own fault. Practically all pending disputes between the United States and Great Britain have been settled by the three treaties (outlined in these pages last month) agreed upon by Secretary of State Root and Ambassador James Bryce, the only formalities remaining being the actual ratification by the British Foreign Office and the United States Senate.



MR. JAMES KEIR HARDIE, CHAIRMAN OF THE LABOR PARTY IN THE BRITISH HOUSE OF COMMONS.

(Now on a visit to the United States.)

*French
Birth-Rate
Increasing.*

It was by an interesting and rather dramatic coincidence that during the same week in which Dr. Foville, president of the French Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, published his startling statistical review of the decline in the French birth-rate, the Bureau of Vital Statistics in Paris should have made known the fact that the birth-rate throughout the republic during the first six months of 1908 had actually increased. During that period the births exceeded the deaths, so the statisticians tell us, by 11,000. Dr. Foville had announced that France is "ripe for invasion," because "as a nation she is slowly, but surely dying, and invasion is the only fate awaiting a country which is capable of supporting 80,000,000 inhabitants and is content with half that number." Dr. Foville is undoubtedly correct. France, however, which is constantly giving the world an example of such rich intellectual and industrial life, has evidently finally made up her mind that she will not die physically nor drop out from the family of great



ITALY'S EARTHQUAKE-AFFLICTED REGION.

(The dotted sections of the peninsula and Sicily indicate the region in which occurred the shocks of December 28 and following days.)

nations. Other significant and interesting happenings in France during the past few weeks have been: the senatorial elections held on January 3 throughout the republic and the colonies, the elections resulting in a government gain of fifteen seats; the reinstitution of the death penalty (for the first time in more than a decade), by which three murderers were guillotined; and the signing in Paris on January 6 of the extradition treaty between France and the United States.

Measured by the immediate destruction of human life and of property and the resultant misery and suffering to human beings yet alive, the earthquake of December 28 in Sicily and Calabria was the most direful calamity in the world's history. Two hundred thousand lives and more than \$1,000,000,000 worth of property,—these figures tell the terrible story of Italy's misfortune and grief. The cities of Messina and Reggio, the former in Sicily and the latter on the mainland almost opposite, with their combined population of 170,000, have been almost entirely destroyed. These cities and a number of smaller towns (indicated on the map shown above) in the

immediate vicinity were, in less than five minutes, early on that December morning, crushed to heaps of smoking ruins and made the tomb of thousands of human beings and the pest-threatened prison of thousands more injured, while the cries of the wounded and destitute have reached to the farthest corners of the earth. From the first connected accounts of several eyewitnesses, the *London Times* correspondent wired to his journal this description of the first great shock,—which was, however, immediately followed by less violent ones and innumerable raging fires:

Messina had not awakened to its duties for the day when, at 5.20 o'clock on Monday morning, the disaster occurred. Lights were still burning in the hotels, and the splendid, sickle-shaped harbor was filled with shipping. Suddenly, without warning, the earth began to tremble. A great shock followed a few seconds after the first oscillation. Those on the ships in the harbor heard a roar, caught a glimpse of falling walls, and, looking up, saw Messina crumbling into ruin. A dense cloud of dust arose to hide the city's death throes. Shouts of alarm from the sailors turned the attention of the watchers to the sea. The water had been violently troubled some minutes before. Now it seemed to recede, as though gathering for a forward rush. A moment later, in the words of an eyewitness, the sea swelled and rose in a wall of water thirty-five feet high and hurled itself upon the city, engulfing whole streets near the water front. As the wave receded its surface was black with corpses and the wreckage of houses. The effect of the whole was to create a scene unequalled in terror and grandeur. The fall of



Photograph by Brown Brothers.

ONE OF MESSINA'S RUINED PALACES.

(Showing military search party rescuing survivors.)



Photograph by Brown Brothers.

RUSSIAN SAILORS RESCUING MESSINA'S INJURED.

(All accounts give enthusiastic credit to the Russians for their untiring, devoted work.)

dust, the flames, the falling houses, the shrieks and prayers of the inhabitants were so terrifying that of those who escaped some lost their reason.

Horror and Destruction. Eyewitnesses of the scenes immediately following the shock agree in insisting that language is inadequate to fully describe the horrors of the opening earth, the falling buildings, the inward rush of the sea, and the shrieks and moans of the dying and injured human beings. Although the first great spasm of nature took but thirty-two seconds of time, the greater part of the destruction was accomplished in that brief period. The violence of the shock, all reports agree, was unprecedented. The buildings in Messina were not merely shaken down; their foundations were literally wrenched from beneath them. To Reggio, on the opposite shore of the strait, the shock was even more violent; for scarcely one stone remains on another in what was so lately a flourishing city. The loss of life outright was appalling, but even more heartrending has been the suffering and destitution of the survivors. Dreadfully

wounded, they were also tormented by hunger and cold, all the food supplies of the region having been destroyed, and a cold storm of rain and sleet following the first great shock.

No Volcanic Eruptions First reports declared that the greater part of Calabria, the province of Italy forming the "toe of the boot," had sunk into the sea; that the contour of the Straits of Messina had been radically altered, and that Scylla, the rocky promontory on one side of the straits, and Charybdis, the great whirlpool, on the other, both so famed in classic lore, had disappeared. These reports, however, were found to be exaggerated, as were also the stories of violent activity on the part of Stromboli, the volcano on the island north of Sicily. Although no actual eruption marked the participation in the horror, of Mt. Etna, only a few miles from the crowded sections of Messina, unusual activity in the form of noise and smoke threatened an eruption. The dead at Messina and Reggio include almost all the population of those



THE WORLD'S CHARITY IN THE WAKE OF DEATH.
From the *Times* (New York).

towns, and among them were some English and American tourists. The American Consul at Messina, Mr. Arthur S. Cheney, and his wife were among the dead.

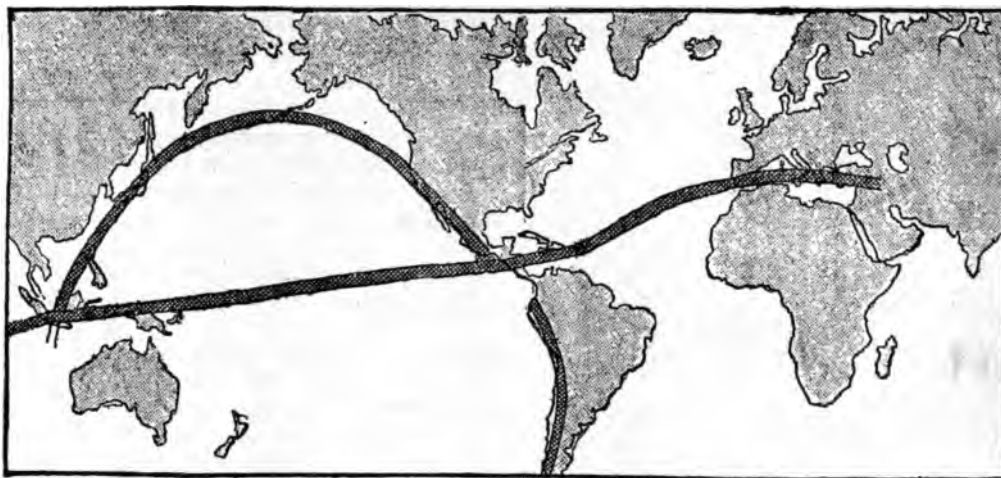
The World's Sympathy Demonstrated. So close behind the disaster itself followed the hearty, generous aid of virtually the entire world that the story of the calamity and of the work of rescue came in the same cable dispatches. It is upon occasions such as this that the kinship of nations and the brotherhood of mankind is demonstrated practically and convincingly. For several hours after the first shock Messina and Reggio were without organized relief, for the reason that the municipal authorities, the soldiers, the police, the doctors, and nurses were themselves victims. Soon, however, aid in the shape of money, food, medical supplies, and organized workers,—military, police, Red Cross officials, and individual volunteers,—began to pour in. The Italian King and his Queen reached the stricken region within a few hours after the calamity, and by their presence encouraged the rescuers and the panic-stricken. On another page this month we present a sketch of the career of Queen Helena, describing the part she took in the rescue work in the devastated region.

Systematic Work of Rescue. Scarcely an hour after the first great shock of the earthquake Russian warships in the harbor at Messina sent their sailors on shore to do heroic rescue work and carried away hundreds of fugitives. German and British

ships were close behind the Russians. The *Celtic*, an American supply ship about to start from New York for Suez with stores of food for our battleship fleet, including enough navy rations to support, on an emergency basis, 40,000 people for a month, was at once sent to Messina with orders to deliver the supplies to the sufferers immediately. The battleships *Wisconsin*, *Kearsarge*, and *Illinois* were detached from the Pacific fleet which had just left the Suez Canal and ordered to Naples to assist in the work of rescue. Mr. Gris-

com, the American Ambassador at Rome, who last month tendered his resignation to the President, was the first representative of a foreign nation to convey to the Italian monarchs the sympathy of the outside world. He also was the medium through which the \$800,000 appropriated by Congress on January 4, and other vast sums from many private sources, were conveyed to those in need. Already the stream of generosity from all over the world has been large, and is increasing so quickly from day to day that it is altogether probable any figures quoted here would be out of date before they were read. At the time of writing, however, more than \$7,000,000 had been cabled to Italy from all over the world. Systematic rescue work began at once under the direction of the Italian military authorities, who fed and clothed the destitute, searched for the buried and wounded, and dealt out stern justice to the dregs of the city populations from all over lower Italy who made the disaster an occasion for loot and outrage. The Italian Parliament met in special session on January 8 to provide ways and means to meet the situation and take care of the destitute population.

What Causes Earthquakes? While the main features of the land have not been materially changed by the earthquake shocks, the bed of the sea in the immediate vicinity of the devastated region has been considerably altered in contour, character of substance, and depth. Sicily and Calabria have always been known to be in the so-called earthquake belt



THE PATH OF THE EARTHQUAKE AROUND THE EARTH.

(The belts along which the earth's crust appears to be faulty. A diagram based on the results of Professor Milne's seismographical investigations, originally prepared two years ago, at the time of the Kingston (Jamaica) earthquake.)

This region has been much studied by seismologists, and this latest convulsion has revived the speculations as to the cause of earthquakes. Volcanic activity on the part of Etna, Vesuvius, and Stromboli was looked for at the time of the shock, but no serious eruption actually occurred. All of the seriously entertained theories of earthquake causes have been advanced to explain the shocks in southern Italy, for there were many minor shocks after the first great one, not only in Italy, but in Austria and Turkey as well. The most generally accepted theory is that an earthquake is the result of a "fault" in the geological formation under the affected region, in this case the fault constituting a line of contact between the volcanic strata underlying Mt. Etna and Mt. Vesuvius. It is believed that the strata underlying the Strait of Messina slipped along the line of this fault, and that the so-called tidal wave resulted from this rapid and radical altering of the sea's bed.

Some Theories on the Subject. In support of the theory now widely held that earthquakes are generally caused by the seeping of vast quantities of water into the earth's hot interior, resulting in the formation of gas and steam, it has been pointed out by Professor Milne, perhaps the greatest living authority on seismology, that an analysis of more than 10,000 observations in Japan shows that by far the greater number of earthquakes originated beneath the ocean or

along the seaboard, "and as they radiated inland they became more and more feeble until on reaching the backbone of the country, which is drilled by numerous volcanic vents, they were almost imperceptible." Another idea is that the quiet, ceaseless work of the world's great rivers in carrying to the ocean sand and mud in immense quantities gradually alters the center of gravity of the globe and causes a shift in the direction of the axis. Many physicists agree with Prof. Percival Lowell, the eminent astronomer (whose new book on the probability of life on Mars is noticed on another page this month), in the contention that the earth is rapidly ageing and that it is the wrinkling and consequent shrinking of the "skin" of the planet which is really the primary cause of earthquakes.

Russia at Home and in the Balkans.

The problems in foreign relations around which centered the attention and interest of Russian statesmen during the past few weeks have been the agreement between Austria and Turkey as to compensation for the annexation to the former country of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Russia's part in the coming Balkan conference, and the pending loan of \$240,000,000 which is being floated at 4½ per cent. in France. The Duma has, naturally enough, shown considerable reluctance to authorizing an internal loan, so long as the administration declines to put a stop to the wholesale execution



THE ADOPTED FATHER.

ABDUL HAMID: "Well, if any one had told me a year ago that I should come to this!"

From *Punch* (London).

of political prisoners. In domestic politics Russians have been considering the Duma's discussion of the Agricultural Holdings measure and Finland's anti-Jewish legislation. If we may believe the press dispatches, it is generally felt in Russia that the empire has not succeeded in playing a part in the Balkan crisis commensurate with its dignity and influence as protectress of the Slav peoples. Particularly distasteful to Russians of all national complexions has been the undoubted triumph of Austria in outwitting Turkey and "bluffing" Europe. Serbia and Montenegro had both looked upon Russia as their protector, and Foreign Minister Isvolski's unsuccessful diplomatic duel with Baron von Aehrenthal so discouraged the Balkan Slavs that the Servian cabinet resigned three times within a fortnight last month, and rumors were rife of the abdication of both King Peter and of Prince Nicolas of Montenegro. The Finns are aroused over what they call the attempt of Russia to force her undesirable Jewish population upon the Duchy, and a committee of the Finnish Senate is drawing up a reform law for Hebrew citizenship. Among the deaths of notables in Russia during the past few weeks have been those of Grand Duke

Alexis, uncle of the Czar; Count Muraviev, Russian Ambassador at Rome; Father John of Kronstadt, the noted priest and "prophet," and Vice-Admiral Rozhstvenski, who, it will be remembered, commanded the Russian Balkan fleet on its trip around the world and in the disastrous battle with Admiral Togo in the Sea of Japan.

*Turkey's
Real
Parliament.*

It was indeed an unusual occasion, that banquet given on New Year's eve by Sultan Abdul Hamid to the parliamentary deputies in the Yildiz Kiosk at Constantinople, and even more unusual language in which he addressed them. The Sultan sat at the head of the table, with Kiamil Pasha, the Grand Vizier, at his right, and Ahmed Riza Bey, the president of the Chamber, on his left. The guardian of the rights and greatness of the Turkish people and government, said the Sultan to the deputies, is "in the first place the Almighty and in the second the nation and its representatives." As to his own views and intentions, the monarch said:

I declare and repeat that I have devoted my person, with the help of the Almighty, to safeguarding the provisions of our constitution and to guaranteeing those sacred rights, and in my capacity as Kaliph and as your sovereign I shall be the greatest enemy of any one who may act in a contrary sense. May God aid us in our efforts to secure the prosperity and safety of our government and sacred fatherland.

While there is something perhaps pathetic in the grandiloquent reference to the "great-



IS IT THE MUZHIK'S TUEN?

(The Russian Duma declines to sanction an internal loan while the political executions go on.)

From *Fischletto* (Turin).

ness" of an empire that has been steadily losing its power and influence for half a century, it may be,—it certainly will be,—a sign of greatness inherent in the Ottoman stock if the radical change from a despotism to a republican form of government can be successfully effected in Turkey. It is important to note here that, early in January, a new Turkish representative to this country, Hussein Kiazim Bey, the first to hold the ambassadorial rank, presented his credentials at Washington.

Settling in the Balkans for Cash. Of course, the principal problem in foreign affairs before the new Turkish administration is the Balkan tangle, particularly the relations with Austria growing out of the latter's annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. As a result, undoubtedly, of pressure from the other European powers, the Austrian Foreign Office, early last month, acceded to the Turkish claim for financial compensation for this annexation, and, on January 12, it was announced that Kiamil Pasha had accepted Austria's offer of \$11,000,000 indemnity for the two provinces. According to other provisions of the agreement, which is to be embodied in the form of a treaty and submitted to the coming Balkan conference, it is agreed by both parties that within three years of the ratification of the treaty all Bosnians and Herzegovinians who are Mussulmans shall be permitted to emigrate to the Ottoman Empire, their property being respected. Those that remain are to enjoy the same rights and privileges as the remainder of the population. The Porte asks, further, that Austria support the Ottoman Government at the forthcoming conference, and Austria demands that the authorities at Constantinople use their best efforts to terminate the boycott of Austrian goods which has been maintained since October in all Turkish towns to the great detriment of Austro-Hungarian trade.

Downfall of Yuan-Shih-kai. By far the most talked of event in China since the death of the Emperor and Empress Dowager (in November) was the dismissal last month, on a trivial pretext, of Yuan-Shih-kai, Grand Councillor of the Empire and commander-in-chief of the Chinese military forces. For the past decade or more this statesman has been regarded by the Western world as the forefront of the Chinese progressive movement, and his sudden dismissal



AHMED RIZA BEY, PRESIDENT OF THE TURKISH PARLIAMENT.

from office has caused apprehension of a possible reactionary turn to the new régime in the Celestial Empire. Immediately upon notice of his dismissal Yuan is reported to have fled in disguise, for the purpose, it is believed, of taking refuge in England. Yuan, while a Liberal, is known to have been distrustful of the sincerity or the ability of the late Emperor Kuang-hsu. It was the now deposed statesman also,—then viceroy of the province of Chili,—who was chiefly instrumental in bringing about the relegation of the late Emperor to the palace in the absolute régime of the late Empress Dowager. Yuan was opposed to the Empress' reactionary ideas, and on many occasions, particularly at the time of the Boxer Rebellion, declined to carry out her anti-foreigner orders. He believed in her vigor and ability, however, and contended that her despotic career was only hastening real reform. On another page this month (209) we present an il-



WHO CAN PREDICT THE CHARACTER AND POLICY OF THE NEW CHINESE EMPEROR?

(Reproduced from the frontispiece of a recent issue of the *Saturday Review* of Shanghai.)

luminating account of the recent progressive steps actually made by China, by a writer particularly well versed in the history of Far Eastern progress for a decade.

*Not
a Sign of
Reaction.*

The elimination of Yuan from the present régime in China is a matter of concern to the foreign representatives, since he has been regarded for years as one of the main props of Chinese credit. It was he who made the Tsung-leyamen, the Chinese Foreign Office, a really effective institution, and the diplomatic corps now attribute to his management the peaceful succession to the throne. On January 15 Minister Rockwell and Sir John Newell Jordan, the representatives of the United States and the British governments, secured an interview with Prince Ching, president of the Foreign Board, and requested information as to the cause of the dismissal of Yuan, receiving in reply assurances that such dismissal did not in any way indicate a reactionary tendency on the part of the government. Students of Far Eastern conditions apprehend other and more important changes in the personnel of the Chinese governing classes during the coming weeks. Immediately following the announcement that Yuan had been dismissed it was reported

that Tang Shao-yi, official Chinese envoy to the United States, had been recalled. He sailed from New York on January 19 for China by way of Europe. Dr. Tang's real mission in this country was the conclusion of an American-Chinese alliance, long a pet project of reformer Yuan. Of course, there never was any possibility of such an alliance, although Yuan hoped for it and intended such an agreement, it is generally believed, as an offset to Japanese influence in China. The conclusion, however, of the understanding between the United States and Japanese governments forestalled Yuan's ambitious plan.

*Decline In
Japanese
Immigration.*

That the Japanese Government has kept faith with the United States during the past year in preventing undesirable emigration of laborers to our shores is proven by the immigration figures, which show that, during the calendar year 1908, there were only 185 more Japanese of all classes admitted to the entire country than departed from it. The total number of Japanese laborers arriving in the United States during that period was considerably less than the number departing. In view of this good faith on the part of the Japanese Government it seems unfortunate that just at this time there should have been introduced in the California Legislature three measures, the substance of all of them being the segregation and control of the Japanese in the same manner as the Chinese population of the State. On January 19 President Roosevelt sent a vigorously worded request to the Governor of California that the bills be not enacted into law. Some exceedingly bitter comment is reported in the Japanese press upon this proposed legislation, but it is not believed possible that any friction will result between the two governments, which as already pointed out more than once in these pages, have arrived at a complete and cordial understanding in the matter of immigration. The entire matter of the exclusion of Asiatic coolie labor will probably be definitely treated and disposed of in a measure now being prepared by the Department of Commerce and Labor under the supervision of Secretary Straus, which the Secretary is planning to have introduced in the next session of Congress.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From December 19, 1908, to January 20, 1909.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 4.—Both branches reassemble after the holiday recess and vote \$800,000 for the relief of the earthquake sufferers in Italy. . . . The House receives a message from President Roosevelt explaining his remarks in his annual message on the Secret Service.

January 6.—The Senate receives a message from President Roosevelt refusing to give information requested as to the absorption of the Tennessee Coal & Iron Company by the United States Steel Corporation; the Postal Savings-Bank bill is discussed. . . . The House receives a message from the President asking that the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission be increased.

January 7.—In the Senate, Mr. Culberson (Dem., Texas), replies to President Roosevelt's message on the absorption of the Tennessee Coal & Iron Company by the United States Steel Corporation. . . . The House debates the existing rules.

January 8.—The Senate adopts the resolution offered by Mr. Culberson (Dem., Texas) directing the Judiciary Committee to investigate the absorption of the Tennessee Coal & Iron Company by the United States Steel Corporation; the Census bill is passed. . . . The House, by a vote of 211 to 36, adopts the resolution offered by Mr. Perkins (Rep., New York) recommending that President Roosevelt's remarks on the Secret Service in a special message to the House be laid on the table.

January 9.—The House passes 500 pension bills; a resolution for an inquiry into the investigation of frauds against the Government is passed.

January 11.—In the Senate, Mr. Tillman (Dem., S. C.) replies to charges made by President Roosevelt implicating him in improper land transactions, admitting the facts, but denying any criminal or improper conduct. . . . The House, in committee of the whole, votes not to allow the use of the Pension Building for the inaugural ball on March 4.

January 12.—In the Senate, Mr. Foraker (Rep., Ohio) speaks on the use of detectives in investigating the Brownsville shooting affair, and Mr. Lodge (Rep., Mass.) replies. . . . The House considers the District of Columbia Appropriation bill.

January 14.—In the Senate, Mr. Tillman (Dem., S. C.) speaks in his own defense and in reply to Attorney-General Bonaparte and Postmaster-General Meyer. . . . The House lays on the table a resolution authorizing the printing of 2,000,000 copies of the debate on the Secret Service.

January 15.—The Senate discusses the proposed increases of salaries of the President, the Vice-President, the Speaker, and the judiciary. . . . The House receives a message from

President Roosevelt vetoing a bill for the construction of a dam across the James River, in Missouri.

January 18.—The Senate adopts an amendment to the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation bill fixing the salary of the Speaker of the House at \$15,000; Mr. Rayner (Dem., Md.) offers a resolution asking the Attorney-General for information about the reported Panama Canal libel suit. . . . In the House, Mr. Willett (Dem., N. Y.) makes a bitter attack on President Roosevelt, but is declared out of order.

January 19.—The Senate adopts an amendment to the Legislative Appropriation bill fixing the President's salary at \$100,000 a year. . . . The House passes the Pension Appropriation bill with an amendment abolishing pension agencies.

January 20.—In the Senate Mr. Frazier (Dem., Tenn.) speaks against the re-enlistment of the discharged negro soldiers concerned in the Brownsville affair. . . . The House adopts a resolution declaring Governor Lilley, of Connecticut, no longer a member.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

December 21.—Andrew Carnegie, at the tariff hearing before the Ways and Means Committee in Washington, urges the abolition of the duties on steel. . . . Seven members of the finance committee of Pittsburg's Common and Select councils are arrested on charges of alleged corruption in the passage of legislation during the past two years.

December 22.—The Republican members of the House Ways and Means Committee begin the framing of a new tariff law.

December 23.—Justice Wright, of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, sentences Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor; John Mitchell, vice-president, and Frank Morrison, secretary, to jail for contempt of court in the Buck case. . . . The Supreme Court of Missouri hands down a decision ousting the Standard Oil Company of Indiana, the Republic Oil Company of Ohio, and the Waters-Pierce Oil Company of Missouri from the commonwealth of Missouri and fining them \$50,000 each. . . . The two bankers and seven councilmen charged in connection with Pittsburg's municipal scandal are held for trial.

December 29.—President Roosevelt appoints Rear-Admiral Capps, head of the Naval Bureau of Construction, as head of the Bureau of Steam Engineering also. . . . Abraham Ruef, formerly political boss of San Francisco, is sentenced for fourteen years for bribery in granting the United Railways franchise.

December 31.—Senator Foraker, Charles P. Taft, and other candidates for United States Senator from Ohio formally withdraw, thus

insuring the election of Congressman Theodore E. Burton.

January 2.—Congressman Theodore E. Burton (Rep.), of Ohio, is named as United States Senator to succeed Joseph B. Foraker.

January 4.—The United States Supreme Court upholds the New York 80-cent gas law; it refuses to grant the Government's petition for review of the Standard Oil \$29,000,000 fine case.

January 7.—President Roosevelt, in a communication to Senator Hale as chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, makes charges against Senator Tillman (Dem., S. C.), in connection with Western land frauds, the data in the matter having been gathered by the Secret Service.

January 11.—Presidential electors meet in all the States and vote for Presidential and Vice-Presidential candidates in accordance with the votes in their respective States in November last; 321 votes are cast for Taft and 162 for Bryan.

January 12.—United States Senator George T. Perkins (Rep.), of California, is re-elected by the Legislature on the first ballot.

January 13.—The Tennessee House of Representatives, following the action of the Senate, passes a bill to prohibit the sale of intoxicating liquors in the State....Weldon D. Heyburn (Rep.) is re-elected United States Senator from Idaho....The Ohio Legislature elects Congressman Theodore E. Burton (Rep.) United States Senator.

January 18.—Secretary of the Interior Garfield announces that land frauds amounting to \$110,000,000 have been discovered in the West, and asks Congress for an appropriation of \$500,000 to be used in an attempt to recover the land....The United States Supreme Court affirms the action of the Texas courts in imposing a fine of \$1,623,900 on the Waters-Pierce Oil Company and forbidding it to do business in that State.

January 19.—Governor Patterson, of Tennessee, vetoes the bill for State-wide prohibition passed by the Legislature....Governor George E. Chamberlain (Dem.), of Oregon, is elected United States Senator by the votes of Republican members of the Legislature....The New York Legislature elects Elihu Root (Rep.) United States Senator to succeed Thomas C. Platt....Albert B. Cummins (Rep.) is elected to the United States Senate by the Iowa Legislature....Charles J. Hughes, Jr. (Dem.), is elected to the United States Senate by the Colorado Legislature....Governor Coe I. Crawford (Rep.) is elected to the United States Senate by the South Dakota Legislature....Wesley L. Jones (Rep.) is elected United States Senator from Washington....M. N. Johnson (Rep.) is elected United States Senator from North Dakota....The Indiana Legislature elects B. F. Shively (Dem.) United States Senator....The following United States Senators are re-elected: Jacob H. Gallinger (Rep.), New Hampshire; Boies Penrose (Rep.), Pennsylvania; Reed Smoot (Rep.), Utah; Thomas P. Gore (Dem.), Oklahoma; James P. Clarke (Dem.), Arkansas; Lee S. Overman (Dem.), North Carolina; Frank B. Brandegee (Rep.), Con-

necticut, and William J. Stone (Dem.), Missouri.

January 20.—The Tennessee Legislature passes the State-wide prohibition bill over Governor Patterson's veto.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

December 19.—The British House of Lords passes the Miners' bill with amendments making the working day one of practically nine hours....The Portuguese cabinet resigns....The Turkish Parliament meets and examines the credentials of members....President Simon of Haiti announces his cabinet.

December 20.—General Simon takes the oath of office as President of Haiti.

December 21.—A British royal commission is appointed to examine various schemes of electoral reform....Acting-President Gomez of Venezuela dismisses the Castro cabinet and appoints ministers representing various factions....King Edward prorogues the British Parliament....The municipal council of Lisbon finds a shortage of \$7,000,000 in the city's accounts.

December 22.—Acting-President Gomez of Venezuela arrests partisans of Castro plotting to kill him and his supporters and releases the political prisoners; Castro's letter of credit is canceled....The French Parliament adopts a budget which carries over 4,000,000,000 francs....James Farrell, an Irish Nationalist member of Parliament, is arrested for publishing boycotting notices in his newspaper and sent to jail for six months.

December 23.—The Turkish Parliament elects Ahmed Riza as president....A new Portuguese cabinet is formed under the presidency of Dr. Pereira de Lima.

December 26.—The Sultan of Turkey confirms the choice of Ahmed Riza as president of the Chamber of Deputies.

December 28.—The Indian National Congress is opened at Madras.

December 29.—The Indian National Congress passes resolutions expressing satisfaction with reforms announced by the British Government.

December 30.—The Russian Duma, by unanimous vote, rejects the ministerial bill regulating the disposal by public sale of oil-bearing tracts of land in Baku province.

January 1.—The Chinese Government issues an edict reducing the period originally decreed for the abolition of the opium industry....The municipal elections in Moscow, Russia, are carried by the Constitutional Democrats, who elect 79 of the 138 councilmen.

January 2.—Yuan-Shih-kai, Grand Councillor and commander-in-chief of the Chinese army, is deposed by an edict issued at Peking....The Russian Duma debates the increasing number of death sentences.

January 3.—The elections in France for members of the Chamber of Deputies result in victories for the government and for the Radicals.

January 7.—A plot to dethrone King Manuel of Portugal is disclosed.

January 8.—The Italian Chamber of Deputies meets in special session to consider the need of relieving the earthquake distress.

January 10.—The Italian Chamber of Deputies passes the government's relief measures.

January 13.—The Cuban Congress meets preliminary to the transfer of government by the United States.

January 16.—The Servian cabinet tenders its resignation for the third time within a fortnight.

January 17.—A Socialist demonstration in behalf of electoral reform in Dresden causes a riot.

January 20.—General Gomez is officially proclaimed President-elect of Cuba.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

December 19.—The merchants of Montenegro decide to boycott Austro-Hungarian goods.

December 21.—Negotiations between Austria-Hungary and Turkey are resumed.

December 23.—The Russian note to the powers regarding the Balkan congress proposes discussion of the form of government in Bosnia and Herzegovina.

December 24.—Jose de J. Paul, formerly Venezuelan Minister of Foreign Affairs, starts for Paris and The Hague to negotiate with France and Holland for the settlement of existing disputes.... The new Venezuelan Government repeals Castro's decree permitting trade with Colombia at only a few frontier points.... Austria agrees to a free discussion at the proposed conference.

December 25.—M. Isvolski, speaking before the Russian Duma, says that the only way to curb arbitrary Austrian action is through a conference of the powers.... The Dutch cruiser *Gelderland* is recalled from Venezuelan waters.

December 28.—Turkey refuses Austria's proposals for a settlement of the annexation dispute.

December 30.—W. I. Buchanan, special commissioner of the United States to Venezuela, arrives at Caracas.... Count von Bernstorff, the new German Ambassador to the United States, is formally presented to President Roosevelt.

December 31.—The Pan-American Scientific Congress, in session at Santiago de Chile, approves a resolution declaring that united action by the American republics is necessary in order to secure recognition under the new principles of international law.

January 2.—President Gomez of Venezuela revokes Castro's decree prohibiting trans-shipment of goods destined for Venezuela at Curaçao.... President Roosevelt offers the use of the American battleship fleet to Italy.

January 4.—The Yaqui Indians sign a treaty of peace with the Mexican Government, thus ending a thirty-five year war.... The Austrian Government demands an apology from M. Milanovits, the Servian Foreign Minister, for anti-Austrian utterances in the National Assembly.

January 5.—Mr. Buchanan, the American representative, submits to President Gomez the proposition of the United States regarding American claims against Venezuela.... Contributions of the United States for the relief of Italian earthquake sufferers reach the sum of \$2,000,000.



THE NEW FRENCH DIRIGIBLE, "LA VILLE DE PARIS."

January 11.—A treaty is signed at Washington providing for the settlement of questions in dispute between the United States and Canada.

January 12.—Turkey accepts the offer of Austria-Hungary of \$10,500,000, and certain concessions, as indemnity for the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.... The diplomatic corps at Peking protests to the Chinese Government against the usurpation of the control of the telegraph office.

January 13.—Secretary Root explains to the Senate Foreign Relations Committee the Panama and British agreements.

January 14.—King Victor Emmanuel of Italy expresses gratitude for what Americans have done for the earthquake sufferers.

January 15.—The American and English ministers to China make representations to the Chinese Regent regarding the dismissal of Yuan.

January 16.—The Prince Regent of China assures the ministers from the United States and Great Britain that the dismissal of Yuan-Shih-kai does not indicate a change in the government's policy.

January 18.—Holland decides to keep her warships near Venezuela until pending questions between the two countries have been definitely settled.... The London portion of the new Russian loan is over-subscribed four or five times.

January 19.—A protocol for the settlement of

disputes between the United States and Venezuela is practically agreed upon by Commissioner Buchanan and the Gomez administration.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

December 23.—The steamer *Stork*, carrying \$1,500,000 worth of furs for the Hudson Bay Company, is wrecked on Lisbon shoals; all of the crew are saved.

December 24.—Two thousand medical students in Paris engage in street disorders to show their displeasure at a new system of examinations....An aeronautic salon is opened in Paris by President Fallieres.

December 25.—A royalist adherent assaults President Fallieres of France and is arrested....The faculty of the Sorbonne, in Paris, closes the school of medicine to first and second year students for three months.

December 26.—Sixteen cadets are dismissed from the West Point Military Academy.

December 27.—The dinner of the Pan-American Scientific Congress at Santiago de Chile is attended by 500 guests.

December 28.—Unusually severe earthquake shocks, followed by tidal waves, devastate the coasts of Calabria, Italy, and Sicily; the cities of Messina and Reggio are almost totally destroyed; the loss of life is estimated at 200,000; thousands of families are made homeless.

December 29.—King Victor Emmanuel and Queen Helena of Italy sailed from Naples for Sicily; aid is sent to the earthquake sufferers from all parts of the world....Many miners are imprisoned by an explosion in a coal mine at Lick Branch, W. Va.

December 31.—Wilbur Wright breaks all previous aeroplane records at LeMans, France, with a flight of two hours and nine minutes, thereby winning the Michelin cup....The first detachment of American troops, homeward bound, leaves Cuba on the auxiliary cruiser *Prairie*....Belgium re-releases the Peking-Hankow Railroad to China on the payment of the redemption price, about \$30,000,000.

January 1.—The bubonic plague reappears at Guayaquil....Fire causes damage to the amount of \$400,000 at Skowhegan, Me.

January 3.—Pope Pius X. opens a hospital in the Vatican for the sick and injured survivors of the earthquake survivors in southern Italy and Sicily....The American battleship fleet reaches Suez, two days ahead of schedule time.

January 4.—Ex-President Castro, of Venezuela, is operated on at Berlin for kidney trouble.

January 5.—Living persons are taken from the earthquake ruins in Messina and Reggio eight days after the disaster.

January 6.—William C. Brown is elected president of the New York Central Railroad (see page 204).

January 7.—In the Night Rider trials at Union City, Tenn., six of the Reelfoot Lake band are convicted of murder in the first degree and two of murder in the second degree.

January 9.—Part of the Mexican coast is shaken by an earthquake....It is decided to return to the use of the guillotine for capital

punishment in France....Of the eight Night Riders convicted of murder at Union City, Tenn., six receive the death penalty and two imprisonment for twenty years.

January 10.—Pope Pius X. expresses gratitude for the earthquake relief work done by the American people....In the collapse of an old church near Sion, Switzerland, forty persons are killed and sixty badly injured....In an explosion of coal gas in the Leiter mine at Zeigler, Ill., twenty-six men are killed.

January 12.—Employees of the Great Western Railroad, operated by English capital in Brazil, go on strike and seize rolling-stock and terminals....In the second explosion within two weeks in the Lick Branch, W. Va., coal mine, over 100 miners are buried and probably killed....George F. Baker resigns as president of the First National Bank of New York City and is succeeded by Francis L. Hine; James Stillman, the retiring president of the National City Bank, is succeeded by Frank A. Vanderlip.

January 13.—Earthquake shocks are felt in northern Italy and in southern Austria....Prof. A. Lawrence Lowell is chosen president of Harvard University, to succeed Dr. Charles W. Eliot (see page 196).

January 14.—Duke Pompeo Litta, of Lombardi, offers land in Florida for the use of 5000 survivors of the earthquake in southern Italy....Explosions in a coal mine at Veszprin, Hungary, entomb 240 men....Twenty-one persons are injured in an accident on the Grand Trunk Railway near Guelph, Ont....The rate of discount of the Bank of England is raised from 2½ to 3 per cent.

January 15.—A child is taken alive from the ruins of Messina, having lived under the wreckage of the earthquake for eighteen days....A prize is offered for the best plan for the rebuilding of Messina in a manner guaranteeing safety in earthquakes.

January 16.—In a wreck on the Denver & Rio Grande Railroad, near Glenwood Springs, Colo., twenty persons are killed and as many injured.

January 18.—Local shocks of earthquake continue to be felt at Messina....Forty new cases of cholera, and twenty-four deaths, are reported in St. Petersburg, Russia.

January 19.—Fire causes much destruction and consumes many bodies in the ruins of Messina....An earthquake shock at Phocæa, Turkey, kills eight persons and damages many buildings....The centenary of the birth of Edgar Allan Poe is observed in New York, Boston, Baltimore, the University of Virginia, and elsewhere; a bust of Poe is unveiled in New York....The anniversaries of the births of Robert E. Lee and Stonewall Jackson are celebrated throughout the South.

January 20.—President Roosevelt appoints a national council of arts, under whose direction national works will be planned....Fifty-three workmen employed on Chicago water-works construction are killed by a fire in a wooden crib surrounded by the waters of Lake Michigan....A gas company and a flour company, two of ex-President Castro's monopolies, are closed by President Gomez, of Venezuela.

OBITUARY.

December 19.—Cardinal Lecot, Archbishop of Bordeaux, 78....Mr. Lowes-Dickinson, the English portrait painter, 89....Ex-Congressman Eugene F. Loud, of California, 61.... Judge Thomas R. Purnell, of the United States Court for the eastern district of North Carolina, 62....Dr. Thomas Gray, vice-president of the Rose Polytechnic Institute, Terre Haute, Ind., 59.

December 20.—Major Orlando Jay Smith, founder and president of the American Press Association, 67 (see page 169)....Ex-Gov. Francis Philip Fleming, of Florida, 67.

December 21.—Sir Philip A. Muntz, M.P., 69.

December 22.—Bishop John S. Michaud, of the Roman Catholic diocese of Burlington, Vt., 65.

December 24.—Francois Auguste Gevaert, the Belgian musician and composer, 80....Gen. Edgar M. Marble, former United States Commissioner of Patents.

December 25.—Charles West Spalding, a pioneer newspaper man, of Kansas, 79.

December 26.—Claus Spreckels, the most prominent financial figure in California, 80.... Representative Robert Charles Davey, of the Second Louisiana district, 55....Dr. Richard A. F. Penrose, of Philadelphia, 82....George Channing Hurlbut, librarian of the American Geographical Society, 75.

December 27.—Former Judge Charles D. Phelps, of Baltimore, 75.

December 28.—Ex-Congressman Charles M. Anderson, of Ohio, 63....Gen. Robert Reed Hemphill, editor of the Abbeville *Medium*, of South Carolina, 69....Robert Emmet Fisk, for thirty-five years editor of the Helena, Mont., *Herald*, 71.

December 29.—Prof. Benjamin Franklin Clarke, of Brown University, 77....Major Isaac Walker Maclay, U. S. A., retired, 68.

December 30.—Senator Thomas Alfred Bernier, of Canada, 64....Francis D. Reinau, a German actor of the old school, 65.

December 31.—Dr. Alice Boole Campbell, one of the first women practitioners of medicine, 72.

January 1.—George Washington Hough, professor of astronomy at Northwestern University, 73....Ex-Congressman Charles W. Gillet, of Addison, N. Y., 68....Mary Evelyn Moore Davis, the Southern writer, 57.

January 2.—Father John, of Kronstadt (Ivan Ilyitch Sergiev), known as "the uncrowned Pope of Russia," 80.

January 3.—Anson R. Flower, the New York banker, 65.

January 5.—Glen K. Shurtleff, general secretary of the Cleveland Y. M. C. A., 48....Joshua Rhodes, a pioneer business man and financier, of Pittsburg, 85.

January 6.—Rev. William S. Ament, D.D., missionary of the American board at Peking, China, 58....Henry Chapman Watson, editor of *Dun's Review*, New York, 38.

January 7.—Dr. Max West, special examiner in the Bureau of Corporations in the Depart-



THE LATE VICE-ADMIRAL ROZHDESTVENSKI
(Who commanded Russia's ill-fated fleet in the war with Japan.)

ment of Commerce and Labor, an authority on taxation, 38....Alonzo Erastus Horton, founder and oldest inhabitant of San Diego, Cal., 85.

January 8.—George D. Emery, operator in mahogany, 75.

January 10.—Former United States Senator John Conness, of California, 88....Rev. W. D. Hughes, a Paulist priest, and for many years the manager of the *Catholic World*, of New York, 53....Dr. Charles Denison, of Colorado, a specialist in the treatment of tuberculosis, 64....Miss Julia Colman, writer of works on temperance and hygiene, 81.

January 11.—Joseph Wharton, the Philadelphia iron manufacturer, 83....David Jackson, a millionaire philanthropist, of California, 88.... Carl Frederick William Ahrendt, the actor, 66.

January 14.—Vice-Admiral Sinovi Petrovich Rozhdestvenski, who commanded the Russian fleet in the Russo-Japanese war, 60....Arthur William A'Beckett, the English journalist, novelist, and dramatist, 64.

January 15.—Ernst von Wildenbruch, the German poet and dramatist, 64....Louis Etienne Ernest Rey, known as Reyer, the French musical composer, 86....Dr. Alexander Condé Smith, surgeon in charge of the United States Marine Hospital Service in the Pittsburg district, 45.

January 16.—Madame Apollonie Maretzek, an old-time opera singer, 90.

January 18.—Rt. Rev. Bernard J. McQuaid, bishop of the Roman Catholic diocese of Rochester, N. Y., 85....Brig.-Gen. William T. Craig-hill, U. S. A., retired, 75....Joshua W. Caldwell, a leading attorney of Tennessee, 53.

SOME AMERICAN AND FOREIGN CARTOONS.



NOT SO EASY!

Trying to hit the head,—a new Congressional game.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



UNCLE SAM (on the side bench): "If there's anything I like, it's an old-fashioned game of 'shinny'!"

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



SPANKED!

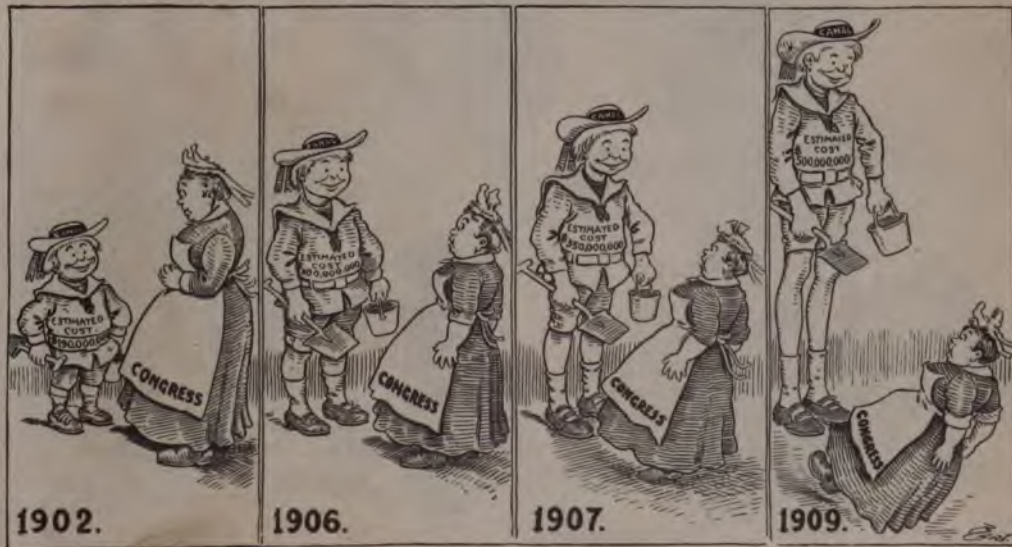
(The spanking has evidently hurt "Pa Congress" more than it has the husky Ind.)

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



(This idea of the result of the controversy between the President and Congress seems to prevail in the minds of a great many people.)

From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

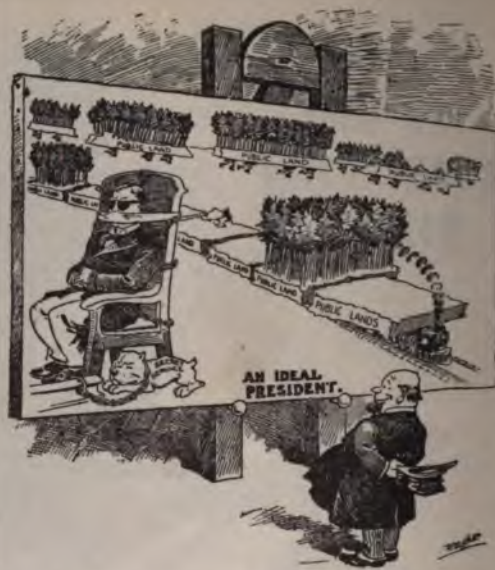


THE PANAMA CANAL HAS SLIGHTLY OUTGROWN THAT \$190,000,000 SUIT OF CLOTHES.
(The Senate proposed last month to issue Panama Canal bonds to the amount of half a billion dollars.)

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



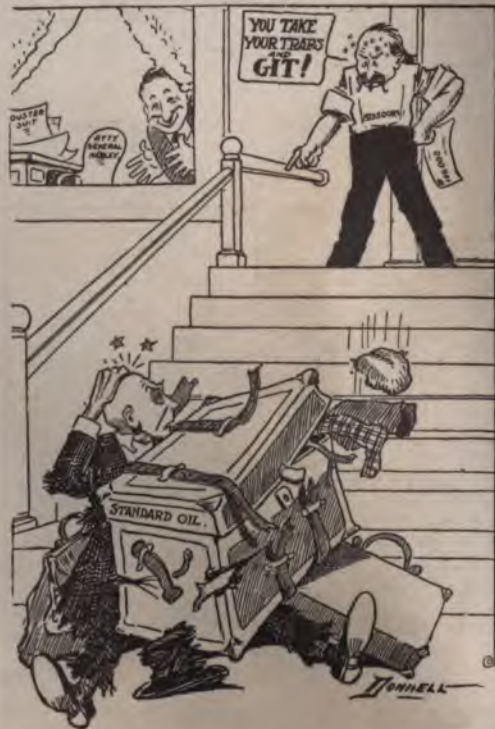
DAMAGED!
 (Senator Tillman's tilt with the President seems to have left his weapon, the "pitchfork," a little the worse for wear.)
 From the *American* (New York).



WHAT SOME OF THE WASHINGTON "BOYS" WOULD LIKE TO SEE.
 From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



BUT WHERE DO WE GET OFF?
 (The party bosses are fearful lest a system of direct nominations by the people will deprive them of their power.)
 From the *Press* (New York).



OUSTED!
 (The State of Missouri has forbidden the Standard Oil Company to do business in that State.)
 From the *Globe-Democrat* (St. Louis).



ANOTHER FIGHT IN SIGHT!

(Governor Hughes is working for the passage of a direct-nomination measure in the State of New York.)

From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



THE WINNING OF THE SOUTH.

From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



AN IMPORTANT CONFERENCE.

(Uncle Sam has invited both Canada and Mexico to join in a plan for the preservation of the forests of North America.)

From the *Sun* (Baltimore).



EMPEROR FRANCIS JOSEPH NOT PLEASED WITH THE WAR DANCE.

EMPEROR OF AUSTRIA (to the Double-Headed Eagle): "If you are doing this war dance in honor of my jubilee I rather wish you wouldn't. I'm an old man and it doesn't amuse me."

From *Punch* (London).

It is reported from Vienna with increasing frequency that the aged Emperor Francis Joseph, who has just celebrated his jubilee of sixty years on the throne, is not in favor of Baron Aehrenthal's aggressive policy. The Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir apparent, is believed to be the inspiration of that policy. The cartoonist of *Punch* aims to reflect the age-weary attitude of the Austrian Emperor toward the Balkan crisis.



"ONE WORD MORE."—AN ENGLISH VIEW.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT (to Central African fauna): "Half a moment, while I just throw this off, and then I'm with you."

From *Punch* (London).



THE GODDESS OF PEACE WORSHIPPED BY BOTH NATIONS,—JAPAN AND THE UNITED STATES.

This is the caption given to the colored double-page illustration in a recent number of *Toklo Puck*.



ITALY MOURNING FOR HER LOST ONES AND REFUSING TO BE COMFORTED.
From *Fischietto* (Turin).



AN EGYPTIAN VIEW OF UNCLE SAM AND THE "JAPANESE PERIL."
(We reproduce the quaint English phraseology of the original.)

JAPAN: "Man! Think seriously and look at these huge bodies here, weltering in blood! Consider yourself and your future! Have pity on them and withdraw before my blood is up and all go lost."

UNCLE SAM: "Really, my friend, you are a dangerous fellow to combat with and it would be better for me to give up that idea before divesting myself! Good bye!"

From *Cairo Punch*.



"UNCLE REMUS" TAFT.
He makes a hit with the "little boy."
From the *Daily Eagle* (Brooklyn).



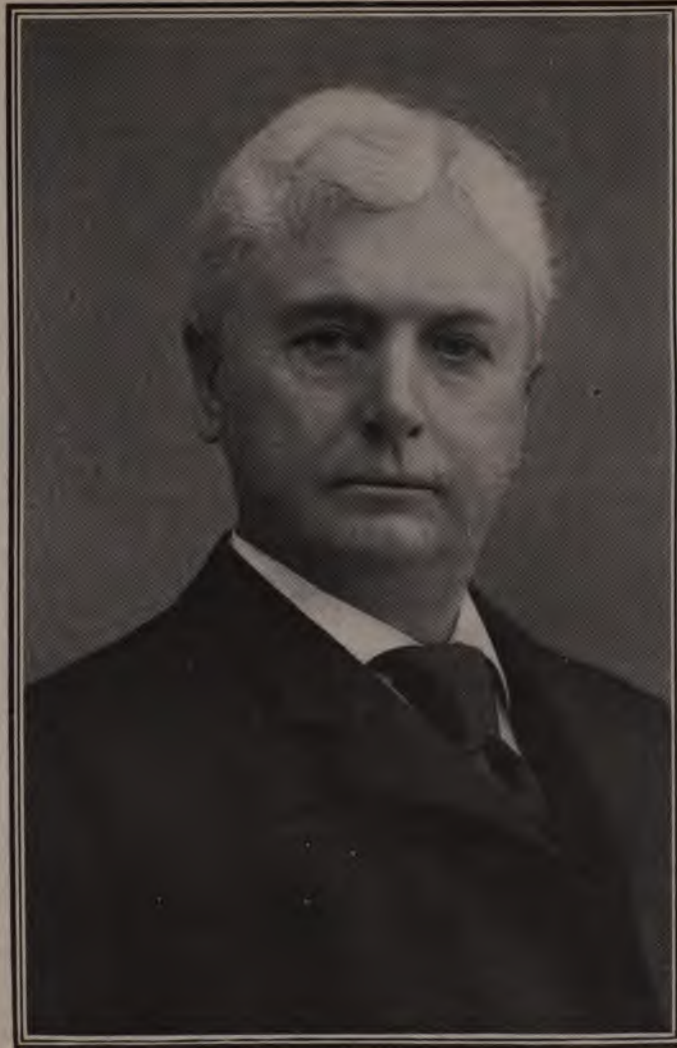
THE UNITED STATES NAVY IN ACTION.
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth).



GERMANY'S REAL PERIL.
Prosperous yet tax-ridden, the German Empire seems likely to contract a case of chronic "shortness."
From *Pasquino* (Turin).



BOILING OVER WITH APATHY.
PRIME MINISTER: "Insult me six times more, and I won't be answerable for myself, and Heaven knows what would happen if I appealed to my friend here, who already has great difficulty in controlling his indignation."
From *Punch* (London).



MAJOR ORLANDO J. SMITH.

A GREAT AMERICAN EDITOR.

A GREAT man, born on the Wabash in Lincoln's country, who, as a mere boy, went to the war at Lincoln's call, and whose whole life had been one of patriotism and public usefulness, was Major Orlando J. Smith, who died at his home near New York in December. Major Smith was one of that great company of splendid Americans now rapidly passing off the scene of action whose individuality was developed in the exigencies of the war period. To have entered the army as a private, to have risen rapidly, to have been a major at 22, and to have actually commanded a regiment of cavalry

veterans in some of the actions of what was the most thrilling war of all history, was an experience that must have brought out such qualities of strength and of leadership as were latent in any youth to whom should come such a testing of his qualities.

After the war Major Smith lived for several years in the South, and subsequently he became a newspaper editor, first in Terre Haute, Ind., and afterward in Chicago. Although he grew up on a farm, his circumstances as a boy were prosperous, and he was a graduate of an Indiana college now known as De Pauw University. With or without

such a schooling, however, Major Smith's intelligence would have asserted itself, and he would have become a leader in thought and expression as well as in action.

Nearly thirty years ago Major Smith founded the American Press Association, and he was still its president and active manager at the time of his death. From the editing of a single paper he had through this Association become the editor in part, first of hundreds, and afterward of thousands of newspapers. It is the business of the American Press Association to provide for the newspapers that patronize it a great range of current news material suitably edited, and of other literary matter available for general reading. It is needless here to explain in any detail the methods of an editorial and business organization devised to supply weekly and also daily newspapers in all parts of the country with a great part of their reading matter in a form convenient for immediate use. The men whose business it is to make newspapers understand well how great a public service can be rendered by an agency such as that which Major Smith developed and which under his direction became effective in all parts of the country.

Major Smith's was not merely a talent for business organization and for the ingenious use of means to collect, prepare, and distribute the material of which newspapers are made, but he also possessed the editorial talent in the highest sense, and he must be ranked with the very greatest of the journalists this country has produced. For it is not the chief function of great journalism to comment, or to engage in controversy on public questions with a powerful pen, but it is an even more important function to present all the news of the time with fairness and accuracy and in due proportion, and to elevate the general standard of the literary material that is printed from day to day and from week to week.

The greatest single educational influence of the United States is the country newspaper. And more than any other man Major Smith made it possible for country newspapers to provide their readers with a fresh and accurate statement of the news of the world at large, of the country as a whole, and of their State or section, while also enabling them to keep abreast of progress in science, art, literature, and all things humanizing and progressive. He perceived with great clearness the opportunity for co-operative effort in the careful editing and econom-

ical production of newspapers; and he was able to give effect to his ideas so successfully as to have made him one of the great leaders in the fireside education of the masses of the plain people of America, most of whom still live in villages or upon farms.

While this work and its value can be appreciated by newspaper men because familiar to them, it is not so well understood by the intelligent public at large, since in the very nature of the case it has been impersonal and has been disguised rather than heralded.

All his life Major Smith had been an independent and original thinker upon the great problems that concern the destinies of communities and of individuals. His political opinions were radical rather than conservative, and he looked toward great future progress upon the basis of a more enlightened democracy. His mind was just toward all, but his sympathies were with the masses of the people in their upward struggle, rather than with the more favored few.

He was always philosophical, and he gave profound thought to those questions that have concerned great minds in all ages relating to the origin and destiny of the human soul. In his later years he had written books which command the considerate attention of philosophers and theologians in this country and in Europe, in which he set forth his views of the immortality of the soul, and of the essential nature of religion and of ethical sanctions. His mind was calm and intrepid to the end, just as in his earlier days as a soldier his physical courage had been superb. His philosophical style had the charm of succinctness and perfect lucidity.

Not only was he a profound scholar in the field of philosophy, religion, and ethics, but his knowledge of history and biography was exceptional. His powers were at their very height, and but for the illness which caused his death we should have expected from him several further volumes of importance, especially in the fields of military history and biography. He was to have written an article on Abraham Lincoln for this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. His familiarity with the military phases of the Civil War was very great, as also with the political and military personalities of that period, while few men knew so much of Napoleon and his campaigns. The most creditable thing about our American life and institutions is the production of personalities as fine in every way as that which was presented by Major Smith.

ALBERT SHAW.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S TRIBUTE TO LINCOLN.

THE WHITE HOUSE,
WASHINGTON, January 1, 1909.
TO THE EDITOR OF THE REVIEW OF RE-
VIEWS:

The deeds and words of the great men of the nation, and above all the character of each of the foremost men of the nation, are one and all assets of inestimable value to the Republic. Lincoln's work and Lincoln's words should be, and I think more and more are, part of those formative influences which tend to become living forces for good citizenship among our people. There is one of his letters which has always appealed to me particularly. It is the one running as follows:

EXECUTIVE MANSION,
WASHINGTON, NOV. 21, 1864.
TO MRS. BIXBY, BOSTON, MASS.
DEAR MADAM.

I have been shown in the files of the War Department a statement of the Adjutant General of Massachusetts that you are the mother of five sons who have died gloriously on the field of battle. I feel how weak and fruitless must be any word of mine which should attempt to beguile you from the grief of a loss so overwhelming. But I cannot refrain from tendering you the consolation that may be found in the thanks of the republic they died to save. I pray that our Heavenly Father may assuage the anguish of your bereavement, and leave you only the cherished memory of the loved and lost, and the solemn pride that must be yours to have laid so costly a sacrifice upon the altar of freedom.

Yours very sincerely and respectfully,

A. LINCOLN.

Any man who has occupied the office of President realizes the incredible amount of administrative work with which the President has to deal even in time of peace. He is of necessity a very busy man, a much driven man, from whose mind there can never be absent for many minutes at a time the consideration of some problem of importance, or of some matter of less importance which yet causes worry and strain. Under such circumstances, it is not easy for a President even in times of peace to turn from the affairs that are of moment to all the people and consider affairs that are of moment to but one person. While this is true of times of peace, it is of course infinitely more true

of times of war. No President who has ever sat in the White House has borne the burden that Lincoln bore, or been under the ceaseless strain which he endured. It did not let up by day or by night. Ever he had to consider problems of the widest importance, ever to run risks of the greatest magnitude; and ever thru and across his plans to meet these great dangers and great responsibilities was shot the woof of an infinite number of small worries and small annoyances. He worked out his great task while unceasingly beset by the need of attending as best he could to a multitude of small tasks. It is a touching thing that the great leader, while thus driven and absorbed, could yet so often turn aside for the moment to do some deed of personal kindness; and it is a fortunate thing for the nation that in addition to doing so well each deed, great or small, he possessed that marvelous gift of expression which enabled him quite unconsciously to choose the very words best fit to commemorate each deed. His Gettysburg speech and his second inaugural are two of the half dozen greatest speeches ever made—I am tempted to call them the two greatest ever made. They are great in their wisdom, and dignity, and earnestness, and in a loftiness of thought and expression which makes them akin to the utterances of the prophets of the Old Testament. In a totally different way, but in strongest and most human fashion, such utterances as his answer to the serenaders immediately after his second election, and this letter which I have quoted above, appeal to us and make our hearts thrill. The mother to whom he wrote stood in one sense on a loftier plane of patriotism than the mighty President himself. Her memory, and the memory of her sons whom she bore to die for the Union, should be kept green in our minds; for she and they, in life and death, typified all that is best and highest in our national existence. The deed itself, and the words of the great man which commemorate that deed, should form one of those heritages for all Americans which it is of inestimable consequence that America should possess.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

THE LINCOLN CENTENNIAL CELEBRATION.

THE centenary of Abraham Lincoln's birth, on February 12 of the present year, will be observed as no like anniversary has been observed in the history of this country. Considering the fact that the Civil War, of which Lincoln himself was the central figure, was fought out less than half a century ago, it is especially significant that the celebration of this birthday anniversary should be an event of national interest and national proportions. In the commemoration of the day by the public schools of the country Mason and Dixon's Line will be obliterated, and the children of Confederate veterans will unite with the children of those who wore the blue to do honor to the one great national figure of the nineteenth century. In many of the Northern States the 12th of February has been observed with more or less fidelity for many years. At least fourteen States have made it a legal holiday, but many which have not taken such action are in the habit of observing it in some appropriate manner, especially in the public schools. For this centennial anniversary the Grand Army of the Republic has issued a special order calling upon every post to celebrate the day either in co-operation with other organizations or independently. The governor of every State in the Union has appointed a special Lincoln centennial committee to represent its State in the national celebration to take place at Lincoln's birthplace and to stimulate local celebrations in the State. This fact further emphasizes the national character of the celebration, and shows how completely the animosities of the Civil War have been submerged in the rising tide of latter-day nationalism.

Interest will be concentrated to a great extent in the commemorative exercises at the little Kentucky town of Hodgenville, which is near the geographical center of the State and not many miles from the center of population of the United States. Here on the Lincoln Farm, which has been purchased by a national association formed for the purpose, President Roosevelt will lay the cornerstone of a memorial building now being erected by popular subscription to mark Lincoln's birth-



THE CABIN IN WHICH LINCOLN WAS BORN.

(Three years ago the Lincoln Farm Association began a movement to restore this log cabin to its original site on the Thomas Lincoln farm near Hodgenville, Ky. It is now standing on that site and will be surrounded and covered by the memorial structure shown on the opposite page.)

place, and to protect for all time the lowly cabin in which the martyr President was born. On this occasion the centenary address will be delivered by President Roosevelt. Gen. Luke E. Wright, the Secretary of War, will speak on behalf of the Confederate soldiers; Gen. James Grant Wilson, of New York, will represent the soldiers of the Union army; and Lincoln's native State will be represented by Governor Willson, of Kentucky. Addresses will also be made by Cardinal Gibbons, Bishop Galloway, of Mississippi, and ex-Governor Folk, of Missouri, president of the Lincoln Farm Association. The plans of the Lincoln Farm Association as outlined in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for March, 1906, have been carried out with so full a measure of success that on this centennial anniversary the nation finds itself possessed of a suitable and enduring memorial to one of the greatest of the national heroes, erected at the place of his birth. For this patriotic service of the Lincoln Farm Association the country cannot be too grateful.

Lincoln's native State is by no means indifferent to the fame of her greatest son. A fitting monument will be erected in the courthouse square of the village of Hodgen-

ville, within a few miles of the Lincoln Farm, by the State of Kentucky. The sculptor, Adolph Alexander Weinman, was a student of Saint Gaudens, and is recognized as one of the leaders in his profession. The statue will be unveiled on Memorial Day, May 30. Lincoln Day will be celebrated enthusiastically in Louisville and in many other Kentucky cities and towns.

The city of Springfield, Ill., where Lincoln lived for many years and practiced his profession, is making unusual efforts to celebrate the 12th of February in a fitting manner. Almost every part of Illinois will be represented in the great gatherings in the afternoon and evening of that day to be addressed by Ambassadors Bryce and Jusserand, Senator Dolliver, of Iowa, and the Hon. William J. Bryan. Senator Cullom, a resident of Springfield, is taking a great personal interest in promoting this celebration.

Official committees appointed by the mayors are now at work in most of the great cities of the country arranging the details of local celebrations. In the city of Boston, for example, there will be mass-meetings, special services in the churches, and music of a patriotic character. An address will be delivered by ex-Secretary of the Navy John D. Long. In New York, Mayor McClellan has appointed a committee of 100 prominent citizens to arrange for a public observance of the day.

More significant, however, than any official action are the spontaneous, volunteer efforts of various organizations. Some of Lincoln's biographers have recalled the fact that on a February day in 1860 Mr. Lincoln, who had just made his famous Cooper Union speech, paid a visit to the famous Five-Points Mission in New York. Three years ago,



THE LINCOLN MEMORIAL INCLOSING THE LOG-CABIN BIRTHPLACE OF THE PRESIDENT.

(President Roosevelt will lay the cornerstone of this structure on February 12.)

when a club of young men (chiefly of foreign parentage) who lived in the vicinity of the old Five Points met for organization, it was found that they wished to be called the Young Men's Lincoln Club of Five Points. They chose as their motto: "With firmness in the right as God gives us to see the right." This club has been busily engaged for the past three years in studying the life and character of Lincoln and making a collection of portraits and other memorabilia. William Ordway Partridge, the sculptor, said of their collection of pictures: "This collection would be an inspiration to any painter or sculptor who wished to know Abraham Lincoln." The Five Points population to-day is entirely different from what it was when Lincoln paid his visit forty-nine years ago. The fathers of these young men who have



THE LINCOLN STATUE TO BE ERECTED BY THE STATE OF KENTUCKY AT HODGENVILLE.

(The statue will be unveiled on May 30 next. The sculptor is Mr. Adolph A. Weinman.)

formed the Lincoln Club and are as much interested in celebrating the centenary as are most native-born Americans, had perhaps not even heard of America in 1860. Yet the character and life of Lincoln have their message for these newly made Americans as well as for the native stock, and doubtless thousands of foreign-born citizens will take an enthusiastic part in the Lincoln Day celebrations throughout the country.

Chicago's plans for the observance of the Lincoln centennial are largely, if not exclusively, educational. It is felt that Lincoln is forever associated with Illinois and Chicago, and that there the abiding influence of his life, work, and martyrdom should be carried into and diffused among wider and wider circles of the population, especially the alien, semi-alien, and unassimilated peoples.

A committee of 100 was named by Mayor Busse to consider and supervise the realization of plans for a creditable and fitting celebration. Representative and distinguished men from all professions gladly agreed to serve, and the program arranged contemplates a full "Lincoln week," with prayers and sermons in churches, addresses, and illustrated lectures at mass-meetings and in the

public schools, receptions and banquets, readings from Lincoln's great state papers, and memorable addresses. The severe weather precludes outdoor demonstrations and parades, and all that is planned will be necessarily of an indoor character. The largest single meeting will be in the Auditorium, and among the orators will be President Woodrow Wilson, Dr. Edwin Erle Sparks, and Rabbi Hirsch. The chairman of the committee, Attorney W. J. Calhoun, in enlisting the financial aid of the powerful Chicago Association of Commerce for the scheme, the cost of which is estimated at \$40,000, dwelt on the value of the patriotic side of the celebration to the newcomers and their children. To give them vivid pictures of Lincoln, the man, the leader, the martyr, is to inspire them with true Americanism, to dramatize history and reality for their benefit, to impress upon their minds the significance of the institutions whose protection they now enjoy.

Aside from the educational and oratorical program, however, there is a movement, backed by newspapers and prominent citizens, in favor of marking the spots in Chicago which are in some significant way associated with Lincoln's career in law and politics while he was still a citizen of Illinois. It was in a Chicago "Wigwam" that he was nominated for the Presidency in May, 1860, and one of the great debates with Douglas was held in a Chicago house, the speaking being from a balcony. Lincoln also argued some legal cases in Chicago. The buildings are no more, but tablets on the modern structures that now stand on the historic spots would perpetuate the memories of the interesting events. The Chicago Historical Society has valuable data in its possession regarding Lincoln's movements there, and it will play a leading part in the commemorative functions and celebrations.

A number of permanent memorials will undoubtedly be erected as reminders of this anniversary occasion. The plan for a Lincoln memorial road from Washington to Gettysburg was outlined in a recent number of this REVIEW, and there are several other projects for providing the nation's capital with enduring Lincoln memorials. A plan that now finds favor in Congress is to construct memorial buildings in the space between the Capitol and the new Union Railway station in Washington. This is opposed, however, by the American Institute of Architects and others, who recommend the



THE PROPOSED LINCOLN MEMORIAL AND POTOMAC BRIDGE AT WASHINGTON, AS APPROVED BY THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF ARCHITECTS.

adoption of the designs prepared some years ago by a commission, consisting of Daniel H. Burnham, Charles F. McKim, Augustus Saint Gaudens, and Frederick Law Olmstead, Jr. These provide for an elaborate treatment of the Mall from the base of the Capitol past the Washington Monument to a memorial bridge in honor of American valor leading directly across the Potomac to Arlington. Near the end of this bridge the commission proposed that a Lincoln memorial be erected which should have a character essentially distinct from that of any monument now existing in the district or hereafter to be erected. The type suggested by the commission was a great portico of Doric col-

umns. This general plan is favored by President Roosevelt. Whatever may be the decision as to the precise form of memorial to be adopted, there is little question that Congress will in some way provide for a Lincoln Museum at Washington, in which will be deposited all important collections of Lincoln relics that may be hereafter acquired by the Government.

In the city of Chicago a movement has been started to raise \$1,000,000 to build a great auditorium which shall bear the name of Lincoln. Suggestions of hospitals, parks, and other public institutions to serve as memorials are under consideration in Boston, New York, and other American cities.





DR. RICHARD C. MACLAURIN, PRESIDENT-ELECT OF THE MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY.

(The new head of New England's leading technical school was born in Scotland, received his education in New Zealand and England, and served for ten years as a professor in the University at Wellington, New Zealand. Since February, 1908, Dr. Maclaurin has held the position of professor of mathematical physics at Columbia University as successor to Dr. Woodward, now president of the Carnegie Institution. Dr. Maclaurin has traveled much and made a careful study of educational systems in this country and in Europe. Cambridge University, England, has honored him with the degrees of Doctor of Laws and Doctor of Science. In addition to his attainments in mathematics and physics, Dr. Maclaurin has made noteworthy achievements in the profession of the law, and is the author of a legal work, "The Title to Realty.")

ITALY'S EXHAUSTING EMIGRATION.

BY WALTER E. WEYL.

WE were standing on the stone pier of Naples in the shadow of a giant steamer that monthly carried its thousands to the New World. About us upon the great dock stood the prospective wanderers, gazing with vacant eyes upon the azure, sunlit sea, striving to discern therein the features of an unknown land. A motley, moving crowd it was—hardy, weather-worn wood-cutters; mountaineers dressed in gray, informal hunting costumes; stooping, low-browed peasants, in somber earth-stained clothes in which they had driven their ploughs. Some already had been citified, with stiff white collars, over starched shirts and flat derby hats that faintly echoed the current styles of Naples and Palermo; and here and there among the lesser beings one could distinguish a self-conscious emigrant, returned from America, a vainglorious mortal, with American tie, American shoes, and a few aggressive English words, who forced upon the consciousness of all his unique distinction.

"We must stop this hemorrhage," said the professor. "Are we Italians breeders for the nations?"

"It is well enough for you Americans. You take the best we have. You choose and reject. The strong young men, whom we have borne and reared and trained to labor, are yours; the women, children, dotards, the cripples, the sickly, the incapables, are ours. It's well enough for you, but for us it's destruction, desolation, death."

I pointed out the manifest advantages to Italy of this exodus. I spoke of Italian poverty, unemployment, over-population, of the dollars sent home by successful immigrants, of the rising standard of living, the widespread, beneficent results of this mass of men being intelligently employed.

"I, too," admitted the professor, with a politely covert negation, "I, too, favored an emigration of our large populations, for, surely, workmen,—like merchandise,—should be exported to where they are needed. But everything in moderation. This drain we cannot stand. We are not an inexhaustible well."

In truth the exodus from Italy has swol-

len of late years to a phenomenal extent. I do not speak of the temporary emigration, the to-and-fro movement to Switzerland, France, Germany, Austro-Hungary, whither during recent years, a quarter of a million of Italian workmen have annually wandered. Most of these laborers, after four or five months, return to Italy, and the loss by emigration is not disquieting.

THE EXODUS TO THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE.

Far different is the recent movement to America. Wherever I went in southern Italy I found people whose fathers, brothers, cousins were in the New World, somewhere in that vague Western empire whose chief cities are New York, São Paulo, and Buenos Aires. "Si, Signore," vouchsafed my coachman on the road to Ravello, "my three brothers are in America. Our village is there, padre, mayor, and all, and I, Signore, I, too, but await the ticket." "I salute you," began the syndic of a little town in his address to the Prime Minister of Italy; "I salute you in the name of 8000 constituents, of whom 3000 are already in America, and the remaining 5000 preparing to go."

Forty years ago the American novelist Howells declared it almost impossible to tempt from home any of the home-loving Italian population. As late as in 1876 less than 20,000 Peninsulars crossed the seas to the great lands beyond. Since then,—especially since 1900,—the stream has become a torrent, so that in 1906 over half a million Italians left for the Americas. During the last sixteen years almost 3,500,000 Italians found their way to the United States of America, Brazil, and Argentina, and of these almost two-thirds remained in the lands of their adoption. Anxiously the country asks itself, "Can we maintain this ever-increasing emigration? Can we survive this social hemorrhage?"

THE ITALIAN IN THE UNITED STATES.

Equally important is the problem to the United States. Once the Italian was known to us only as an organ-grinder or itinerant dealer in plaster images. Now he is found in all trades in all cities. No other immi-

grant has met with so tenacious an opposition. His illiteracy, his poverty, his debased standard of living, his willingness to take any work at any price, to live in any quarters however dirty, however congested, have accentuated an unpopularity based on racial differences. The Italians in our foreign quarters have huddled together; they have largely refrained from participation in American affairs; they have sent money to Italy; finally, many of them by returning to spend their last years in the little villages of the Peninsula have shown an intolerable lack of appreciation for American slums. "The Italians," it is claimed, "are the Chinese of Europe, the scourge of America. They are indigestible and undesirable."

ITALY'S GRINDING POVERTY.

The fundamental cause of the Italian's lack of welcome is his poverty, which in turn is the very mainspring of an immigration, inevitable and coercive. His illiteracy, his low standard of living, his detachment from American political life are but effects springing from this abysmal misery. The movement from the Peninsula is only too plainly an emigration of hunger.

The population of Italy is too dense, its resources are too small. On every square mile of Italian territory are almost 300 inhabitants, and many of these square miles are arid mountain slopes, and very many are depopulated by malaria. Unfortunately the country has but meager mineral resources, few forest reserves, and but comparatively unimportant navigable streams. Impoverished Italy is more densely populated than teeming Germany, far more crowded than Austria, Switzerland, France, Denmark, or Hungary. Save only the small wealthy lands of England, Belgium, and Holland, no country in all Europe is so congested.

In Italy poverty,—or rather misery, abject and hopeless,—is a chronic phenomenon. In proportion to population France is three times, England three and a half times, as wealthy. The average Italian family income does not exceed \$160, and over five-ninths of all families have less than \$100 per year. And it is among the poorer sections of the population, in the south, where poverty is most intense and ineradicable, that the swarming masses of emigrants are mainly recruited.

The universal poverty of Italy is acutely aggravated in the south. In this section, where the birth rate is the highest, illiteracy

the greatest, and industrial opportunities the fewest, misery multiplies and intensifies incredibly. Here wealth, income, and savings are much smaller than in the north, and mendicancy and misery far more universal.

The south Italians are driven to the New World. No bounds are set by love of country nor sentimental attachments. Before a craving stomach all demands give way. The south Italian must emigrate so long as his choice lies between semi-starvation at home and a chance to earn a competence in America.

Nevertheless, despite the agonizing, deep-seated misery of south Italy, emigration thence to the United States will probably not long maintain itself at the excessive level of 1906. The well is not exhaustless. Moreover, powerful factors at work will eventually, if not speedily, deflect great numbers of possible emigrants to the United States to other parts of the world.

INCREASE IN POPULATION ALMOST WIPED OUT.

In the year 1906, according to Italian statistics, 512,000 emigrants left the Peninsula for oversea lands, of whom about 346,000 did not return. This enormous, permanent, oversea emigration represented over 1 per cent. of the entire Italian population, and was only a trifle less than the entire excess of births over deaths in the whole of the prolific kingdom. If this astounding emigration were to be maintained the increase in the population would speedily come to a standstill.

This loss by emigration is borne chiefly by the southern departments. In many of these provinces the oversea emigration averages as high as thirty-five, and even more, per thousand of the population. One in thirty of the population, one in eleven of all males of working age, leave annually. With such a migration no known birth-rate can possibly maintain a balance.

This stupendous emigration has slackened the growth of population in the south. Even during the period 1891-1901, when emigration was much smaller, the population of the great Department of Basilicata diminished, and all through the south small townships lost from one-fifth to one-half of their inhabitants.

Since 1901 the same influences have been at work with even greater potency. During the five years ending January 1, 1906, five southern provinces and one southern department



WOMEN AND CHILD AT WORK ON CAPRI ISLAND, SOUTHERN ITALY.

lost heavily in population. The emigration of 1906 meant a considerable net loss for the whole south. In a region in which the annual natural increase is only about 128,000, 245,000 more persons departed than returned. Were such an emigration to continue, the number of births itself would diminish, population would decrease, and gradually whole districts, now cultivated, would relapse to their former wild state and be claimed again by weeds and malaria.

DEPENDENT CLASSES LEFT AT HOME.

For many decades even this exodus might conceivably be maintained despite a decreasing population were the Americas impartial in their attraction. But such is not the case. For every Italian woman who leaves (whether for Europe or the Americas) four or five men emigrate; for every child of fifteen or under, there are eight or nine adult emigrants. Emigration is artificial selection.

The young, strong, able, are taken; the women, children, the superannuated, are left. Excessive emigration not only decreases population but it disturbs the balance of the sexes,—it destroys the equilibrium between workers and dependents.

This social blood-letting is severely felt. In 1882 40 per cent. of all males were between the working ages of twenty-one and fifty. By 1901 the proportion had sunk to 35 per cent. The proportion of men to women is also falling. Much of the work formerly performed by able-bodied men is now carried on by women, children, and old people, many of whom in a richer country would be absolved from manual labor.

Throughout the length and breadth of southern Italy one discovers the burden left by the emigrant to weaker members of the population. In the little villages on the Gulf of Salerno I watched the fishermen at their noonday work. Of sixteen people dragging



THE BURDEN WHICH THE EMIGRANT LEAVES
BEHIND HIM.

at a wide-stretching net not one was a man in his prime. Six were children, ten to twelve years in age; four were young women; the rest were trembling old men of seventy, possibly even of eighty, years. The ill-assorted workers panted at their common toil. At a constantly repeated signal each drove his bare feet into the sand, each tugged with the strength that was his at the resisting net. Slowly, painfully, the work went on, until at last the net, filled with captured fish gasping for breath, like the strangely yoked toilers, was hauled upon the beach.

In the fields, in the factories, on the high-road, everywhere, one sees women at work. Harnessed to carts, drawing great loads over uneven roads, guiding the plow, carrying upon their heads bundles of faggots or baskets of earth, balancing great jars of water or barrels of wine, at work in the olive-presses or in the paper-mills, everywhere silently, uncomplainingly, the women take the places left by the men. Children, too, are sentenced to labor long before their muscles are grown. Boys of twelve, of ten, even of eight, are

everywhere employed. They are the carriers and haulers in building operations, the little band of auxiliaries whose labor is ill paid and little valued. In a store at Amalfi I saw a staring lad of twelve ineptly assisting an incapable house-painter. The lad's daily pay was two cents, but, as his employer informed me, "It is enough. God has willed that the boy be an idiot."

The drain of an excessive emigration upon the wretched populations of the deserted villages of southern Italy reinforces the century-old habit to use in all sorts of ill-conducted, wasteful employments, the odds and ends, the scraps and dregs of life, the unripe beginnings, the final worthless remnants. Not even this drafting of women, children, idiots, and cripples suffices always to keep alive the culture of the soil. Agriculture recedes. The plow disappears, and flocks of goats take its place. Sometimes, for lack of shepherds, even pasture is abandoned, and the land, void of dwellers, surrenders at discretion to the investing malaria.

These villages, deserted of their inhabitants, present a doleful picture. The hamlets, resting in the shadow of great treeless mountains, seem shorn of hope as of people. In the narrow, tortuous streets, losing themselves in bewildering labyrinths, heaps of muck, of garbage, of decaying animal and vegetable matter mount higher and higher before tumble-down houses. Everywhere are signs of the blight. On every street are houses that were,—empty shells without doors, without windows, blind-staring, corpse-like dwellings, exposed to mountain winds and sudden falls of rain. Houses abandoned for two years or three seem covered by the pall of centuries. They are more decayed than the glorious ruins of the Roman Empire.

Not less decayed are the stubborn, stolid citizens. The little streets are given over to vacuous old men and garrulous women. Toothless crones, past feeling, beyond memory, sit in forlorn attitudes before rotting, gaping edifices. Nowhere the vibrant toil of young men; nowhere the cheerful sound of intense, hopeful, human activity. The village is dead. Its people, aimlessly filling a weird, fatal silence, seem like denizens of an accursed land. Their only thought is America. Periodically some new group receives its prepaid tickets. A house is given up,—sold for nothing,—a few listless farewells are made. For a moment the incurious village is galvanized into a vague, sporadic interest.

Then it lapses into its wonted lethargic state.

"The emigration to America," explained the mayor of one of these deserted villages, "is like the working of one of our olive-presses. The gray, green olives, crushed in the mill, are put into this heavy press, and the strong arms of the workers toil at the big rod which brings the two stones together. At first but a few drops ooze. Then the drops become a trickle, the trickle a little stream; finally the oil gushes forth in great dark rivers. So it is now with our emigration. But the oil does not flow forever. Soon there is little but the refuse. The stream becomes a trickle; the trickle ceases and only single drops are forced out, though the toilers strain and sweat. So it will be with our emigration. We are drained, exhausted, pressed out. We have nothing left but the refuse,—what you Americans will not take."

From many places the stream of emigration is already becoming a trickle. Even in 1906, the year of greatest emigration, many districts which had felt too strongly the attraction of the American magnet sent fewer emigrants than for years before. Last year, 1908, owing to the financial crisis, so many Italians returned from the United States that the exhaustion may be temporarily delayed. But in the end, with new waves of migration setting in for the great transatlantic countries, this depletion will again make itself felt, and the analogy of the olive-press will again be pertinent.

Not only because the Italian well is not exhaustless, but because of other outlets for the population, is it probable that the migration to America will not long maintain itself at so high a level.

Many Italian statesmen regard the emigration of their countrymen to the United States instead of to other countries as a grievous racial loss. So completely does the Colossus of the North absorb its immigrants that speedily they lose their national identity. In America most Italians remain in the great cities. They are not rooted in the soil. They



THE MAN WHO DOES NOT EMIGRATE.

have no territory apart. They are not sufficiently considerable in numbers or wealth to exert a decisive influence on political affairs. They do not, and will not, constitute an important factor in our ethnic constitution. Sooner or later, in one generation or two, the Italian emigrant must vanish in the up-growing millions of new Americans, as the river loses itself in the boundless ocean.

ARGENTINA,—THE AMERICAN ITALY.

In Argentina the situation is different. Here is a country with an enormous, fertile, sparsely settled territory. The million and more Italians who have already emigrated to the republic have worked hard, earned high wages, acquired property, intermarried with natives, secured political influence, and become an integral part of the nation. Of the 5,000,000 inhabitants of Argentina one-fifth are Italians, while of the remainder one-third have Italian blood in their veins.

The emigration, moreover, still continues. While lessened by the resistless attraction of the United States, it is still much greater than that from any other nation. There are men in Italy who, seeing these things, dream dreams. At last their fatherland is to have colonies. Italy, which could not take part in the division of the New World because itself dominated by strangers,—Italy, which could pick up only the beggar's crusts of

Africa, the worthless, fever-ravaged coasts,—Italy, which ended its futile campaign of expansion in the melancholy disaster of Adowa,—Italy now sees a hope in Argentina. Here may grow up an American Italy, in which Spanish is spoken, in which the chief bond with the stepmother country will be not political, but commercial and intellectual, yet still an Italy. If the emigration to South America continues Argentina is likely to become in a real, though not a political, sense, a colony of Italy, a colony *sans drapeau*.

EMIGRATION TO BRAZIL AND NORTH AFRICA.

Brazil, too, may once more become an outlet for the fecund Italian race. At one time Italian emigration to Brazil was enormous, 132,000 Peninsulars in a single year leaving for the coffee plantations of São Paulo. Slavery had been abolished; coffee brought good prices; the *fazendeiro* needed help. Hordes of Italian laborers were brought over gratis. But their lot speedily grew worse. There was an overproduction of coffee; prices sank; plantation owners fell into debt. The unfortunate emigrants, living on inaccessible plantations, far from schools, churches, physicians, or medicines, found themselves in the absolute power of cruel and impoverished slave-drivers, and were sweated, robbed, and fined at will. The Italian colonists had no recourse. As a consequence the emigration to Brazil practically ceased.

Still, notwithstanding the present condition of the coffee market, despite the introduction of the Chinese coolie,—a formidable competitor of the Italian,—the coffee plantations of Brazil are perhaps not permanently closed. While not like Argentina, the "Eden of Italian emigrants," "the loveliest colony of Italy," Brazil may eventually, with the rebirth of its agriculture, attract great numbers of Italian laborers. A strong current of emigration, moreover, is now setting in for North Africa, a land lying near the source of the human stream, similar to Italy in climatic conditions, and otherwise adapted to this colonization. The French provinces of Algeria and Tunis are not filled with Frenchmen. It is the fecund Italian who moves to these districts.

Already in Tunis are 80,000 Italians, as compared with 30,000 Frenchmen. In Algeria the Italians, though greatly outnumbered, are growing rapidly, already aggregating 50,000. Italian and French writers agree that this emigration will increase and that Northern Africa, like Argentina and Brazil,

may compete with the United States for the Italian emigrant.

ITALY'S OWN PROSPECTS.

There is one more competitor for the Italian laborer,—Italy. Slowly the Peninsula rises from the slough of centuries of internecine struggles and foreign domination. The new kingdom has been largely successful in its aggressive campaign of betterment. Especially in the north, industries and agriculture have been promoted, railroads built, highways constructed, educational facilities increased, taxes redistributed, and administration fundamentally reformed. These advantages to the north have, to a certain extent, been at the cost of the south. But gradually the slowly growing prosperity is felt throughout the realm. With an increasing home demand for the products of its agriculture, southern Italy may not be obliged in the future to send so many of its sons to seek work in foreign lands.

Perhaps even the number of these sons will not increase as heretofore. As elsewhere, the birth-rate in Italy is higher where ignorance is most dense and poverty most hopeless. Even in south Italy, however, the birth-rate lowers.

The crippling effect upon southern Italy of the recent enormous emigration, the derangement which it causes in economic and social relations, the declining population and lowering birth-rate which it threatens, indicate that the south of Italy is not an exhaustless well, but a limited source of emigration. The attraction, present and future, of Argentina, Brazil, Algeria, and Tunis for Italian emigrants, and the increasing demand for laborers at home, show that in all probability the emigration of south Italians to the United States can not for a long time maintain itself at the recent devastating level. The well is not exhaustless.

Postscript.—Since these lines were written, the heart of all the world has been stirred by the awful tragedy of Sicily and Calabria. A hundred thousand Italians, who might some day have knocked at our gates, are now beyond the call of America or of this world. Yet though population is depleted, emigration will not cease. Fortunes are gone, families are gone, ties are broken, but people remain. "Italy is accursed," cries the peasant, and as he weeps for the friends who are no more, he raises his eyes to where the sea gleams in the sunlight, and his thoughts turn to America.



Power house.

Animal house.

Main laboratory.

Site of new hospital.

THE ROCKEFELLER INSTITUTE FOR MEDICAL RESEARCH, SIXTY-SIXTH STREET AND AVENUE A, NEW YORK CITY.

THE ROCKEFELLER INSTITUTE FOR MEDICAL RESEARCH.

BY HERBERT T. WADE.

THE extraordinary and practical success that has attended the work of well-endowed or government-supported institutions for the scientific study of disease and the systematic test of new methods for the treatment of such maladies as have hitherto resisted the efforts of physicians and surgeons is one of the most striking and promising features of present-day medicine. In the United States the most important of the few institutions of this kind is the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, founded in 1901 by Mr. John D. Rockefeller. Under this endowment there is maintained in New York City a well-equipped medical laboratory where a staff of trained investigators, free from the cares of routine practice, hospital work, or teaching, are concentrating their entire attention upon researches which deal with the prevention and cure of disease. As in other scientific institutions, where effective organization and adequacy of material equipment are most essential, so at the Rockefeller Institute everything has been arranged in order that experimental medicine may be prosecuted under conditions most productive of good results.

Within little more than half a century there has been a great revolution in medical ideas and methods, so that to-day the aver-

age man, whose interest in medicine has been said rarely to extend beyond the prompt relief of his own ailments or those of his family, is quite unable to appreciate the bearing of modern medical science on his own welfare and that of the world at large. And it must be confessed that there are also physicians who still find it impossible fully to realize and appreciate what important results have been and are being secured from the research laboratories and the intimate connection existing between scientific medicine and investigation and the prevention and cure of disease, notwithstanding the brilliant record made in the prevention or control of such epidemics as plague and yellow fever, and in coping with other infectious diseases. But in medicine, as everywhere, the scientific method to-day is supreme, and though the practicing physician occupies as important and honorable a position as ever, yet in his efforts to cure and prevent disease he has become more and more dependent upon the labors of the scientific investigator. In other words, the laboratory worker must discover and, in many cases where scientific methods and special technique are required, prepare the tools which the practicing physician uses with such great and tender skill.



THE FIRST HOME OF THE ROCKEFELLER INSTITUTE.
(Temporary laboratory at Lexington Avenue and
Fiftieth Street.)

PASTEUR AND EXPERIMENTAL METHODS IN MEDICINE.

Now it is interesting to note that the one person to whom chiefly we owe the development of the scientific experimental method resulting in the present ability of the medical profession to prevent or control infectious diseases was not a physician, but a great French chemist, Louis Pasteur. To him are due discoveries that to-day underlie all medical theory, most important of which is that minute living organisms or germs are the causative agencies for many forms of disease afflicting mankind and the animal kingdom. In an early and important research Pasteur showed that definite and specific micro-organisms were responsible for fermentation, especially as manifested in the spoiling of beer and wine and the making of vinegar, and that once they were destroyed, as by heat, and the wine or beer kept from contact with the air in which these micro-organisms were present, it could be preserved from deterioration.

Pasteur's discovery that fermentation and putrefaction were due to minute living organisms led him to investigate the conditions under which these micro-organisms existed and their connection with disease. At this time the mortality in surgical and obstetrical

wards and hospitals was something appalling, and Pasteur by his experiments became convinced that the infection of the wounds or of the patient was due to the presence and activity of these pathogenic or disease-causing micro-organisms. Accordingly he recommended that all dressings and instruments immediately before use should be heated to destroy such germs, and likewise that the hands of surgeons and attendants should be sterilized before an operation, while immediately after the wound itself should be covered with sterilized cotton wool to prevent the access of disease germs from the air.

Success at once attended the demonstration of the correctness of Pasteur's experiments and reasoning, and not only was a great reproach removed from surgery, but a beginning of a constant-decreasing mortality from surgical operation and at childbirth was made. And here mention should be made of another important consequence of that early work on fermentation, which, brought to the attention of the famous British surgeon, Lister, led him on the basis of the theory announced by Pasteur to develop antiseptic surgery, where carbolic acid and other powerful poisons were employed to destroy the germs of infection.

Pasteur then after further experiments with the pathogenic bacteria by making cultures and by systematic tests on animals, announced his discovery of the principle of active immunization by the use of cultures of the living bacteria of the disease attenuated in virulence by successive cultures in the laboratory. This theory was tested in numerous experiments and in actual extended application to epidemic diseases of animals, and finally led to the famous discovery in 1885 that the disease of hydrophobia produced by the bite of an animal suffering from rabies yielded to such treatment. It was this crowning triumph, emphasized as it was by some remarkable cures and the acclaim of the civilized world, that aroused the enthusiasm of the French people for the systematic encouragement of experimental medicine.

THE PASTEUR INSTITUTE.

In recognition of the great work of Pasteur, as well as for its future encouragement and perpetuation, 2,500,000 francs was raised for the founding of a Pasteur Institute, not only for carrying on the Pasteur treatment for hydrophobia, but for the investigation of micro-organisms and the prob-

THE ROCKEFELLER INSTITUTE FOR MEDICAL RESEARCH.

lems of infectious diseases. In this way was founded the first institute of experimental medicine, and in this splendid memorial the spirit and example of Pasteur have persisted, and from Duclaux, Roux, Calmette, Metchnikoff, and others have come a wealth of medical discovery that makes the Pasteur Institute as much a present vital force in medical science as a memorial to one of the greatest benefactors to mankind.

EUROPEAN INSTITUTES FOR MEDICAL RESEARCH.

The utility and scientific value of such an institution were at once apparent, and in 1890 Prince Alexander of Oldenburg, founded and endowed the Imperial Institute of Experimental Medicine at St. Petersburg, while in 1891 the Institute for Infectious Diseases at Berlin was organized under the direction of Prof. Robert Koch. This was followed by another important German institution at Frankfort in 1896, the Institute for Experimental Therapeutics, with Prof. Paul Ehrlich as director. In Great Britain, in 1891, there had been founded by popular subscription and by large gifts from Lord Iveagh, the British Institute for Preventive Medicine, the name of which was subsequently and appropriately changed to the Lister Institute. Now as showing the scientific appreciation of the work of such institutes it is interesting to note that a majority of the awards of the Nobel prizes in medicine have been made to their directors or leading investigators. In addition to discoveries of the greatest value to mankind and applicable to such infectious and epidemic diseases as cholera, plague, and malaria, there have been forthcoming from these institutions a host of other and minor researches, less striking, but of almost equal scientific importance, so that their usefulness has been most fully demonstrated.

With such institutions abroad it was but natural that American medical men should feel the need of like facilities for investigation and research. In a few Government bureaus, as, for example, in the Medical Department of the United States Army, where Major Walter Reed had discovered the transmission of yellow fever by a certain species of mosquito, and in the regular laboratories of medical schools and hospitals in connection with other work and usually with limited means, much valuable investigation and research had been carried on, but at the time of the foundation of the Rockefeller



DR. SIMON FLEXNER.

(Director of the laboratories of the institute)

Institute there was no regular institution devoted exclusively to scientific medical investigation where the workers could give undivided attention to the solution of the great problems of medicine and hygiene. This was the more striking in view of the high and enviable position held by American physicians and surgeons as practitioners and investigators, and when, in 1901, Mr. John D. Rockefeller offered an endowment to encourage original research in medicine it was recognized that an important beginning had been made.

THE FOUNDATION OF THE ROCKEFELLER INSTITUTE.

The proposition was first broached to Dr. William H. Welch, professor of pathology in the Johns Hopkins medical faculty; Dr. T. Mitchell Prudden, professor of pathology in the Columbia University College of Physicians and Surgeons; Dr. Christian A. Herter, professor of pharmacology and therapeutics in the Columbia University College of Physicians and Surgeons; Dr. Hermann Biggs, of the New York City Department of Health, and Dr. L. Emmett Holt, professor of the diseases of children in the C

lumbia University College of Physicians and Surgeons. These gentlemen, with Dr. Simon Flexner, professor of pathology in the University of Pennsylvania, and Dr. Theobald Smith, professor of comparative pathology in the Harvard University Medical School, straightway became the Board of Directors of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research as duly incorporated, and since that time have continued in this capacity exercising a general supervision over the work of the institution.

In Mr. Rockefeller's letter of gift it was stated that the proposed trust was to be administered in such a way as "to accomplish the most for humanity and science," and to meet this requirement it was determined, in 1902, to establish in a special building of its own a laboratory where original work could be carried on according to the most approved methods. Funds were straightway provided by Mr. Rockefeller, and property overlooking the East River at Sixty-sixth Street in New York City was purchased as a site for the institute. As soon as definite plans for the work of the institute had been matured and a scientific director in the person of Dr. Flexner appointed, a beginning was made in October, 1904, in temporary laboratories in a building at Lexington Avenue and Fiftieth Street, and here with a small staff work was carried on pending the completion of the new buildings, which were occupied in the spring of 1906. Although the scope of the Rockefeller Institute is in no sense local and its workers and fellows are drawn from the entire United States and abroad, New York was considered the best place for its location on account of its hospitals and medical schools, as well as other metropolitan conditions.

The present group of buildings includes a five-story yellow brick and limestone fire-proof laboratory and two smaller structures for the animal house and power plant, while nearby in connection with and corresponding architecturally to the main laboratory a small hospital is in course of erection. The laboratory building is provided with all facilities for experimental work, and is divided into special laboratories for the different departments and workers. These individual laboratories vary, of course, in their nature and equipment with the character of the work of their occupants, being devoted to physiological and biological chemistry, pharmacology, bacteriology, comparative zoology, physiology, pathology, and photography.

THE RANGE AND METHODS OF EXPERIMENTAL MEDICINE.

Before mentioning any of the special researches carried on at the Rockefeller Institute a few general considerations applicable to experimental medicine as carried on in such laboratories may be of interest. While the range of investigation is very wide, yet it involves intense specialization, and though under a single roof there may be grouped a number of scientists working on various problems in widely different ways, each is proceeding systematically and toward a definite end. Taken in logical order the department of physiology in an institute of experimental medicine would be the first to be considered, as the function and operation of the healthy organism must be understood thoroughly, and such a knowledge must underlie all medicine and be antecedent to a study of diseased or morbid conditions. Therefore physiological work is all important, and the study of the animal mechanism must be pursued with ever-increasing specialization and minuteness. And this study must deal largely with the lower animals, for in nature and function their organs approximate those of man, and a thorough knowledge of animal physiology leads to that of the human being. For example, to take a most simple case. If it can be proved experimentally that the removal of an organ or a portion of an organ in an animal does not seriously affect the ordinary vital processes, then in a human patient where the same organ is diseased or useless it is possible to consider and attempt its surgical removal. Or if a certain drug acts on the nervous system of an animal to produce anesthesia, then thorough tests may show that it is available for practical use in surgery, possibly as superior to most existing anesthetics.

Not only for anesthesia but for many other purposes there are various drugs, both long established and those evolved from time to time by the research chemist, whose use should be undertaken only with the fullest knowledge of their effect on animals rather than mere theoretical considerations. Otherwise it is obvious that their use on the human patient may be without benefit, or even productive of grievous injury. In fact, such systematic experimental study with animals is paramount, as it is only incidentally that the operation of the deep-seated living organs in man can be studied, except quite superficially.



Photograph by Arthur Hewitt.

Dr. Simon Flexner,

Dr. L. Emmett Holt,

Dr. T. Mitchell Prudden,

Dr. William H. Welch,

Dr. Christian A. Herrick,

Dr. Theobald Smith,

Dr. Hermann M. Biggs

THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS OF THE ROCKEFELLER INSTITUTE FOR MEDICAL RESEARCH.



CHEMICAL LABORATORY.

(Here investigations in physiological and biological chemistry are carried on.)

In an experimental laboratory the pathological work or the investigation of diseased conditions and the studies in bacteriology are naturally of the highest importance. Many of the most serious diseases afflicting man are due to the activity of bacteria, those low forms of animal, or more exactly vegetable life, which, growing rapidly, can work wonderful and fearful changes in themselves and in their environment where conditions favorable to their life and development exist.

HOW THE BACTERIA ARE STUDIED.

As we have seen, Pasteur found that these bacteria when once isolated could be propagated at will artificially, and the diseases they caused transmitted readily to animals for experimental purposes. Accordingly an investigator is able to take bacteria found in a person suffering from some disease and by making cultures in some friendly medium, such as broth or gelatine, with gentle heat propagate the bacteria in colonies. Not only can they be propagated, but also destroyed, their virulence mitigated, and made available for inoculation either to cause,—*i. e.*, experimentally,—or prevent disease.

To produce and test the various vaccines and antitoxins so useful in preventing or curing disease, animals must be used in connection with the laboratory experiments. Thus a vaccine is a weakened culture of the specific or some similar bacteria used for protective inoculation, while an antitoxin is a

substance directly able to counteract the effects of the bacteria. For when bacteria are introduced into the blood of a living animal in the course of their growth they produce toxins or poisonous substances whose effects are characteristic of the disease in question. But at the same time there are produced also in the blood other substances or antitoxins capable of neutralizing the effects of the bacteria, and these may be prepared artificially in an animal so that they are available for use with man or in veterinary practice in the form of a serum derived in the laboratory from the blood of the inoculated animal.

THE PREPARATION OF ANTITOXINS AND VACCINES.

Now familiar results of such laboratory activities are the preparation of a vaccine such as the familiar vaccine virus for smallpox, used with success since the time of Jenner, but whose action has been understood only in the light of modern science, or such a vaccine as is used to-day against the plague in India, or the antitoxin for diphtheria which has reduced the mortality from this disease by two-thirds. But there are many other and new vaccines and serums at which the laboratories of experimental medicine are now working in order to conquer diseases not as yet yielding to such form of treatment. All of this bacteriological work involves extensive chemical and other laboratory research, while different varieties of animals must be maintained for experimentation, as some species are entirely immune to certain diseases of man and others respond to inoculation very differently. In the case of tuberculosis, for example, there is a difference of the bacteria in man, cattle, and birds, and even to-day the identity and extent of the degree of communicability of the disease are hardly settled. Then for cancer studies rats and mice are especially well adapted. Though mice under certain conditions are immune to the disease, yet under other conditions and in other places it may be communicated to their fellows. In fact, great

interest centers on these experiments, as cancer seems to be one of the serious and grievous diseases for which bacteriology has as yet no explanation, and no department of medicine or surgery a cure or means for its prevention. Accordingly in many medical laboratories investigations are in progress to discover the nature of a disease that is responsible for the death of one man in every twenty-one and one woman in every twelve who has reached the age of thirty-five years. On the rats and mice inoculated or engrafted with this disease is focused the attention of investigators who are working on this problem, and such steady scientific progress is being made that conservative surgical opinion to-day is hopeful that in the near future the ravages of the disease may be greatly mitigated if a positive cure or means for its prevention is not found. When once it is understood how and why an animal resists inoculation, and how once inoculated the progress of the disease can be checked, then by gradual steps and comparative methods involving systematic experiment progress can be made along the zoological scale and a method introduced for the successful treatment and relief, if necessary, of the human patient afflicted with this dread malady.

EXPERIMENTAL SURGERY AND PREVENTIVE MEDICINE.

In the experimental laboratories surgery also has an important place and there have resulted great discoveries and developments in operative surgery, and the important field of brain surgery so firmly established and so skillfully executed to-day has been developed almost exclusively through preliminary experiments and practice on monkeys and other animals. Then there is also the most valuable results of physiological research, of which mention has been made, and co-operation with the physiologist.

The triumphs of the laboratories of experimental medicine during the past twenty or thirty years have not been so much in the

cure of disease as in discovering means for its prevention, and this to-day is the keynote and mission of modern medicine. Thus in the case of typhoid fever scientific research long since has made plain its cause and the means to prevent its occurrence, and all that is necessary to secure its disappearance from a settled,—one can hardly say civilized,—community is simple obedience to the laws of hygiene and sanitation now so clearly set forth in unmistakable language. Even inoculation against typhoid has been tried with fair success with those, such as soldiers,



DIRECTOR'S LABORATORY AT THE ROCKEFELLER INSTITUTE.

(The high-power microscopes for studying bacterial cultures are on the table to the right, while the apparatus for preparing cultures of bacteria is at the left.)

whose duties often compel them to live under unsanitary conditions, and recently it has been decided to make a trial of this method of prophylaxis in the United States Army.

Indeed through the whole progress toward the cure and prevention of the infectious diseases, such as typhus, cholera, bubonic plague, yellow fever, malaria, diphtheria, and cerebro-spinal meningitis, the mark of the medical investigator and the research laboratory has been left, and to-day against tuberculosis and cancer the struggle continues.

NATURE OF THE INSTITUTE'S WORK.

Now the part played by the Rockefeller Institute in this forward scientific movement during its brief existence has been distinctly active and important. From its ear-

liest inception its Board of Directors, while recognizing the fundamental importance and character of work in chemistry, biology, physiology, and pathology and its bearing on medical science, by providing special investigators, departments, and laboratories kept before themselves the close connection with the practical side and the results to be secured in the prevention and cure of disease.

While all of the researches carried on under its auspices are distinct contributions to science, not a few, either in themselves or in their relation to other subjects naturally, are outside of the appreciation of the average layman, but there are others which must immediately impress one with their direct bearing on the well being of humanity. Not all of these researches are independent of other agencies, as co-operation is quite as important a feature of the work of the Rockefeller Institute as it is in all true scientific activity. Thus on several occasions the Rockefeller Institute has joined with the Department of Health of the City of New York, as, for example, in a study of milk and the results of milk feeding, which was carried on with the co-operation of several infant hospitals. It also rendered valuable aid to a commission of physicians appointed by the Department of Health to study cerebro-spinal meningitis at a time when this deadly disease was unusually prevalent in New York. Again, the Rockefeller Institute co-operated with an expedition sent from the Harvard University Medical School to study some of the manifestations of epidemic smallpox in the Philippine Islands. To-day it stands ready to supply trained investigators for medical or sanitary problems in a national or other emergency, to undertake special researches in its laboratories, or to aid with grants of money or otherwise workers with original projects of promise.

AN ANTISERUM FOR SPINAL MENINGITIS.

The outcome of the work on cerebro-spinal meningitis was the evolution of an antiserum which has been tried with encouraging success, not only in New York City, but in places as distant as Edinburgh and Belfast in Europe, and San Francisco in the United States. As a result of the experimental work and its successful test in local hospitals, large quantities of the antiserum have been prepared since its discovery in 1906, and it has been tested by use in various epidemics as well as in hospital practice. In most instances where the antiserum was used there

was a marked decrease in the mortality, and in the absence of any other treatment it has proved of the greatest benefit.

SPINAL ANESTHESIA.

Likewise it is possible to appreciate the importance of a physiological investigation involving the production of spinal anesthesia by the injection of a solution of magnesium sulphate, or Epsom salts, which has been found applicable with advantage in certain kinds of surgical operations. Furthermore, spinal anesthesia so induced has been proved beneficial in cases of tetanus or lockjaw, where it works to mitigate in a marked degree the severity of the spasms, thus aiding in the recovery of the patient. Then there is important experimental surgical work where the transplanting of organs, the engrafting of bones, the substitution of blood vessels and tissue from one animal to another with the complete restoration of the original functions, and other such experiments constantly are showing new possibilities in surgery, some of which may be found susceptible of application with advantage to the human patient.

Then in studies and investigations on cancer and tuberculosis progress constantly is being made in advancing the general scientific knowledge of these maladies by observing animals to whom these diseases have been given experimentally, and the data thus obtained by constant experiment at the Rockefeller Institute and other laboratories are slowly bringing the problem of the control of these diseases nearer a solution.

INVESTIGATIONS IN BIOLOGICAL CHEMISTRY.

Of even greater interest to the scientific world is the progress being made by the workers in the department of biological chemistry in their efforts to determine the essential composition of albumen and thus supply a physical basis for life. As albumen comes very near to being the original protoplasm or original substance from which all life starts, a full knowledge of its essential composition and ultimate nature is one of the most interesting and fundamental of all biological problems.

Such sample researches as these taken from the many investigations of the Rockefeller Institute merely serve to indicate a few lines of activity, the value and importance of which can be appreciated by the layman. Most of the studies are minutely special and nearly all represent the combined activities of a number of workers, perhaps from differ-

ent departments of science, joining to advance the solution of a particular problem, and each contributing what he or she can do most effectively. The result is that a finished investigation or discovery represents not so much the product of a single mind, but a composite and well arranged harmony, often where pathologist, bacteriologist, biologist, and chemist or a number of individuals have all contributed.

Nor is the influence of the Rockefeller Institute manifested exclusively through the work of its own laboratories and workers. Grants of money are made from time to time toward investigations carried on by individuals or in other laboratories, and these are given to workers all over the United States and even abroad. This encouragement already has been eminently successful in producing important results, and a number of valuable investigations such as one on trypanosomes and spirochetes have been published.

THE NEW HOSPITAL.

As the last stage in the progress of experimental medicine the hospital in close connection with the laboratory is essential, and such a building, now in course of erection at the Rockefeller Institute through the further generosity of Mr. Rockefeller, will be completed during the present year. Here the latest discoveries of medical science at once can be applied and tested, and the best medical skill, careful nursing, and every humane attention of a modern hospital will be applied to the cure of those special sufferers for whom present methods do not avail. As director of the hospital, Dr. Rufus I. Cole, of the Johns Hopkins Medical School, has been appointed, while Dr. Christian A. Herter will be one of its physicians.

When once this hospital is in operation there will be spared nothing that intelligence can suggest or money procure to restore the suffering patients to health, and thus open the doors of hope, not only to the inmates, but to thousands to whom relief can be brought by their own physicians once the way is pointed. The patients receiving any new form of treatment will be thus collected in a single hospital where, with the attending staff and house physicians working in complete harmony and understanding with the investigators, no essential element will be omitted from the earliest applications, so that adequate histories can be prepared at once for discussion and reference and detailed in-

structions developed for the profession at large in the use of the new treatment.

THE VALUE OF EXPERIMENTAL METHODS.

Experimental medicine in its hospital application, as throughout all its stages, therefore, is not a rash and unintelligent application of chance methods either as a forlorn hope or for the gratification of mere scientific curiosity. It is the crowning test of a treatment developed after patient research and consistently and uniformly successful application to the lower animals, where every deduction from scientific experiment points to its favorable outcome. Indeed, were anything to be needed in addition to the genuine humanity characteristic of the great masters of experimental medicine, it would be their intense desire to demonstrate the scientific and practical success of their carefully developed and cherished theories by the complete cure of the patient, which, of course, to them as to the public is the supreme test.

In fact, as typical of the attitude of the true scientist is the pleasing picture drawn by Pasteur's biographer of that great man's kind and loving attitude toward a nine-year-old boy, the first patient brought to him for inoculation against hydrophobia. Convinced by his experiments on animals of the absolute correctness of his reasoning and deductions, yet it was only with the approval of his most esteemed colleagues in the Academy of Medicine that he was able to bring himself to take the final step that to-day has put rabies in the control of the medical profession. And if any one should think that the great savant looked upon his young patient only as a mere scientific experiment, he may read how Joseph Meister was loved and treated as one of his own children while under treatment and living near his laboratory, where rabbits and guinea pigs were saved from experimentation to become pets for the child's pleasure.

The traditions of Pasteur have been preserved at the Pasteur Institute, and as the tradition of humanity and science are common to all medicine both applied and experimental, they are found in full vigor at the Rockefeller Institute. From this American laboratory, whose work of investigation so auspiciously has begun in the discovery of the meningitis antiserum and the magnesium sulphate method for spinal anesthesia, it is safe to expect a succession of equally valuable discoveries to aid man in his ceaseless struggle with disease and suffering.



A PERSISTENT POLLUTER OF THE ATMOSPHERE.

(This factory chimney is a common type in nearly every manufacturing city of the country. It represents not only waste of fuels but also much damage to surrounding property.)

GOVERNMENT SOLVES THE SMOKE PROBLEM.

BY JOHN LLEWELLYN COCHRANE.

THE smokeless American city is coming in the very near future.

This is the belief of Government scientists who are now pointing the way toward a country with an undefiled atmosphere. The problem has been solved, they declare, and it is only a matter of time before manufacturers and others learn the way.

The Government's investigation of the smoke problem has been only incidental to dealing with a larger problem,—the stopping of the great waste in the utilization of the fuel resources of the country which is necessary if the country is to prosper in the future. The abatement of smoke means a conservation of the fuel supply, for the absence of smoke indicates better combustion and better combustion results in the use of less coal.

So far the investigations into smoke abatement have indicated clearly that each type of coal may be burned practically smokelessly in some type of furnace or with some arrangement of mechanical stoker.

In the ultimate solution of the smoke problem in the United States there are several highly interesting factors that will play important parts, according to the Government scientists.

MAKING INDUSTRIAL CENTERS SMOKELESS.

One of these is the gas engine, or as the engineers term it, "the internal-combustion motor." This engine is absolutely smokeless,—smokeless because it has no chimney. Its greater economy, it is declared, may cause it to displace the steam engine within a few years, but this is not conceded by many engineers.

Another factor is the establishment of central steam heating plants in the various cities to supply heat to the thousands of homes, and the great steam-power plants, many of which are now operating smokelessly and with far greater efficiency than ever before.

Still another factor is the location of immense gas producer plants at the coal mines

and the turning of this gas into electric power for long-distance transmission or the piping of the gas to substations near the great manufacturing districts, there to be burned in gas engines and also to develop power and heat for the various industries.

RIDDING OUR RAILROADS OF THE SMOKE NUISANCE.

With the smokeless city will come smokeless travel on the railroads, a dream which has already passed into a reality in one American city. On July 1, 1908, every smoke-emitting passenger locomotive was banished from Manhattan Island, the electric engine taking up the burden of whirling the millions of Americans to and from that marvel of modern progress. Chicago, choking and blinded with the smoke from half a thousand locomotives, is crying for the electric horse, and now that New York has demonstrated the usefulness of electricity in this field, the big municipality on the shore of Lake Michigan has determined to follow its footsteps.

SMOKELESS POWER PLANTS.

Back of the smokeless travel there must, of course, be a power plant, many power plants, and these plants must burn coal to produce the electricity. The serious question, then, is to get the smokeless power plant. This can be accomplished by the gas engine or the steam engine. The former has been making great strides recently as a producer of power, but the startling developments in the steam turbine plant within the last few years have placed it in a position to challenge the gas engine, either for the efficiency gotten from the coal or the smokeless conditions. In several of the large cities of the country there are immense steam turbine power plants operating without smoke and producing a horsepower for the same price as the gas engine. In fact, in one of the biggest cities in the United States, one company, with 100,000 horsepower, is furnishing power to a large number of consumers cheaper than they can produce it themselves. This leads to the suggestion that these big steam turbine plants, as well as the gas engine, can be located at the coal mines, generating electric power that may be sent long distances to the centers of industry. In these great steam plants the most modern conditions exist, and poor coal, almost the refuse of the mines, is being burned without smoke in the scientifically constructed furnaces.

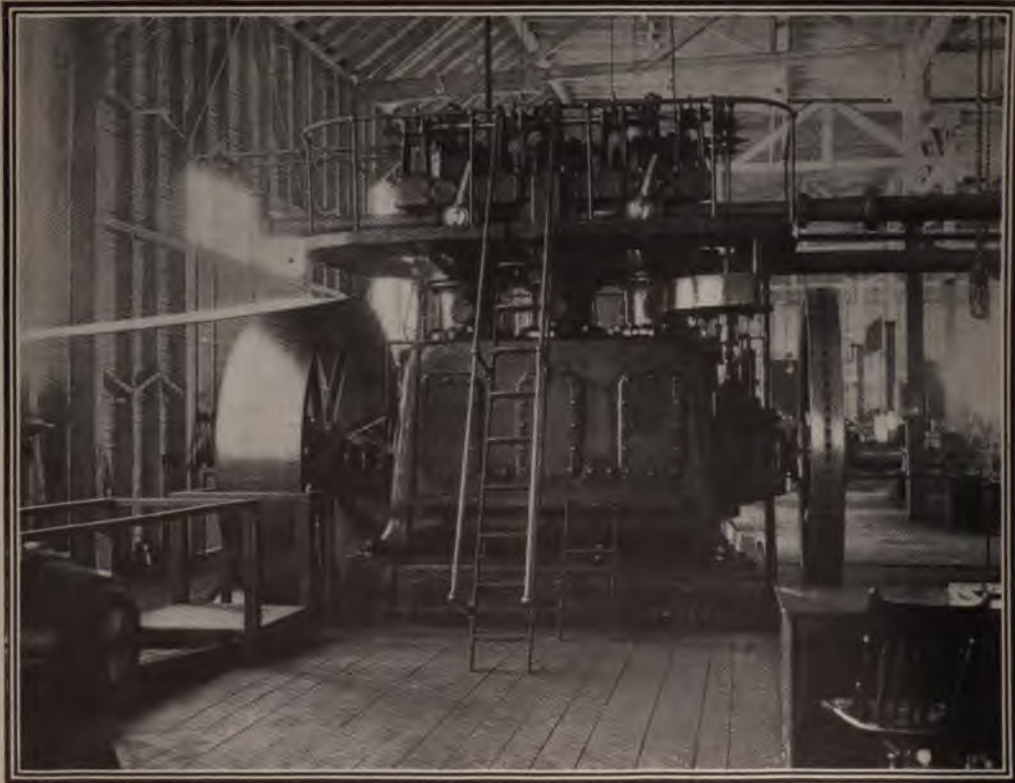
THE TRIUMPH OF THE GAS ENGINE OVER STEAM.

On the other hand, the gas engine has its champions, and rightfully so, for this type has shown wonderful performances over the present steam engine. In the operation of this engine, the gas is generated in the producer,—a cylinder made of boiler iron and lined with fire brick, standing on a concrete foundation. The coal is fed into the top through a hopper. After the fire is started with wood inside the producer, a draft is created by a jet of steam and air blown in at the bottom beneath the fuel bed. This generates what is known as producer gas, which is conducted from the top of the producer to the gas engine. The coal is completely consumed in the producer, all the heat-producing properties being turned into gas.

The Government, through the United States Geological Survey, took up the gas engine, not to prove its smokelessness, but to gain more efficiency in the utilization of the fuels of the country. The waste of fuel today is enormous. In the ordinary manufacturing plant, only from 5 to 10 per cent. of the energy of the coal becomes effective for actual work, while in locomotive work only from 3 to 5 per cent. of the fuel energy is made available. It has been computed that only one-seventh of 1 per cent. of the energy of the coal is represented in the light which is given out by an electric lamp.

UTILIZING LOW-GRADE COALS.

In the gas engine the United States Government has shown that from 12 to 16 per cent. of the energy of the coal is transformed into actual work, which on an average means that the gas engine does more than twice as much work with a given amount of coal as the average steam engine. Not only has the Government demonstrated this, but, what is of much more importance to the country, the tests have shown that many fuels of such low grade as to be practically valueless for steam-furnace purposes may be economically converted into gas and thus generate sufficient power to render them of high commercial value. For instance, the low-grade lignites of North Dakota (the poorest form of coal) developed as much power in the gas engine as did the best West Virginia bituminous coal in the ordinary steam engine. The importance of this is seen in the fact that there are 30,000,000 acres of lignites in the Western States.



GAS ENGINE AT GOVERNMENT FUEL-TESTING PLANT, WHICH WAS OPERATED SMOKELESSLY.
(This engine of 250 horsepower is operated on less than half the coal used in the average steam engine of same capacity. There is no smoke made in generating this power.)

MILLIONS SAVED ON COAL BILLS.

All of this means, according to the Government experts, that the gas engine may be the leading producer of power in the future; that we shall have smokeless engines, and that one of the most annoying problems before the American people will be solved.

Prof. Robert Heywood Fernald, consulting engineer in charge of the gas producer investigations for the Government, has given much thought to the smoke problem. The general introduction of the gas engine will, he says, in addition to making smokeless cities, eventually mean a saving of millions of dollars a year to the manufacturers of the country. Various estimates place this saving to the country's coal bill at from \$100,000,000 to \$200,000,000.

CENTRAL POWER PLANTS AT THE MINES.

With the immense saving of fuel by the use of the gas engine and the resultant economy, Professor Fernald believes that within

a few years great gas producer plants will be located at the mines, the gas engines furnishing electrical energy that will send the trains speeding across the country. He says:

The general adoption of the gas engine for power production will mean the almost complete elimination of smoke.

The great reduction in the cost of power production made possible by the gas producer means also rapid strides in electrical development within the next few years. Now that it is commercially possible to transmit electrical power for distances of 250 miles or more, the location of immense power plants at the mines will follow.

A central plant could distribute current for a distance of 500 miles,—that is, 250 miles either side of the plant,—thus covering an area of almost 200,000 square miles, an area nearly four times the size of Illinois. With these great central plants located at the various mine centers, the great railroads of the United States could send their trains speeding from the Atlantic to the Pacific Coast.

HEATING PLANTS FOR CITIES.

The heating of our great cities in the winter time is another great source of smoke. On this subject, Professor Fernald says:

The ultimate solution of the domestic heating problem as well as the means of preventing domestic smoke, may be found in the central heating plant. The disagreeable labor and uncleanness necessarily associated with the operation of hot-air furnaces and steam and hot-water boilers has led to the widespread development of centralized heating plants, by means of which steam or hot water is supplied to buildings from street mains in the same way that gas or water is supplied.

The advantages of this plan, which has strongly appealed to the average citizen, are: the elimination of coal bins and ash piles; and greater ultimate economy in the coal necessary to heat a given district.

Heating from a central station, of course, has its limitations. It is economically feasible only for thickly settled communities, such as exist in cities and towns of 7000 population and upward. Heat can be transmitted successfully only a limited distance on account of loss by condensation and radiation, and the frictional resistance offered by the pipes through which the steam or water flows. But in large cities, where the population is becoming more and more congested, not only in the so-called tenement districts, but also in the better residence portions where the flat or apartment building is taking the place of the individual residence, these limitations are practically nullified and the opportunities for the economical operation of central heating plants are practically unlimited.

LONG-DISTANCE GAS TRANSMISSION.

Still another solution of the smoke problem is suggested in the transmission of producer gas from the mines to cities and various substations in the manufacturing centers, there to be burned in gas engines for power

and piped to private consumers for heating and cooking purposes. Some are claiming that it will be more economical to set up a producer plant at the pit's mouth and pipe the gas to the various industrial centers where it is required for electric generating, heating and furnace work, than to produce the power direct at the mine and send it to the cities over wires.

THE GOVERNMENT'S PART IN THE CAMPAIGN.

The United States Geological Survey, with George Otis Smith at its head, is taking a large part in this problem, not that the Government cares whether power is generated by the gas engine or the steam engine, but to see to it that the fuel resources of the country, upon which future prosperity depends, are utilized to their highest efficiency and not wasted.

The Technologic Branch, which has special charge of these investigations, is under the direction of Joseph A. Holmes, expert in charge, and H. M. Wilson, chief engineer. Prof. R. H. Fernald directs the gas-engine investigations, and Prof. L. P. Breckenridge, director of the Illinois University Experiment Station, has charge of the steaming section. These men are represented at the Government's plant by Dwight T. Randall, engineer, who has given much thought to the smoke problem.



THE SUN OBSCURED BY SMOKE IN A BIG MANUFACTURING CITY.

HARVARD'S NEW PRESIDENT.

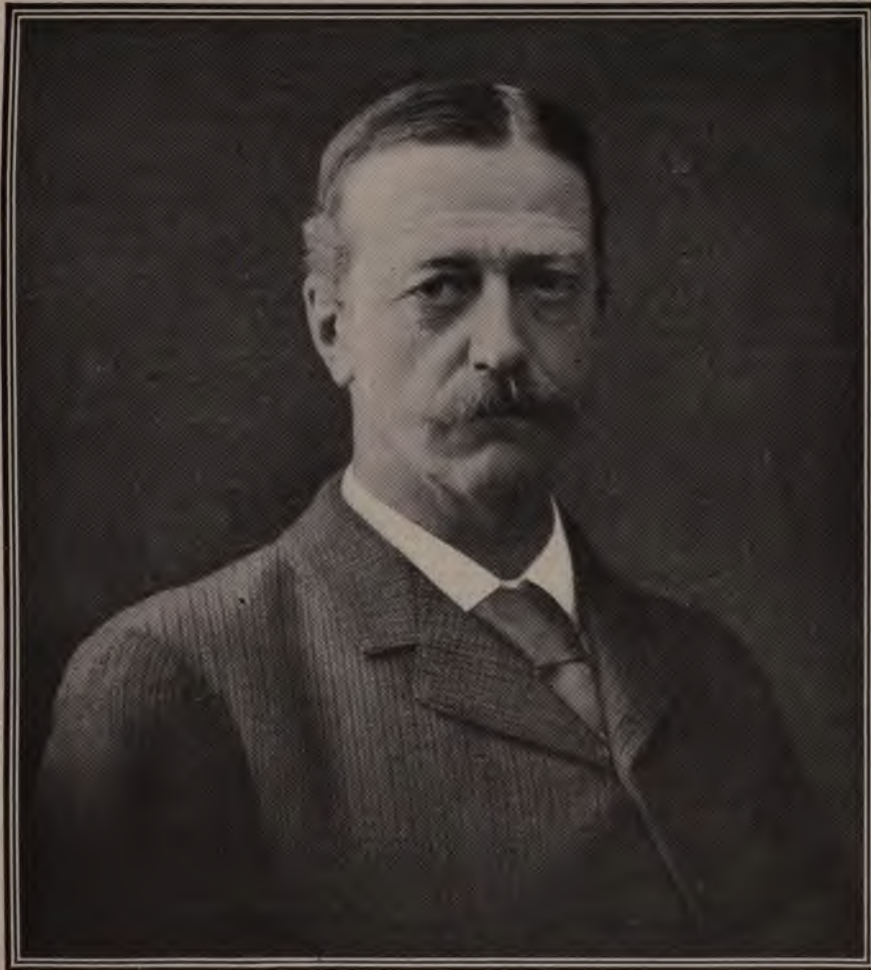
BY FREDERIC AUSTIN OGG.

ABBOTT LAWRENCE LOWELL,—lawyer, scholar, teacher, humanist,—has been elected to the presidency of Harvard University and will assume the duties of the office at some time before the close of the current academic year. In reviewing the event one is tempted to say that the inevitable has happened, because for a good many years, and particularly since the announcement three months ago of the prospective retirement of President Eliot, the choice of Professor Lowell to the succession has been no less generally conceded than desired by everybody conversant with the situation, Harvard men and men of other academic affiliations alike. The problem brought to the fore by President Eliot's resignation was admittedly momentous, not alone for the university, but for the higher interests of the country, and it is not to be inferred from the rapidity with which it appears to have been solved that the action of the constituted authorities has been either hasty or perfunctory. There is every reason to believe that the field has been carefully canvassed, very much as it would have been had there been no overtowering and obvious candidate, and that the Board of Fellows, which constitutes the corporation of Harvard College and which, save for the ratifying power of the Board of Overseers, possesses the full prerogative of election, weighed deliberately the qualifications and availability of at least a dozen of the scores of men who have received more or less public mention in connection with the office. Professor Lowell was found to offer the highest combination of qualifications, and his election followed as a matter of course.

If it be true, as President Eliot has more than once declared, that the presidency of an American university is the happiest of all callings, it is also perhaps the most exacting. The day when the college president need be little more than a respectable theologian and a satisfactory public speaker has forever passed. The individual who stands nowadays at the head of Yale or Columbia or Stanford must be at once an eminent scholar and an aggressive man of affairs,—a seer in the realm of the intellectual and little less

than a wizard in that of business administration. It is probably not too much to say that, all things considered, the presidency of Harvard University is the most difficult office in America to fill to the entire satisfaction of all reasonable demands. Whether Harvard is still to be regarded as the foremost American seat of learning may be a debatable question, but nobody would deny that it stands very near the top and that the academic world has grown accustomed to look to the head of this institution as the natural leader of our educated citizenship. The circumstance of President Eliot's long and conspicuous service has mightily magnified the importance of the office and has thereby imposed a very unusual responsibility upon the successor. Both inside and outside of the walls of the university the president of Harvard must be all that the president of any other similar institution is, and somewhat more. The principal qualifications,—some of them absolutely essential, others at least highly desirable,—which have been thought to fit Professor Lowell pre-eminently for the position are five in number. They may be taken very fairly to indicate what Harvard wants and expects in a successor to Charles William Eliot.

In the first place, Mr. Lowell is of the solidest New England stock; and, although this must not be understood to have constituted a *sine qua non*, it may be assumed that in the eyes of the seven good Bostonians who comprise the corporation of Harvard College the accident of New England nativity and Bostonian parentage would not be an insuperable obstacle. "You have an aristocracy here," declares the Italian historian Ferrero, who has lately been lecturing in the United States,—“an aristocracy of culture and achievement, about which we never hear in Europe.” It is to this aristocracy, represented perhaps most conspicuously by the Adams family, but hardly less so by the Lowells, that Harvard's new president belongs. The Lowells in America have a history that runs all the way back to the migration of Percival Lowell (or Lowle) from Bristol, England, to Newburyport in 1639. A John Lowell graduated from Harvard in



PROF. A. LAWRENCE LOWELL, PRESIDENT-ELECT OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

1721, and others of the same name in 1760 and 1786. The John of 1760 was a member of the Continental Congress and, from 1784 to 1802, of the Harvard Corporation. His son, Francis Cabot Lowell, graduated at Harvard in 1793 and became the principal agent in the introduction in this country of the manufacture of cotton. It was in his honor that the city of Lowell was named. Francis Cabot's son John died early in life, bequeathing the sum of \$250,000 to maintain in Boston annual courses of free public lectures on religion, science, literature, and art, as a result of which the Lowell Institute, which plays so important a part in the cultural life of Boston to-day, was opened in 1839. Of the same generation was Charles Lowell, son of the Continental Congressman and father of James Russell

Lowell, this most renowned of all the Lowells having been an uncle of the new Harvard president.

The more immediate ancestors of Professor Lowell were stalwart captains of industry. His grandfather, John Amory Lowell, was a builder of mills, an organizer of capital, and a promoter of trade, as well as a man of cultivated tastes and a liberal patron of the arts, while his father, Augustus Lowell, was not a whit less masterful in the realm of business and perhaps even more conspicuously public-spirited. On his mother's side, Professor Lowell is a grandson of Abbott Lawrence, a splendid Boston business man of the old school, who served his country ably in the early '50's at the court of St. James, and whose name is a synonym in New England annals for administrative

acumen, personal integrity, and patriotic fervor. Like President Eliot, Mr. Lowell comes thus of sturdy stock; few men are as well born, none better. And while in this country we pride ourselves, rather too much sometimes, upon our indifference to the accidents of birth, it must be admitted that, other things being equal, good birth is, after all, an inestimable advantage. It is interesting to recall in passing that at the time when President Eliot was a humble instructor in chemistry in Harvard College in the enjoyment of a salary of \$1500 per year, John Amory Lowell offered him a position commanding \$5000 per year in the Lowell mills. The youthful scholar could not be tempted, and a few years later he had his reward in his election to the presidency of the college at the hand of a corporation whose guiding spirit was this same J. A. Lowell, grandfather of the boy who was destined in turn to become Eliot's successor.

The second qualification possessed by Professor Lowell for the presidency of Harvard is the fact that he is a Harvard man, not alone by inheritance and training, but in instinct, ideals, and spirit. Born in Boston, December 13, 1856, he entered Harvard at the age of seventeen and graduated with the class of 1877. By the testimony of men who were in college with him, and from the records themselves, it appears that young Lowell entered fully and freely into the student life of the day, even to the extent of participating in athletic contests and winning numerous distance runs. He was a member of the Hasty Pudding, the Institute, and several other clubs. He took highest honors in mathematics and at the graduation exercises was assigned a "disquisition," the most honorable form of commencement oration awarded in those days. In 1880, after the customary three years of professional study, he received his degree in law, likewise from Harvard, and was admitted to the bar. Returning to the halls of the university in 1897 as a lecturer in government and in 1900 as Eaton professor of the science of government, his activities during the past decade have largely centered in the service of his alma mater. One of the newer and finer Harvard buildings, which was erected half a dozen years ago in consequence of an anonymous gift to the university, is generally thought to be a monument to Professor Lowell's generosity. There can be no question that the fact that Lowell is a recognized product and representative of all that

is best in the institution weighed heavily with the seven Harvard officials upon whom it fell to elect the new president.

In the third place, Professor Lowell has been deemed to merit promotion to the presidency because of his attainments in the domain of scholarship and as a man of letters. From 1880 until 1897 he was actively engaged in the practice of law in partnership with his cousin, Judge Francis Cabot Lowell, of the United States Circuit Court, and the fifth of the Lowells to be a member of the Harvard Corporation. During these seventeen years Mr. Lowell acquired an extensive clientele and proved particularly efficient in the administration of large estates and similar vested interests. Just as, however, the cotton industry had never been able to absorb the energies of his father and grandfather to the exclusion of the things of the mind and soul, so the practice of the law never became with the younger Lowell the all-dominating interest. The family tradition of scholarship was too strong. In Mr. Lowell it took the form of a decided bent toward the study of government, and its first fruit was the publication, in 1888, of a little volume of essays on government whose originality and lucidity attracted wide attention. For several years thereafter a series of studies was followed up, both in Europe and America, which culminated in 1897 in the publication of a two-volume work entitled "Governments and Parties of Continental Europe," which has remained from that day to this the most scholarly and most widely used treatise on the subject. More than one prominent member of the Harvard faculty to-day won his first appointment at the hand of the university by the publication of a notable contribution to some important branch of human knowledge, and it was in this way that Mr. Lowell came to the position he has lately occupied. Upon the publication of "Governments and Parties" the authorities of the university were made to realize that a scholar of unusually conspicuous attainments was dwelling at their very doors. Mr. Lowell was accordingly made a lecturer in government in 1890 and three years later he was appointed to full professorship in that subject, one of the first of its kind in American academic history. It would be difficult to measure the influence already exerted upon the colleges and universities of the United States, through them upon the citizenship of the country, by the Harvard systematization

the study of government, for which Professor Lowell has been primarily responsible.

During the past twelvemonth Mr. Lowell's reputation as a scholar has been greatly enhanced by the publication of his two-volume work, "The Government of England." The critics everywhere agree that this is one of the really notable books of the decade, the first comprehensive and thoroughly satisfactory presentation in English of the principles, policies, methods, and spirit of the government of the British Empire in all of its phases and relations. Already Lowell's England has proved for the English what Bryce's American Commonwealth proved for Americans. "In breadth of treatment," says one reviewer, "in accuracy of perspective, in the passionless character of the opinions set forth, and in the readableness of their narrative, these two works readily suggest each other and the student of public affairs will put them side by side on the same high plane." It is of interest to recall that Professor Lowell has but lately succeeded Mr. Bryce as president of the American Political Science Association. Harvard's new head is a scholar not alone of national, but of international prominence. No American stands higher in his own special field.

A fourth fact, with which the world at large is not so conversant, is that Mr. Lowell is a man of well-tested administrative capacity. Not merely that in his former profession he was accustomed to give his attention particularly to the legal aspects of business administration, but in at least two fields he has had occasion to give concrete public evidence of his abilities in this direction. As sole trustee of the Lowell Institute since 1900 he has had nearly a decade of experience as the governing authority of a unique and successful educational enterprise. He has had the care of the heavy investments by which the institute is maintained. He has controlled single-handed its policy and its widely varied activities. And he has not alone held it true to the purposes of its founders, but has enormously extended the field of its operations, as, for example, by providing under its auspices for the duplication of Harvard courses in history, government, economics, and the like in Boston, absolutely without charge to anybody who may care to enroll, but credited toward a Harvard de-

gree when work equivalent to that required in Cambridge is satisfactorily performed. In another branch of administration, still more strictly academic, Professor Lowell has had large experience. For many years he has been a highly efficient member of the executive committee of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and in that capacity he has had opportunity to acquire familiarity with the details of an elaborate and highly organized system of instruction in applied science,—a qualification which will be of the utmost importance in the president of Harvard when, a few years hence, the university comes into possession of the millions which the late George McKay bequeathed to it for the advancement of instruction in applied science. Within the inner circle at Harvard Professor Lowell has long been recognized as a level-headed, progressive, business-like sort of man, and there are few if any members of the faculty whose judgment, especially in administrative matters, carries greater weight.

Finally, Professor Lowell meets the supreme demand that the president of a great American university shall be, in the fullest and finest sense of the word, an American gentleman. In his public career a model of sincerity, integrity, and efficiency, Mr. Lowell in his private life is an embodiment of all that is exemplary. Possessed of abundant means, he has lived modestly and without ostentation, giving his best energies to his profession and his leisure to the pursuits of the scholar. He is distinctively a man of action. He works hard and he puts unlimited vim into his recreation. His manner is democratic, his interests cosmopolitan, and his devotion to the great enterprises with which he has been connected whole-hearted. In America to-day a thousand men succeed in spite of poverty to one who succeeds in spite of riches. Professor Lowell belongs to the honorable minority, as does also his scarcely less renowned brother, Percival, the astronomer. "A nimble mind in a nimble body," runs one characterization of him; "a worthy type of the oldest New England stock broadened by extensive travel and study in foreign lands, an aristocrat by birth and attainments, but a democrat by nature; one whom Harvard may well give to the world as the first citizen of her academic commonwealth."

"IK MARVEL," MAN AND WRITER.

BY JOSEPH B. GILDER.

NOT every American can follow the example set by the late Donald G. Mitchell. However much a majority of us may long to withdraw from the mad turmoil of the towns and refresh our minds, and bodies, and possibly immortal souls, by quiet living, close to Nature's heart, the web of circumstance holds us enmeshed. "Confined and pestered in this pinfold here," we "strive to keep up a frail and feverish being,"—and not without success, so far as its feverishness is concerned! It came to Mr. Mitchell at the age of three and thirty to choose between the strenuous life of the city and the simple life as it is lived by gentlemen farmers, and he chose the latter by a unanimous vote. Nor was the choice made in ignorance of towered cities and the busy hum of men. He was intimately acquainted with the New York of the early Victorian period, so to call it, and had he seen fit to pitch his tent in Manhattan would have found many a congenial lodge-fire and peace-pipe to cheer his leisure hours among the literary braves of this great camp; and perchance would have laid up a richer store of wampum. But the voice of Nature called, and he heard and heeded it.

It was not Nature riotous and rampant that appealed to him. A lodge in some vast wilderness would have spread its allurements for him in vain. Shade he coveted, but no "boundless contiguity" thereof. Nature somewhat curbed and bitted, her wildness partially restrained, her tangled locks clipped a little and not wholly innocent of comb and brush, was the goddess of his reasoned and temperate worship: a fact adequately emphasized by his adoption of the landscape-gardener's profession. He coveted the shelter to grow ripe, the leisure to grow wise, that his contemporary Matthew Arnold discovered to be so difficult of attainment even in the less strenuous life of old England. Both of these he found at no great distance from the metropolis. A thorough search preceded his selection of the favored spot destined to attain distinction in the literary annals of America as "Edgewood." And the choice of a career in the country, and of the neighborhood of New Haven and her uni-

versity as its setting, was apparently never regretted. But his life did not begin here, after all, and it is worth while to see by what experience he had been prepared to derive from it the maximum of culture and enjoyment.

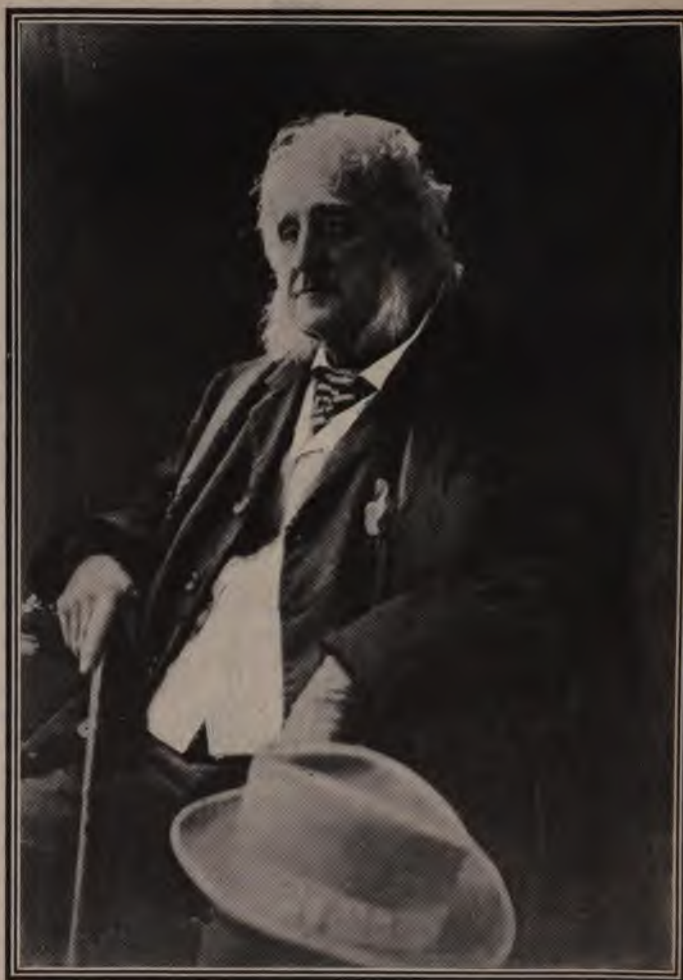
AN AUTHOR SIXTY YEARS AGO.

Grandson of a Yale graduate of 1763 and son of a member of the class of 1809, Mr. Mitchell (whose own graduation, at the age of nineteen, occurred in 1841) was a native of Norwich, Conn., where he came into being in a Congregational parsonage. On leaving Yale, he went to work on his grandfather's farm (his father having been dead for ten years); and thus early in life won a prize for designs for farm buildings. As a contributor to what is now the *Country Gentleman*, he sent letters from Europe in 1844-'46, when a threat of consumption (a malady already prevalent in his family) drove him abroad in quest of health. The memory, not of his service in the American Consulate at Liverpool, but of his tramps in England and on the Continent (France, Holland, Austria) and of his sojourn on the island of Jersey is told in his first book, "Fresh Gleanings," issued over sixty years ago, before Longfellow's "Hiawatha," Lowell's "Biglow Papers," or Emerson's "Representative Men" had seen the light of day. Studying law in New York (after traveling for a while in the South) partly undid the good effects of his life abroad, and in '48 he crossed the sea again,—to England and Switzerland, and to France, whose revolutionary condition furnished the theme of his second book, "The Battle Summer." There were great goings-on in Paris, that year—events that called for the pen of a Carlyle rather than an Ik Marvel to do them justice.

FROM NEW YORK TO "EDGEWOOD."

He began to find himself on his return to New York; for now, under an impenetrable veil of anonymity, he launched the weekly numbers of *The Lorgnette*; or, *Studies of the Town, by an Opera Goer*,—satirical sketches recalling the *Salmagundi* papers of an earlier generation: as he himself put it,

"satirical comment and earnest sermonizing against the worship of Mammon." It was in 1850, however,—when Hawthorne's "Scarlet Letter" was just ready for the printer,—that "Ik Marvel" sprang into fame, through the publication of the "Reveries of a Bachelor," based upon a paper which he had contributed first to the *Southern Literary Messenger*, and afterward to *Harper's Monthly*, then in its first volume. "Dream Life" followed a year later. The year '53 saw him married, and installed as one of Mr. W. D. Howells' predecessors in the American Consulate at Venice,—a post that offered welcome opportunities for the study of architecture, art, and history. But in 1854 came his resignation; and in July of the following year he bought the 200 acres of land which became his future home, "My Farm of Edgewood." This was the turning-point in his career.



THE LATE DONALD G. MITCHELL ("IK MARVEL.")

Had physical soundness and vigor been his portion, he might have become an industrious and prosperous lawyer,—a leader of the New York Bar,—with little or no leisure to gratify his literary ambitions. But the decision almost forced upon him by the state of his health gave him the opportunity of cultivating not only the soil but the muses; and from this time on he led what must be regarded as an ideal life for any man-of-letters who is not enamored, as Browning was, of teeming streets and crowded drawing-rooms. Landscape-gardening was an avocation to which his studies of art proved usefully contributive. He wrote not only essays and travel-sketches and historical studies, but lectures on art and literature to which the undergraduates at Yale gladly crowded. Literary notabilities found a cordial welcome at

the house which rose in place of the old building that stood on the lawn at Edgewood when the place came into his possession; and the students from New Haven were wont to make the author's home a place of frequent pilgrimage. At Tarrytown in 1883 he made an address in commemoration of Irving's hundredth birthday,—the Father of American *belles lettres*, with whom he had long since enjoyed personal intercourse. Among his cherished autographs were certain letters from Irving which he prized more highly, perhaps, than those of Hawthorne, of whom also he was a correspondent, or those of Dickens, Dr. Holmes, or Horace Greeley; or the roughly sketched plans of Bayard Taylor's country home at Kennett Square, made for mine host of Edgewood by the many-languaged bard and globe-trotter.

MR. MITCHELL'S PERSONAL APPEARANCE.

Professor Beers, of Yale, who knew him well, and for many a long year, thus describes his appearance when old age began to draw near: "Rather under than over the average height, broad-shouldered and squarely shaped, the complexion fresh and ruddy, the nose slightly aquiline, the lips firmly shut, the glance of the eye kindly but keen." It was a face that went very well with one's conception of the author of Mr. Mitchell's books (such agreement is none too common); and there was a likeness between him and his contemporary and fellow-lover of the quiet life with plenty of outdoors in it, the Hon. John Bigelow, that may, perhaps, be attributed to the similarity of their tastes and habits, as well as to the shape of their heads and features and the cut of their hair.

HIS WRITINGS.

Mr. Mitchell's writings group themselves under several convenient captions, in which appears a wide diversity. Travels, Sketches, and Studies include his first book, "Fresh Gleanings," and one of his latest, "Bound Together," in which are preserved a paper on Titian, reminiscent of his official sojourn in Italy, the Washington Irving address, etc., and other writings not gathered up till the author had attained his grand climacteric. Sentimental and Literary Reflection characterize "Dream Life" and the "Reveries." Under Country Homes and Country Life we may place "My Farm of Edgewood," "Wet Days at Edgewood," "a kind of Georgic in prose," and "Out-of-Town Places." "English Lands, Letters, and Kings," in four volumes, and the two volumes of "American Lands and Letters" (no "Kings" necessary in *this* title, since every adult male American claims it for himself, by right divine) would bring the bead-roll to an end, were it not that the author, without any very audible calling or indisputable election, had seen fit to extend it by writing certain works of fiction,—one novel ("a longish pastoral," as he called it) known as "Dr. Johns"; and "Seven Stories" or "scattered tales,"—like the larger work, "half romance and half real,"—a rather difficult blend.

Only a year or so ago, his publishers brought out a uniform and definitive illustrated edition of the Works of Donald G. Mitchell, handsomely printed, and bound in various styles, to meet the tastes (and purses) of his many admirers. For this edi-

tion Mr. Mitchell wrote an introduction briefly reviewing the course of his writings, and personally sanctioning this revised text of them. It was a happy thought thus to honor him in his lifetime, and the project and its execution afforded him much delight.

In his introduction to the Edgewood Edition, Mr. Mitchell shows that, contrary to the common experience of mankind, one of the best ways to preserve a secret is to confide it to a number of discreet confidants; for the authorship of the *Lorgnette* was known, not only to the publisher, but to Henry J. Raymond and Samuel Bowles and yet another journalist, to Charles Scribner, Dr. Fordyce Barker, and Samuel J. Tilden,—at least seven men in all, who, so far from betraying the secret, deliberately involved the matter in a constantly thickening veil of obscurity. In the same place, he tells us that a shelf in his library is adorned with forty totally different imprints of the "Reveries," the expiration of the copyright having enabled any one to reprint the book who wished to. From only one of these unauthorized editions was any revenue received,—a conscientious London publisher having sent the author an honorarium of fifty dollars. Some of the reprints were sold for two pennies, some for five dollars or more; and the presentation copies received from London, Leipzig, Berlin, and various home cities vary widely, as might well be supposed, in their appeal to the fastidious collector.

EXPONENT OF THE UNDERGRADUATE SPIRIT.

The popular taste that gave to the "Reveries of a Bachelor" and its companion volume, "Dream Life," a vogue greater and more enduring than fell to any other of the author's writings was not in error. Other men have written essays, stories, novels, travel sketches better than Ik Marvel's; but none has so happily expressed the dreams and aspirations of the young collegian or youth of college-going age, in moments of leisurely reflection. That they are tinged with sentiment,—not to say steeped in it,—may make them the less tonic, but not the less true to the moods they exploit. If ever there was an author who shared and expressed the "long thoughts" common to nearly all undergraduates, it was the young man who wrote these books two generations ago. That they "voice" the moods of the youth of to-day no less than those of his father or grandfather, is proved by their persistent popularity. And one is not surprised that

they appealed, and still appeal, to the type of reader for whose use and behoof they were written, when one runs through them to-day, and comes upon passages such as this, from the "Reveries":

At the first touch, the delicate edges of the cigar crimple, a thin line of smoke rises,—doubtfully for awhile, and with a coy delay; but after a hearty respiration or two, it grows strong, and my cigar is fairly lighted.

That first taste of the new smoke and of the fragrant leaf is very grateful; it has a bloom about it, that you wish might last. It is like your first love,—fresh, genial, and rapturous. Like that, it fills up all the craving of your soul; and the light, blue wreaths of smoke, like the roseate clouds that hang around the morning of your heart life, cut you off from the chill atmosphere of mere worldly companionship, and make a gorgeous firmament for your fancy to riot in.

I do not speak now of those later, and manlier passions, into which judgment must be thrusting its cold tones, and when all the sweet tumult of your heart has mellowed into the sober ripeness of affection. But I mean that boyish burning, which belongs to every poor mortal's lifetime, and which bewilders him with the thought that he has reached the highest point of human joy before he has tasted any of that bitterness, from which alone our highest human joys have sprung.

How perfectly the same note was repeated in "Dream Life," the lines describing the collegian's last hours with his *alma mater* sufficiently attest:

As the night wanes, you wander, for a last look, toward the dingy walls, that have made for you so long a home. The old broken expectancies, the days of glee, the triumphs, the rivalries, the defeats, the friendships, are recalled with a fluttering of the heart, that pride cannot wholly subdue. You step upon the Chapel-porch, in the quiet of the night, as you would step on the graves of friends. You pace back and forth in the wan moonlight, dreaming of that dim life which opens wide and long, from the morrow. The width and length oppress you; they crush down your struggling self-consciousness, like Titans dealing with pigmies. A single piercing thought of the vast and shadowy future which is so near, tears off on the instant all the gew-gaws of pride,—strips away the vanity that doubles your big-ness, and forces you down to the bare nakedness of what you truly are!

Many have struck a similar note since

these words were penned; but to the literature dear,—and deservedly dear,—to frequenters of the classroom and the campus, the dormitory and the mess-hall, no addition has been made that vies with these two books in their appeal to the unchanging spirit of ingenuous youth.

Minor literary tasks to which Ik Marvel set himself were the preparation of a book for young readers, "About Old Story-Tellers"; the publication of a genealogy of the Woodbridge family (his mother's) compiled by one of his brothers; a manual for laying out grounds and gardens, called "Rural Studies"; and a volume in memory of General Daniel Tyler. Magazine-editing was a work not unknown to him. Farming was almost a passion with him, and the cultivation of the soil claimed a large proportion of his waking hours for many years; but he was a born writer, if ever there was one, and fairly earned his eminence in letters.

MR. MITCHELL'S CONTEMPORARIES.

The passing of Ik Marvel on December 15 last, at the ripe age of eighty-six years and eight months, draws attention to the smallness of the group of those who may fairly be called his contemporaries. To one of these I have already alluded,—Mr. Bigelow, his senior by nearly four and a half years. Mrs. Julia Ward Howe was born two years, and Dr. Edward Everett Hale nine days, before April 12, 1822, when Mr. Mitchell first saw the light. George William Curtis (who, like him, had come into personal touch with Irving) was younger than he by two years; and among his juniors (with the late Charles Eliot Norton), though yet in their eighties, are Col. T. W. Higginson and Henry Charles Lea. Of those who have passed three score years and ten (as Mr. Stedman, Mr. Aldrich, Bishop Potter, Dr. Daniel Coit Gilman, Mrs. Wister, and Miss Wormsley had, who passed away, like Professor Norton, only last year), the remaining notables are Dr. Weir Mitchell, W. D. Howells, and Mark Twain. A choice band, but a very small one!



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PRESIDENT WILLIAM C. BROWN OF THE NEW YORK CENTRAL RAILROAD.

(Mr. Brown, who on January 6 was elected president of the New York Central & Hudson River Railroad Company and assumes his new duties on February 1, has been in railroad work continuously for the past forty years, beginning as a section hand on the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul, later becoming a telegraph operator and serving the Illinois Central, the Rock Island, and the Burlington as train dispatcher. In 1896 he became general manager of the Burlington system, and five years later was elected vice-president and general manager of the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern; after a year in that position he became vice-president of the New York Central, from which latter position he has just been promoted to the presidency, succeeding W. H. Newman, who recently resigned because he found the work too onerous. Mr. Brown has taken an active part in the recent agitation for higher freight rates.)



THE KING AND QUEEN OF ITALY AND THEIR CHILDREN.

QUEEN HELENA, HEROINE OF THE ITALIAN PEOPLE.

AN untiring, devoted, self-effacing work in the alleviation of human misery such as has seldom been put to the credit of a crowned head of Europe has now made Queen Helena the idol and almost the patron saint of the Italian people. World-wide interest in her personality has been aroused by the heroic part played by the Italian Queen in the work of rescuing the unfortunate victims of the terrible earthquake in Sicily and Calabria.

As soon as the news of the terrible fate which had overtaken Messina and Reggio reached the King, who was then at Capua, in the neighborhood where he had been shooting, he resolved to hurry to the scene, accompanied by a few staff officers. Queen Helena immediately demanded that she be allowed to join the party. "They are my people as well as yours," she said. She was bent also on supporting her husband under what she knew must prove a trying ordeal.

As they took their seats in the special train that was to carry them to Calabria a statesman of some eminence who attended them to the railway station remarked: "All will be well when once your majesties reach the

stricken district." "I wish you would not talk nonsense," replied King Victor, testily. However, there was much more truth in this courtier's remarks than in those of the men who tried to persuade King Canute that he could check the rising tide. The King and Queen of Italy are beloved by all Italians, and their portraits will be found in the cottage of every Calabrian peasant.

KING VICTOR AND QUEEN HELENA AT MESSINA.

Their appearance among the ruins and victims of the earthquake had much the same effect as the sight of Napoleon on his army drawn up in line of battle. When the royal pair reached their destination their hearts were wrung and the eyes of the Queen filled with tears. The population at Reggio were starving. They manifested their sufferings by the most terrible paroxysms of terror and despair. In fact, the crowds collected amid the ruins seemed to have completely lost their reason. When they caught sight of the royal couple they uttered a wild shriek in concert, like the chorus of lepers who greeted Christ and said, "Have mercy upon us."

Yet the royal presence, and the assurance given them by the King and Queen that succor was at hand, seemed to calm them to a considerable degree. Their excitement was to be explained by the fact that they had been without food for four days, and had stood shelterless all that time under rain and a cutting wind. Then there was the terrible sight of the orphaned children whose parents had perished in the falling walls and roofs. A spectator tells us that the Queen as well as the King at once went about the ruins, extricating those who were still alive in half-buried buildings, and distributing the food and wine with which their train had been loaded. They worked hard at the head of a gang of engineers and laboring men, and while she wept, Helena toiled untiringly with the rest.

UNTING HEROISM OF THE QUEEN.

She accompanied the King in the steam-launch in which he surveyed the shores of the ruined cities. For three days she worked as a sister of charity. She remained for some time on board the warship *Regina Margherita*, which had been transformed into a hospital, attending to the injured, helping the nurses and doctors, speaking a kind word to every one. It would not be easy to describe how comforting was her presence among the poor sufferers. They called her the Angel of Charity. The Royal Majesty was left behind. She wore a simple dress, and mixed unceremoniously among the soldiers and civilians of the rescue parties. She did not take the slightest care of herself, and seemed offended when somebody reminded her of the dangers to which she exposed herself, or begged her to take some rest.

Rest? The Queen seemed never tired. She was everywhere, going from one part of the ruined town to another, always encouraging, consoling, and helping with her own hands. She looked very pale, and, indeed; the sight of so many miseries might well impress her terribly, but it was wonderful how she controlled herself. Once, however, was she found weeping. A sailor from the Russian warship *Slava* was trying to rescue a woman from a house that had collapsed, when a wall fell on him and killed him. "*Povero eróe*" (the poor hero), murmured the Queen, and her eyes filled with tears.

The heroism and compassionate sympathy exhibited by the young Queen, indeed, have roused the enthusiasm of the whole country. A quite unprecedented incident took place at

an extraordinary session of the Italian Parliament soon after the disaster, when Signor Marcora, the presiding officer, presented to the members an account of the measures of rescue and relief which the government had undertaken. He spoke under the stress of visible emotion, and concluded by saying: "And here, in the name of the Italian people, I offer my thanks to Queen Helena, 'the first lady of Italy,' for her share in the work of rescue and relief." The whole assembly rose to their feet and cheered wildly.

HER "HEROIC DOMESTICITY."

And, indeed, Helena of Italy is no ordinary woman. She is not exactly a genius like Elizabeth of Roumania, the Carmen Sylva of literature. She does not set the fashions like Alexandra of England, nor is she altogether overshadowed and eclipsed by her husband, as is the case with the Empress Victoria of Germany. She is no cipher like the lady who pines in Peterhof in the wilderness of a vast bureaucracy which divides her from her people. Queen Helena is a conspicuous figure in the domestic, social, educational, and political life of Italy. In her home in the palace of the Quirinal she is to be found with her children. Of these the Princess Yolanda is nearly eight, her sister Mafalda is six, and the Crown Prince Umberto is a little over four years old. The youngest child, a girl, who has been named Giovanna, was born November 13, 1907.

The children are all beautiful. They have the dark hair and eyes of their mother, and the boy, as he sits on his mother's knee, is evidently more a Piedmontese than a Montenegrin. He has the proud, determined look of his father. He has been the special object of her solicitude, and for months there stood in her own sitting-room a cradle, and the arms of Italy surmounted the arch, and when she rang her bell the *bonne* would bring in the royal child, who was kissed by his mother and rocked to sleep by her own hand. The two older girls are said to be very clever. They have governesses, who teach them the elements of French, German, English, and Russian, and they have already learned a few sentences of common phrases in politeness and greeting in all these tongues.

Queen Helena is a woman of semi-oriental beauty. Her skin is dark, but clear. Her eyes are remarkable for their expression, large, languorous, deep set under her brows; they alternately sparkle with intelligence, or amusement, and they can also flash with an-

ger and indignation. Her mouth is distinguished by its proud, curved, deeply indented upper lip, and, altogether, she presents quite a conspicuous figure, even among the belles of Rome, Milan, and Venice.

A MONTENEGRIN PRINCESS.

She was born and still remains a mountaineer, in spirit and courage. Her father, Nicolas, Prince of Montenegro, lives in a low-roofed, one-storied palace at Cetinje, in a deep valley, surrounded by mountains, and 2000 feet above the level of the sea. Cetinje looks more like a village than the capital of a state, yet the tall kilted sentinels that stand at the gate of that humble palace are prouder of their prince and of their country than if they served the Czar of all the Russias. In this palace Helena was born in 1872, one of a family of nine. The civil list of the Prince of Montenegro amounts to about \$25,000, and the revenue is strained to supply his two elder sons with \$6000 each. His six daughters, therefore, were brought up in the strictest economy.

Helena was always fond of an outdoor life. There are practically no roads in Montenegro, for the inhabitants will not make it easy for cavalry or artillery to invade their country. The young princess, however, knew well the narrow, winding foot-paths of Tsernegora, the Black Mountain, and, like a real Highland girl, could trap the fox and accompany her brothers in hunting the bear. She could handle the rifle as well as they did, and was always made welcome at the peasant cottages, with their single door and window, where a draught of milk refreshed her after the chase. The Montenegrins are of course Servians, or, at least, Slavs. Two things they are brought up to hate, the Austrians,—“Schwabs,” as they opprobriously style them,—and the Turks. Among the courts of Europe the palace at Cetinje was like the simple parsonage house in a parish of millionaires. It was a palace of plain living and high thinking, the home of purity, honor, truthfulness, and patriotism. A woman can walk alone from one end of the principality to the other, day or night, without being molested. This spirit animated the family of Nicolas; indeed, it animates the whole nation, whose characteristics are by an English poet laureate said to be frugality and chastity.

The six sisters of the princely house of Montenegro, however, were not destined to pine, forgotten, in that lofty valley of the

Balkans. Montenegro is poor, but racially it has rich relations, and among these is Russia. Thus, it came to pass that Czar Alexander III. of Russia undertook to provide for the education of the Montenegrin princesses. He sent them to the most fashionable and aristocratic school at St. Petersburg and bore the whole expense of giving them the highest educational advantages. Helena was the special favorite of this stern autocrat, and became habituated to the intimate court life of the metropolis and was chosen as the particular friend of Princess Xenia, the sister of the present Czar. It is said that Alexander III. intended Helena for the Crown Prince, now the Czar, but Nicholas was at that time wearing his heart out for Princess Alix of Hesse. After completing her education, Princess Helena returned to her native home, and became once more a highland girl, occupying herself with outdoor pastimes, with shooting and hunting. Her studies, meanwhile, were not neglected, and she is now considered one of the most accomplished of European queens. She speaks four languages, and plays with skill both on the piano and the violin.

MARRIAGE TO THE PRINCE OF NAPLES.

It was at Venice that she first met the then heir apparent to the Italian throne. Vittorio Emmanuele, Prince of Naples, was staying with King Umberto and Queen Margherita in a palace overlooking the Laguna Viva when Helena arrived with the Prince of Montenegro's mother. The dashing young Italian soldier, the Prince of Naples, attracted the notice of the Princess Helena during a gala performance at the great theater. He had in his turn been fascinated by the unique loveliness and grace of the Montenegrin lady. It was a case of love at first sight. This was in 1895. They subsequently met at the coronation of Nicholas II. in the same year, and became engaged. King Umberto pondered long before giving his consent to the match, and Crispi urged upon him the necessity of allying the royal house of Savoy with some more powerful dynasty. Umberto finally consented to the marriage and dismissed his minister with the words, “My son has chosen a princess belonging to a brave and noble race, who have fought for their liberty and independence. The house of Savoy can hope for no more desirable alliance than that which is based upon the possession of such virtues.”

The marriage was accordingly celebrated, on October 4, 1896, the Princess having previously passed from the Orthodox Greek Church into the Roman Catholic fold. At the conclusion of the bridal ceremony 400 carrier pigeons were let loose before the Church of Santa Maria Degli Angeli, to bear the news in all directions to Italy and Montenegro.

Helena proved quite an acquisition to the royal circle in the Quirinal. Her brightness and vivacity spread happiness wherever she went, and Umberto and Margherita looked upon her as a daughter. It is the boast of the Italians of to-day that they are monarchists but not courtiers, and the reception which the Montenegrin princess met with among the aristocracy was at first by no means flattering. She, however, showed herself as proud as they were, and could be outspoken when necessary. She owed a great deal to the friendship of Queen Margherita, whom she invariably accompanied on her afternoon drive. When the royal carriage swept along the Corso, with its four horses and postilions in red frogged jackets, yellow breeches, and post boots, Margherita bowed in answer to the salute of the passersby, with that smile which is celebrated in every capital of Europe. But the brunette girl with the graceful figure who sat beside her also received the respectful homage of the crowd, for the Princess of Naples was fast becoming known and appreciated at her true worth.

The great opportunity of her life came sooner than she had ever wished or hoped. The sudden and premature death of King Umberto, by assassination, too early brought the responsibilities of royalty upon the Prince of Naples and his gifted wife. It was a painful trial for Helena to be compelled to take precedence of her beloved mother-in-law Margherita. "Do you still remain Queen of Italy, and let me be known only as Consort of the King," she pleaded. Margherita shook her head, and smilingly answered: "Dear child, the dreadful fatality which bereft my husband of his earthly

crown compels me also to resign mine. I am now nothing but a queen by courtesy, and I gladly surrender to you both the honors and duties of a station which no longer has any attractions for me."

HER WORK FOR ITALIAN WOMEN.

While Queen Helena has not been too eager for the honors of royalty, she has labored hard in fulfilling the duties of her rank. She began at home. The frugality of the Montenegrin was shown in the way in which she cut down all the unnecessary and extravagant expenses of the palace, both in the kitchen and the servants' hall. The same spirit is shown in her simplicity in dress. The ladies of Rome,—especially the milliners,—complain that she has no love of finery, but singular to say, the aristocrats are actually following her example. At a recent afternoon meeting of ladies, held for the promotion of female education, there appeared to be a noticeable lack of rich or elaborate toilets, and the Queen was as simply dressed as any of them. Plenty of beautiful faces and the sound of soft, sweet voices, but no laces or jewelry. There were dresses of blue, gray, or brown, and street bonnets in abundance, and the Queen set the example of showing that business is business. The particular business of the meeting was the education of girls and women to such a degree as would enable them to earn a comfortable living for themselves and their families.

Queen Helena is no feminist in the extreme meaning of the term, but she is anxious that her fellow country women should enter all the walks of life in business education or scientific professionalism for which they manifest capacity or aptitude. It is said that she has not only roused the fashionable drones of Italy to take some interest in professional pursuits, but she has done much to help girls who work in shops and factories to study at the night schools of Rome and acquire attainments, or even accomplishments, which enable them to obtain better and more lucrative positions.

THE CHINA THAT IS.

BY DAVID LAMBUTH.

[The writer of the following article was born in China, as was his father before him; he lived a number of years in the East, and by editorial work has kept closely in touch with Chinese affairs ever since.—THE EDITOR.]

FIFTEEN hundred tons of pig iron from the iron and steel works of Hanyang, China, traveled 600 miles down the Yangtse River and 14,000 miles by sea and were laid down in Brooklyn, N. Y., in 1907, at \$17.50 a ton. Thus did commercial competition come knocking at our doors to serve notice that the new China was no longer a surmise, but a fact. Under semi-official management 3500 workmen at Hanyang turn out daily 500 tons of pig iron and 250 tons of steel. They made the rails and much other constructive material for the 750 miles of Peking-Hankow Railroad and for most of the other Chinese lines since then, besides exporting in 1907 37,000 tons of pig and manufactured iron. To-day they are putting up another plant for the manufacture of cars, steel bridges, and other structural material. That is a partial expression of the new China, and in such language there is no equivocation.

Thirty years ago the Chinese Government purchased the first railroad constructed on Chinese soil, tore it up, and dumped it in the sea. It had unfortunately offended the Earth Dragon. Thirteen years ago the mammoth empire was pitifully beaten by little Japan. She had not considered her army worth attending to. Ten years ago the late Emperor tried to deduce the logic of events and reform his people, but an anti-foreign court and a reactionary Dowager dethroned him, exiled his counselors, and undid his work. Then they set about to defy the world. They incited the Boxers, murdered the foreigners, and besieged the legations in Peking, but they only succeeded in encompassing their own ruin. A wiser court came back to Peking in 1902. Perhaps they had not learned to love the foreigner any better for his instruction, but they had discovered that the only China that could resist his encroachments was a unified China, a China of railroads and telegraphs, a China of well-drilled soldiers and modern rifles, a China that exploited its mines and pushed its manufactures, and, above all, a China with a national spirit and a thoroughgoing education.

With a singular courage they set about the task of transforming 400,000,000 people. Edict followed edict in bewildering succession, and if judged by her edicts China would to-day be the most progressive nation on earth. There is a great noise in the air, but what does it all mean? Is China the immovable, the relic of 2000 changeless years, really making up her mind to change? Or is it only talk? Talk is cheap and edicts are cheap, and nowhere cheaper than in the Forbidden City of Peking. Is there any reality to correspond with the glowing promises? To that there is but one answer,—the facts.

Two great statesmen have been the leaders in the new China, Yuan Shih-kai and Chang Chih-tung, and under these men began the new army and the new education in the days after the Japanese defeat, but they reached their present national importance only after the regeneration of 1902. All the world knows now that China has a modern army of near 200,000 men. And the official imprimatur was set upon a foreign military training a year ago by the government's dispatch of fifteen cadets to the French army and eight midshipmen to the British navy.

A TURNOVER IN EDUCATIONAL METHODS.

An edict of 1901 laid down a system of schools throughout the empire. Two years later a commission was sent abroad to study the question, and in 1905 the old Confucian examinations were forever abolished, a Ministry of Education was created, and it was ordered that official preferment should in future be reached only through government schools with modern curriculums. The nine-year courses of the lower schools are ordered to be taught in the Mandarin dialect, so as to secure a uniform language, and they embrace Chinese, mathematics, Chinese and foreign history and geography, ethics, and some science. Instead of the old system which compelled the child to memorize thousands of characters before he was taught their meanings, so that after half a dozen years of study he was able to read no more than when

he began, the new text-books by modern illustrative methods teach an intelligent use of each character as it is learned. The change is revolutionary, for when literacy is no longer confined to the children of those who can afford long years of study, modern books and papers will be put within the reach of all.

Furthermore, there is being discussed a syllabic method of representation which will greatly simplify the matter. The high schools continue the lower subjects and offer political economy and English, which latter is a regular requirement in the colleges, where instruction in law, governmental administration, and other special subjects fits the student for official life. Such education is indelible; nothing can smudge it out. And Peking is in deadly earnest. At the time of the school edicts in 1905 a two-thirds cut in the court theatrical expenses provided \$100,000 for education. The next year the Dowager herself gave \$50,000 for girls' schools in Peking, and directed that all fines imposed on lower officials should go toward education. A levy of from \$15,000 to \$30,000 per annum was laid upon each of the provinces to support the Ministry of Education and its publishing projects. This ministry appoints provincial commissioners and inspectors who visit every school in the empire, and also compiles, translates, and publishes readers, arithmetics, and text-books of ethics in the attempt to correlate the national system. The genuineness of its interest is attested by the fact that for an hour each day a special lecturer discusses modern educational principles, and practically all the ministry attends. The same thing, by the way, is done in most of the ministries in Peking.

It must not be supposed that these new schools are all equally efficient. Many of them exist in little more than name; many are totally unable to do the proposed work. But the significant fact is not that they are inefficient, it is that intelligent Chinamen from one end of the empire to the other have become convinced of the necessity of education, and they are going to have it. There is as much eternal doggedness in their reforms as in their conservatism. In September, 1908, there were 200 schools in Peking, with 16,282 boys and 771 girls as pupils. In Fengtien, the southern province of Manchuria, a year ago there were 529 schools, with 19,095 students, and twenty-six normal schools, with 1536 students, besides special

schools of law, engineering, municipal administration, and manual training; kindergartens, gymnasia, an industrial and a military school, and one of forestry about to be established. In the province of Chili alone there are 5000 schools. This is a foretaste of what can be done. From every quarter come reports of growing schools, of interscholastic athletic contests, and of commencement exercises participated in by girls and boys alike, and this is from the interior provinces of Hunan, Kwangsi, Kueichou, Yunnan, Szechuan, and Shensi, as well as those on the coast. Buddhist and Confucian temples are being turned into schools, and in not a few recorded cases in the far interior idols have been carted out and dumped into rivers to make way for benches and desks.

The Commercial Press, a Chinese publishing house in Shanghai, started with a capital of \$2000 in 1898; to-day it makes a profit of 40 per cent. or more upon a capital of \$1,000,000, and in 1907 did a business of \$600,000 almost exclusively in school-books. By all the publishing concerns in the empire something like a \$5,000,000 business is carried on. Somebody buys these books. The Chinaman does not waste his money. There could be no better criterion of what is actually taking place.

CHINA'S RAILROAD DEVELOPMENT.

China's fatal weakness has been her lack of self-consciousness. This is to be cured by a common education, by postal service, telegraph, and railroads. In 1902 there were 446 postoffices in China; in 1907 there were 2803. In 1902 20,000,000 letters were posted; in 1907 167,000,000. There are telegraph stations to-day in practically all the 181 prefectural cities and many others. Every province is knit to Peking with electric wires. The government has just bought over most of the shares in the enterprise and proposes to turn its large earnings into rapid extension of lines. In November, 1908, orders were issued from Peking that telegraph service be established with Lassa in Tibet. There are to-day about 4000 miles of railroad in China, with over 1000 miles under construction; so that Kansu is the only province in the empire in which railroads are not already running or projected. Five railroads run into Peking, and one of these, the Peking-Kalgan line, is financed, constructed, and run by Chinese without any foreign assistance or advice whatsoever. This road tunnels under the Great Wall and heads for

the Mongolian desert, and in so doing seems to have cut the spinal cord of the dreaded Earth Dragon forever. The Ministry of Communications has recently laid out a scheme for the correlation of all the railroad systems, with two trunk lines bisecting the country from north to south and from east to west, with Hankow as the center, and with radiating lines attached to these great arteries. Railroads are no longer taboo in the Celestial Empire. All concessions now provide for the government's taking possession of the lines after twenty-five years' traffic, and in October, 1908, a censor called upon the government to acquire them sooner, that they might fulfil their mission of "building up trade and consolidating the empire." In the same month the government suggested that a railroad should be run to Lassa to facilitate the administration of Tibet. No wonder the Grand Lama has left his ancient fastnesses!

MINING AND INDUSTRIAL ENTERPRISE.

Though China is one of the richest of all countries in minerals, the dread of "fung-shui" has prevented their exploitation. But at last the government has taken a hand. Mining companies are being promoted, an official bureau for surveying and assaying has been established under two Chinese graduates of American engineering schools, and a law has been passed that any one who hinders mining operations by pleading "fung-shui" shall be summarily punished. The governor of Shensi is setting up petroleum works; the ministry has offered rewards to companies which will open up the mineral wealth of Yunnan; and even in backward Kansu the governor has engaged a Danish engineer to oversee his mining enterprises. An entirely new interest has grown up in industrial matters. The iron and steel works at Hanyang are an indication of what China can do. Chambers of commerce, themselves an innovation, have been urged to open commercial schools, and in August, 1908, offers of official rank were made to merchants who should devote specified sums of money to the promotion of industries. In 1906 Prince Ching and Prince Lu established several trade schools for the poorer classes in Peking, and in the same year an imperial garden on the road to the Summer Palace was turned over to the Board of Commerce for modern agricultural experiments. Such are a few of the startling exhibitions of the new spirit, dwelling not only in words, but in deeds.

The government is attempting to establish a national bank in Peking, and the Kuping tael has been adopted as the basis of a silver currency, while efforts are being made to secure a uniform system by putting an end to the old and barbarous habit of individualist provincial coinage, but as yet little has been accomplished. Nor has much more been done toward the reform of the old judicial system, although it is now proposed to separate entirely the local judicial and executive duties, and much has been accomplished in the revising and codifying of the nation's laws. Much more notable is the undertaking of industrial training in the prisons of more than a dozen of the larger cities so that both criminals and beggars, in some cases to the number of 3000, are being taught some simple trade as well as being better treated. In Loan-hsien, Shantung, this prison industrial business was so profitable that in 1907 the deficit for all expenses, even including the salaries of officials and instructors, was only \$450. This innovation, too, is being copied in the farthest provinces in the empire. A uniformed police is found in most of the larger cities; electric lights in some half dozen, including Peking, and oil street-lamps in a score or more of others, beside the widening and draining of many principal streets.

THE ANTI-OPIUM CAMPAIGN.

"The planting of the black smoke is forbidden" was the proclamation on many walls in China, for in September, 1906, an edict was issued against opium smoking, requiring a yearly 10 per cent. decrease in cultivation and a 20 per cent. decrease in smoking, requiring teachers and students to stop the habit in one year, high officials in three months, and military officers at once. It is estimated that 60 per cent. of Chinamen smoke opium, and yet in the face of that fact remarkable progress has been made. In scores of cities the open sale of the drug has been suppressed and from 10 to 50 per cent. less planting has been done. In not a few towns the local gentry and merchants have taken the matter into their own hands. A foreigner reports from Chekiang 75 per cent. less cultivation and nearly all dens closed; another reports a 30 per cent. decrease in many districts in Yunnan; others write of large decrease in Szechuan, Hunan, Anhui, Shantung, and Chili. Where so much depends upon the temper of the local magistrates the greatest irregularity prevails, and

no estimates can be made, yet Peking is evidently in earnest. In October, 1907, an edict cashiered the princes of Jui and Chuang, both of the first order, and the president and vice-president of the censorate, for failure to break the habit. They were afterward reinstated upon representation that they were cured. Two officials in Peking died from the effects of hastily breaking the habit. It seems that there was, after all, a grim seriousness in the court's intentions. Men do not die in the attempt to obey mere paper reforms. In May, 1908, the earlier orders were reiterated, and the Ministry of Finance directed to devise a scheme for replacing the \$33,000,000 of income from the opium taxes. However problematical its eventual success, Peking has made an honest effort to stem the evil that is the nation's greatest curse.

THE COMING OF LOCAL SELF-GOVERNMENT.

But more spectacular than education, railroads, or opium edicts is the talk of a constitution. The impatient west is already asking what it comes to. As if all Oriental smoke must come from fire! In 1905 a commission was sent abroad and reported in favor of a constitution for China. In 1907 came a shower of edicts abolishing the distinction between Manchu and Chinaman, inveighing against bound feet, urging the toleration of missionaries and native Christians, appointing a constitutional commission to draft a plan, ordering local self-government councils in Peking and elsewhere, and directing officials to have constitutional principles explained to the people by competent instructors. In August, 1908, came the announcement of a full constitutional government and a parliament after nine years. Now no one can tell just what this means, but contemporary events may throw some light upon it. At the end of 1907 representatives of the gentry of Kiangsu and Chekiang were ordered to Peking to discuss their differences with the government over the matter of a railroad concession in their provinces, and they took good care to point out that their presence in Peking on an imperial summons was the beginning of provincial representation and possibly the first step toward a parliament. It was evident that Peking did not feel able to ignore the wishes of the provinces in the matter. The self-government societies ordered in 1907 have been established in a number of the larger cities, particularly in connection with chambers of

commerce, and they enjoy a considerable degree of freedom of discussion when exercising a reasonable amount of restraint. Consisting of the gentry, well-to-do merchants, and minor officials, they have been active in securing the representation of the local rate-payers in municipal affairs. In the native city of Shanghai nearly half the original area has been taken from the jurisdiction of the magistrate and put into the hands of the self-government organization. When, as in this case, it is done with the full support of the official whose power it so vitally diminishes, it is a striking evidence of public spirit. Surely this is a new China.

LIBERTY OF THE PRESS.

"As newspapers only serve to excite the masses to subvert the present order of things," said one of the Dowager's edicts of 1898, "and the editors concerned are composed of the dregs of the literary classes, no good can be served by the continuation of such dangerous instruments, and we hereby command the entire suppression and sealing up of all newspapers published within the empire, while the editors connected with them are to be arrested and punished with the utmost rigor of the law." Yet to-day there are no less than 200 native newspapers in the empire, with ten papers, and one of them a daily published for women and edited by a woman, in the very city of Peking. They publish a certain amount of foreign news and comment, they give the facts of local affairs, and if they are reasonably discreet they participate to a considerable degree in discussions of national governmental questions. They are, above all, the voice of the people, and in March of 1908 Duke Tsai Tseh, president of the Ministry of Finance, memorialized the throne to give a fuller liberty to the press to criticize and comment on public affairs and the behavior of public officials as being an essential part of national progress. And one of these papers in its New Year's greeting for 1908, said: "Chinese, rouse yourselves, exert your strength, and claim a share in the government of the country, as is enjoyed by the natives of the west."

GROWTH OF A NATIONAL CONSCIOUSNESS.

In 1907 Prince Ching asked that a school be established in Peking to instruct the nobility in constitutional principles. Partly in answer to this was instituted the Bureau of Constitutional Compilation, and the Legation in Washington is constantly in receipt

of orders for books on political subjects both for reference and for translation and reprinting in popular form by this department. That its effect has not been large is true, but on the other hand, its mere existence is momentous. As a further evidence of change of heart officials in Peking receive a fixed salary instead of the old perquisites, and are usually to be found at their desks between the hours of nine and four instead of the old custom of lounging in between eleven and three with a lunch, a smoke, and a shave thrown in. The Empress Dowager herself contributed \$75,000 toward the inception of the local self-government in Peking in 1907, and Prince Ching and his son, Prince Tsai Chen, themselves Manchus, were progressive enough to urge, in 1906, the abolition of the Manchu Banner Corps as an aid to national solidarity.

However weak the central government may be, and however much paper may be expended before actual reform takes place, it is impossible to note the persistence and radicalness of these propositions together with the palpable results already achieved, without realizing that the change in China has become an indisputable fact. The nation having been so far committed, can never again retreat into the fastnesses of the China that was. The diplomacy of China knows too well when it must go with the tide. The great mass of population is not yet even touched with the new thought. Four hundred millions are not transformed in a day. But mails, and telegraphs, and railroads, and newspapers, and schools are doing what they can. China is becoming a real nation. In the words of one of the censors in May, 1908, "Whereas the people knew little of events in 1895 because they thought they were separated from the country and that the government had nothing to do with them personally, now the conditions are quite changed and the people know how to preserve the interests of their native land and the sovereign rights of their country." Never again could a Chinese regiment march under the British flag to the attack of Peking. "China for the Chinese" is the slogan, and that cry is the sound of a nation being born.

What will be the course of reform under the new Regent it is not yet possible to say,

but the edict declaring his intention to carry out the Dowager's plans, the announcement of the abolition of the kowtow and the requirement that ministers remain always on their knees before the throne, and the innovation of setting the seals of the Grand Councilors as well as that of the ruler to the imperial edicts, suggest a continued progress. The Regent himself has been abroad; Prince Ching, President of the Grand Council, is in hearty accord with reform; Prince Lu, Prince Tsai Chen, Duke Tsai Tseh and no few others of the imperial circle have proven by deeds their progressive spirit. Chang Chih-tung, the venerable statesman, author of the epoch making "China's Only Hope," is a member of the Grand Council and reported to be the Regent's chief adviser. Nothing speaks more for the sincerity of Peking than the position of this Chinaman, author of a revolutionary book, among the Manchu rulers.

These facts would indicate that the dismissal of Yuan Shih-kai, so long regarded as the apostle of China's progress, is a personal matter and by no means necessarily a reactionary step. The former great viceroy of Chili occupied a precarious position. He was a Chinaman, and the Manchu government feared him for the dominant personal and military prestige which he had built up around him in Chili; the radical reformers under Kang Yu-wei hated him for his treachery in disclosing their plans to the Empress Dowager and bringing about the reactionary coup d'état of 1898, which executed half a dozen reformers and banished Kang Yu-wei, who was tutor to the Emperor and the prime mover in his abortive attempt at reform. Oddly enough, the nation at large seems to regard Yuan as a pro-Manchu, and distrusted the sincerity of his reform projects, while his downfall is even hailed by some in Peking as the token of more speedy reform. However that may be, it is not individual caprice, but the force of necessity which is behind the progress of China. The nation has committed herself; her greatest statesmen are behind the movement; it is scarcely conceivable that the advance can receive any real check. The nation itself is waking and would not now permit a permanent retrogression.

THE "BAHAÏ REVELATION": ITS WESTERN ADVANCE.

BY JEAN MASSON.

[The recent consecration of the site for a Bahai temple on the outskirts of Chicago has attracted the attention and interest of students of religious progress to this new faith of Baha'o'llah with its world appeal, its audacious claims, and its marvelous spread. Miss Masson writes from the standpoint of a more than sympathetic spectator, and we have not thought it necessary to put any editorial check upon the enthusiasm of her phrases.—
THE EDITOR.]

THE political activity of Young Turkey has liberated Abbas Effendi, the Master of Acca,* for fifty-six years prisoner, exile, the great exponent of the "Bahai Revelation." The constitution promulgated by the Sultan proclaims liberty, justice, equality, fraternity, religious tolerance. Does this proclamation embrace the Bahai movement? It is a question of interest to Islam, to America, to the world. Islam has fought the movement, has resisted purgation, for more than a half century, since May 23, 1844, the day Mirza 'Ali Muhammad, a young Persian, declared himself the "Gate," or "Bab," the herald of "the Mighty One to Come." Recession from this hostile position is a tremendous step toward the realization of the world peace, the world religion. For this is the *motif* of the Bahai movement.

MANY MILLIONS OF ADHERENTS.

The movement is a prodigious, an irresistible fact. Already has it attained world-wide dimensions. It numbers its adherents by the millions, from every religion and creed and class.

Persia, where public propagandism is prohibited, is percolated with it. "I do not say," said a recent traveler, "that all Persian Bahais are progressive men and optimists, but I do say that all progressive men and optimists whom I met in Persia were Bahais." In India the barriers of caste disintegrate before the Bahai Revelation. Calcutta has a considerable Bahai Assembly. There are Bahais in Bombay, Zoroastrian and Muhammedan converts, once credal enemies, now brothers of the same faith. In Rangoon the Bahai movement has unified the followers of six religions,—Buddhists, Muhammedans, Hindus, Christians, Jews, Zoroastrians. Mandalay has several hun-

* Acca, variously spelled Akka, Acre, St. Jean d'Acre of the Crusaders, Achor of Hosea 2:15.

dred Bahais, for the most, native Burmans. Entire Hebrew communities of the Orient have become Bahai communities. In Russia the Bahai movement has taken enduring hold. Bahai Assemblies are established in Teheran, Cairo, London, Paris, Berlin, Stuttgart.

The movement invaded America in 1893, rapidly spreading over the land. To-day Bahais are found in Canada, and in almost every State of the Union. There are Bahai Assemblies in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, Chicago, Denver, Los Angeles, Oakland, Montreal. So far has the movement advanced that Bahai teachers have gone out from America to Europe, India, Persia.

A FAITH THAT LINKS ORIENT AND OCCIDENT.

It is time to take cognizance of this strange faith encamped in our midst, a faith that fraternally links Orient and Occident, insisting that the world's great religions touch terminals. A faith whose basic tenet, Unity, is actualized.

Is the Bahai Revelation the New Revelation the world awaits? Is the Bahai movement the ultimate religion that shall transplant the great historic faiths, that shall call halt to theologic and human strife?

The Bahai movement by its stupendous claims compels attention: It is the prophetic fulfillment of the world's great religions. Like them, at its center is a dynamic personality—Baha'o'llah. Him the Bahai movement proclaims the manifestation of God for this day. He comes with a great message, a great revelation,—the Word of God to man. He fulfills the expectations of the world: To the Jew he is the Messiah; to the Christian, the return of Christ; to the Muslim, the return of the Imam Mahdi; to the Buddhist, of Buddha; to the Hindu, of Krishna.

A Bahai does not abjure his hereditary faith. Rather, the Bahai Revelation emphasizes the validity of that faith. It asserts that God has revealed His Word to the world through great teachers as the world is prepared to receive it. Time obscures the Word. Human interpretation pollutes it. A reaffirmation is made of the Word, the impregnable Truth in its essence, as after the winter the spring returns newly clothed. Inherent in the Word is the power to transform the world.

To-day man in his maturity is ripe for a completer revelation of Truth than has yet been granted him. The revelation of Baha'o'llah is the response to his need. Through it he enters upon a new cycle of progress and civilization. It ushers in a new dispensation, the seventh great creational day. It is the New Testament of the world. It answers the questions of the ages. It insists upon deeds, purity of action,—this is religion; upon the ancient virtues, justice, truth, love, sacrifice, severance from the world. It provides for no priest-craft, no leaders. It recognizes no class distinctions: "Ye are all leaves of one tree, drops of one sea." It extends its protection to woman, exalting her, emancipating her from the harem, abolishing the historic veil. It offers the final and permanent solution of great social and industrial problems, where human institutions so lamentably fail.

HISTORY OF THE MOVEMENT.

Historically, the Bahai movement sprang from the heart of Mohammedanism. The appearance of the Bab,—May 23, 1844,—disturbed the foundations of Islam. He invited the fate of all great reformers,—persecution, imprisonment, and, at last, on July 9, 1850, martyrdom. He left behind him a great book,—the Persian Beyan. In it he subverted Mohammedan laws and customs. He changed the lunar system of the Persians to the solar, dividing the year into nineteen months of nineteen days each. Days and months named after the names and attributes of God. But the essential fact of the Beyan is its insistence upon "Him whom God shall manifest":

"All the splendor of the Beyan is 'He whom God shall manifest.'" It was but preliminary to the perfected law, the great revelation: "The whole Beyan revolves around the saying of 'Him whom God shall manifest.'" "I swear by the Most Holy Essence of God (glorious and splendid is He!) that in the day of the manifestation of Him whom God shall manifest, if

one should hear a single verse from Him and recite it, it is better than that he should recite the Beyan a thousand times;" Blessed is he who will gaze upon the arrangement of Baha'o'llah, for, verily, He shall inevitably appear."

At the prophetic hour Mirza Huseyn 'Ali, son of the vizier, Mirza Bozork of Nur, assumed the station of "Him whom God should manifest," and the name, Baha'o'llah,—the Glory of God. "O King," he wrote to the Shah, "verily, I have been like any other man sleeping upon my couch; the breezes of the Most Glorious passed over me, and taught me the knowledge of all that has been. This is not from me, but from the Powerful, the Omniscient."

Again Islam was shaken. Persecution succeeded this declaration,—imprisonment in Teheran, exile to Bagdad, to Constantinople, to Adrianople, and, finally, on August 31, 1868, to the prison town of Acca on the coast of Syria. Subsequently he dwelt near the village of Behje. Here he passed away, May 28, 1892.

At Adrianople, in 1862, Baha'o'llah made public declaration of his mission. Thereupon the Babis became Bahais; the Babi cause, the Bahai movement.

ACCA, THE "CENTER OF PROPHECY."

From Acca Baha'o'llah proclaimed his station in epistles to the kings of Europe, to the Shah of Persia, Pope Pius IX., to the President of the United States. Four of these epistles were accorded recognition. Alexander II. of Russia sent a messenger to investigate the claims of Baha'o'llah. Napoleon III. responded, "If he is God, I am two Gods." Queen Victoria,— "If this is of God it will stand, and if not there is no harm done." The Ulama of Persia said: "This man is the opposer of religion and the enemy of the Shah." To which Nasiru'd-Din Shah protested, "This is a question for proofs and arguments and of truth or falsehood; how can it refer to politics? Alas! how much we respected these Ulama, who cannot even reply to this epistle."

For forty years, in books, in tablets, through personal intercourse, as men asked, Baha'o'llah gave abundantly to the world his revelation of truth,—the Word. "Were seekers to be found," he said, "all that hath appeared from the Absolute Penetrative Will should be declared sincerely to please God; but where is the seeker, where is the inquirer, where is the just one?"

He called men to submission: "If ye be

slain for His good pleasure, verily, it is better for you than that ye should slay." He commanded obedience to government: "In every country or government where any of this community reside, they must behave toward that government with faithfulness, trustfulness, and truthfulness." He exhorted the world to peace and unity:

"We desire but the good of the world and the happiness of the nations; . . . that all nations should become one in faith and all men as brothers; that the bonds of affection and unity between the sons of men should be strengthened, that diversity of religion should cease, and differences of race be annulled,—what harm is there in this? Yet so it shall be; these fruitless strifes, these ruinous wars shall pass away, and the most great peace shall come. . . . Let not a man glory in this, that he loves his country; let him rather glory in this, that he loves his kind."

THE BAHĀ'Ī BOOKS AND COMMANDMENTS.

Among the books of Baha'o'llah are the *Kitab'l Akdas*, with its *Tablets of Explanation*, the *Ighan*, the *Kitab'l 'A'hd*.

The *Kitab'l Akdas* is the *Book of Laws for the world*. It abolishes war. It institutes an international house of justice to act as a tribunal of arbitration; a general house of justice to administer national affairs; and in every city a house of justice, invested with spiritual and temporal power. It commands the establishment in every city of at least one house of prayer,—a *Mashrak-El-Azkar*. It deprecates celibacy, seclusion, asceticism. It prohibits polygamy. It abolishes the confessional. To God only is the absolution of sin. It emphasizes the incumbency of education: "Whosoever educates one of the children of the people who love God, it is as though he has educated one of the branches of the blessed divine tree, and he is worthy of praise, blessing, and mercy of God." It enjoins the creation of a universal language. It ordains penal codes, hygienic laws, regulations to meet the world's conflicting sociologic conditions. It commands individual work, that all should engage in some occupation, some trade, art, profession: "We have made this,—your occupation,—identical with the worship of God, the True One."

The *Ighan*, the *Book of Assurance*, interprets the symbology, lifts the veil that has obscured the scriptures of all religions. It

affirms that each religion has its true prophet; that all prophecy culminates in this day, "the day of Him whom God shall send forth"; and in "his book, which is the return of all the books and their guardian."

The *Kitab'l 'A'hd* is the *Book of the Covenant*. It creates Abbas Effendi, the eldest son of Baha'o'llah, "the Center of the Covenant." He is known to Bahais as 'Abdu'l-Baha,—the *Servant of God*. To him they turn as their spiritual guide, the interpreter of the revelation of Baha'o'llah.

ABDUL BAHA, "THE MASTER."

'Abdu'l-Baha was born May 23, 1844, the day of the Bab's proclamation. He shared the exile and imprisonment of Baha'o'llah. Until the recent political agitation in Turkey he was a prisoner in Acca, stringently confined during the months immediately preceding the Sultan's firman of amnesty. The Bahai movement, essentially spiritual, has yet its enemies, is yet accused of political motives. The spiritual affiliations of 'Abdu'l-Baha encircle the world. About his table have gathered in love pilgrims from all lands and all religions. Here, in the presence of this great servant of the world, unity and peace are achieved, while men and nations dream of unity, theorize concerning peace, increase their navies, their devices for mutual destruction.

America promises eventually to become a mighty stronghold of the movement. A Bahai House of Spirituality has been organized within the Chicago Assembly,—a body of men, chosen by the society, whose function approximates spiritually to that of the future house of justice. Bahai literature is printed and widely distributed by the Bahai Publishing Board, operative in Chicago in conjunction with the Bahai Counsel Board of New York.

Russia,—Ashkabad,—adhering to the command of the *Kitab'l Akdas*, erected in 1906 the first *Mashrak-El-Azkar* of the world. America is a close second. North of the city limits of Chicago, overlooking Lake Michigan, a picturesque site has been chosen for the erection of the second Bahai temple of the world, monument to universal peace, to the universal faith,—the revelation of Baha'o'llah.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE SOLID SOUTH A NATIONAL CALAMITY.

IN an article on "The Growing South," noticed in the REVIEW for July last, Dr. Edwin A. Alderman, president of the University of Virginia, remarked:

The reuniting of Southern political ability to national service must wait upon time to free it utterly from hesitation and fear arising from the presence of the African in our society. . . . When this fear is swept out, an inherently capable and pure political genius will be loosed. Southern men will win the Presidency, because they will incarnate the things the people desire a President for.

President-elect Taft, at the banquet tendered to him in New York on December 7, said:

I believe that the movement away from political solidity has started, and ought to be encouraged, and I think one way to encourage it is to have the South understand that the attitude of the North and of the Republican party toward it is not one of hostility or criticism or opposition, political or otherwise . . . that the North yearns for closer association with the South . . . that its citizens deprecate that reserve on the subject of politics which so long has been maintained in the otherwise delightful social relations between Southerners and Northerners as they are more and more frequently thrown together.

Evincing a similar spirit, Dr. Hannis Taylor contributes to the *North American Review* an article the "direct and practical purpose" of which is, he says, "earnestly to maintain that the time has arrived for the South to end the attitude that isolates her politically from the rest of the Union, for the simple and conclusive reason that that attitude, once vitally necessary, has lost its right to be." He adds:

The time has arrived for the South to emancipate herself from the deadly one-party system which, while excluding her from political communion with the rest of the Union, at the same time strangles the political genius that was once the basis of her power. The time has arrived when the South must say to both of the great national parties that she is no longer a pocket-borough that belongs to either, but an open and unbiased field in which each, with equal opportunity for success, may struggle for the intellectual mastery of her people. Above all, the time has arrived when every Southern man, without being menaced by the banished spectre of the negro question, must be permitted to be

in the South, as is every man in the North, a Democrat or a Republican, according as his real convictions lead him one way or the other.

So complete has been the elimination of the South from political ranks that it is frequently forgotten that of the fifteen Presidents elected prior to 1861 the South furnished nine, and that of the fourteen Vice-Presidents elected prior to that time the South furnished six. Since March 4, 1857, when John C. Breckinridge took his seat as Vice-President, no Southern man has been elected President or Vice-President of the United States* "Is it," asks Dr. Taylor, "to the interest of the South to be thus excluded for all time from the Union, so far as the highest political honors are concerned; is it to the interest of the South to be chained as a sectional organization within lines that mean inevitable political disaster?" He does not hesitate to say that the Solid South "has ceased to be of value to anybody," and "is a calamity both to the nation and to itself."

The solidity of the South, on sectional lines, is a calamity to the nation as a whole, because it prevents the reincorporation of a section, once in revolt, in such a way as to wipe out the last vestiges of the Civil War. The solidity of the South, on sectional lines, is a calamity to the South herself: first, because political success on that basis is impossible; second, because it keeps her in the attitude of a conquered province, so far as the eligibility of her leading statesmen for the supreme offices is concerned; third, because it dwarfs her political genius through abnormal conditions that prevent that kind of competition out of which her great men arose in the past.

Dr. Taylor forecasts that it is not "at all likely that a statesman as able, as experienced, as patriotic, as human as Mr. Taft can be dislodged in the next eight years." The attitude of the President-elect toward the South was indicated in his New York speech, an extract from which is given above. In every direction conditions are favorable to a "new departure" for the South. The extraordinary development of the mining and manufacturing interests of the South has wrought such a revolution in her economic conditions that "large sections

of her territory are now in the same boat with Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, so far as tariff legislation is concerned." Ere long "Alabama's Birmingham district will rival that of which Pittsburg is the center."

Let us fancy that, in the near future, struggles over the tariff may force these two great and growing mineral districts to form a political coalition that will nominate Senator Knox, of Pittsburg, for President, and Senator Johnston, of Birmingham, for Vice-President. Would it take long for Northern prejudice against a Southern Vice-President to perish under the magic touch of a mutual interest? All we need is a beginning; at the first blast the empty shell of what is still called the Solid South will collapse.

There can be little doubt that the next eight years will be all-important in the economic history of the South. Already every "true Southern heart is gladdened by the sight, at Mobile and New Orleans, of the wharves crowded as they are with steamships, bearing among other things tropical fruits from the lands to the south of us." To this prosperity the building of the Pan-

ama Canal will, it is believed, give a marked impetus.

When, after completion, that vast enterprise shall drop a dollar into the till at Boston, it will drop fifty into the tills at Mobile and New Orleans. When that new waterway is opened up to the Far East for Southern products peculiarly adapted to Oriental markets, the South will enter upon a fresh stage of progress whose possibilities can scarcely be estimated.

It is obvious that the South, more than any other part of the Union, is specially interested in the development of each of our possessions in the Pacific Ocean.

With the possession and development of that Pacific world the trained statesman who will soon assume the headship of the nation has had a long and honorable connection. As he is specially committed to the advancement of this line of foreign policy in which the South is vitally concerned, would it not be wisdom upon her part to extend to him her earnest co-operation, apart from and above all partisan considerations?

"Is it not," asks Dr. Taylor, "a good time for the South to make a new departure along the lines of her real interests?"

THE POWER OF CHINA'S LATE DOWAGER EMPRESS.

A VIVID, graphic sketch of that remarkable woman, Tsu-Hsi, the late Dowager Empress of China, is contributed to the January *Fortnightly Review* by Dr. E. J. Dillon. In a footnote, he tells us: "For revealing to the Japanese the secret treaty between Russia and China, which I published in England, she had several men sawed to pieces," and he adds:

During her first regency Tsu-Hsi, then in the flower of her age, indulged, it is said, in the passions of a Messalina and the cruelty of a Bluebeard, putting several of her obscure favorites to death. *A priori* the story may be true. She had not only no scruples of any sort, but no indwelling source of any. A conscience formed no part of her equipment. She dwelt beyond the domain of right and wrong.

Notwithstanding these serious defects in her character, Dr. Dillon maintains that

Tsu-Hsi was not only a commanding personality in her age and country, but she was also endowed with some of the sterling qualities of absolute greatness. Tsu-Hsi, native chroniclers tell us, was a girl with the budding charms of an ideal woman. Prepossessing in person, she was so kindly in manner and suave of disposition that she won every heart, persuaded every hearer, disarmed envy and hatred. All who came in contact with her describe her as a fascinating talker. Her language abounded

in witty sallies, quaint notions clothed in racy words, embellished with poetic images, bright with bursts of musical laughter. People loved to listen to her, were proud of her notice, and captivated by her smile. While she spoke an intense fire lighted her eyes, kindled her mobile tongue, and as one of her countrymen puts it, "made her lips drop honey."

THE SECRET OF HER POWER.

People of character were drawn toward her, he declares, despite their will, and clever statesmen were swayed by her despite their intelligence.

A magnetic force seemed to go out from her, making all men and even eunuchs serve her. She had also the secret,—most precious to a sovereign,—of touching the right stops of the human soul for the music, gay or sad, which she wanted to produce. And men, the most serious,—like Li Hung Chang and Yuan Shih-kai,—thrilled to her magic touch. She appealed with almost equal force to the nobler and to the baser human instincts, and, it must be added with equal readiness, for the qualms of moral scruple never stung her, the be-all and end-all of her nature lying wholly within the realm of the real.

Dr. Dillon tells with admiration the story of her three regencies. He vindicates her for the severity with which she dealt with the conspirators who sought her life, and success-

fully repels the accusation that she was a reactionary. He says:

When she held the destinies of a fourth of the human race in the hollow of her hand she bore good fortune splendidly. In the new as in the old rôle, she was simple, ready, resourceful. She retained her modesty. Success never seems to have intoxicated, nor failure to have demoralized her. In politics, which may be described as the art of the possible. Tsu-Hsi, like the world's great statesmen, was an opportunist.

A PRACTICAL REFORMER.

The Empress hunted down the revolutionary reformers, but, Dr. Dillon says:

Tsu-Hsi remained a Progressive to the end. When Li Hung Chang in her earlier regency built the first railway there was a loud outcry against the innovation in the country; the censors especially clamored for their destruction. But Tsu-Hsi encouragingly said to Li, "You go on with the railways, and I will look after the censors." And now she ordered the building of new lines to continue. She inaugurated a university in Peking; she extended the rights of domicile conferred on Europeans; she threw open new ports to foreign trade; she permitted steamers to navigate the Yang-tse and the Si Kiang; she abolished many abuses in the levy-

ing of *skin* or internal duties on foreign goods; she gave a fillip to national education; she improved postal communication; in a word, she made it clear that she, too, was a reformer, but a reformer whose device was *festina lente*. History will add that Tsu-Hsi was a reformer to the end of the chapter. Thus last year she forbade the consumption of opium, abolished the practice of foot-binding, put Manchus and Chinese on a footing of equality, authorizing marriages between them and adopting the principle of race parity even in the Council of State, to which she appointed three Chinamen and three Manchus. She also proclaimed the principle of obligatory instruction, and granted provincial autonomy as a stepping-stone to a constitution. Nay, she did away with absolutism by bestowing upon her subjects a constitution which is to be embodied in political institutions after the lapse of nine years. Surely no Chinese Gladstone could have accomplished more than this.

In the *Contemporary Review*, Mrs. L. H. Hoover writes on the late Empress, of whom, on the whole, she thinks well. She says:

In looking at her reign as a symmetrical whole, which, of course, was something she could never do herself, one must grant that probably in its long history China has never known so strong or so beneficent a figure appear in any dynasty after it had turned toward its decadence.

THE MATERIALISM OF WILLIAM II. AND HIS PEOPLE.

IN view of the German Emperor's quick resentment of published animadversions concerning his words, thoughts, or deeds, and because such utterances have frequently had fine or imprisonment as a result, one is astonished to find that potentate characterized in cold print as a materialist and an opportunist by a contributor to a magazine appearing in William II.'s own capital. Karl Scheffler, known chiefly as a writer on architecture and painting, is the daring individual whose criticism of the Emperor stands to view in the *Zukunft*, the weekly edited by the equally daring Maximilian Harden, who not long ago pilloried the famous *camarilla* that was so balefully influencing the imperial policies, and who was tried for libel by reason of his having rendered this public service. No doubt it took an editor of Herr Harden's courage to publish such an article as the present, the immediate provocation to which was the Reichstag's recent censure of his Majesty's irresponsible indiscretions, these being held threatening to the peace of the nation through possible umbrage to foreign governments, Karl Scheffler here declaring that if the German people are cursed

with such a ruler they have themselves to blame, and that, in any case, he is but a true representative of themselves. Of Herr Scheffler's most striking paragraph, in which he assails the nation's ruler with such surprising boldness, we now give a full and exact translation:

Nearly all the faults with which the Emperor has so justly been reproached are also national faults. Our people themselves prepared the bitterness of these recent days. For fifteen years have they been satisfied with a policy that has been driving us nearer and nearer toward some catastrophe; they wanted to be led along this path, and still want to be. If from the first day of William II.'s reign the nation had been of a different mind from his, he would never have had the power to lead us to where we now stand. Only a few tried resistance, many allowed things to drift as they might, but most felt persuaded that they were being well governed. The opposition have always confined themselves to criticizing details, accidents, or trifles, and that in the light of party formulas. But it was just this Emperor that the German nation,—immensely laborious, yet daily sinking deeper into a callous spirit of gain,—asked for. The restless materialism of William II. corresponds to their own unrelenting materialism. Prince and people have equally succumbed to the spell of quantity, while both have the same lack of reverence for the aristocracy of quality; both

are enthusiastic about expansion, about accumulating the means of wielding power, about the possession of labor, capital, science, or art, for the mere sake of possession; both are perpetually confusing values of civilization with standards of culture, are overrating the phenomena of visible success, and are entirely united in fighting the silent workings of the aristocratic spiritual forces. This is a period of tremendous heaping up of wealth and one of bold enterprise, one of unsmiling industry and of hasty pleasure-snatching. The German people of these decades are strong, yea, almost great in things material, and not a trace of slothfulness lies in them; but they are without depth. They are bold without grace, strong without beauty, clever without wisdom, well-conducted without creative morality, obedient without an independent sense of reverence. We are still at the stage of laying foundations, and because of this alone

the nation likes a founding policy, an upstart imperialism. William II. is the emperor of the mercantile interests, materialistic despite his romantic leanings, impersonal despite his "impulsiveness;" he is a will and a self-conscious force, but devoid of higher critical judgment, and therefore without fixed aims; he is a man all for the moment, having none of the instincts of genius; and he is of the kind who seek enjoyment without cultured taste. He is an emperor of the general commerce illusion, a prince of all the faults of a transition period. The merchant, now all-powerful in the land, has, with offensive tenderness, dubbed him his "best traveling salesman." This crowned "traveling salesman" it is to whom our nation, which has become a business nation, has so long cried "hail!" since it has grown rich under his rule; and him it is whom the nation is now scolding when his mistakes threaten to injure business.

THE ARRIVAL OF THE SLAVS.

THE leading article in the *Contemporary Review* for January may be characterized as a manifesto addressed to the Slavs, which, although signed by Mr. W. T. Stead, seems to owe its inspiration to an exalted source hinted at rather than revealed. Whatever this may be, there can be no question as to the confidence with which Mr. Stead assures the Slavonic peoples of the grandeur of their future destinies and the earnestness with which he or his unknown inspirer implores them to possess their souls in patience for a time.

THE CINDERELLA OF EUROPE.

The article opens by a declaration that the coming of the Slav into his kingdom is a fact compared with which the fortunes of kings and emperors are as dust in the balance. Says Mr. Stead:

Of all the great races of Europe the Slavs have received the fewest favors from the fates. Providence has been to them a cruel stepmother. They have been cradled in adversity and reared in the midst of misfortunes which might well have broken their spirit. From century to century they have been the prey of conquerors, European and Asiatic. When, as in Russia, they were able to assert their independence of Tartar and Turk, they could only do so by submitting to an autocrat whose yoke was seldom easy and whose burden was never light. But for this Cinderella of Europe the light is rising in the darkness, and there are not lacking signs that in the future the despised kitchen-maid may yet be the belle of the ball.

In a rapid survey of the history of the past Mr. Stead claims for Catherine II., although of German birth, the right to be regarded as

the tutelary genius of the Slavonic race. We quote his words:

Herself a German, she nevertheless appreciated keenly the distinctive genius of the Slavonic race. Russia, the first of the Slavs to become independent, the first also, as she fondly believed, to become cultured, was in her eyes destined to achieve a great historic mission. Russia was to be the elder brother of all the Slavs, the deliverer and the helper of the younger races. Nor was that all. In her more exalted moments she dreamed of making the Slav the link between two continents, the mediator between Europe and Asia, the great bridge between East and West. Toward this end she labored, often with but little wisdom, but with unswerving instinct. She was baffled by the unfitness of her instruments and the inadequacy of her resources. But despite all disappointment Catherine, judged by her aspirations and even by the comparative success with which she began their realization, will always rank as one of the greatest rulers of the world. Only now in our day, when the Slavs are awakened all along the line, do men begin to see not only the greatness and the glory of her ideal, but the possibility of its realization on the lines which she laid down.

Instead of magnifying the importance of Austro-Hungarian action in Bosnia, Mr. Stead minimizes it. After quoting the figures of the birth-rate for the different European national stocks, he says:

It only needs a rule-of-three sum to demonstrate the inevitableness of Slav ascendancy in eastern and central Europe. This fact should convince every patriotic Slav that precipitancy is treason and that patience should be the watchword of the hour. The Slavs alone of the Eastern races can truly say that "Time is on our side." For them to gain time is all important. They can afford to wait. It is irritating, no

doubt, that the paw of the Austrian should dig its claws a little deeper into the Servian provinces, but it is an inconvenience as passing, even if it is as annoying, as the measles or the whooping-cough. The dominating fact, every day becoming more supreme, is not the change of the label "Occupation" to the label "Annexation." It is that all day and all night with the undeviating regularity of the movements of the planets in their orbits the surging tide of Slavonian life rises higher and ever higher. The women who fill the cradle are more potent in the end than all the warriors of all the kings.

IS IT THE DAYDAWN OF THE SLAV?

Hence, continues Mr. Stead, enthusiastically, they are right who say that the day of the Slav is dawning rosy-red in the ever-filled cradle of the Slavonian home.

The scepter of empire lies hid in the teeming womb of the mother. But with patience and unity the triumph of the Slavs will be achieved without any shock of battle. It is enough to keep pouring the new wine of lusty Slavonian life into the wornout leather bottles of the Austrian realm to secure the ultimate victory. Hence it would be the height of political unwisdom for the Slavs to challenge a conflict with their rivals on the battlefield, when certain victory is assured if they will but await the reinforcements, creating those new battalions of the future, which are night and day being born into the Slavonian world.

The day of cast-iron empires, we are reminded in conclusion, is fast drawing to a close. The new century begins the era of decentralization and federation.

In one form or another the whole vast stretch of country from Petersburg to Prague and from Prague to Adrianople will be covered by a federation or federations of free self-governing states, as peaceful as the Swiss cantons, in which the Slavs, by the sheer force of numbers, will of necessity be in the ascendant. Nor will it be surprising if the despairing effort of the German to stem the tide of destiny in Posen should lead to the addition of the German Polish lands to the federation of the future.

The chief danger, almost the only serious danger, that threatens to retard the inevitable triumph, is the fatal tendency to anarchy that has ever been the bane of the Slavonian peoples.

It was this that ruined Poland. It may postpone indefinitely the coming of the Slav into his kingdom. If we had the tongues of men and of angels we would cry aloud in the ears of all the Slavonian peoples: "In unity is your strength. United you can conquer all your foes. Disunited you will remain the despised and impotent thralls of your neighbors. Peace! Peace among yourselves! Patience and Unity, by those watchwords you will conquer." If these counsels prevail, then the good seed which Catherine sowed in the dark days of storm and tempest may spring up and ripen for the glorious golden harvest. Then may be fulfilled her majestic vision of the advent of the mighty kingdom of Slavonia, which will represent more than the splendor of ancient Rome; more than the vainly desired perfection of classic Hellas; more than the would-be imperialism of ubiquitous England. And the waning starlight of the West may be quenched, absorbed, extinguished, by the undreamt-of magnificence of Eastern dawn.

A PREMATURE AND DANGEROUS PEACE.

SUCH are the terms in which General Kuropatkin, writing in *McClure's* for January, characterizes the treaty concluded at Portsmouth. Peace was neither desired nor needed by the Russian army. Never in her whole military history had Russia sent into the field forces of such strength as in September, 1905. A million men, "well organized, seasoned by fighting, and supplied with officers upon whom thorough reliance could be placed, were preparing to continue the bloody conflict with the Japanese," when they "unexpectedly received the fatal news that an agreement . . . had been reached at Portsmouth." The real causes for the conclusion of "this unfortunate peace were," the General maintains, "painful internal disorders, and a hostile, or at best an indifferent, sentiment among the Russian public toward the war." The actual condi-

tion of the army in Manchuria is thus described:

We had, at that time, rid ourselves largely of the older reserves by sending them to the rear guard, and had obtained in exchange several hundred thousand young men,—new recruits, enlisted as regulars, a great proportion of whom had volunteered to join the army. For the first time since the beginning of the war the army was filled up to its full complement. It had received machine guns and batteries of howitzers; field railways insured the transportation of supplies to the army; telegraphs and telephones were at last on hand; the wireless telegraph had arrived; the transportation department had been enlarged; and the sanitary condition of the army was excellent.

By the friendly co-operation of the commanding officers General Kuropatkin had convinced the troops that without a victory it would be a disgrace for any one to show

himself in Russia, and so thoroughly had this feeling become rooted that even the reserves were heard to remark: "The women will make fun of us if we do not return home as conquerors."

JAPAN'S RESOURCES EXHAUSTED.

According to information in the hands of the Russian general staff, Japan, at the time of the conclusion of peace, had "begun to weaken both morally and materially." Her entire available peace force consisted of 103,000 men, and her reserves of 315,000, making a total of 418,000 men. As during the war more than 1,000,000 men were called to arms, the drain on the population was enormous. Not only was it necessary for raw recruits to be sent into the field, but men who had already served out their time in the reserve had to be drafted into the regular army. Among the Japanese who were made prisoners by the Russians were "some who were almost boys, and side by side with them others who were almost aged men." Concerning the Japanese losses in killed and wounded, General Kuropatkin writes:

In the cemetery of honor at Tokio alone 60,000 were buried who had been slain in battle, and to these must be added 50,000 who died of their wounds. Thus the Japanese suffered battle losses of 110,000 men,—that is to say, a number almost equal to the entire army on a peace footing. Our losses, compared with our army of 1,000,000, were several times smaller than those of the Japanese. During the war 554,000 men were treated in the Japanese hospitals, 220,000 of them being wounded. Counting in with the killed and wounded those who died from disease, the Japanese lost 135,000 men.

The Japanese suffered particularly heavy losses among their officers, but their general losses were tremendous. Owing to the doggedness with which they fought, whole regiments and brigades of Japanese were almost completely annihilated by us. This was the case in the battle at Putilov Crater, on October 2, 1904, and again during the battles of February, 1905. In the battle of Liao-Yang and Mukden the majority of the Japanese troops attacking our position from the front suffered heavy losses, and were unsuccessful.

JAPANESE WEAKEN ON FIELD OF BATTLE.

After paying a generous tribute to the valor of the Japanese and to "the doggedness with which they fought," the Russian general goes on to say:

The constantly increasing stubbornness of our own troops in battle could not do otherwise than affect the frame of mind of the Japanese army. Toward the end of the war . . . the raw recruits, hurriedly drilled, could not develop the

same power of resistance and the same enthusiastic dash forward that the Japanese possessed during the first campaign. . . . We no longer noticed the enterprise, dash, and vigilance that they had previously displayed. . . . Weariness of the war was plainly expressed. . . . Opposite the position of the First Siberian Corps, one day, a Japanese company in full strength surrendered as prisoners,—something that had never occurred before. . . . The English writer, Norregaard, who was with the Japanese army during the siege of Port Arthur, bears testimony to the breaking down of the patriotic feeling with which the Japanese had been carrying on the war. One of the reserves told him that one of the regiments had even refused to march to an attack.

EUROPEAN FINANCIAL SUPPORT WITHDRAWN FROM JAPAN.

At this time also Japan "could not fail to be worried by the coolness toward her successes that began to be shown by the powers of Europe and America." Money was harder and harder to get; and, "to all appearances, the Japanese were troubled even as to how they could supply their artillery sufficient ammunition at the proper time." With this change in public opinion toward Japan, and the increasing precariousness of her financial condition, General Kuropatkin considers that

only one big success on the part of the Russian troops was required to bring about a strong reaction in Japan and among the Japanese troops. With the exhaustion of her financial resources, by stubbornly continuing the war, we might speedily have brought Japan to seek a peace that would have been both honorable and advantageous to us.

PREPARATION FOR THE NEXT WAR.

In closing his interesting series of memoirs, General Kuropatkin leaves no doubt in the minds of his readers that Russia will fight to recover her lost prestige. After emphasizing the necessity of purifying and regenerating the army, and expressing his belief that his country, "summoned by her monarch to a new life, will speedily recover from her temporary shock," he lays down the following lines "for success in the future war probable in the Far East":

First, to have free for use all our armed forces; second, to have at our disposal a strong railway connection between far eastern Siberia and European Russia; third, to prepare the waterways of Siberia for the movement of heavy freight from west to east; fourth, to remove the base of the army as far as possible from European Russia into Siberia; and, fifth, chief of all, to prepare to carry on a new work not with the army alone, but with a united, patriotic, and enthusiastic Russian nation.

THE SOUTHERNMOST AMERICAN GOLD-FIELD.

TO nine persons out of ten the region at the extreme south of the South American continent is a *terra incognita*. South of the Strait of Magellan and north of Cape Horn is an archipelago of islands which takes its name from the largest member of the group, Tierra del Fuego. Through the southern part of the archipelago runs from east to west Beagle Channel. To the north of the strait is Patagonia, which represents the southern end of the American mainland. The regions on both sides of the strait are owned partly by Chile and partly by the Argentine Republic. Gold has been actively worked on both sides of the Strait of Magellan; and an interesting account of its distribution is contributed to the *Journal of Geology* by Mr. R. A. F. Penrose, Jr., who visited the Strait in 1907. As to the discovery of the precious metal, he writes:

Gold is said to have been discovered in southern Patagonia by the Chileans over forty years ago, and is supposed to have been known to the native Indians at a much earlier date, but it has been produced in quantities sufficient to attract general attention only in the last twenty to twenty-five years. The gold in the gravels of Rio de las Minas, near Punta Arenas, was one of the earliest discoveries. . . . Another early discovery was the gold in the beach sands near Cape Virgins, at the eastern entrance to the Strait of Magellan, which was first discovered about 1876, but not actively worked until 1884. Then considerable excitement followed, and prospecting parties overran a large part of southern Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego.

Though it has been profitably worked in certain localities only, gold has been found to be very generally distributed almost all through the Magellan region. The old method of working the mines was to gather the gold in pans, sluice-boxes, etc., but about the year 1904 preparations were made to use steam dredges. This started the boom afresh.

With the introduction of steam dredges it became possible to handle the gravel much more cheaply and in much larger quantities. From all over Chile and Argentine again came the gold-seekers, with some from a still greater distance, and the usually almost deserted Strait of Magellan became animated with small craft. Since that time, though the excitement has subsided, work on the gold deposits has steadily progressed. . . . There were, in 1907, some twelve or thirteen dredges in operation or being constructed, and the gold industry of the region promises soon to become a far more important business than in the days of hand work.

The most active operations are carried on

on the main island of Tierra del Fuego, just across the strait from Punta Arenas, the headquarters of the industry being Porvenir, a prosperous little town of about 800 people. The mines are mostly many miles inland. The principal center of civilization in the entire region is Punta Arenas, whose name means "Sandy Point," referring to the spit of sand on which it is built.

Punta Arenas is in 53° 9' 42" south latitude, and has the distinction of being the most southerly town of any considerable size in the Southern Hemisphere. It was started by the Chilean Government as a penal colony in 1843, but its location at that time was further south than at present. A few years later, in 1849, it was moved to where it now stands. In the early days it was the scene of much disturbance, and on more than one occasion frightful bloodshed and massacre on the part of the convicts have blackened its history. The Chilean Government finally ceased using it as a penal colony and encouraged settlement by free Chileans.

Punta Arenas is the Antarctic metropolis, just as Dawson City, on the Yukon River, is the Arctic metropolis. Beyond both, civilization ceases.

So far as known, the gold of the Magellan region is in alluvial or placer deposits. Only a few gold-bearing veins have been found. The deposits in stream-beds and on hillsides range in gold-content from a few cents to a dollar or more per cubic yard, most of the ground yielding from 25 cents to 50 cents per yard. On the beaches the gold is sometimes well up on the shore, at others near the water level, and in some places it is below the water level. It is associated with large quantities of black sand and small garnets. Whether from the creeks, the hillsides, or the beaches, the gold is quite pure, occurring usually in fine particles. Sometimes small nuggets about the size of lima beans are met with, but as yet no large ones have been found. Concerning the origin of the Magellan gold deposits, Mr. Penrose advances the following theory:

The alluvial deposits in the creeks and on the hillsides have doubtless been derived from the erosion of gold-bearing rocks, and though such rocks have not been found to any great extent in the region, they nevertheless probably exist and may sometime be discovered. If the Magellan region represents the partly submerged southern end of the continent, many of these deposits may have been originally formed as ordinary alluvial deposits high up in the mountains, and brought down during the sinking era to a much lower level, while some of them may have been completely submerged in the sea.

The gold has been concentrated by being washed over and over again on the beaches, some of which, after having been carefully worked for gold, will, after a storm or an unusually high tide, become quite rich again. In the Strait of Magellan the tides run as fast as a very swift river, and as they reverse their current four times a day, the conditions in the Strait "represent a natural process of concentration not at all unlike some of the artificial processes that man has found best suited for concentrating gold."

Prospecting in this region is much more difficult than in most mining districts, owing to the nature of the territory.

Many a man has lost his life in his search

for gold in that bleak, inhospitable region, while many more have rapidly become discouraged and returned to milder climates. Most of the traveling is done in boats, as the land is much cut up by deep tidewater channels and bays, and covered with dense underbrush or immense peat bogs; while everywhere, even on the mountain sides, the soil is soft and boggy, so that walking is difficult and often impossible. . . . The mean winter temperature is about 33 degrees F., and the mean summer temperature about 50 degrees F.

The invasion of the white man has been fiercely opposed by the natives, many of whom still use the bow and arrow. Yet "the sad fate of most American Indians is rapidly overtaking them, and they will probably vanish before the miners and the cattlemen."

CHEMISTRY, AND OUR NATIONAL RESOURCES.

THE outcome,—or, rather, one outcome,—of the convention of governors held at the White House last May was the selection and appointment by the President of a commission to investigate the whole subject and report on actual conditions at the earliest possible moment.

Six months later, early in December last, the National Conservation Commission met in Washington in joint conference with the delegates of other organizations and the governors of more than twenty States. An elaborate report, showing the results of six months' arduous labor, was read at that meeting.

The United States Geological Survey, in its latest published reference to the subject of conservation of natural resources, has submitted for national distribution the report of the committee of the American Chemical Society appointed to co-operate with the National Conservation Commission. This report has been thoroughly prepared. It makes a most encouraging showing as to the possibilities of great results achievable by a persistent and immediate following up of present opportunities ready to be grasped and prolific, in their several fields, of immense national benefits.

Referring to the great work done by the commission in the brief space of time occupied,—from May to December,—the report of the American Chemical Society says:

The commission, in its elaborate investigations, had, so to speak, taken stock of our natural resources, and its report, therefore, was essentially statistical in character. It had esti-

mated the magnitude of each particular resource, and had studied the rate of consumption of such substances as lumber, coal, iron, etc. It discussed the wastage of the land by preventable erosion, and its effects not only upon agriculture but also in reducing the navigability of streams. Questions like these were treated at considerable length.

With reference to the method adopted, it is remarked that the data of the commission were mainly classified under four headings, viz.: minerals, forests, lands, and waters. Under each heading the evils to be remedied were pointed out with all the emphasis and clearness which the statistical method of investigation made possible.

The commission cleared the ground for study into the prevention or limitation of future waste, and the problem of conservation can now be taken up in a more intelligent manner than has been possible hitherto. We now know better than ever before what the evils and dangers really are; the next step is to discover remedies, and then, finally, to apply them. The public attention has been aroused; the people of the country are awakening to the necessity of greater prudence and economy in the use of our resources, and definite lines of action can now be laid down with a reasonable probability that they will be followed. Fortunately, the reports of the commission are neither sensational nor unduly pessimistic; the results of its conferences are presented seriously and in such a manner as to compel consideration; they are therefore all the more likely to produce permanent effects of great benefit to the American people. The utterances of the mere alarmist rarely carry conviction; but disclosures like these made by the Conservation Commission cannot be disregarded.

It is observed in the Chemical Society's report that, up to the present moment, chem-

istry has had little to do with the investigations of the commission, but, the report declares further:

Henceforward the chemist must be called upon in many ways, for the waste of resources is often preventable by chemical agencies. Chemistry has already done enough to prove its

potency, and its influence is felt in every branch of industry. Adopting the classification of the commission, we shall find the chemist active under every heading. Under minerals, we must note that metallurgy is essentially a group of chemical processes by which the metals are separated from the ores, a separation which may be either wasteful or economical.

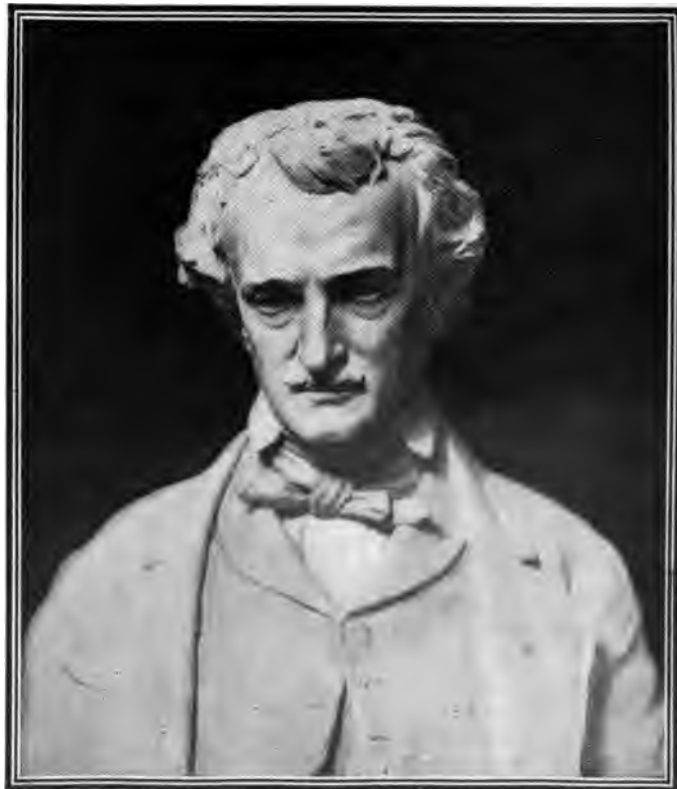
SOME TWENTIETH-CENTURY ESTIMATES OF POE.

IN connection with the Poe centenary celebrations one cannot fail to detect the evident eagerness on the part of writers of recent notices of the poet to atone for past neglect, and to indulge in "superlatives of praise," such as "the most original genius of American literature," "the literary wizard," "the transcendent poetic genius of America," all of which contrast strangely with the half-hearted recognition which the poet has hitherto received at the hands of his countrymen. Mr. Morris Bacheller (January *Munsey's*) gives it as his opinion that if the whole body of those who have made a name for themselves in American literature were passed in review Longfellow would be named as the most popular, and Emerson,—or possibly Whitman,—would be chosen by many as the most original, but that, "taking him for all in all, most judges would agree that the palm for originality belongs to Edgar Allan Poe." Poe, we are told, resembled his mother, who as an actress "won the hearts of those who saw her by her archness, her romantic grace, and her exceeding sensitiveness." This sensitiveness, Mr. Bacheller considers, "did much to make Poe the remarkable master of prose and poetry that he afterward became."

So susceptible was he to every impression that we might call his nature almost feminine. In the world of imagination this quality stimulated all his powers. In the prosaic, exter-

nal world of fact it made his life unhappy, and was responsible for the tragedy of his premature end. A man of more robust physique and of steadier nerves would have kept his friends and would have established himself in a settled home; but it is doubtful whether any one save the Poe who really lived could have written "The Bells" and "The Raven" and some of the strangely romantic stories which have made his name immortal on both hemispheres. One ought to remember this peculiar sensitiveness in judging him.

Not only is Poe the most original; he is unique. Walt Whitman,—to quote Mr. Bacheller further,—"is to be styled eccentric rather than original. Emerson crystallized



THE EDMOND QUINN BUST OF POE.
(Recently exhibited at the National Academy of Design in New York.)

in brilliant phrases the wisdom that had belonged to men before him. But Poe, sensitive almost to the point of neurasthenia, stands quite alone, not merely in our literature, but in all literature."

His exquisite sense of harmony was able to evoke from our language combinations of words which, as Tennyson said of poetry, keep continually ringing "little bells of change."

It was this extraordinary gift, this wizard-like command of tinkling, silvery words and cadences, which stirred Emerson to impatience and led him to call Poe "the jingle-man." There is little need to speak of what he did in prose. Here, too, his sensitiveness is scarcely less conspicuous, while his imagination, at times grotesque, at other times romantic, plays like summer lightning through the pages which one most readily recalls.

Mr. W. C. Brownell, in *Scribner's* for January, is somewhat paradoxical in his criticism of Poe. In his opening paragraph, he says:

There is no more effective way of realizing the distinction of Poe's genius than by imagining American literature without him.

Further on in his article he remarks:

The truth is it is idle to endeavor to make a great writer of Poe, because, whatever his merits as a literary artist, his writings lack the elements not only of great, but of real, literature.

Between these two apparently contradictory statements he says:

Poe's antagonism instinctively inclined him to art. He is in fact the solitary artist of our elder literature. This is his distinction and will remain such. . . . Poe's art was unalloyed. It was scrupulously devoid, at any rate, of any aim except that of producing an effect, and generally overspread, if only occasionally clothed with the integument of beauty. As such it was in America at the time an exotic. His great service to his country is in a word the domestication of the exotic. . . . In his hands the method and even the material that he adopted resulted in a very striking body of work, which still has the compactness and definition of a monument. Incarnated in the vivid forms his pronounced individuality imagined, illustrated by the energy of his genius, the spirit of romanticism entered the portals of our literature and illuminated its staid precincts.

Poe had "what might be called the technical temperament." As a technician "his most noteworthy success is the completeness of his effect. He understood to perfection the value of tone in a composition, and tone is an element that is almost invaluable."

Speaking of Poe's tales, Mr. Brownell says:

There is unquestionably power in the best of

them, but it is a repellent power. In fact, his most characteristic limitation as an artist is the limited character of the pleasure he gives. He has a perverse instinct for restricting it to that produced by pain. . . . In the most characteristic of his writings this motive is exactly that of the fat boy in "Pickwick," who announced to his easily thrilled auditors that he was going to make their flesh creep. . . . A writer who declares at every turn his constant harping on the string of "horror" fails in his attempt. . . . In most instances it may be said that one does not get enough pain out of Poe to receive any great amount of pleasure from him.

Poe's theory of poetry "is briefly that it has nothing to do with truth, that it is concerned solely with beauty, and that its highest expression is the note of sadness,"—the sadder the better.

Two things are made perfectly clear by such theorizing: One, that the theorist is primarily not a poet, but an artist,—concerned, not with expression, but effect; and the other, that he is not a natural but an eccentric artist, since sadness voluntary and predetermined is artificial and morbid. "The Raven" itself,—undoubtedly Poe's star performance,—confirms these inductions. It is not a moving poem. . . . Whatever injustice is done its real genesis is Poe's farrago about it. "The Raven" is in conception and execution exceptionally cold-blooded poetry. But distinctly on the plane of artifice, it is admirable art.

Mr. Percival Pollard, in the *New York Times* for January 10, relates that when Georg Brandes was asked what external influences he deemed paramount in French literature, he put first the name of Edgar Allan Poe. And Mr. Pollard adds that, in the course of a visit to Germany, he has found there quite as many artistic sons of Poe as are known to be in France. "Wherever you go on the Continent of Europe you will find they know only one American man of letters,—Poe." This fact, he says, in effect, is a notable commentary on Henry James' criticism that as between Baudelaire and Poe, "Poe was much the greater charlatan of the two, as well as the greater genius." James added that "an enthusiasm for Poe is the mark of a decidedly primitive stage of reflection." As for Mr. Brownell, whom Mr. Pollard designates as "a current calamity in criticism" (how these critics love one another!), the latter has "only made Mr. James' argument more meticulous." Mr. Pollard is very severe on the American public for delaying so long the appreciation which was Poe's just due.

We here in America have come but slowly and half-heartedly to a conclusion that Europe

reached several decades ago. For purposes of celebration, our courage propped by our numbers and the contagion of being members of a crowd, we are about to do all possible honor to the name of Poe. We shall be magnanimous; we shall forgive one another the many little cowardices of the past, and join pompously in solemn appreciation of one the rumor of whose genius seems somehow too true to be denied.

Since posterity has in some curious and unexpected manner done its work without consulting us,—who had imagined ourselves as quite properly playing the part of posterity,—well, we shall have to pretend that we agree with her. . . . Much spilling of ink, many professorial gentlemen in earnest conclave, even a bust or so, or a statue,—yes, with the poet safely dead these hundred years, and Europe determined to remember him, we shall certainly have to go through with the thing.

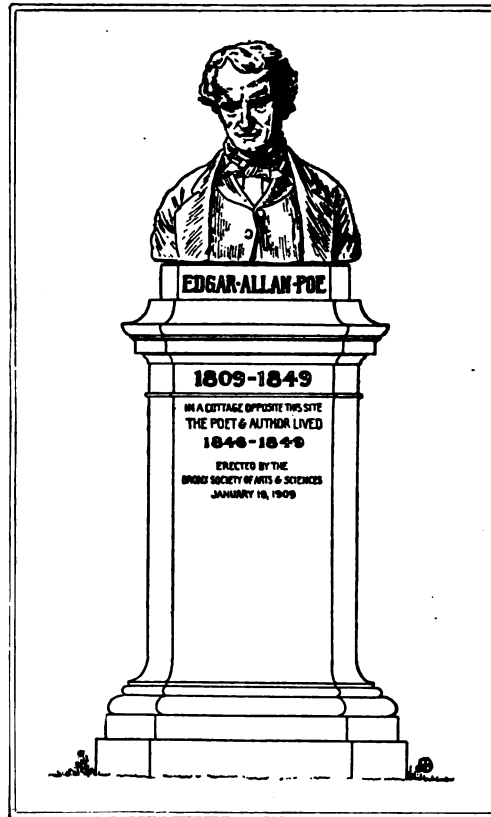
Alluding to the poet's unfortunate addiction to intoxicants, Mr. Pollard contrasts him with Verlaine and Villon; and he observes:

These did no harm to others. But what did poor Poe do to others? . . . No, the answer to those who only yesterday said "Drunkard," when Poe's name was mentioned,—though now, with the votive offerings and the incense in the air, they are as humbly devout as only Pharisees can be,—is the answer that Lincoln made when they told him of Grant's fondness for whisky. Yes, if only one could find some of that brew of Poe's and ladle it out to our latter-day American poets! . . . He drank; but that is nothing. Here is the great sin he committed: He was not a gay drunkard. As a roysterer Poe was a failure.

Mr. Pollard thus delivers himself on Poe's place in American literature:

Well, we have come well toward sanity if we stay in our present celebrating mood. For besides Poe there has been no other in America, drunk or sober, so single in devotion in art, so careless of money, so entirely honest in his literature. . . . Poe was entirely, without greed or selfishness, a man of letters. We have had no other such.

It is curious that at this late day doubt should still exist as to the very birthplace of the man whose centenary two continents have been celebrating. Elizabeth Ellicott Poe, a member of his own family, says, in the February *Cosmopolitan*, that Poe was born at No. 9 Front Street, Baltimore, and that in the poet's family this house has been pointed out as his birthplace for generations; but Mr. Bacheller, in the article cited above, states that Poe was born in Boston while his mother was fulfilling a theatrical engagement in that city; and he prints an announcement in the *Boston Gazette* of February 9, 1809, congratulating the frequenters of the theater on Mrs. Poe's recovery, and inform-



THE (QUINN) BUST AND THE TABLET IN POE PARK, FORDHAM, NEW YORK CITY.

(Unveiled during the celebrations held on January 19 by the Bronx Society of Arts and Sciences.)

ing them that she will make her reappearance the following evening.

In a critical estimate, in a recent number of *Harper's Weekly*, Mr. W. D. Howells, in referring to the fact that the French reading public has always rated Edgar Allan Poe as a "genius," says that, "for us Americans it has remained to say, however unwillingly, unhandsomely, and uncouthly, that they do not think so." While admitting that Poe is subtle, Mr. Howells contends that he is not delicate. Comparing him with Turgenev and Tolstoi, he says: "It would be impossible to explain how you know it, but it is somehow from your sense that the Russian masters are sincere artists and the American master is not." So far as I am able to be candid about it, concludes Mr. Howells, "I find that Poe's method is always mechanical, his material mostly unimportant." Mr. Howells, however, admits Poe's mastery of literary technique.



Chopin.

Mendelssohn.

Haydn.

THE MASTERS OF MUSIC WHOSE CENTENARIES WILL BE CELEBRATED THIS YEAR.

CHOPIN, HAYDN, MENDELSSOHN.

DURING the year upon which we have just entered will occur the centennials of the births of Mendelssohn and Chopin and of the death of Haydn. In an analytical study of these three great composers, which appears in the December *Deutsche Revue*, Dr. Karl Reinecke reminds us that Mendelssohn was born on February 3, 1809, and Chopin on March 1 of the same year, while Haydn died on May 31, 1809. Chopin, says this German writer, the pride of his country, and a favorite in every land, needs no praise, but Haydn and Mendelssohn are not cultivated to-day as one could wish, and as they deserve, and therefore Herr Reinecke confines his remarks to these masters rather than to Chopin, whose creations, with few exceptions, are for the piano alone.

Though there were many parallels between Haydn and Mendelssohn, there were also many startling contrasts in their lives. Haydn lived to a ripe old age, whereas Mendelssohn was cut off in the prime of life. Haydn's childhood was far from happy, and after his sixth year it was passed among strangers. Not so with Mendelssohn, whose early years were spent under the paternal roof in comparative comfort and luxury. At the age when Haydn was wandering about the streets of Vienna with no roof over his head but the sky, Mendelssohn was the fa-

vored guest of Goethe. By the time that he was twelve Mendelssohn had composed several works, and he was only sixteen when he composed his famous octet for strings. Two years later came the overture to "A Midsummer Night's Dream." In manhood Haydn had become a celebrity, and was known throughout Europe as the greatest authority on musical questions, but Mendelssohn, little more than a youth, was a famous musician and composer, and he had rendered the musical world the immortal service of resuscitating Bach's "Passion According to St. Matthew," which had lain dormant for over a century, and had been well-nigh forgotten by the music-loving public.

In composing "The Creation" Haydn was the first after Handel to create an immortal oratorio; while Mendelssohn produced two oratorios of lasting importance,— "St. Paul," composed at the age of twenty-four, and "Elijah," two years before his early death. To both composers is due the honor of creating real national songs. Austria is indebted to Haydn for her national hymn, "*Gott erhalte Franz den Kaiser*," to the tune of which Germans sing their "Deutschland, Deutschland über alles," while Mendelssohn created the touching parting-song, "*Es ist bestimmt in Gottes Rat*," and other songs of world-wide fame. Pure, absolute

instrumental music owes more to Haydn than to almost any other composer. A charming characteristic is his never-failing humor, yet in his quartets and symphonies there are also movements of depth, force, and passion not unworthy of a Beethoven. Men-

delssohn, who followed faithfully the models of the great classical masters, nevertheless retained the personal note of his own individuality, and succeeded in creating works which attracted and inspired the younger composers of his day.

MUST AUSTRIA AND SERVIA FIGHT?

THE reviews of England and the Continent contain numerous articles on the relations between Austria and Serbia, European statesmen and publicists generally regarding this phase of the Balkan problem as presenting the greatest danger of open rupture. The Austrians and Servians themselves, if reports may be believed, look upon war between the two countries as only a question of months.

What is looked upon by those who claim to know as the official Austrian viewpoint,—although presented anonymously,—appears in a recent issue of *Danzer's Armee-Zeitung* (Vienna). In this article the anonymous writer shows that Vienna and Budapest are seeking every pretext for a war against the Serbs. He says in effect:

The conflict with Serbia and Montenegro in the present state of things presents itself as inevitable. Arms and ammunition are arriving in

Servia, and Italy is aiding our adversary, and is secretly preparing for war. We need an *entente* with Turkey, which, at all costs, must become our friend, and to bring it about we must give financial support on a large scale and guarantee the integrity of the Ottoman Empire against all comers. We must become the immediate neighbor of Turkey on a wider frontier. But we cannot install ourselves on the Macedonian frontier till Serbia and Montenegro have definitely disappeared. Consequently we should not avoid a conflict with these two countries, but rather desire it and hasten it on. In politics only brutal egoism obtains great results. Against Italy, for instance, we could rouse Abyssinia, and prepare a new Adoua, and it would not be difficult to foment risings in Sicily and Sardinia. Against England we could exploit Egypt and India, and with an agreement with Turkey could provoke a pan-Islamic movement to endanger British rule. It is high time that our policy should cease to be one of daily expediency, and that it should begin to deal with the great ends which shall assure the development of the monarchy. The first is the establishment of our hegemony in the Balkans, and when this is



BOSNIAN WOMEN WHO HAVE JUST PARTICIPATED IN A COUNCIL OF WAR IN SERAJEVO, THE BOSNIAN CAPITAL.



THE WARRIOR WOMEN OF SERVIA.

(Fired by a love of country, they have banded themselves into a "League of Death," and are drilling actively in order to be ready to fight the hated Austrian.)

realized it ought to be followed by expansion toward the east.

When Baron Aerenthal has negotiated a reconciliation between Austria and Turkey and the Anglo-Franco-Russian loan has been realized, the Serbs, remarks M. Bérard, commenting upon the above quoted article, in a recent number of the *Revue de Paris*, will do well to keep their powder dry. Bismarck once said that he was Russian at Sofia and Austrian at Belgrade, but M. Bérard hopes that French diplomacy will remain Servian at Belgrade, Bulgarian at Sofia, Turkish at Stamboul, and honest and national everywhere, in order to be truly and sincerely French at Paris and Austrian at Vienna, for he fails to see what Austria would gain by such a mad enterprise as that suggested by the anonymous writer at Vienna.

The Servians are already worked up to almost the fighting pitch, even the women being drilled in the use of arms. But what sort of an army has Servia?

As, theoretically, the United States could

put 10,000,000 effective fighters in the field, this being an impossibly large proportion of the healthy adult male population under middle age, so little Servia's boast that she, with 2,500,000 people, could muster 400,000 well trained and well disciplined soldiers in war time, is an exaggerated estimate. A critic in the *Schweizerische Militärische Blätter*, of Frauenfeld (Switzerland), points out that the permanent, standing army of Servia numbers only 22,000 men, that instead of the legal two years' term of active service being really enforced, a great many Servians spend seventeen months and others only thirteen months with the colors, and that few get a year and a half's regular training. Besides, the yearly training periods of the reserves and militia are very frequently abridged, or omitted altogether, from want of sufficient funds, the Servian Government, which spends a quarter of its whole revenue on the army, believing the maintenance of "up-to-date" equipment and materials to be much more important than the tactical education of the soldiers.

WHAT WILL BE THE CHINESE POLICY OF THE GREAT POWERS?

THE Chinese problem has lately been a subject of much discussion in the Japanese newspapers and periodicals. In the December issue of the *Taiyo*, Count Okuma, leader of the opposition party in Japan, expresses the opinion that the Japanese public may be familiar with the China of the ancient sages and savants, but is much less conversant with the China of to-day than are the nations of Europe and America; that it makes no earnest efforts to befriend the Chinese, and that its attitude toward the Chinese should really be one of leniency and tolerance, if it is to promote its political and commercial interests in the Celestial Empire. Two other interesting articles on the same subject are found in the current issue of the *Chuo Koron* (Central Review), another influential monthly in Tokio. Professor Awoyagi, of Waseda College (founded by Count Okuma), is the contributor of one of these two articles. The professor holds, with Count Okuma, that Japanese policy in China has not been calculated to foster friendly relationship between the governments at Tokio and at Peking, while the attitude of individual Japanese toward the Chinese people has been far from generous and sympathetic. But it is the other article, contributed by an anonymous "diplomat," that we consider more striking.

Under the caption, "The Chinese Policy of the Powers," this anonymous writer voices a warning against the disconcerted activities of the powers in China. Before the Boxer disturbance, he asserts, the leading powers, having the greatest interest in China, grouped themselves into two factions,—Russia, Germany, and France on one side, and England, America, and Japan on the other. On the whole, the Russian group supported the conservative and reactionary element in Chinese politics, while the British group urged the Court of Peking to adopt a policy of progress and reform. At that time the former was in the ascendant, and the latter, occupying "rather a shaded hemisphere" in the diplomatic world in China, was biding its time. The Chinese mandarins, possessed of much diplomatic finesse, were not slow to perceive that the two factions were at war, looking at each other with suspicion and jealousy. And so the Chinese court, resorting to its favorite tactics of set-



YUAN-SHIH-KAI.

(Chinese reformer, whose dismissal from the Council of the Empire and the head of the army has aroused the apprehension of the Western world.)

ting one party against another, thought it not difficult to foil the designs of all the powers. Had there been harmony of policy among the powers, the Boxer episode would have never been enacted. The Boxer trouble, according to the writer, necessarily united the rival powers under the common standard; but no sooner had this bloody tragedy passed into history than the powers began to fight among themselves.

The seed of strife among the powers, which united at the Boxer disturbance, has been found in railway and mining concessions, the engagement of foreign teachers, the import of arms, and the like. Each of the nations interested, eager to push its own interest, has shown but little scruple to sacrifice those of the others; and thus the Chinese mandarins were given another opportunity to play their favorite game of setting one power against another. England and Japan are ostensibly pledged to a common cause with regard to the disposition of the Chinese question, yet the mandarins are fully aware that, in spite of the Anglo-Japanese alliance, there is room enough to employ their cunning designs to embroil the allied powers in dispute. For are

not British subjects continually complaining, with no justification, about the measures which Japan is pursuing in Manchuria in strict accord with her treaty rights and without injuring in the least the interests of any other nation? Foreign ministers at Peking, in negotiating railway or mining concessions with Prince Ching, president of the Grand Council, or Yuan Shih-kai, often betray one another. Again, take the question of the patent regulation. It was Japan which proposed that China should adopt a patent law so that foreign patents might be given due protection. The Tokio Government drafted a law for China, which was submitted to the powers. The British Minister at Peking at first seconded the Japanese proposition; but later, at the interposition of Germany, England withdrew her consent. And so the matter was entirely dropped, and now the Western powers are complaining that the Japanese subjects in China are violating foreign patents. Is it any wonder that the wily mandarin is laughing in his sleeve?

Japan's Commercial Policy Toward China.

Americans having business relations with China and Japan will read with no little interest the report of an interview with his Excellency Ijuin Hikokichi, Japanese Minister at Peking, printed in a recent issue of *The Far East*. The fact that the Minister was speaking as a Japanese to his friends in Japan, whom he does not hesitate to criticise frankly, renders the article of exceptional value to Western readers.

According to this diplomat, his countrymen have a very vague conception of China as a whole; they too often forget that there are other provinces besides Manchuria in China. In their minds China is equal to Manchuria, and Manchuria to China. Minister Hikokichi finds, however, that the position of Japan in Manchuria "is not the most unsatisfactory."

As the result of the victorious war, Nippon is now in possession of the South Manchurian Railway, which reaches to Chang-Chung. In other words, we have already laid the one great foundation of our Manchurian enterprises. For this reason there is a happy future for us in that direction.

But, Manchuria being so little developed, it is "South China which is at the present time the foundation of wealth"; and the Minister asks his countrymen whether they are not neglecting their opportunities in this field. It will never do, he says, for his people "to forget this direction in their race toward Manchuria."

The fountain of wealth in China is beyond doubt along the belt of which the Yang-tse is the center. And this is no time for the merchants and industrial men of Nippon to hesitate

to enter this treasure-house of China's resources because it is difficult to do so. By all means let them fight their way in against all difficulties. . . . To pay our attention exclusively to North China will not do. It is imperative that we should advance toward the South.

Reverting to Manchuria, Minister Hikokichi says that the Japanese thought that with the opening up of that province there would be an inrush of foreigners who would reap the major benefits from it.

The facts are entirely different, however. Even to this day there are very few foreign people who have entered the Manchurian field. . . . And in this day it behooves the people of Nippon to take advantage of this inactivity on the part of the foreigners to enter into Manchuria and occupy it.

As to the comparative advantages of opening up trade in Manchuria and in South China, Mr. Hikokichi says:

North China is undeveloped. It is easy to enter this field even without capital and with a pair of bare arms. If one only would work seriously and be endowed with the virtue of patience, it is not impossible for him to build up his business. In this way the North China differs from the South materially. It is important that our commercial and industrial interests should have an intelligent appreciation of this difference. In this work they should not depend altogether on the efforts of the government alone,—let the people themselves take this matter into their own hands. Make provisions for the furtherance of such investigations, and let them lay a proper and ample foundation for their knowledge of China.

As regards the lines along which they should extend their activities in South China, the Japanese are told that they must be prepared, seeing that Shanghai is already occupied by Europeans or Americans, to "open up a new center that will command the markets of South China." Attention is called to the fact that Japan has already established a steamship line on the Yang-tse.

The merchants and industrial men of Nippon to-day, therefore, must work with a thorough determination to recover those commercial and industrial advantages which they have permitted to fall into the hands of the Europeans and Americans. . . . If our people would establish bases of operation at many points it would not be long before they would bring about the one thing desired,—namely, closer and more intimate relations between Nippon and China.

Asked as to the diplomatic policy of Japan toward China, the Minister replies that in his view "there is no such thing as diplomacy independent of the lines of profits and interests." He continues:

The time was when the territorial expansion or expansion of the so-called spheres of in-

fluence, as a question of national honor, formed a great problem in diplomacy. It sometimes went so far as to bring about a war. All this is a thing of the past. . . . According to my judgment, the work of overcoming obstacles against the profitable activity of our countrymen is one of the principal duties of our diplomatists. Still it must not be forgotten that the diplomacy of to-day does not depend upon the diplomatists alone. The relation, either hostile or friendly, between two peoples has a vital bearing and influence upon the diplomacy of a country. For this reason our people should aggressively work along the line of increasing an intimate understanding among our neighbors. To-day there is a large portion of China entirely virgin of the efforts and enterprises of the foreign merchants and men of industry. These portions of China will gradually come in touch with foreign activities.

The charge that Japan has manifested a

tendency to monopolize the Chinese markets is thus disposed of:

We have been criticised for a tendency to monopolize the market to the exclusion of others. Such a program is one-sided and disastrous. For those who would stand in the commercial world to-day it is highly essential to understand that they must, if they would accomplish any great work, carry on their several enterprises in perfect co-operation with those who are in similar lines of activity. Without this spirit of mutual assistance and co-operation a great economic development is difficult indeed. Especially is this true when one is facing such great countries as Russia and China. . . . We must have the great aspiration of facing all the world in competition and at the same time must be broad enough in our views and conceptions to carry out a great work hand in hand with Europeans, Americans, and the Chinese.

IS THERE A PHILOSOPHY OF BIRD'S-NEST MAKING.

SOME highly interesting deductions and speculations as to the evolution of bird-nest building are made in an article in a recent issue of the *Revista de la Facultad de Letras y Ciencias*, one of the publications of the University of Havana. It is the substance of a lecture delivered before the university by Dr. Aristides Mestre, who gives many curious data in regard to various forms of nest-building, and also treats of the progressive adaptation observed in many cases. As an introduction to the subject the "Primitive Bird" (*Archæopterie lithographica*) is described, and figured both in its fossil form and after a restoration. This strange creature, half-bird and half-reptile, has teeth and a long tail, its upper extremities serving both for flight and prehension. Two specimens have been found in the calcareous deposits of Solenhofen, one of them being in the British Museum and the other having been acquired by the Berlin Museum for the sum of \$5000. We are here shown one of the stages in the development of the upper extremities from "arms and hands" into true wings. After noting some of the typical and distinguishing characteristics of birds, Dr. Mestre treats briefly the gradual evolution of the bird's special nest-building faculty. In this connection he says:

We can remark a gradual development beginning with those birds which do not build any nests, but simply deposit their eggs in the bare ground; then we come to those which make very rudimentary preparations for the reception of their eggs, and, finally, to those which

construct nests so wonderful as to rival the products of the weaver's art. In these latter cases the work of construction demands the greatest activity and perseverance, and in this task the beak and claws of the bird are used as veritable tools. . . . However, the nests are not only designed to provide shelter for the young, as birds sometimes build them for mere recreation and also as habitations during the winter season. As a proof of this I may cite the "pleasure-nest" of the *Chlamydera maculata*. The habits of this species have been observed by Mr. Gould in the interior of Australia. They frequent the brush which surrounds the plains, and construct their nests



THE PRIMITIVE BIRD.

(From the fossil preserved in the British Museum.)



ONE OF THE CURIOSITIES AMONG CUBAN BIRDS' NESTS.

(Nest of the *Myarchus sagra*, which always builds in the trunks of old decayed trees.)

with amazing skill, supporting the framework by a foundation of stones, and transporting from the banks of streams and water courses at a considerable distance the numerous ornamental objects which they dispose at the entrance of the nests.

Dr. Mestre then proceeds to discuss the question as to whether instinct alone can account for the nest-building faculty of birds or whether we must assume the existence of a certain rudimentary reason in these creatures. It is frequently asserted that there has been no change in the original types of nests built by the various species of birds, while man has shown continuous progress in the construction of his habitations, and this difference has been regarded as marking the distinction between the exercise of instinct and of reason. However, Wallace believed that it was not instinct that moved birds to build their nests, nor reason that influenced man to construct his dwelling, but rather certain external causes operating both on birds and men,—that is to say, in each case both instinct and reason play a part, although in a different degree. The races of mankind have not everywhere and at all periods shown either the ability or the desire to modify and improve their habitations, as we can see in

the cases of the desert Arabs, the aborigines of South America, and those of the Malay Archipelago. Of the birds Dr. Mestre says:

There can be no doubt that birds modify and improve their nests, both as to form and material, when circumstances have arisen which require such a change. Among the numerous examples which prove an advance in the art of building nests we must not forget the interesting cases noted by Pouchat in the old houses of Rouen. Many years ago this ornithologist had gathered swallows' nests (those of the *Hirundo urbica*) from the windowsills, and had placed them in the collection of the Natural History Museum at Rouen. When, after the lapse of forty years, he again sought for similar nests he was astounded to find, on comparing the newly collected nests with the older ones, that the former showed a real change in their form and arrangement. These nests were from a new quarter of the city, and Pouchet noted in many of them a mixture of the old and new types; he then proceeded to study the forms described by naturalists of an earlier time, and found no trace of these forms in the nests of the present day. For Pouchat this new type of construction marked a distinct advance; the new nests were later adapted to the needs of the young brood, and protected them better from their enemies and from cold or inclement weather.

In conclusion, Dr. Mestre describes two curious specimens of nests built by Cuban birds. These specimens are in the rich collection of the *Museo Zoológico Cubano* in Havana, also called the *Museo Gundlach* in honor of Dr. Johann Gundlach, a distinguished German ornithologist who died in 1896, and who had devoted many years to the study of Cuban birds. Of these examples we read:

The *Myarchus sagra* was described by D'Orbigny. . . . Gundlach found its nest, in April and May, within a dry and hollow limb, or in the deep hollow of a tree-trunk; the walls of the cavity were lined with dry grass and roots, and the interior of the nest with down, horse-hair, vegetable fibers, and even with the cast-off skins of snakes. The latter were doubtless used to frighten away enemies. . . . The *Xanthornus hypomelas* begins to build its nest in February, since much time is needed for its construction, for it is the most curious and complicated of those seen in Cuba. It is made, says Gundlach, altogether of palm fibers, marvelously intertwined, and is attached close to the tufts of the palma, or under the clusters of bananas or mangoes. This nest is built both by the male and female bird; they perforate the small leaves of the palm, and pass threads through the holes so as to form a species of rope, by which the nest is suspended. It has been said of the *Xanthornus hypomelas* that an old bird and a young one build the nest together. This shows the existence of a kind of apprenticeship which constitutes an additional argument against the theory that blind instinct animates the birds in building their nests.

HOW QUININE FIGHTS THE GERMS OF MALARIA.

UNTIL twenty-five years ago it was generally believed that malaria and kindred fevers were contracted through inhaling miasmatic emanations from swampy ground, *mal aria*, in fact, signifying bad air. Then a French scientist named Laveran made the discovery that malarial infection was due to mosquitoes. Dr. Boehm sets forth in the *Illustrirte Zeitung*, of Leipsic, how the infection is brought about by the transference of certain minute animal organisms from the body of the female mosquito,—by way of its salivary glands,—into the blood of human beings; and he also notes that a human being suffering from malaria can infect a mosquito that sucks his or her blood. The doctor enlarges, too, upon the origin and properties of quinine and its virtues as a preventive of malarial fever.

Among the various great species spread all over the earth that are related to the mosquito, only the females are blood-suckers, the males subsisting on vegetable nourishment. The female mosquito needs the blood for the development of her eggs, which it deposits in stagnant waters, where the eggs turn to *larvæ*. These can only grow to perfect gnats with a certain degree of warmth and a certain stillness of the aqueous surface. . . . When a mosquito stings a human being suffering from malaria, it takes into its system certain parasites existing in that person's blood. In the mosquito's stomach the parasites perform the act of pairing. The pregnant female parasite penetrates through the inner coating of the mosquito's stomach, and on the outer coating deposits a lot of tiny cells which produce billions of thread-like germs. The cells burst, the germs become free, and find their way to the gnat's salivary glands. If this mosquito stings a second human being it infects that person's blood with the said germs. They work into the blood-corpuscles, feed on the substances contained therein, and grow rapidly, until they fill up almost the entire number of discs forming the corpuscles. During this period of incubation the individual stung is not afflicted with fever, the first attack occurring only when the growing parasite splits up,—without sexual fecundation,—into a large number of germs. Seen through a microscope the parasite at this time somewhat resembles a daisy. After the splitting up is actually effected the germs rush out into the human's flowing blood, and with this event the attack of fever is connected. The emerged germs now penetrate into corpuscles still intact, where the process of growth and partition as already described is repeated. As a rule, on the third day (*febris tertiana*) or the fourth (*febris quartana*) after the first, the breaking out of the germs causes fresh attacks of fever, which in the absence of proper medical treatment continue as "intermittent fever" at like regular intervals for several weeks, when they at last cease temporarily of their own ac-

cord. Entire convalescence, however, rarely ensues. After greater or less periods of freedom from illness, relapses occur, and thus many invalids go into a chronic decline, which may find its fatal end under varying forms of disease.

The value of quinine as a remedy against malaria, says Dr. Boehm, consists in the fact



THE CINCHONA CALISAYA, THE PLANT FROM WHICH QUININE IS PREPARED.

that at certain stages of their development the parasites (*plasmodia*) referred to can be destroyed through the absorption of the drug into one's blood. It is especially efficacious if administered before a predictable attack of the fever,—that is to say, when an eruption of the germs is impending. With persistently continued treatment by quinine the attacks will become infrequent, and may at last cease altogether. For the combatting of malaria adults require as much as eight to sixteen grains of quinine a day. Dr. Boehm considers the drug an indispensable curative, and believes in it as a preventive also, experience in Germany's East African colonies having demonstrated the latter proposition.

To individuals still uninfected who are obliged

to remain in a malarial district, the regular use of quinine in suitable doses, if it can be continued for some time without deleterious effects, yields a measure of immunity from infection. To-day the hope is no longer unjustified that by persistent employment of quinine malaria will gradually decrease in pestilential regions, and perhaps disappear altogether.

The world's main supply of the bark from which quinine is derived,—the bark of trees or shrubs of the genus *Cinchona*,—now comes mainly from plantations in the British and Dutch East Indies, although the Andes formed the original source of supply. There, however, says Dr. Boehm, a reckless system of exploitation exhausted the avail-

able plants, that nowhere grew in such quantity. The price of quinine has enormously diminished since the artificial cultivation was begun by the British and the Dutch in their East Indian colonies, having descended from about \$100 per kilogram (wholesale) to one-tenth of that figure. Cinchona bark,—the best of which is on the trunks, not the branches,—produces from 3 to 5 per cent. of the drug. The name Cinchona comes from that of a seventeenth century Viceroy of Peru, Count Cinchon, whose wife recovered from a fever through the use of this bark,—so, at least, says a popular tradition in South America.

GARY,—PITTSBURG'S FUTURE RIVAL.

A STEREOPTICON image magnifying a hundredfold the problem-details facing every business man—

That is Gary.

Because of its magnitude,—the world-challenging job of creating a new city, a deep-sea harbor, industry's biggest steel mill,—Gary has held the attention of four continents since 1906; interest redoubled with the "blowing in" of its first furnace a few days ago.

Size, however, is its smallest quality. To the business man its imperative claims are its efficiency, economy, speed. It is the shrine of the short cut,—a composite of the best in power, in production, in saving.

It is a hundred-million-dollar lesson in the science of making and selling,—a demonstration in steel and concrete of the parts foresight, strategy, and exact knowledge should play in every business,—a public test of the principles you can profitably apply in your office, your store, however great or small.

This is the condensed description of the new home of the steel industry, which Mr. Daniel Vincent Casey puts at the head of his article in the January number of *System*, on Gary, the United States Steel Corporation's new town in Indiana. The steel capital is located on the southern lip of Lake Michigan; and the strategic factors which determined the choice of this particular site are thus enumerated:

Assembling of raw materials and distribution of product were the vital inseparable factors. Where could the ore of the Superior ranges, the coke of the Alleghanies, and a store of limestone be laid down together at the lowest cost? Where the markets, existing and potential? Where an adequate labor supply, with surroundings making for stability and efficiency? Could materials, markets, and labor be brought to a common focus, where was land enough at reasonable prices to accommodate the visioned mill? Square miles were wanted: The new

plant was building for the century of steel; and experience warned that no boundaries be put on its expansion.

Gary was the answer,—genius discovering it. Found and explored, it satisfied every requirement of the corporation's strategists, production experts, and engineers.

Twelve square miles of land was available, but the lake front was so cut up by the Calumet River and by railways that the builders could not find a base large enough for their operations. Moreover, besides the site of the giant mill, it was necessary to provide for a town which should house the workmen. The order was given: "Build the perfect plant on paper; then fit the site to the plant." The site was consequently cleared of all obstructions; the river was diverted into a new channel; the four railroads were thrown out neck and crop, "like fussy children hindering industry"; and about 100 miles of track was moved and reconstructed. Still the site was too cramped. A string of sixteen 450-ton blast furnaces, set at right angles to the lake, with docks for the ore, and a harbor a mile long,—this was the plan on paper. But between the river and the beach the distance was insufficient, so the four outer furnaces "were given stations *out in Lake Michigan*." Two millions was spent on the work of preparation alone. Then the harbor had to be built. This has "a 250-foot channel, a 750-foot turning basin inland, and berths for half a dozen 12,000-ton ore boats. With the outer breakwater and ore-handling machinery it will cost several millions."

The city, as is generally known, is named after Judge Gary, chairman of the United



A PORTION OF THE GARY, IND., STEEL PLANT,—OPEN-HEARTH FURNACES.

States Steel Corporation's board of directors; but this writer thinks Gary is a misnomer.

It should have been christened "Economy, Indiana." For economy is its genius and inspiration. Location, size, arrangement, equipment, and every great and lesser detail of the whole huge plant serve that one master purpose,—saving. Saving of materials, time and labor; conserving of energy; elimination of wastes.

Already \$42,000,000 has been expended within a little more than two years, and \$33,000,000 more will be needed for the construction under way; but of all these vast sums "no dollar has gone or will go for experiment. Here lies Gary's business significance,—its lesson to every man who makes or sells for profit."

No device, however promising, which has not been tested exhaustively beyond chance of failure, has been given place in the scheme. Gary takes no risks. The plant is a convention of the short cuts which have slashed steel costs year by year in the face of rising fuel, ore, and labor. Its furnaces, its power generators, its conveying machinery, its giant rolls, and motors, have all been tried out at previous installations. The best, the record-breaking features of all other mills have been assembled, magnified. . . . The result evolved is the most perfect big industrial plant the sun shines on. For the sun shines at Gary. That is the primary miracle. The pillar of cloud which marks other creative towns is lacking. Smoke spells waste; and here they have cut down its prodigal blackness to a thrifty mist which hardly dulls the blue of the sky.

We can only glance at some of the many interesting features of this hive of industry. Intra-works transportation plays a mighty part here. "*The switch track is the vital factor in Gary's scheme.*" One hundred and seventy miles of track serve the mills. Its blast furnaces, though not the largest in commission, will be unique: They rate 450 tons. The open hearths, though not the biggest in America, are of uncommon size,—"*fancy a kettle of blinding, bubbling metal sixteen by forty feet square!*" The rail mill has no equal in the world. It is 1800 feet long, and will "*produce 100,000 tons of steel rails monthly,—28,000 more than the South Chicago world's record.*"

Finally, the workmen's town has been constructed to attract labor, skilled and unskilled

by reason of its metropolitan comforts and conveniences, its perfect sanitation, its reasonable rents, its low rates for water, gas, and electric light; its parks and schools; opportunities to buy a house on terms even a pick-and-shovel man can compass. . . . Five hundred houses will be built, for sale or rent.

Open-hearth steel, the favored material for rails, can be produced more cheaply at Gary than anywhere else in the world, so that, "given the necessary demand to justify expansion, Gary will surpass Pittsburg as a producer of steel."

THE DARWIN CENTENARY AND "THE DESCENT OF MAN."

READERS of the REVIEW will recollect that in the October number was presented a discussion of the question: "Is Darwinism Played Out?" If any further answer than that then given were required, it would surely be forthcoming in the preparations now being made for the celebration of the centennial of the author of "The Origin of Species." Mr. William Roscoe Thayer (in the *North American Review*), commenting on the birth on the same day of "the foremost Briton and the foremost American" of the century,—an event unparalleled in all history,—suggests that

the 12th of February, the birthday of Lincoln and Darwin, should be a day of international festival, a sort of Pan-Anglo-Saxon reunion, in which the scattered members of a great race should come together to reaffirm their racial principles, to feel the thrill of common hopes and common emotions, and to realize in the most convincing way that blood is thicker than water.

There is a singular appropriateness in this suggestion, for Darwin was ever kindly disposed to the New World, and his associations with American scientists and American publishers, too, were of the pleasantest. Even our maps bear names perpetuating the achievements of his notable voyage, as witness Beagle Channel to the south of Patagonia; and numbers of his valuable scientific monographs were first published in Ameri-

can journals. Darwin himself considered this voyage of the *Beagle* to have been the most important event in his life, and to have influenced his whole career, yet the circumstances under which he joined the expedition furnish a notable illustration of "how great events from trivial causes spring." Darwin's father was strongly opposed to his son's desired acceptance of the offer to sail as naturalist on the *Beagle*; but an uncle with whom Charles was at the time staying offered to drive him thirty miles to Shrewsbury, to talk the matter over with his father, with the result that the latter gave his consent. There was still, however, an unsuspected obstacle which might have proved a fatal one. Darwin, writing in his autobiography, says:

Afterward, on becoming very intimate with Fitz-Roy [the captain of the *Beagle*], I heard that I had run a very narrow risk of being rejected, on account of the shape of my nose! He was an ardent disciple of Lavater, and was convinced that he could judge of a man's character by the outline of his features; and he doubted whether any one with my nose could possess sufficient energy and determination for the voyage.

One cannot help speculating on the appalling loss which science would have sustained had Captain Fitz-Roy adhered to his first impressions. To Darwin's presence on the *Beagle* the world owes no fewer than



Vesalius, who established anatomy on a scientific basis.



Harvey, who discovered the circulation of the blood.

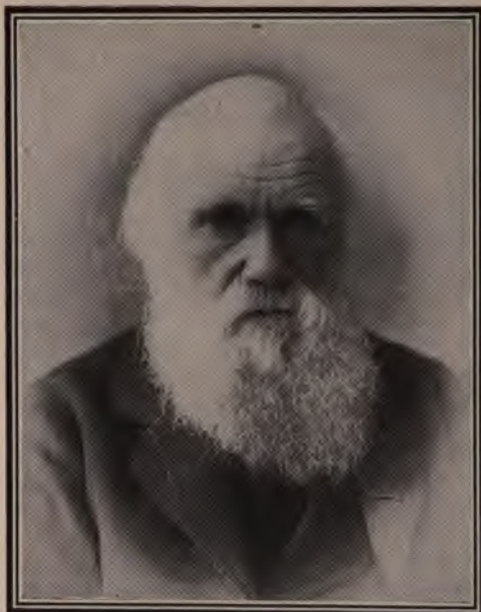


Linnæus, who systematized the science of botany.

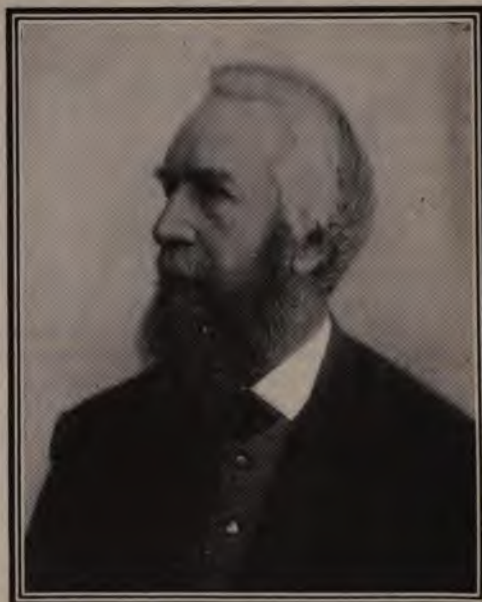


Cuvier, who founded comparative anatomy as we know it.

SOME OF THE FORERUNNERS AND CONTEMPORARIES OF DARWIN WHO HAVE



Charles Darwin, whose centenary occurs on February 12, the same day as that of Lincoln.



Ernst Haeckel, who on his seventy-fifth birthday, February 16, will retire from the University of Jena.

THE TWO EMINENT BIOLOGISTS WHOSE ANNIVERSARIES ARE CELEBRATED THIS MONTH.

thirteen separate volumes, including "The Structure and Distribution of Coral Reefs." It was during this voyage, too, that he was first prompted to embark on that career of research which was to bring him so much fame and make the world so greatly his debtor. When a student at Edinburgh University, he had found the lectures of the pro-

fessor of geology so insufferably dull that he had determined "never to read a book on geology or in any way study the science" so long as he lived. But when he beheld the volcanic phenomena and the mighty upheavals presented by the islands in the southern waters that the ship visited he became "filled with the ambition to write a book



Lamarck, the founder of the doctrine of evolution.



Mendel, one of the pioneer students of the laws of heredity.



Weismann, living exponent of the evolution theory.



Pasteur, who applied the germ theory of disease to medical practice.

ELABORATED AND CONFIRMED THE THEORY OF THE EVOLUTION OF LIFE.

on the geology of the district." Later "the attractions of biology proved greater than those of geology," with what result is well known. The *Beagle* sailed from Plymouth on December 27, 1831, and finished her circumnavigation of the globe at Falmouth, October 2, 1836. On the first of the following July Darwin opened his first notebook for the "Origin of Species," on which he was to labor for the next twenty years. In the summer of 1908 the Linnæan Society of London celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of the joint communication by Darwin and by Alfred Russel Wallace on the variation of species under natural selection. Darwin had passed away (in 1882), but Dr. Wallace was present to receive the special medal of the society. The veteran scientist, Sir Joseph Hooker, who took part in the proceedings, related, according to the *London Times*,

how Darwin had communicated to him his great idea long before Dr. Wallace independently thought it out, and what trouble he had to prevent Darwin from incontinently abandoning all claim to originality.

Dr. Wallace declared "that only a singular piece of good luck" gave him any share whatever in the discovery. He had

had the flash of insight, thought the thing out in a few hours, and sent it all off to Darwin, all within a week.

Darwin and Wallace, however, were not the first to advance the theory of natural selection. In the *Gardener's Chronicle* for April 7, 1860, one Patrick Matthew had set forth the same principles, extracted from a work on "Naval Timber and Arboriculture." Concerning this, Darwin wrote:

I freely acknowledge that Mr. Matthew has anticipated by many years the explanation which I have offered of the origin of species under the name of natural selection. I think that no one will feel surprised that neither I, nor apparently any other naturalist, had heard of Mr. Matthew's views, considering how briefly they are given, and that they appeared in the appendix to a work on "Naval Timber and Arboriculture."

The "Origin of Species" was published November, 1859, and all the copies sold the first day. The "Descent of Man" saw the light on February 24, 1871, and 7500 copies of it were sold before the end of the year. Darwin received for it £1470 (\$7350). It is difficult to realize the extraordinary effect produced by the appearance of this work. The *Edinburgh Review* described it as "raising on every side a storm of mingled wrath, wonder, and admiration." Huxley wrote thus in the *Contemporary Review*, 1871:

Whatever may be thought of or said about Mr. Darwin's doctrines, this much is certain, that in a dozen years the "Origin of Species" has worked as complete a revolution in biological science as the "Principia" did in astronomy.

This improvement in the position of evolution was recognized by the author in a passage in the introduction to the "Descent of Man." A writer in *Harper's Magazine* describes a visit to Darwin soon after the publication of the "Descent." He found the author "much impressed with the general assent with which his views had been received." The storm was yet to break, however; and the intensity of it can only be realized at this present date by those old enough to remember it. The mere suggestion that the human race was derived "from a hairy quadrumanous animal belonging to the great anthropoid group," and related to the progenitors of the orang-outang, the chimpanzee, and the gorilla, was sufficient to set practically the whole of the clerical element against the author; while the reviewers were especially severe in their comments on the work. Whereas the "Origin of Species" has succeeded in gaining recognition from nearly all competent biologists, the "Descent of Man" to-day finds many opponents both in the ranks of the scientists and among laymen also. It is impossible even to notice here other of the important works of Darwin. Suffice it to say that by adding to the crude evolutionism of Erasmus Darwin, Lamarck, and others his own specific idea, he supplied to it a sufficient cause which raised it at once from a hypothesis to a verifiable theory of natural selection. Space must be found for a word or two concerning one side of Darwin's character,—the steadfastness of his friendships and his appreciation of any kindness rendered him. This is seen especially in his letters to Hooker, Lyell, and Haeckel, the last named of whom is, it is announced, now about to sever his long association with Jena. It was Haeckel who in 1862 and 1863 placed the Darwinian question for the first time publicly before the forum of German science; and with him Darwin maintained a delightful intimacy for nearly twenty years. There are few public men of the prominence of Darwin whose letters reveal such a gentleness of character, such a consideration for others, such an indifference to fame for fame's sake as do those written by the distinguished savant whose centennial the Old World and the New will so soon unite in celebrating.

SOME NEW VIEWS OF LINCOLN.

SO much has been written about the man and the President whose centenary America will celebrate on the 12th of this present month, his career and character have been so variously discussed, that it would seem almost impossible at this late day to add anything new that is true or anything true that is new. Yet Mr. George L. Knapp, in the current number of *Lippincott's*, presents some novel observations which might be appropriately indexed "On the Mental Greatness of Lincoln." Deprecating the practice of "ticketing the great characters of history by a single peculiarity" on the ground that "this sort of historical shorthand never by any chance tells the whole truth," he says there are two mental tickets inscribed with Lincoln's name.

One is that which sets him forth as a great, sad-eyed emancipator; "a man of sorrows and acquainted with grief"; an almost supernatural being who walked with firm but hopeless tread in the way marked out by a cruel destiny. The other ticket labels our war-time President as a droll humorist, with little intellect and less good taste; but with a queer, intuitive perception which stood him instead of both education and brains.

In Mr. Knapp's opinion, both of these views give but a partial and unreal estimate of Lincoln. He continues:

He was the emancipator; and nature and circumstances combined to paint his mind in somber hues. He was the humorist as well; and but for the friction-saving oil of his kindly wit, he could never have endured the strain of those fearful years in the Presidency. But with it all, and illuminating all, was a keen, incisive, forceful brain. I do not question Lincoln's moral greatness. I do not undervalue his broad humanity, his utter unselfishness, his elemental patience. But had these qualities not been guided by a great and oddly penetrating intellect . . . our national temple would be the poorer for the figure of one of its greatest heroes. But, while libraries have been filled with praises of his moral supremacy, little has been written and less read concerning his mental greatness.

After showing how successfully Lincoln coped with the political problems of the Civil War, Mr. Knapp, referring to the "custom to apologize for Lincoln as a war President," admits that at the time of Stonewall Jackson's raid in the Shenandoah the President "lost his head." But this was his one and only serious mistake. To quote further:

For the rest he showed himself a master! The skill with which he divined the proper strategy of the war was as marked as the pa-

tience with which he tried general after general till he found at last the man who could do the work. Lincoln saw that the war was strategically a war of conquest, to be settled only by sharp, offensive operations, and steady grinding pressure in which the superior weight of the North would be sure to tell. . . . It was Lincoln's initiative that started the opening of the Mississippi, which cut the Confederacy in two. . . . These are facts which seem to me to mark Lincoln as a really great war President; as a man who, though not a soldier, had a pretty fair understanding of the soldier's trade. And to get that understanding in the moments snatched from political duties sufficient to wear out the average man, and with no personal experience worth mentioning, argues an intellect of the highest type.

There are three charges intimated against Lincoln's mental superiority: (1) Ignorance of financial matters; (2) poor judgment of men, and (3) failure at the very first to unite all the Union armies under one field commander. Admitting that the first is true, Mr. Knapp "crushingly" remarks that "if unsound views on the money question are proofs of mental inferiority, half our countrymen at any time in the last thirty years would be ready to consign the other half to an imbecile asylum." The charge of not knowing men, Mr. Knapp holds to be flatly untrue. The Republican party was then a new party, and Lincoln was obliged to select most of his political associates from his own party ranks. He chose the best he could find; and if he did not unearth some "dazzling military genius, to rid the land of its woes, there is this to be said, that there was none to discover."

We had a number of men who proved themselves good generals; but we had none who stood out so clearly from the common run as to warrant either haste or irregularity in raising him to the chief command. . . . When Lincoln found the right man to exercise that command, it was conferred, without delay and without reservation. . . . Grant was found early and supported heartily.

Lincoln was put to tests more severe than were asked of almost any other person in our history,— "tests peculiarly adapted to trying out his brain as well as his character; and he came through practically all of them triumphantly." This being the case, how does it happen, asks Mr. Knapp, that "his moral qualities have been recognized while his mental qualities have been all but ignored?"

Why have special providences been pressed into service to explain the career of this man?

when a candid examination shows that he had a brain which made miracles as needless as they would have been impertinent? The answer is, I fancy, twofold. For one thing, the great public itself has a deal more heart than head, and likes to think of its heroes as similarly endowed. Lincoln's brain was never underestimated by those who were long in close contact with him. Herndon, Seward, Chase, Hay, Schurz, Stewart,—even Stanton,—knew that behind the homely wit and kindly jest lay an intellect of sweeping range and power, and a will of flint. But these were not the qualities with which popular fancy had endowed the Emancipator; and too many of the biographies of Lincoln are less historical studies than attractive presentations of what it was thought the public wished to know.

The facts of Lincoln's early life and his unpretentiousness helped to foster the mis-

conception. He "had none of the trappings of greatness . . . he never posed" . . . and, besides, "the poor whites of Kentucky constituted a sort of social Galilee, out of which no prophet could come."

While not wishing to be considered as belonging to those who can see no flaws in the great, Mr. Knapp contends that "not even yet has the world taken Lincoln's measure."

When the time comes that a just biography of Abraham Lincoln can be written,—and read,—we shall miss nothing of the human heart, the gentle patience, the all-embracing sympathy which we see to-day. But with these qualities, we shall see an intellect at once brilliant and profound; a brain that kept its own counsel because it had looked forth with sober gaze, and seen that its own counsel was best.

"RUSSIA FOR THE RUSSIANS!"

THIS war cry has been heard more and more frequently in recent years. It sprang from one of the darkest epochs in Russian history, says the editor of the *Russkaya Vedomosti*. Under its banner, in the '80's and '90's of the last century, the relation of the Russian Government to its alien subjects, as regards nationality or religion, was made acute, and there arose the conception of "the true Russians," which introduced sharp distinctions into Russian life.

Kept in the background at the moment when the crash generated by it had come, it has now again come to the fore with still greater intrusiveness. To reaction it owes its existence, and from reaction it now draws new strength. It is defended in the conservative press and laid as a foundation for organizations to be built thereon, like the "Russian Imperial National Organization." In its name, the government is advised to deprive other nationalities of their rights, and society urged to keep aloof from them, a recommendation which amounts to a boycott. It fills with clouds of sophistry an atmosphere already charged with suspicion and enmity.

In defense of this cry it is claimed that other nations do the same. The advocates repeat similar formulas: "England for Englishmen," and "America for Americans." It is, however, not difficult, says the Russian editor already quoted, to show that the meaning of these mottoes is entirely different.

England is settled by people within whose numbers national differentiation has long lost its power. Even the differences that formerly separated the English from the Scotch have been, to a great extent, smoothed over. The motto "England for the Englishmen" threat-

ens no English citizen, shows no preference of one over the other. Its point,—when there is one,—is directed only against foreigners. As for the North American States, into their composition enter the most widely differentiated nationalities without any one claiming any dominance over the other as such. In law the Indians do not enjoy full rights, nor, practically, do the negroes,—but for certain reasons this fact has nothing to do with the motto "America for Americans." This motto refers not to Americans by descent, but to those who attain citizenship after the fulfilment of certain obligations. These or other measures may be adopted against the influx of foreigners, but not against those who have become naturalized there. One may or may not sympathize with the tendency of the American people to bar from access to their country indigent emigrants from Europe, China, or Japan, but one cannot see the similarity between this tendency and that of our home-made defense of Russia against non-Russians. Under the name of non-Russians our "patriots" understand all those not belonging to the Russian nationality, although not only they, but even their great grandfathers, were born in Russia and have always been Russian subjects. The one who is not admitted to a foreign country, or is admitted only under conditions hard to fulfil, cannot be regarded as an offender. An offense, a heavy offense, may be, on the contrary, considered on the part of a government any attempt at limiting the rights of its subjects simply because they do not happen to belong to the governing race. This truth is understood even among the partisans of national exclusion; but the offense appears to them natural and inevitable, and perhaps even meritorious. From their point of view, a non-Russian by descent may be a Russian resident, but not a Russian citizen. And yet, in a civilized country every inhabitant who has become a subject must be considered to be a citizen. With the obligations the subject fulfils, there must be closely connected the rights belonging to the citizen.

The life of an individual can be regarded complete only when he is bound to it by spiritual as well as by material bonds, concludes the Russian reviewer. Similar is the case with a government whose strength or weakness greatly depends upon the feelings cherished toward it by those living within its boundaries.

There are, therefore, no worse enemies to the Russian Government than the narrow nation-

alists who endeavor to identify it with the suppression of every nationality except one. . . . Fortunately, however, for Russia, the disseminators of intolerance hardly find favorable soil in it. Our masses are rather good-natured, and the cultured strata of our society are too much accessible to reason and conscience to indulge in low passions. The true expression of the public opinion of Russian society is to be sought rather in a Vladimir Solovyov [the great Russian philosopher and humanitarian] than in the epigones of that tendency with which he victoriously wrestled.

ARGENTINA AND NAVAL IMPERIALISM.

A RECENT issue of the *Prensa* (Buenos Aires), the leading organ of the Argentine Republic, contains an article on the proposed measures for increasing the strength and efficiency of the Argentine army and navy. It is very evident that a feeling of apprehension and distrust has been aroused by the building of the great Brazilian battleships of the *Dreadnought* class, now in various stages of construction in the English dockyards. One of these ships, the *Minas Geraes*, has already been launched. The writer of the articles urges the necessity for immediate action on the part of the Argentine Republic, for, while the prospects of that country have never been brighter, the danger of losing its influence and prestige in South America has never been greater. The intentions of Argentina are then explained:

We repudiate imperialism and we are instinctively moved to prevent its growth within our natural sphere of influence. In order to accomplish this task without clamor or violence, the Argentine Republic requires the protection and guaranties afforded by an effective and stable military and naval force. Peace and harmony in South America are necessary for the development of our resources and to enable us to utilize the powerful impulse given to our civilization by immigration and by the influx of foreign capital. Hence the possession of naval power is at least as essential as are railroads, banks, educational institutions, etc. It would not be proper to attribute to Brazil any aggressive intentions; but when, without any immediate and apparent

reasons or permanent causes which could explain such a course of action a country arms itself as Brazil is doing to-day, the fact must attract the attention of its neighbors and induce them to take precautionary measures in view of the probable ultimate effect of such a preponderant force on the international relations of the South American countries.

After briefly noting some instances of the pressure already exerted by Brazil upon some of the neighboring states, the article concludes as follows:

What assures the security of Argentina assures at the same time the security of the whole South American continent, and renders it possible for us to play our part effectively as the guardian of peace and harmony in South America. This mission is assigned to us both by our geographical position and by our resources; it is an honorable mission in every respect, and one we neither can nor should decline. In the same degree in which Brazil grows as a military power, under the inspiration of its political leaders, South American opinion will become more and more distrustful of that country's policy. Brazil will lose the sympathies of its neighbors, for oppression is always antipathetic; he who submits is never a friend. The attitude to be observed by the Argentine Republic is prescribed by the character of the events which have produced the present diplomatic situation; by arming itself for self-preservation it will become a force for the preservation of international harmony in South America, clearing the horizon, banishing suspicions, allaying fears, and, finally, satisfying the supreme aspirations of a half dozen neighboring and friendly states for concord, peace, and cloudless days without end.

LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

AN INCOME FROM TAXES.

TAXES to most of us suggest paying out, —one of the two proverbial and disagreeable necessities. So there is poetic justice in the thought that last year some \$112,000,000 *income* from taxes was received by the holders of the \$2,800,000,000-odd municipal bonds,—bonds of towns, cities, townships, villages, school districts, and other community organizations throughout the United States.

Coming from small to great, it is even more pleasant to know that any reader of this article can get this safest form of bond in amounts from \$10 up, to pay from 4 to 5 per cent., and even more when a special variety.

THE FIRST CLASS OF SAFETY.

Why a municipal comes first in safety is told by Arthur M. Harris, a dealer of wide acquaintance in municipal bonds, in *Trust Companies' Magazine*: because taxes are a lien ahead of all others.

You may hold a mortgage upon a piece of real estate; in order to convey it and give clear title it is absolutely essential that the taxes due thereon be first paid. A railroad may own in a given county many miles of track, freight houses, etc., etc.; the road must provide funds for the payment of its taxes in that county before providing funds for the payment of interest on its first mortgage bonds. Then, again, *all* property within the limits of the municipality is liable for the payment of the tax. Still further, in many cases municipal securities are exempt from all taxes. In New York State no municipal bonds are taxable except those issued by school districts, and it is probable that the intention of the law was to include school districts, but because of an oversight they are not so exempt.

The practical point for the bond-buyer is to make sure that his bankers are specialists. Obviously a house that has handled hundreds of issues of municipals knows lots more about the red tape of bonding a community than the officials of the town, who may be just elected. Or it may be the town's first issue of the sort or of any sort.

The municipal officials may have overlooked some provision of the law such as advertising the required number of days for bids, or failure to give a sufficient notice to the voters as required by law; or possibly the new issue

would bring the debt above the constitutional limit of debt. Here is where the value of an expert's opinion comes in.

Thus safeguarded at every important point and backed by the kind of "earnings" that must be paid, though factories shut down and trains stop running, a municipal bond is very properly treated as the ground work of a permanent investment.

A SUBSTITUTE FOR GOVERNMENT BONDS.

In the United States, the municipal bonds take the place of the Government *rentes* or loan in which the thrifty Frenchman puts his savings. *Success* points out the reason: that Government bonds are in such demand by national banks as to carry a high premium and give the investor too low a yield. "At one time investors held \$2,000,000,000 worth of these bonds. To-day they hold less than \$300,000,000."

Some of the most desirable bonds for general investment purposes are those of smaller places. A man who seeks steady, safe, and profitable employment for his money may find it in a village bond. There are many reasons for this. The most important, perhaps, is that the authorities of villages and towns are usually very careful about incurring debts for the community. There are no fat contracts to be given out to favored contractors (a large drain on the revenue of some large cities), and the general character of the selectmen or aldermen is ordinarily higher than in big cities. The officials of a small town often feel a personal moral responsibility in the safeguarding of the bonded obligations of the place. Some bonds of towns and villages pay as high as 5 or 6 per cent. Since it is to the great advantage of a community to meet its fixed charges, these bonds, when bought at a fair price, make a very excellent investment.

Those who want information as to the bankers who handle different kinds of municipals can get it from experienced investors, or from a magazine like the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, which maintains a special financial department. And here the warning must be repeated,—that we are in a financial movement wherein the small investor above all others should be careful to ask for the first security on his interest and principal. This means something more than the hopes and fears that surround the average speculative stock. Hopes are never as sure as taxes.

FROM A PROFESSIONAL BOND APPRAISER.

WHEN the vice-president of a big New York trust company tells how he judges the value of railroad bonds, it is a good time for the investor to listen. The lecture given by Mr. George Garr Henry before the New York Y. M. C. A. West Side Branch is reprinted in the *Ticker Magazine* for last month.

No mystery is involved, says Mr. Henry. "Any man of experience in the business world can easily determine the degree of security which attaches to any particular railroad bond, provided he has two documents; viz., the mortgage and the trust deed which describes the property covered by the mortgage, and the last annual report which gives the financial condition of the property."

The mortgage is to show whether your principal is secure; the report of earnings to show whether your income is secure.

Security of principal follows three factors: (1) The dollars of bonds per mile of road as compared with the amount some one would have to spend to build a competing road; (2) the dollars of bonds whose claim comes before your claim, and (3) the dollars of bonds whose claim comes after yours.

The first point is thus illustrated by Mr. Henry, in a manner to show how closely finance is linked with common-sense:

Say a road is down South somewhere,—take the road that runs from Birmingham to Atlanta. You ask, "How much did the road cost?" The answer is, it is bonded for \$25,000 per mile.

You say, "I do not want any of these bonds; the Atlantic Coast Line, which is a very profitable property, is only bonded for \$20,000 per mile. If they build a road at \$20,000 per mile, I

do not believe I want the other bonds. I would rather have the Atlantic Coast Line's."

Another anecdote shows the workings of the second and third factors:

I was talking with a very successful bond buyer of one of the large insurance companies a while ago about the International & Great Northern Railroad, which went into the hands of a receiver.

I said, "Mr. So-and-So, haven't you some of those bonds?"

"Yes," he replied.

"Losing any sleep over it?"

"No, not a bit," he answered.

"Why, how is that? I thought you had the Thirds."

"No," he said, "I have the Seconds."

He was not losing sleep because the third-mortgage bondholders, in order to protect their interests, would have to "buy him in." He would get par for his bonds. It makes a great difference to bondholders whether there is anybody else behind them in a foreclosure.

When it comes to earnings, a lot of comparisons with other roads are needed. The important point is *net* income,—what is actually available to pay interest after the employees' wages and the bills for rails, ties, engines, and so forth have been paid. But if the road has not been patched and repaired sufficiently, the net earnings can be made to look larger than they ought, because that "maintenance" must be paid for some day.

A little scrutiny here will pay, because the net income, says Mr. Henry, "is what you have to consider. The average road is earning a little more than twice its interest charges. To put a bond in the first investment class it should earn anywhere from two to three times its interest charge."

THE NEWS ABOUT UNION PACIFIC.

THEY say Mr. Harriman never laughs.

If anything does upset his savage concentration it ought to be the wordy wars engaged in by the newspaper writing and reading public whenever the name of the slight, stooping, hard-working president of the Union Pacific is prominently mentioned.

Many investors do not wish to question the personal conduct of Mr. Harriman, or of any one else, but still feel concerned. Shall they sell their Union Pacific stock? They don't want personalities, they want facts; but find it hard to get them.

No wonder. Last month the press fairly

hummed with "U. P." news. On the 16th it was announced that \$154,583,500 of different railroad stocks were held in Mr. Harriman's name. The meaning of this is perfectly plain to the youthful financial reporter who has just "seen Harriman," who writes under the impact of the mighty imagination that directs steel tracks by the thousand miles, dollars by the hundred millions. Clearly, the news merely hints at the genius of "our great constructionist" as a railroad general and a trustee for other people's money.

But on another page of the same news-

paper one could read testimony from the Government's suit to split Mr. Harriman's vast structure at its very keystone,—the Union Pacific-Southern Pacific merger,—as in restraint of trade. Hence, something far different is "perfectly plain" to many serious and honest editorial writers and readers. And no one can doubt the sympathy on this point among those who travel and ship over the 24,637 miles of railroads directly managed under Mr. Harriman, and the 59,708 miles more dominated or largely influenced by him. No matter how good its service, a railroad is apt to fall under suspicion if its rates are fairly high.

To swing back to the other side: the two groups of railroads have 44,103 and 96,222 stockholders, respectively. Most of these more or less immediate partners of Mr. Harriman have been getting their dividend checks right along, and at rates above the average. They resent and ridicule the attacks made by editors of sensational papers.

But the latter, after all, are human and want to keep their jobs. They will hardly miss such a chance to dangle spooks like "blind pools," "stock gambling machines," "gigantic engines of speculation" before the startled reader's eye. So few public men can be called "freebooter," "spider," and even "incubus" who, like Harriman, will not answer back!

On the other hand, technical and responsible journals do not go far enough. For instance, the first *Railroad Age Gazette* of last month analyzes and admires the U. P.'s magnificent earnings as a railroad. But it feels the wisdom and righteousness of its grip on other railroad companies to be a question outside the field of the practical railway man.

This second problem is indeed discussed, both pro and con, by the *London Statist* and *Economist*. But they make no comment at all on a third point, not to be ignored, that although Mr. Harriman's companies show results satisfactory to their stockholders, the United States Government objects to some of their methods.

Can we not briefly get at the facts of record on these three questions, from original and coldblooded sources?

(1) HARRIMAN AS A RAILROAD MAN.

The easiest thing Harriman admirers do is to point to the contrast between these different years' earnings *from operation* of the Union Pacific Railroad:

Fiscal year.	Miles operated.	Operating revenue.
1898.....	5,325	\$33,281,125
1908.....	5,781	76,039,225

The figures tell the story. An increase of less than 9 per cent. in mileage, but more than 128 per cent. in earnings! (And these earnings are independent of some \$16,000,000 additional received in 1908 from "investments.")

To Mr. Harriman is conceded the plan and the achievement. His ideas were intensive. The Union Pacific has been made a *through* railroad. He concentrated on his main lines. In those eleven years he spent more than \$123,000,000 in straightening and leveling the road, double-tracking it, buying it the finest engines and cars and other equipment, ballasting it, and making it the show road west of the Mississippi, and perhaps east, too.

Meanwhile he ran it up to concert pitch. He could put his finger on big men or little things. One day he might be discovering a genius like Julius Kruttschnitt to handle his traffic, or another like J. C. Stubbs to get it, and the next day he might be noticing the smallness of the water tank pipe which a Union Pacific fireman was adjusting on to his locomotive tank,—while the train waited. Mr. Harriman was not satisfied with the excuse that "all the pipes on the line were just that size." He ordered them enlarged. Several minutes were saved whenever a locomotive took water. The cash difference to the U. P. during the next year figured up to something like \$300,000.

(2) MORE FROM INVESTMENTS THAN FROM OPERATION.

Yet Mr. Harriman's conduct in railroad-ing tells only half the story to the stockholder. The situation is unique.

Suppose the reader owned last year one share of Union Pacific stock. He got \$10 in dividends. This seemed conservative, since he could cipher that his share of the profits of the company was \$16.23.

Now less than \$8.04 of this was from transportation operation. The more than \$8.19 balance was from "other income,"—mostly from the dividends of shares owned by the Union Pacific in the profits of companies *not operated by itself*.

In other words: Mr. Harriman's wisdom as head of an investment concern would seem even more important to the purchaser of Union Pacific stock than Mr. Harriman's efficiency as a railroad man.

Why is this enormous amount of stock held? Answers are as many and various as on the problem of a protective tariff. No use to discuss them without getting two pictures in mind, eleven years apart.

About 1898, the Union Pacific Railroad was a wretched fragment of 1800 bankrupt miles. It stretched from Omaha to Ogden,—the former on the Missouri River, the latter by the shores of Salt Lake.

Now it was not to work up small local business between these interior points, through a raw country, that the Kuhn-Loeb syndicate had raised \$81,500,000 cash to pay off the United States Government and the other mortgagees of the scandal-stricken line.

BETWEEN THE DEVIL AND THE DEEP SEA.

No,—what the U. P. needed was *through business*. And in this respect it lay between the devil and the deep sea.

The latter could be reached from Ogden only over the Southern Pacific, the weapon of the rich "Huntington crowd." The part of the devil was played at Omaha by a group of the old guard of American railroads,—the Missouri Pacific, Northwestern, St. Paul, Burlington, and the Rock Island,—all so powerful as to have fought their way through the '93 depression.

Hemmed in, the Union Pacific would take through traffic on other roads' terms, or do without. If the Southern Pacific did not like its rates eastward, it could route the freight itself through New Orleans. The St. Paul or the Northwestern could hand westbound freight over to the Northern Pacific at St. Paul.

Even after the syndicate had made its first reach,—buying lines that ran to Kansas City on the southeast and Portland to the northwest,—things were not much better. The "devil" was again personified at Kansas City by the Atchison, Alton, Great Western, and Wabash. And here again, it was the Southern Pacific which met the U. P. at Portland,—the "deep sea,"—and which held the line to San Francisco, the Pacific port of greatest consequence.

Into the foreground of this scene entered about 1899 Mr. Harriman, whose membership in the U. P. crowd had up to then been inconspicuous. Then the fighting began. We must pass by several of the biggest railroad deals and wars in history. In each case the spoils of battle were the stock certificates of some other road,—the kind that carried the votes.

As a result, we have the second picture, lightly sketched by the following exhibit from the Union Pacific's latest report. It is entitled "Investment Stocks Owned":

Description.	Shares held.
Atchison, preferred.....	100,000
Baltimore & Ohio, common.....	323,342
Baltimore & Ohio, preferred.....	72,064
Chicago & Alton, preferred.....	103,431
Chicago & Northwestern, common.....	32,150
Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul, common (old)	13,400
Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul, common (new, 65 per cent. paid).....	32,725
Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul, preferred (new, 65 per cent. paid).....	18,450
Great Northern, preferred.....	35,786
Great Northern ore certificates.....	77,164
Illinois Central, common.....	201,231
New York Central, common.....	142,857
Northern Pacific, common (old).....	1,128
Northern Pacific, common (new, 62½ per cent. paid).....	18,016
Northern Securities stubs.....	7,249
Railroad Securities, common.....	34,829
Railroad Securities, preferred.....	19,359
Southern Pacific, common.....	900,000
Southern Pacific, preferred.....	342,000

At the present time of writing these stocks are worth about \$300,000,000. And that isn't all the story.

Look at the first item,—100,000 shares of Atchison. Consider it together with the fact that U. P. bankers and directors are on record as owning 300,000 shares more,—a total of 17 per cent. of the voting stock of the Atchison Railway. When this road exchanges traffic with others at Kansas City, let us say, will it escape the fact that more than one-sixth of its common stock is owned by one particular railway,—the Union Pacific? From testimony now coming out in the Government's suit it would seem safe to answer No.

Something similar could be said for many other items on the list.

Then consider that the Northwestern is practically the western end of the New York Central; that the B. & O. controls the Reading and through it the Central of New Jersey; and that the Georgia Central is owned outright by E. H. Harriman.

Is it not plain that one can trace the course of a freight car under Mr. Harriman's control, command, or influence all the way from Portland or San Francisco or Chicago or New Orleans to New York or Philadelphia or Baltimore or Savannah,—and back again?

ARE THE INVESTMENTS AN UNMIXED BLESSING?

The bitterest opponents of the U. P.'s "investments" grant their traffic advantages. Some even find points of wisdom financially. Though objecting strongly to the stockholdings on other grounds, the *Evening Post* does believe that "an annual

income of \$16,765,000 would prove an anchor to the windward for any railroad during a stringency in the money market. By far the strongest point, however, is the independence obtained by the ownership of \$316,725,740 free assets in bonds and stocks, a large part of which is made up of what is called high-grade stock market-collateral."

Some critics, however, ask why the Union Pacific sold a whole lot of bonds,—\$97,000,000,—during the year ending June 30, 1908, when hundreds of millions of its money were held in stocks quoted at much less than they had cost it.

A reply made by the *Wall Street Journal* shows that the Union Pacific at least did better than most other railroad companies could have done during August, 1907, in borrowing money at only 4.6 per cent.

Then comes the "final analysis," favored by supporters of Cæsar, Napoleon, and Harriman,—that the plan succeeds,—that this railway-investment company made more money during the depression than many roads managed in the old-fashioned way. The trouble with such reasoning is that it covers the past more than the future of the Union Pacific.

Thus the London *Economist*: "It is at present the most successful mixture in the world of transport and stock-dealing. But its success depends on the personality of one man, and not without reason are its securities ranked among the most speculative in the American market."

The usual criticism seems to lie in the feeling that Mr. Harriman has gone too far,—that a railroad ought to stick to its knitting,—that this \$300,000,000 investment ought to go back into more machinery of transportation, directly or indirectly.

"The function of a railroad corporation should be confined to the furnishing of transportation," declared an Interstate Commerce Commission report. A couple of years ago there were about 50,000 square miles of territory in the State of Oregon alone, surrounded by Harriman lines, undeveloped,— "while the funds of those companies which could be used for that purpose," the Commerce Commission complained, "were being invested in stocks like the New York Central and other lines having only a remote relation to the territory in which the Union Pacific System is located."

Maybe this is only poetic justice, and maybe it is founded on permanent business prin-

ciples,—that the money received from railroad earnings should go back to help the growth of the sections that supplied those earnings.

(3) STOCK PROFITS AND PUBLIC POLICY.

Whether or no the "investments" continue as profitable as the operations, their plan may change perforce.

A year ago a suit in equity was filed by the United States Government at Salt Lake City, alleging that the Union Pacific by the purchase of the Southern Pacific and the San Pedro, Los Angeles and Salt Lake, otherwise known as the Clark road, as well as by stockholdings in the Atchison, Northern Pacific, and Great Northern, had stifled competition in transcontinental business and created a monopoly in violation of the Sherman law.

Some of the testimony in this case was first hand and important. Witnesses like E. T. Jeffery, president of the Denver & Rio Grande; Stuyvesant Fish, former president of the Illinois Central; Edward P. Ripley, president of the Atchison, bore witness that there was less competition or no competition between the "Union" and the "Southern" at certain points west of the Mississippi.

The Southern Pacific stock now held by the U. P. is worth some \$150,000,000. This belongs to the U. P. stockholders. If the Government wins, will they lose? The *Wall Street Journal* thinks not, on the basis of precedent:

To take the most pessimistic view of this litigation, Mr. Hill and his stockholders in the Northern Securities case merely swapped the black certificates of the Northern Securities for the red and green of the Northern Pacific and Great Northern, and the control remained *statu quo*.

If forced, the Union Pacific could do somewhat likewise; or, better still, the stockholders of the Union Pacific could vote to distribute the stock among themselves, a feasible plan, and simultaneously vote to transfer it to Mr. Harriman and two or three other trustees, the latter to give the stockholders certificates of beneficial interest in the stock. Here, too, control would remain *statu quo*.

Only lawyers and history can answer the question whether Mr. Harriman is great and good, or merely great. That he makes money for his tens of thousands of stockholding partners, and that he or his successors may reasonably be expected to continue the same scale of profits, may be the conclusion of the unsentimental investigator.

OLD AND NEW LINCOLN LITERATURE.

OF how many Americans can it be said that more than a thousand books and pamphlets have been written and printed concerning them? As recipients of an honor so unusual one hesitates to name any save Washington; yet it is a fact that three years ago Judge Daniel Fish, of Minneapolis, published a bibliography of Abraham Lincoln containing 1100 titles,—an accumulation of less than half a century, with many publications in foreign languages still unnoticed. Moreover, the Lincoln literature is growing lustily. Even in the three years' interval since this bibliography appeared important contributions have been made to our knowledge of Lincoln as a man and as President. No other American biographies have the vitality of the numerous popular "lives" of the Illinois rail-splitter. Of the genuine and widespread demand for these books there is ample evidence. Those who help to direct the reading of our youth testify to the interest manifested by the children of foreign-born parents in the story of our first martyr President. The career of this humble yet mighty man of the people has been and is now an inspiration, we are told, to many a Russian or Italian boy of New York's East Side. The boys and girls of foreign parentage seem to find as much to love and revere in Lincoln's character as do the youth of native stock.

WRITINGS BY LINCOLN'S CONTEMPORARIES.

It must be remembered that all this writing about Lincoln virtually began in 1860, and has been in progress ever since. In the summer of that year a certain young newspaper man of Ohio,—William Dean Howells by name,—wrote a campaign life of the Republican candidate for the Presidency. This was the earliest Lincoln biography to have a general circulation. It has long been out of print.

The first important life of the President to be published after the assassination was Dr. J. G. Holland's, and this was followed by a long series of personal recollections by Lincoln's contemporaries. These memories of "men who knew Lincoln" are still coming from the press. Two books of this kind by Frank B. Carpenter, the artist who painted "The Emancipation Proclamation," appearing within a few years after the President's death, have vitally influenced the conception of Lincoln's character held by two generations of Americans. "Six Months at the White House" described the President's daily life as Mr. Carpenter knew it, in 1864. "The Inner Life of Abraham Lincoln" was an intimate character study such as few men of the time, even among those brought into close official relations with Mr. Lincoln, were qualified to make. Both books were widely read and many men and women of to-day can refer their first attempts to idealize the man Lincoln to the word-pictures so skillfully drawn by Mr. Carpenter, who was a writer as well as a painter.

In the year after Lincoln's death appeared the "Life," by his friend, the Hon. Isaac N. Arnold, of Chicago, to be followed after a con-

siderable interval by "The True Story of a Great Life," in which William H. Herndon, Lincoln's law partner, related the facts of Lincoln's early life as he understood them. Ward H. Lamon's "Life" was another popular book of reminiscent interest which appeared shortly after the death of its subject.

THE NICOLAY AND HAY HISTORY.

In this brief survey we must pass over a great number of contributions to Lincoln literature, some of them more or less ephemeral, but each in its own way helping to give form to the younger generation's conception of the man. The one truly monumental work in this field, if so hackneyed a term is permissible, is the great ten-volume history written by Mr. Lincoln's private secretaries, Messrs. John G. Nicolay and John Hay. This work was first published as a serial feature in the *Century Magazine*, beginning in November, 1886. The authors had been engaged upon it for more than twenty years. From the year 1860, before Mr. Lincoln was inaugurated as President, until his death in 1865, either Mr. Hay or Mr. Nicolay, and generally both, were on duty at his side every day. We believe it is not generally known that during all those years they cherished the idea of writing a history, and that Mr. Lincoln himself, who was aware of this intention, encouraged and assisted them in their work. He gave them precious manuscripts, and upon his death all of his papers were unreservedly turned over to them by the Lincoln family. The publication of the Lincoln history in the *Century* followed that magazine's famous war papers, and brought at once many thousands of new subscribers. The sum paid Messrs. Nicolay and Hay for the serial rights of the history in the magazine was \$50,000, an unprecedented amount.

The title of the work is "Abraham Lincoln: a History," and it is really a history of the times in which Lincoln lived, including especially a detailed record of the Civil War based upon official documents. After the completion of the serial publication in the magazine the work was brought out in book form, and for twenty years it has had a constant sale. A few years ago, and just before his death, Mr. Nicolay prepared a single-volume life of Lincoln, condensed from the great ten-volume work, and two years ago Miss Helen Nicolay, Mr. Nicolay's daughter, using the original work as a basis, prepared a "Boy's Life of Lincoln," which was published first as a serial in *St. Nicholas*.

PRESERVING THE HUMAN PORTRAIT.

Another important magazine enterprise which resulted in revivifying interest in Lincoln's career throughout the country was Miss Ida M. Tarbell's life of Lincoln, originally published in *McClure's Magazine* about a decade after the *Century* undertaking. Miss Tarbell made it her business to seek out the men who had known Lincoln and were still living in the '90's and to get from them their own homely and

often not entirely consistent accounts of what Lincoln said and did in their daily companionship with him. In this way Miss Tarbell made a book of surpassing human interest, and undoubtedly preserved much valuable material that might otherwise have been lost. The work was published in four volumes and has had a continuous sale.

A FEW OF THE NEWER PUBLICATIONS.

Among more recent publications of a permanent value are "Lincoln's Complete Works," edited by Messrs. Nicolay and Hay, with a gen-

and old alike. Mr. Rothschild's work is a bit of character analysis well fitted to gain and hold the attention of the discriminating reader.

A unique souvenir of the anniversary is the Lincoln medal, by Jules Edouard Roiné, with an accompanying volume of papers apropos of the centenary (Putnams). The copies of the medal, which is described as the most beautiful representation of Lincoln's features ever made, were struck under the instructions of Mr. Robert Hewitt, the collector of Lincoln medals, who is the owner of the copyright.

The publishers have just brought out a new



THE ROINÉ MEDAL OF LINCOLN.

(A copy of this medal, either in bronze or in silver, accompanies each copy of the volume entitled "The Lincoln Centennial Medal.")

eral introduction by Richard Watson Gilder and special articles by other eminent persons, now published in twelve volumes by the Tandy-Thomas Company, of New York, and "The Lincoln-Douglas Debates of 1858," edited with introduction and notes by Edwin Erle Sparks (Illinois State Historical Library, Springfield).

The Century Company has brought out Mr. Frederick Trevor Hill's "Lincoln the Lawyer," an extremely interesting study and estimate of Lincoln's unusual professional abilities, and "Lincoln in the Telegraph Office," an account by D. H. Bates of the President's visits to the War Department telegraphers, where he frequently received news of battles and other military movements.

Within the past few months several volumes have been published with special reference to the approaching centenary of Lincoln's birth. Notable among these are a second edition of Mr. Alonzo Rothschild's "Lincoln: Master of Men" and Mr. James Morgan's "Abraham Lincoln: The Boy and the Man" (Macmillan). The latter is a straightforward, clearly expressed statement of the known facts of Lincoln's career, with little attempt at inference, but characterized by a directness and simplicity that make a convincing appeal to young

edition of the late Allen Thorndyke Rice's "Reminiscences of Abraham Lincoln by Distinguished Men of His Time" (Harpers). Like the several volumes of personal recollections which we have already noted, these papers by many of Lincoln's distinguished contemporaries have, of course, a distinct interest and value.

In a book devoted to "The Death of Lincoln" (Doubleday, Page & Co.), Miss Clara Laughlin has attempted a complete history of the tragedy and the events immediately preceding and following it.

Among the smaller publications of the anniversary season are: "The Boyhood of Lincoln," by Eleanor Atkinson (McClure); "The Toyshop: a Romantic Story of Lincoln the Man," by Margarita S. Gerry (Harpers); "Lincoln and the Sleeping Sentinel," a true story told by L. E. Chittenden (Harpers); "The Autobiography of Abraham Lincoln" (New York: The Tandy-Thomas Company); "Lincoln's Use of the Bible," by S. Travena Jackson (New York: Eaton and Mains); "The Wisdom of Abraham Lincoln" (New York: A. Wessels Company); and "The Life of Abraham Lincoln for Boys and Girls," by Charles W. Moores (Houghton, Mifflin Company).

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORY, EXPLORATION, DESCRIPTION.

The Evolution of Modern Germany. By W. Harbutt Dawson. Scribners. 503 pp. \$4.

The transformation which has come over modern Germany has been essentially economic and in the direction of triumphs in material fields. The dominant note of German life today is not that of forty or even thirty years ago. Just how this change has come about, and how the great industrial, commercial world-state of the present has evolved from the former rather heterogeneous collection of states whose peoples were constantly ridiculed as visionary idealists, is set forth in a judicial, scholarly way by Mr. Dawson in these 500 pages of close text. For twenty years this author has been writing books and magazine articles on German development, and the list includes (to name the better-known ones): "Germany and the Germans," "The German Workman," "German Socialism and Ferdinand Lassalle," "Prince Bismarck and State Socialism." The present volume, says Mr. Dawson in his introduction, is not intended to be "either a glorification or a disparagement of Germany from the standpoint of industry and labor." It seeks to show the Germans "as a trading nation just as they are; to describe their efforts, energies, successes; to tell readers of English speech what they ought to know, and must know, if they would understand how it is that Germany has gone ahead so rapidly during recent years, not, however, by way of discouraging but of reassuring them."

The Two Hague Conferences. By William I. Hull. Ginn & Co. 516 pp. \$1.50.

Professor Hull's book answers the questions, What topics did the two Hague Conferences discuss? and What conclusions did they reach? Much of the material contained in this volume has heretofore been inaccessible, particularly to English and American readers. The proceedings of the last conference had been printed daily in the French language, but had never been published in a single volume. So far as the first Hague Conference is concerned, the best report in English is the little volume entitled "The Peace Conference at The Hague," by the late F. W. Holls, a member of the American delegation.

A History of the United States, Vol. II. By Edward Channing. Macmillan. 614 pp., with maps. \$2.50.

The century of colonial history covered by Professor Channing's second volume,—1660-1760,—has never been attractive to the historian. There has been, in fact, a notable lack of scholarly historical treatment of this period. It can no longer be said, however, that the pe-

riod has been neglected, since Professor Channing has explored it with all the zest and thoroughness that have characterized his work in other periods of our history. The footnote references are so abundant that even when the reader is tempted to differ with Professor Channing in certain of his conclusions he cannot complain that the evidence is withheld.

The North American Indian. Twenty volumes. Written, illustrated, and published by Edward S. Curtis. Edited by Frederick Webb Hodge, with a foreword by Theodore Roosevelt. Field research conducted under the patronage of J. Pierpont Morgan. Vol. I., 161 pp., 79 photogravure plates; Vol. II., 142 pp., 75 photogravure plates. \$3000 per set.

This great enterprise is in a class by itself. It cannot be compared with any publishing venture in the annals of American book-making, or indeed in those of any other nation. Mr. Curtis has set out to picture and describe the remaining tribes of American red men with an accuracy and fidelity to detail never before attained in the countless volumes about the Indian that have been written and printed since the days of Captain John Smith. Mr. Curtis began his studies with the camera some ten years ago. Had he put off the task even for a few years he would have been too late to record many of the tribal customs and religious observances that form the subjects of some of the most interesting photographs that he has secured. So rapidly are the remaining Western tribes putting aside their native customs and modes of life that even before the publication of this remarkable series can be brought to completion many of the scenes depicted therein will have become virtually obsolete. Mr. Curtis is rendering indeed a great service to the American people and to the science of anthropology. Not only are his photographs superior to any previous attempt to picture Indian life, but the accompanying text is illuminating and helpful as an interpretation of the Indian character. In richness of typography and illustration the work is without a rival in this country. Five hundred sets are offered for sale at a price of \$3000 a set. The field research has been conducted under the patronage of Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan.

Carl Wimar: a Biography. By William R. Hodges. Galveston, Texas: Charles Reymers-hoffer. 37 pp., ill.

In this little volume Captain Hodges gives the life history of an artist of German birth who lived for many years in St. Louis and painted the Indian and the buffalo as he saw them on the Western plains more than half a century



DUKE OF THE ABRUZZI.

(An account of his expedition to the African mountains of Ruwenzori has just appeared.)

ago. It is Wimar's distinction as an artist that he early appreciated and made pictorial use of materials that his contemporary artists practically ignored. Several of Wimar's paintings have been well known in this country for many years, but it was not until some time after his death that the artist received a substantial recognition from members of his own craft. Wimar died of consumption, in St. Louis, in 1862. The most important of his paintings are reproduced in the present volume, and a catalogue of his works is furnished by Mr. Charles Reymersshoffer.

Alaska. By Ella Higginson. Macmillan. 537 pp., ill. \$2.50.

Mrs. Higginson has put into this volume much more than a mere series of fleeting impressions. She was in the country long enough to know the people and to become acquainted with much of the interesting folklore possessed by the natives. She has also incorporated in the story references to the Russian occupation.

Ruwenzori: An Account of the Expedition of H. R. H. Prince Luigi Amedeo of Savoy, Duke of the Abruzzi. By Filippo de Felippi, F. R. G. S. With a preface by H. R. H. the Duke of the Abruzzi. Dutton. 408 pp., ill. \$8.

The snow-clad peaks of equatorial Africa, known since Ptolemy's day as the Mountains of the Moon, have now been definitely identified as the Ruwenzori. The explorer, Stanley, was the first to make known to the civilized world the precise location and physical features of these mountains, but prior to 1906 the chain had never been actually explored. In that year the expedition led by the Duke of the Abruzzi

made a complete survey of these important mountains, and the data secured by his expedition are incorporated in the elaborately illustrated volume now published. The photographs reproduced in this book are of unusual interest.

Fighting the Turk in the Balkans. By Arthur D. Howden Smith. Putnams. 369 pp., illustrated from photographs. \$1.75.

This is the rather vividly told story of an American's adventures with Macedonian revolutionists. Mr. Smith did some journalistic work while he was fighting in the ranks of the Macedonian Bulgars, and his style is graphic and entertaining. The volume is illustrated with photographs taken by the author.

India, Its Life and Thought. By John P. Jones. Macmillan. 448 pp., ill. \$2.50.

The Commercial Products of India. By Sir George Watt. Dutton. 1189 pp. \$5.

Two important books of information about India and the spiritual and material life of its people have been recently issued. While Mr. Jones informs us he makes no claim to the right to speak *ex cathedra* on this subject, nevertheless, "thirty years of matured experience in India, living in constant touch with the people and studying with eagerness their life and thought," he hopes, gives him at least a humble claim to be heard. Particularly interesting at the present moment is Mr. Jones' first chapter, on India's unrest. Sir George Watt, in his work, has abridged the "Dictionary of the Economic Products of India," which was published some years ago under the authority of the British Secretary of State for Indian Affairs. The present volume, which is very carefully gotten up typographically, presents its information (chiefly, of course, on material subjects) in an easily accessible form. Sir George Watt was for many years professor of botany in Calcutta University, superintendent of the Indian Museum, and reporter on economic products to the government of India.

The Making of Canada. By A. G. Bradley. Dutton. 396 pp. \$3.

Mr. Bradley, who is author of "The Fight with France for North America" and "Canada in the Twentieth Century," has attempted in this volume, he tells us, to depict "the most vital and interesting period of Canadian history within a compass that is neither sketchy on the one hand nor monumental on the other." It begins with the defeat of Montcalm by Wolfe before Quebec, and brings the history of the Dominion down to the war of 1814 (which began in this country two years before).

The Italians of To-day. By Rene Bazin. Holt. 247 pp. \$1.25.

While this little volume makes no pretensions to be a thorough discussion of Italian national traits and character, yet there cannot fail to be, particularly at the present time, a great deal of interest in anything this keen French author says about Italy and the Italians. The translation is by William Marchant.

BOOKS ON GOVERNMENT.

Primary Elections. By C. Edward Merriam. University of Chicago Press. 302 pp. \$1.35.

In New York and other States where the question of direct primaries will be under consideration during the present winter this study of American legislation on the subject should prove extremely useful. The author gives an account of all the important American laws dealing with the matter of nominations, with special chapters on the direct primary and a summary of judicial interpretation.

Uncle Sam's Business. By Crittenden Marriott. Harpers. 321 pp. \$1.25.

This book makes an interesting exhibit of the purely "business" aspects of the Government at Washington. One reason why there should be a demand for a book of this kind is the fact that the functions of government have been greatly extended in recent years in fields that we are accustomed to recognize as belonging to the domain of modern business. It is certainly important that in addition to the numerous theoretical manuals of the so-called science of government there should be an account like this of what the Government really does and how it does it.

COMMERCE, INDUSTRY, FINANCE.

The Book of Wheat. By Peter T. Dondlinger. New York: Orange Judd Company. 369 pp., ill. \$2.

This work treats of the growing, cultivation, and harvesting of wheat, as well as of the systems of crop rotation, irrigation, and fertilizing employed, the diseases to which this grain is subject, its insect enemies, and, finally, the important questions of transportation, storage, marketing, and milling. In short, the writer has attempted nothing less than a complete practical manual of the wheat industry.

The Ocean Carrier. By J. Russell Smith. Putnam. 344 pp., ill. \$1.50.

In this volume Dr. Smith relates the history of ocean shipping and discusses carriers' rates and the various means adopted to control them. His treatment of the subject is both novel and interesting. Not only has the author made a special inquiry into the development of line traffic, but he has given much attention to the combination of steamship lines with railroads.

The World's Gold: Its Geology, Extraction, and Political Economy. By L. de Launay. Putnam. 242 pp. \$1.75.

As Mr. Charles A. Conant observes in the introduction to this English version, M. de Launay in this volume examines the problem of the future supply of gold from the scientific standpoint and correlates the influence of this supply with prices and the movement of capital from the financial standpoint. As to the question whether prices rise and fall with the quantity of gold, this writer holds that while the quantity of gold is one of the factors which influence prices, it is only one among many factors, several of which are powerful enough, either singly or in combination, to neutralize changes in the quantity of money.

A NEW BOOK ABOUT MARS AND THE MARTIANS.

Mars as the Abode of Life. By Percival Lowell. Macmillan. 288 pp., ill. \$2.50.

This volume is based on the lectures delivered by Professor Lowell in 1906 before the Lowell Institute in Boston, although rewritten and revised. More than a year's favorable observation of the planet from the observatory at Flagstaff, Ariz., has confirmed Professor Lowell in his belief that the system of canals as shown through the telescope "give to science witness that life, and life of no mean order, at present inhabits the planet Mars. . . . Not only do the observations lead us to the conclu-



PROF. PERCIVAL LOWELL.

(Author of "Mars as the Abode of Life.")

sion that Mars at this moment is inhabited, but they land us at the further one that its denizens are of an order whose acquaintance was worth the making." The present volume of Professor Lowell is the first outline of a new science, which the author calls the science of planetology, the history of the career of a planet considered as such, dealing as it does with the genesis and development of what we call a world. Unless, says Professor Lowell, the laws of the universe are self-contradictory and mere caprice, "Mars is but an older earth, and the way she has gone our planet is going." Professor Lowell's preceding book, "Mars and Its Canals," has already achieved a remarkable popularity for an astronomical work, this fact being largely due no doubt to the lucid reasoning and brilliant epigrammatic style of the author. It may be well to recall the fact that Professor Lowell is director of the observatory at Flagstaff, non-resident professor of astronomy at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, fellow of the American Academy of Arts and



PRESIDENT WILLIAM H. P. FAUNCE.

(Author of "The Educational Ideal in the Ministry.")

Sciences, a Janssen medalist of the Société Astronomique of France, and a member of many other astronomical and general scientific societies all over the world. This volume is illustrated with photographs of the planet, all taken by Professor Lowell himself during the past fourteen years of study.

BOOKS OF RELIGIOUS APPEAL.

The Educational Ideal in the Ministry. By William H. P. Faunce, D.D. Macmillan. 286 pp. \$1.25.

It is seldom, we think, that a presentation of the relation of the clergyman to the life of the world around him has been so graphically, cogently, and convincingly made as Dr. Faunce has done in this volume. To the criticism that the work of the clergyman is not properly correlated to modern life Dr. Faunce brings his contention that the real, vital relation of the preacher to the community is that of teacher. Moreover, he contends that preaching, far from being relegated to-day to the background of our modern life, is "outside the pulpit more widespread, more vigorous, more effective, and more in demand than at any time during the last hundred years." Preaching, he declares, is done perhaps most effectively to-day by college professors, political leaders, judges, diplomats, Governors of States, even labor leaders. We are, he contends, living in an age "not only of reaction from the crass materialism of which Professor Haeckel is a belated exponent, but an age of unprecedented ethical interest, of altruistic enthusiasm, of a moral passion that overflows all ecclesiastical channels and conventional modes of expression and spreads like a great river nearing the sea." President Roosevelt in his speeches and messages, presidents of our universities in their baccalaureate ad-

resses, Governor Hughes in all his public utterances, Secretary Root homilizing on his South American trip, Mrs. Wharton flaying our social sins in "The House of Mirth," labor leaders speaking in hall or through socialistic publications,— "Preaching out of date? There is more eagerness to hear a worthy appeal to the sense of duty to-day than ever before since Miles Standish stepped on Plymouth Rock."

The Outlines of Systematic Theology. By Augustus H. Strong, D.D. American Baptist Publication Society. 274 pp. \$2.50.

Wanted—A Theology. By Rev. Samuel T. Carter. Funk & Wagnalls. 144 pp. 75 cents.

The New Theology and the Old Religion. By Charles Gore. Dutton. 311 pp. \$2.

Roman Catholicism Capitulating Before Protestantism. By G. V. Fradryssa (translated from the Spanish). Mobile, Ala.: Southern Publishing Company. 359 pp.

An Introduction to the Study of Comparative Religion. By Frank Byron Jevons. Macmillan. 283 pp. \$1.50.

The Monuments of Christian Rome. By Arthur L. Frothingham, Ph.D. Macmillan. 412 pp., ill. \$2.25.

The Illustrated Bible Dictionary. Edited by the Rev. William C. Piercy. Dutton. 975 pp., ill. \$5.

The Bride of Christ ("A Study in Christian Legend Lore"). By Dr. Paul Carus. Open Court Publishing Company. 111 pp., ill. 75 cents.

The Religion of Babylonia and Assyria. By Robert William Rogers, Ph.D., F.R.G.S. Eaton & Mains. 235 pp., ill. \$2.

Buddhism and Immortality. By William S. Bigelow. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 75 pp. 75 cents.

Social and Religious Ideals. By Artemas J. Haynes. Scribners. 168 pp. \$1.

The Social Application of Religion (Merrick Lectures—1908). By Rev. Charles Stelzle, Miss Jane Addams, Commissioner of Labor Charles P. Neill, Prof. Graham Taylor, and Rev. George P. Eckman. Jennings & Graham. 139 pp. 75 cents.

Harmony of Some Revelations in Nature and in Grace. By Rev. J. J. Lanier. Washington, Ga.: published by the author. 146 pp. \$1.10.

The Sense of the Infinite. By Oscar Kuhns. Holt. 265 pp. \$1.50.

Our New Testament: How Did We Get It? By Henry C. Vedder, D.D. Philadelphia: Griffith & Rowland Press. 388 pp. \$1.

Christ's Table Talk. By Eugene R. Hendrix, D.D. Nashville, Tenn.: Smith & Lamar. 212 pp. \$1.

The Resurrection of Jesus. By James Orr, D.D. Jennings & Graham. 292 pp. \$1.50.

A Junior Congregation—1884-1908. By James M. Farrar, D.D. The Funk & Wagnalls Company. 220 pp. \$1.20.

NEW BOOKS OF MUSICAL INTEREST,

Chapters of Opera. By Henry Edward Krehbiel. Holt. 435 pp., ill. \$3.50.

In this copiously illustrated and absorbingly interesting volume Mr. Krehbiel has given us a great many historical and critical observations and records concerning the lyric drama in New York City from its earliest days down to the present time. The first seven chapters deal with the earliest operatic performances in Manhattan and bring the story down to the opening of the Metropolitan Opera House in 1883. Indeed, it was apropos of the completion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of this great playhouse that the present volume was written. Mr. Krehbiel, who, it will be remembered, is musical critic of the New York *Tribune* and author of a number of volumes, including "How to Listen to Music" and "Studies in the Wagnerian Drama," tells the whole story of the changes of Italian, German, and French opera in New York, describes Walter Damrosch's crusade and the careers of Seidl and indeed of every other important conductor in New York's musical history. The pages are full of criticisms and estimates of operas, conductors, and singers, as well as of humorous anecdotes. Especial attention is given in the latter part of the volume to the two seasons of opera given



MANUEL POPOLA VICENTE GARCIA, WHO BROUGHT THE FIRST ITALIAN OPERA COMPANY TO AMERICA IN 1825.

(From Krehbiel's "Chapters of Opera.")

at Mr. Oscar Hammerstein's new Manhattan Opera House in New York City.

Edward MacDowell. By Lawrence Gilman. New York: John Lane Company. 190 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Four years ago Mr. Gilman wrote a monograph on MacDowell for the Living Masters of Music series; a volume which was noticed at the time in these pages. The present volume is based upon the former one, but entirely rewritten and considerably enlarged. Particular attention has been paid to the chapters dealing with MacDowell's music. A sketch of Edward MacDowell, by Mr. Gilman, appeared in the pages of this REVIEW in March, 1908.

The Evolution of Modern Orchestration. By Louis Adolphe Coerne, Ph.D. Macmillan. 280 pp. \$3.

In this book, Dr. Coerne, who is an American composer, with the distinction of having had an opera of his own writing performed in a European opera house, traces the evolution of the orchestra and of orchestration in connection with the history of music proper. Dr. Coerne's work is commended by Mr. H. E. Krehbiel in an introductory note.

The Greater Chopin. Edited by James Huneker. Ditson. 201 pp., por. \$1.50.

This is one of the Musicians' Library series. It contains an introduction,—biographical, critical, and eulogistic,—by Mr. Huneker, a bibliography, and a collection of Chopin's more serious forms of music; the principal preludes, studies, ballads, polonaises, scherzi, and nocturnes, one impromptu, one barcarolle, and some extracts from the sonatas.



HENRY EDWARD KREHBIEL.
(Author of "Chapters of Opera.")

THE "BOOKS" OF FOUR NEW, STRIKING PLAYS.

The Winterfeast. By Charles Rann Kennedy. Harpers. 159 pp., ill. \$1.25.

Pélléas and Mélisande (Maurice Maeterlinck). Translated by Erving Winslow. Crowell. 135 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Hannele. By Gerhart Hauptmann. Doubleday, Page & Co. 103 pp. \$1.

The Man from Home. By Booth Tarkington and H. L. Wilson. Harpers. 176 pp., ill. \$1.25.

Mr. Kennedy's "Winterfeast," the publication of which followed quickly upon the success of his former play, "The Servant in the House," is a story of Icelandic life to illustrate the truth of "the lie that kills." The scene is laid on Winter Night's Feast, October 14, A. D. 1020, in Iceland, and is a strong drama of retribution for an old lie. The Crowell edition of "Pélléas and Mélisande," very handsomely decorated and illustrated, now appears in a new translation by Erving Winslow, with an introduction by Montrose J. Moses. Hannele, which is perhaps the most striking drama of Hauptmann since "The Sunken Bell," in this printed version appears in the translation and English rendering of Charles Henry Meltzer. The scene of "The Man from Home" is laid in Italy at the great Hotel Regina Margherita, at Sorrento, overlooking the bay of Naples, right in the earthquake region.

BIOLOGY AND THE GREAT BIOLOGISTS.

Biology and Its Makers. By William A. Locy. Holt. 460 pp., ill. \$2.75.

This scholarly but entertainingly written volume tells the story of the rise of biology from the Renaissance to the present. It is a most in-



PROF. WILLIAM A. LOCY.
(Author of "Biology and Its Makers.")

teresting account of the change and shift of human opinion with reference to life and living beings, and is written around the lives of the founders, giving an account of their aims, methods, achievements, and personalities. The volume is copiously and very satisfactorily illustrated with portraits, diagrams, and charts.

LITERARY AND PHILOSOPHIC ESSAYS.

The Making of Personality. By Bliss Carman. L. C. Page & Co. 375 pp. \$1.50.

A realization of the actualities and potentialities of one's own life and character is requisite for real success in any career. Of course, Mr. Carman's observations are exclusively upon the cultural and esthetic sides of personality. To quote the purpose of his volume in his perhaps somewhat pompous phraseology: "Under the stress of a divine evolutionary impulse we wish to disentangle personality from the crushing monotony of mere circumstantial mechanical existence."

Anatole France. By George Brandes. McClure Company. 128 pp., por. 75 cents.

Counsels by the Way. By Henry van Dyke. Crowell. 160 pp. \$1.

Justice and Liberty. By G. Lowes Dickinson. McClure Company. 256 pp. \$1.20.

Blackstick Papers. By Lady Ritchie. Putnam. 291 pp., ill. \$1.75.

A Happy Half-Century. By Agnes Repplier. Houghton Mifflin Company. 249 pp. \$1.10.

The Schoolmaster. By Arthur Christopher Benson. Putnam. 169 pp. \$1.25.

In a New Century. By Edward S. Martin. Scribners. 377 pp. \$1.50.

The Lay of the Land. By Dallas Lore Sharp. Houghton Mifflin Company. 214 pp., ill. \$1.25.

On Nothing and Kindred Subjects. By H. Belloc. Dutton. 262 pp. \$1.25.

Women, Etc. By George Harvey. Harpers. 232 pp. \$1.

OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH.

The Shadow World. By Hamlin Garland. Harpers. 295 pp. \$1.35.

This book, Mr. Garland informs us in his preface, is a faithful record of some marvelous psychical phenomena which came under his observation during the past two or three years. It is the story of the experiences of a group of people brought together by the author to listen to the revelations of one of their number who turns out to be a real "medium."

Handy Reference Atlas of the World. Edited by J. G. Bartholomew, F. R. G. S. Dutton. 104 text pp. \$2.50.

This is the eighth revised, enlarged, and improved edition of a really handy reference book. It contains nearly 100 excellent maps of a convenient size, with geographical statistics and an excellent index.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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MRS. WILLIAM H. TAFT AND HER DAUGHTER.

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NO. 3.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Some Events Set for March. The current month of March will witness the beginning of Mr. Taft's administration as President of the United States. Eleven days after his inauguration, which occurs on the 4th of March, there will be convened in extra session the Sixty-first Congress, which was elected in November last, and it will be charged with the task of revising the tariff. About the same date Mr. Roosevelt and his associates of the Smithsonian expedition will start upon their much heralded trip to Africa. Just what this African undertaking means will be found duly set forth in an article by Mr. Edward B. Clark, which appears elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW.

The African Expedition. Mr. Clark has written with full knowledge of the plans of the expedition; and those who are still inclined to think of it as a shooting trip in the bloodthirsty English sense, will be better informed when they read Mr. Clark's account of it. It will doubtless prove to be a scientific quest of exceptional importance. It need not involve dangers one whit greater than those incurred by Mr. Roosevelt in many of his former hunting trips in our own mountain regions. Africa is now better known than some parts of the interior of South America. Mr. Roosevelt's trip will doubtless serve to stimulate the interest of thousands of American schoolboys, if not also of their parents, in the geography and current conditions of the African continent. For those who may find this a time of excited curiosity as to African matters, we publish in this number several other contributions from writers especially qualified. In all parts of that great continent the spirit of modern progress is at work and radical changes will be seen in the near future.

The Rooseveltian Energy. Mr. Roosevelt is a man of such breadth of interest that he will not fail to see Africa with other eyes as well as with those of the naturalist; and his well-earned vacation from the responsibilities of public office will be employed in keen observation at first hand of many things about which he has studied and inquired. His energy and power of concentration enter into everything that he undertakes; and now, leaving the Presidency at the age of fifty, it is the belief of his countrymen that he has before him a long period of active and useful life. He is fitted to do many things well, and so forceful is his personality that he will give importance and value to anything that his hand may find to do. Like Jefferson and Franklin, he has both versatility and initiative. Either of those two early statesmen was so influential in his own right that he counted for as much out of office as in office. In like manner, Mr. Roosevelt, whether in public or in private life, will be a leading spirit and a powerful influence.

Twenty Years of Executive Work. For many years Mr. Roosevelt has been in responsible public position, with no respite except for brief vacations. He was president of the Civil Service Commission at Washington when the duties of that place were heavy and the work for reform was a constant fight. From that position he was called to be president of the Board of Police Commissioners of New York City, under Mayor Strong, and he threw all his energy into efforts for municipal reform, including the enforcement of the liquor laws, the tenement house laws, statutes against gambling resorts, and so on. While still serving his term as police commissioner, he was made Assistant Secretary of the Navy by President McKin-

ley at the very moment when his intense energy was needed for the work of preparing the navy in view of approaching trouble with Spain. War having been declared, he resigned from the Navy Department to organize the Rough Riders and go to Cuba. Returning from Cuba, he was nominated for the Governorship of New York in the summer of 1898, and two years later he was nominated for the Vice-Presidency and made an active campaign. The most restful interval of his recent life was comprised in the few months in which he held the office of Vice-President. The assassination of McKinley brought this interval to a sudden end, and now for seven years and a half Mr. Roosevelt has been President, carrying his official responsibilities every day, even when absent from Washington on brief vacations. Mr Welliver's article on page 339 reviews this Presidential epoch. For an unbroken period of just twenty years, then, Mr. Roosevelt has served the public in these administrative offices. He is certainly entitled to a change as complete as is involved in the African expedition. It is not that he needs rest, however, for he recuperates from day to day, and does not know fatigue.

*Recent
Presidential
Activities.*

There was no lessening of the President's personal and official energy in the closing weeks of his administration. On the twelfth of February, he was at Hodgenville, Ky., where he delivered a notable address on the centenary of Lincoln's birth, and laid the cornerstone of the memorial building to be erected on the Lincoln farm. Later in the month he received Admiral Sperry and the officers of the battleship fleet at Hampton Roads, Va., on their return from the voyage around the world, which he had projected and brought to a successful conclusion. While showing constant interest in the regular work of Congress, he was busily promoting several special objects, among them being the improvement of the conditions under which children are employed, the conservation of public resources, and the reorganization of the navy bureaus.

*Remonstrating
with
California.*

Even more striking and unusual was the President's open and undisguised effort to influence officials and legislatures of California and other Western States against the passage of laws which would violate either in letter or in



ROOSEVELT WARNS THE CANOEIST (CALIFORNIA) THAT RAPIDS AND ROCKS ARE AHEAD.
From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT, AT THE LINCOLN FARM IN KENTUCKY LAST MONTH.

spirit our existing agreements with Japan. Few men in the Presidential office would have acted so decisively and boldly in a matter lying beyond the strict province of the Chief Executive, and few could have justified such interference by quick and complete success as Mr. Roosevelt has been able to do. There is nothing in the Constitution or laws to prevent the President from urging a State Legislature to vote for or against certain pending bills. But to pursue such a course is unusual, and public opinion will condemn it as an inappropriate form of interference unless the circumstances amply justify. Our policy toward Japan is a national affair, and the President's energy in maintaining it is a matter of praise and congratulation.

*Vetoing
the
Census Bill.*

On February 5 Congress received the President's message vetoing the Census bill. The work of the Census Bureau is now carried on continuously under permanent officials; but in addition to its ordinary statistical tasks the Bureau is charged with the duty of making the constitutional enumeration of the inhabitants of the country once in ten years, and this enumeration requires the employment of a large number of additional clerks. Experience has shown that if such clerks were appointed under civil service rules like other government clerks, the efficiency of the service would be much increased and the expense of taking the census diminished by at least \$2,000,000. These facts were brought



PROTECTING THE CIVIL SERVICE.
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).

out very fully in the debate in Congress, but without avail. In the taking of former censuses, the selection of the clerks has been apportioned among the members of Congress, as their own individual perquisites. House and Senate alike this year determined to cling to the spoils. Since it is obligatory to take the census, and since it is now high time to pass the necessary legislation, it was not supposed that the President would block the bill. His veto message, however, came promptly, and is one of the most convincing of all his public utterances. At first the offended heads of the census committees proposed to pass the bill over the veto. But this would require a two-thirds majority in each house, and it soon became evident that the veto must stand. Congress, however, lacked the grace to pass the bill with the proper changes; and it will be left to the new Congress in special session to provide for taking the census. It is to be expected that Mr. Taft will stand as firmly as Mr. Roosevelt for the civil service provision.

The Unmourned "Sixtieth." The fact that the new Congress would be called to meet in special session made it easy for the expiring Congress, under pressure of many competing measures and interests, to allow unfinished business to be carried over to a session which will deal with the tariff as its chief object. The Sixtieth Congress has not made a brilliant record. Its passing off the scene will not be lamented. The Sixty-first will organize with a Republican majority, solely because of Republican promises to carry out the Roosevelt policies. If the Republicans do not make a better record in the Sixty-first Congress than in its predecessor,

the Democrats will win a large majority of the seats in the Congressional election to be held in November, 1910. It is wholly probable, however, that the new Congress will prove much more progressive and efficient than the one that ends its term on the 4th day of the present month. The existing system of Congressional organization and management, which has come into being gradually and which has been based upon reasons that had much weight, has been carried to an extreme, has reached the climax of its abuses and its insolent tyranny in the expiring Congress, and will have to be greatly modified if not revolutionized.

The Senate System.

If for the sake of getting things done the work of the Senate, for instance, must be managed by a small group of members of that body, it becomes of the utmost importance that this controlling group should be well known to the country, and should possess its entire confidence. But it so happens that most of the "elder statesmen" in the Senate who were strong with the country,—like Senator Platt, of Connecticut, and Senator Allison, of Iowa,—have passed away, or else, like Spooner, have retired. Those who remain as the ruling clique owe their strength not to the support of public opinion, but to a certain technical position they have achieved through seniority and influences more or less mysterious. Thus, of the men now managing the Senate, the foremost are Senator Aldrich, of Rhode Island, and Senator Hale, of Maine. Mr. Aldrich is known as a man of great business capacity, and it is well understood that he has thrown himself heart and soul into the work of the Monetary Commission, of which he is chairman.

Hale and Certain Others.

Mr. Hale, though powerful in the Senate, is quite unknown to the country. His position in the Senate is that of chairman of the Committee on Committees; and, more than any one else, he determines what places to give to his fellow members. Since the work of the Senate is carried on entirely in committee rooms, it is obvious that marked injury may be done to the business of the country by the exclusion of able and well qualified men from places on the important committees. Mr. Hale himself is on most of the important committees, while several distinguished public men of America, sitting as his colleagues in the Senate, are not as yet

allowed by him to serve upon a single committee of any importance. The absurdity of the system will probably break it down in the near future, by reason of the fact that the States are now sending better qualified and more brilliant men to the Senate than some years ago. The boss system gave us a lot of Senators for whom it was hard to find excuse or apology. A wave of political reform is giving us men of a higher order of character and talent. With new Senators of conspicuous ability and great reputation like Elihu Root, Theodore Burton, and Albert B. Cummins, the old system will break down, because ridicule will destroy it if no other weapon avails. For such men as these and many others to have to take their committee assignments as matters of favor, from so obscure a man as Hale, of Maine,—simply because that excellent State of rock-bound coasts and pine woods has not seen fit to put a Littlefield in the place,—will not be any longer relished by great States that are sending talented and trusted men to Washington to do the nation's business.



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SENATOR LA FOLLETTE, OF WISCONSIN,

Who demands a reform of Senate methods.

Mr. Hale's committee will, of course, put Mr. Root on the Foreign Relations Committee and the Military Committee, because the country knows him to be so well qualified to serve on those committees that it would make the existing system ludicrous to refuse assignments to the man who will at once be looked upon as the most eminent member of the whole senatorial body. But the plan for taking care of one or two men like Mr. Root or Mr. Burton ought not to be a sufficient sop to save a thoroughly bad system. Senator La Follette's attacks last month were fully justified. Senator Hale having considered the naval bill in the committee of which he is chairman for two or three weeks, finally reported it to the Senate as a whole and asked to have it passed under suspension of the rules, without being read, after a debate limited to two hours. Mr. La Follette objected, chiefly for the sake of bringing the present committee system to the country's attention, and he succeeded in having consideration of the bill postponed for several days.

Let Senate Reform Be Thorough.

Apart from the mere personalities involved, the system as now crystallized is extremely pernicious. The movement for electing United States Senators by direct vote of the people grew out of the crying need for improving the per-

sonnel of the Senate. In one way or in another, through primary elections and other devices, the people are selecting their Senators in many States as against the old-time dictation of bosses or the corrupt activities of railroad lobbyists. With the rapidly improving personal quality of the Senate, there will naturally come about such changes in its organization, rules, and methods as will enable its really efficient men to take part in the business for which their States have sent them to Washington. Mr. Beveridge, when he first appeared in the Senate, had recently studied the Philippine question on the ground, and properly insisted upon making a speech. It was hard even for the large-minded men of the ruling group like Allison, Hoar, Aldrich, and Platt, of Connecticut, to forgive the insistent young man from Indiana, while certain other Senators who have no weight or standing except as derived from their seniority privileges have never yet forgiven him. William Alden Smith, of Michigan, is another Senator who insists upon being heard when he has something to say, and the number of newer men who have force and individuality is constantly increasing. They now owe it to themselves, to their respective



Photograph by Clinedinst.

SENATOR HALE, OF MAINE.

States, and to the country, to subject the Senate to a thorough-going reform, so that it may no longer be a reproach and a byword. It does not follow, because one may have refrained from making personal attacks upon members of the Senate, that silence should be construed as approval of the prevailing character or methods of that body in recent years. It was a grievous fault on the part of the States that they should have inflicted upon the country such material as they have too often accredited to the United States Senate. They are doing far better in these present days, and the new men of force and character must remember that they are just as truly and responsibly members of the Senate as if they had served for twenty years. It is no slight change of methods, but a thorough-going reform, that the country has a right to expect on the part of the Senate.

*Reform
of the
House.*

The cry for a reform of the autocratic system that prevails in the House of Representatives is heard quite as frequently as the demand for a reform of the Senate. But, as a matter of fact, the abuses of the one-man rule of the House are far less than those that have grown up

under the oligarchy of the Senate. Mr. Cannon will undoubtedly be re-elected as Speaker by the Sixty-first Congress. He has a marvelous talent for managing a large parliamentary body. But as matters have gone in the last few years, he has managed the House with the co-operation of a little group of men whose positions as the heads of important committees are too powerful under the present rules, and whose loyal support gives the Speaker an arbitrary power that goes too far in its control over the material of legislation. The Speaker is incomparably more just and sensible in making up the committees than is Senator Hale's coterie. The House, being a much larger body, is under greater necessity of subjecting itself to rules limiting the freedom of the individual member. But it ought to be possible to modify the existing system at various points; and upon this subject we shall have some more extended presentations to offer our readers next month. These matters concern the public.

*The Present
Way of
Making Tariffs.*

Undoubtedly the dominant element in both houses of Congress will wish to keep the present rules with little or no modification during the special session that is about to be called, in order that they may control the situation while the troublesome work of making a new tariff is on their hands. The old methods are fast passing away in many departments of public business; and this pending revision of the tariff is doubtless the last one of its kind that we shall be called upon to witness. Henceforth the tariff is to be taken out of party politics, at least to a great extent, and handled in a scientific way upon the basis of industrial facts and statistics. The pretense that the members of the Ways and Means Committee of the House are competent to revise the tariff schedules as a mere incident in the course of their general work as members of a legislative body, will have to be abandoned. It is almost as absurd as it would be to pretend that the members of the census committee are capable of doing the work of the Census Bureau. In a matter of this kind, statesmen and lawgivers must learn how to employ the services of experts and statisticians.

*An Instance
of the
New Method.*

Senator Aldrich, as head of the Monetary Commission, finds it necessary to employ numerous experts at home and abroad, and to use a wide range of theoretical and practical tal-

ent, with a view to getting into shape a bill for the revision of the banking and currency system of this country. He and his assistants have been working hard for the past year,—with every kind of assistance; and yet they are not ready to make a preliminary report. This is not because they have been dilatory or unskillful, but, on the contrary, it is because they have gone about their work in the right way rather than in the wrong way. They are sure to give us a masterly report in the end, and are quite likely to reach irresistible conclusions. Yet the work of tariff making is vastly more complicated than that of framing a banking and currency law. It would be much easier for a Congressional committee on currency and banking to frame a mature and valuable reform in the country's monetary system, than for the Ways and Means Committee or the Finance Committee to construct a revised tariff.

*The
Expected
Tariff Bill.*

Within a few days we are to have the results of the recent work of the Ways and Means Committee of the House in the form of a bill overhauling the schedules of the Dingley tariff, and in other respects changing the revenue system of the country. This bill, dealing with hundreds, or rather thousands, of items, will have been prepared in a comparatively short time. The Ways and Means Committee must be credited with great industry, a fair share of public spirit, and a knowledge of the tariff question in general and in detail that few, if any, of its critics can boast. Furthermore, the Ways and Means Committee has been making use for almost a year past of expert assistants of better qualification and in larger number than the public is aware. It might be dangerous to risk an opinion at this stage, yet there is some ground for believing that the tariff bill soon to be proposed will be a more scientific one than any of its predecessors of the past half-century of high tariffs. This certainly is the feeling of some of the men who have been at work upon the revision. In its main outlines the revision as it comes from the hands of the committee will probably be the best that the country can obtain at the present time; and although it will doubtless be changed in a great number of details, the Ways and Means Committee will probably be able to keep control of the measure and secure its acceptance by the House. It will, of course, have stormy experiences in the Senate, as have all previous tariff bills, till dog-days approach.



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SPEAKER CANNON, WHO WILL GUIDE THE NEW CONGRESS IN ITS TARIFF REVISION.

*Some
of Its
Features.*

It is understood that the bill will be as unmistakably protectionist as the existing law, but that it will put some articles upon the free list that are now dutiable, that it will sharply cut the rates of duty now levied upon most manufactured imports, and that it will rearrange those duties that are levied for purposes of revenue rather than for purposes of protection. We are facing a large revenue deficit which may reach \$125,000,000 in the coming fiscal year. The naval bill as pending

last month carried a total appropriation of about \$136,000,000, and its growth from year to year illustrates the marked tendency of Uncle Sam to increase the cost of his national establishment much more rapidly than he has been increasing his income. He shows no disposition to reduce the aggregate of his expenses, and he must find ways to secure income enough to pay his bills. It is expected that the revenue producing features of the new tariff bill will have careful attention. Upon certain luxurious imports the rates will be raised or lowered according to the test of efficiency in producing a maximum revenue. There are those who favor a small tax on coffee, excepting from Porto Rico and our own dependencies. It has been intimated that, as preliminary to the tariff bill, there will be proposed a special measure of a temporary sort to meet existing or impending treasury deficits, and that this may include a tax on beer such as was levied during the Spanish War, a slight tax on tea and coffee, and some other imposts that would yield considerable income, while being easy to collect and easy to abolish when the temporary need of increased income should have disappeared. We broach these matters now in a tentative way; but a month hence the whole country will be discussing them, because tariff and revenue bills will be the order of business in Congress, and President Taft in the White

House will be trying to persuade Congress to be as progressive as it ought to be, and at the same time to treat the Philippines and the other island possessions in a generous, Taft-like spirit.

*Business Men
at
Indianapolis.*

Meanwhile, there assembled at Indianapolis on February 16, a conference of business men under call of the National Manufacturers' Association, to urge upon Congress and the country the need of a permanent tariff commission in one form or another, to assist in taking the tariff out of politics and to see that modern methods of thorough inquiry and study should make the American tariff system more valuable from the standpoint of the country's industrial prosperity. At first it was thought in many quarters that the object of those who called this convention was to delay the pending work of tariff revision, and to keep the tariff as it is until after a commission had been established and set at work. But this object was entirely disclaimed by the projectors of the Indianapolis conference. They were sharp critics of the methods used by the Ways and Means Committee, but explained that it was for future rather than for present purposes that a commission could be employed. There is no danger that too much can be said to impress the country with the truth that the tariff is a business man's question, and that future changes should be made only in the light of thorough study at the hands of some bureau or commission of experts, working continuously, like the permanent Census Bureau or the Bureau of Corporations. It has been the prevailing view of the advocates of a tariff commission that it should be a somewhat independent body, analagous rather to the Interstate Commerce Commission than to a department bureau. But in discussing the matter in these pages for a year or two past, we have held to the view that it might probably be the better plan at present to create a tariff bureau for purposes of inquiry and study, to be attached either to the Department of Commerce or to the Treasury Department. There will be time to consider the question deliberately, and the strong speeches made at the Indianapolis conference will have crystallized public sentiment at an opportune moment. Representatives of various interests were in full agreement that provision must be made for dealing with the tariff in a new way after the pending revision is adopted. Senator Beveridge's speech



TRAINED TO THE MINUTE.
"We're ready for you, Bill."
From the *Traveler* (Boston).

marshalled the arguments with admirable effect and reasonableness, and the resolutions as adopted will have the concurrence of a great body of intelligent people of all parties and sections. Henceforth the tariff must be made for the country, rather than for a series of unrelated special interests.

*A
Possible
Income Tax.*

The question has been frequently asked whether some form of income and inheritance taxes would be proposed in connection with the forthcoming tariff revision. There does not seem much prospect at present for a Republican income tax. Yet it is the prevailing opinion that such a tax must come in the comparatively near future. Mr. Stevens, the able representative in Congress of the St. Paul (Minn.) district, has been preparing an income tax bill that,—while likely to be pigeon-holed in the Ways and Means Committee's ample depository for new ideas,—is worthy of newspaper discussion. Mr. Stevens believes in a large policy of waterway improvement, but does not think that the country would favor an extensive issue of bonds for such a purpose. He believes that an income tax might be levied for the express purpose of accumulating a public improvement fund. He would have such a tax begin at a very low rate. He notes the fact that so much of the productive wealth of the country is now in the corporate form, with publicity as to capitalization, income, and expenditure, that an income tax from the practical standpoint of its levying and collection would be much less difficult than at an earlier stage in our economic development.

*Mr.
Taft's
Activities.*

By virtue of an understanding somewhat novel and quite unprecedented, Mr. Taft, as President-elect, has been anticipating his public functions in two or three important directions. Thus he has been concerning himself about tariff revision, and has been regarded as in rather close touch with the Ways and Means Committee. President Roosevelt did what he could a year ago to persuade Congress to employ experts as preliminary to making tariff changes. But since it was known that the actual revision would be taken up by the Sixty-first Congress, the President naturally regarded the subject as more vital to Mr. Taft than to himself. Although President Roosevelt has not for a moment evaded his responsibilities as directing the work at Panama, he has done everything



MR. TAFT, AS HE APPEARED AT NEW ORLEANS AFTER RETURNING FROM PANAMA.

in his power to facilitate Mr. Taft's inquiries, in order that the new administration may be prepared to deal promptly with recent questions that have arisen.

*The
Visit to
Panama.*

Thus, although Mr. Taft was a private citizen, the Government placed cruisers at his disposal to go to Panama last month with a party of eminent civil engineers to inspect the work as it is progressing, and to raise once more the question whether we are right or wrong in building a canal with locks at a considerable elevation above sea level. It was by common consent understood that if Mr. Taft and the engineers were satisfied with the present plans, the question would not again be seriously raised, and the work would be crowded to completion within the coming six years. We shall in the near future present our readers with an article on some of the engineering aspects of the Panama problem, as developed by our experience up to the present time. It is enough at this moment to say that Mr. Taft, with the unanimous concurrence of the engineers who accompanied him, declares the present plans to be entirely satisfactory, apart from certain modifications in detail, such as the lowering by some feet of the Gatun Dam. Furthermore, Mr. Taft declares that every dollar thus far has been honestly spent.



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WHERE THE CHAGRES RIVER JOINS THE PANAMA CANAL (as seen last month).

The Canal and Its Critics. In our opinion, Mr. Taft's optimistic declarations can be safely accepted by the country. Colonel Goethals and his associates of the army engineers who are constructing the canal for the Government are entitled to full confidence and great credit. Colonel Goethals, by the way, came to Washington last month, after Mr. Taft's visit, and testified before committees of Congress regarding various questions



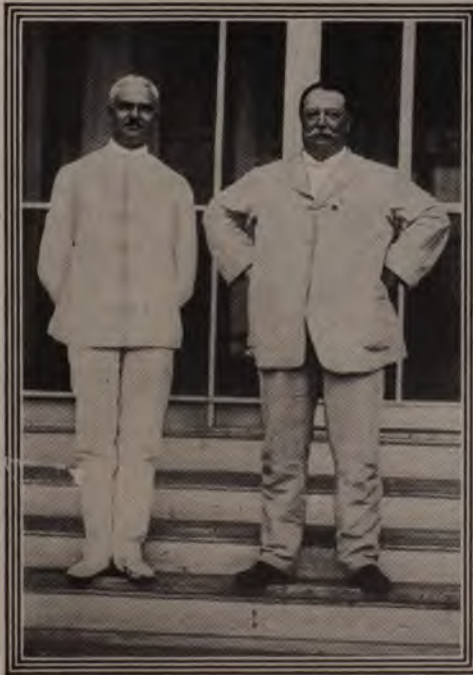
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THE TAFT VISIT TO PANAMA,—A CANAL CONSTRUCTION SCENE.



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PRESIDENT-ELECT TAFT, WITH HIS ENGINEERS AT PANAMA LAST MONTH.



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COLONEL GOETHALS WITH MR. TAFT.



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ANOTHER TAFT INSPECTION SCENE.



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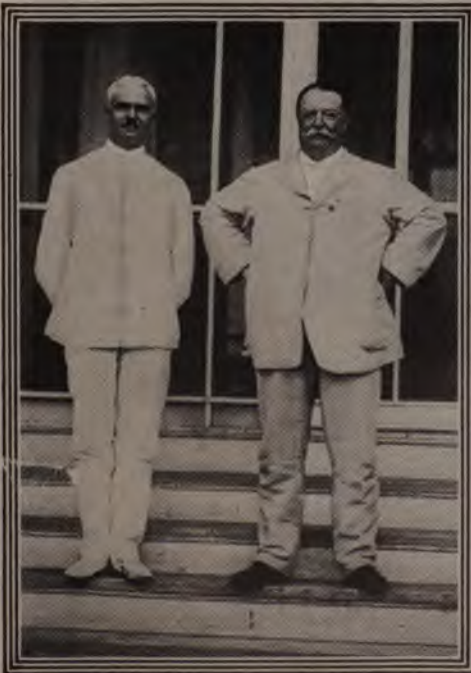
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ANOTHER TAFT INSPECTION SCENE.



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SENATOR KNOX, WHO WILL BE SECRETARY OF STATE.

as to engineering and expenditure. There were some bold and sweeping attacks in Congress last month upon the canal plans as adopted, but there was not much evidence of thorough knowledge in the criticisms that were offered. The principal reason why the canal is to cost a good deal more than the original estimate can be answered in a single sentence. The increased cost is due to the fact that we are building a much wider and deeper canal, with much larger locks, than in the original plans, on account of the great increase in the size of our new battleships, and in that of typical passenger and freight vessels. Nor is it true, as asserted in Congress, that a sea-level canal would cost less than the lock canal, unless, indeed, a sea-level canal of a much smaller type is compared with a lock canal of the present large type. It is true, also, that it would take many years longer to construct the canal at tide level. Mr. Taft's trip has reassured the country on these points, and the work at Panama will go forward as a non-partisan undertaking, and with no serious opposition. President Roosevelt received Mr. Taft and the Board of Engineers with their finished and unanimous

report on February 17. He at once transmitted the report to Congress, with his own hearty concurrence in its conclusions. He declared that the movement for changing the plans of the canal meant nothing but an attack upon the whole canal project. The work is progressing so rapidly that Mr. Taft intimated his hope that it might be finished within the four years of his administration, although the official statement still is that we may expect its completion within six years.

*Is
Mr. Knox
Eligible?*

Although it was announced some weeks ago that Mr. Taft's cabinet selections would not be made public until the eve of inauguration day, the newspapers managed to keep well informed upon the progress of Mr. Taft's efforts to decide upon his department heads. It was not until some weeks after Senator Knox, of Pennsylvania, had accepted the post of Secretary of State that it was found that he had been rendered technically ineligible by an act of Congress adopted some time ago, increasing the salaries of members of the cabinet from \$8000 to \$12,000. In Article I., Section 6. of the Constitution, is the following clause:

No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

Now it happens that the emoluments of cabinet officers have been increased during Senator Knox's present term; and the term for which he was elected to the Senate will not expire until March 4, 1911. According to the plain reading of the Constitution, therefore, neither Mr. Knox nor any other Senator whose term does not expire on March 4, would be now eligible to a place in the Taft cabinet. Members of the other house would be eligible, because their terms are all expiring together on March 4. Thus Mr. Burton, of Ohio, who helped to increase the emoluments of cabinet officers, and who was offered the position of Secretary of the Treasury some weeks ago by Mr. Taft, would have been eligible. It is obvious that this clause in the Constitution,—however important when the Constitution was drafted and when the executive and judiciary branches of the Government were yet to be developed,—is no longer of any real value.



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PRESIDENT-ELECT TAFT, WITH HIS TWO SONS, ROBERT AND CHARLES.

The Attempt to Find a Remedy. When this forgotten point was brought up by certain private citizens (far from that chamber where learned Senators are too busy airing their opinions as constitutional lawyers to read the Constitution itself) there was a good deal of consternation in political circles. Mr. Taft was consulted, and he sent telegrams to the leaders of both houses commending the plan of a special bill which would meet the difficulty. The special bill proposed was one which would cut Mr. Knox's salary down to \$8000. It was held that this would remove the constitutional obstacle, in so far as its spirit and motive were concerned. The Senate courteously took this view, and passed the bill unanimously. The House, however, was not so obliging. An attempt to suspend the rules in order to bring the matter forward promptly did not succeed, inasmuch as such suspension requires a two-thirds vote. After this failure, however, Mr. Cannon brought pressure to bear, and the bill was reported for action under a special rule. This involved an ordinary majority, and it was accordingly passed by a vote of 173 to 117. No one in the House wished to keep Mr. Knox out of the cabinet; but many men, Republicans as well as Democrats, did not regard

the bill reducing the salary of the Secretary of State as having anything to do with giving eligibility to a Senator for the period of his unexpired term. The question is not likely to be raised in any practical way, since at Mr. Taft's firm request Mr. Knox consents to ignore the technical point and assume the duties of a position for which his admirable fitness is recognized by every one.

Other Cabinet Selections. It was announced some months ago that Mr. Frank H. Hitchcock, chairman of the National Republican Committee, would be made Postmaster-General, and these two were the only Cabinet selections that were authoritatively announced. But by the middle of February, it was quite generally understood that most of the remaining positions had been offered to men who had accepted them. Thus it was stated that the post of Attorney-General was to be filled by Mr. George W. Wickersham, of New York, a law partner of the President-elect's brother, Mr. Henry W. Taft. Mr. Wickersham, although not known to the country as a public man, is of excellent standing at the New York bar. It was also understood that the portfolio of the Interior Department had been assigned to Mr. Rich-



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RICHARD A. BALLINGER.

CHARLES NAGEL.

GEORGE W. WICKERSHAM.

(Secretary of the Interior.)

(Secretary of Commerce and Labor.)

(Attorney-General.)

THREE MEN SLATED LAST MONTH FOR THE TAFT CABINET.

ard A. Ballinger, of Seattle, Washington, who was at one time a successful commissioner of the general land office. Another Western man who was slated for a cabinet post is Mr. Charles Nagel, of St. Louis, to whom well-verified rumor has assigned the post of Commerce and Labor. Mr. Nagel is a lawyer of the highest personal and professional standing, and a representative of the best element of Western Republicanism. The present Postmaster-General, Hon. George von L. Meyer, is expected to remain in the cabinet, in charge of the Navy Department. It has also been reported for some time that the veteran Secretary of Agriculture, Mr. Wilson, would be kept at his present post.

*For
the
Treasury.*

Two positions about which the public was left most in doubt were the Departments of War and the Treasury. Announcements that seemed trustworthy from time to time connected one man after another with the Treasury appointment. Mr. Taft seemed particularly desirous of filling the place with a Western man, preferably from Chicago. But for one reason or another, the men first named were not available. Later in February it was stated that Judge Willis Van

Devanter, of Wyoming, would be Mr. Cortelyou's successor as head of the great department of the Treasury. Judge Van Devanter has long been regarded as an exceptionally able and promising man. He went to the far West from Indiana some twenty-five years ago, and has been a leader in the affairs of his new State. He was chief justice of the Wyoming Supreme Court in its territorial days, and again after its admission as a State. For six years, from 1897 to 1903, he was at Washington as an Assistant Attorney-General for the Interior Department, and six years ago President Roosevelt made him a United States Circuit Judge for the eighth circuit. Judge Van Devanter is exceptionally well qualified for the position of Attorney-General, but his all around ability is such that he would be likely to succeed in any cabinet position, and he will doubtless prove efficient in the department of finance.

*A Lawyer
for the
War Office.*

For the post of Secretary of War, it seems that one leading Democratic lawyer of Tennessee is to succeed another leading Democratic lawyer of Tennessee. Mr. Taft's selection as responsibly stated in the press last month is Mr. Jacob M. Dickinson, general counsel

of the Illinois Central Railroad, residing at Chicago, but formerly of Nashville, Tenn. For two years, from 1895 to 1897, he was assistant Attorney-General of the United States. Later he was retained by our Government as one of its counsel before the Alaskan boundary tribunal. He was president of the American Bar Association last year. Root, Taft, and Wright have shown what could be done in the War Department by a great lawyer.

*A Cabinet
of
Lawyers.*

The one striking thing about Mr. Taft's cabinet selections, considered as a whole, is the eminent lawyer's preference for able men of his own profession. Mr. Knox was never a politician, and entered the McKinley cabinet purely upon his reputation as a strong lawyer. Judge Van Devanter, Judge Dickinson, Mr. Wickersham, Mr. Ballinger, and Mr. Nagel, have all made their careers as lawyers, rather than as business men or politicians or office-holders. They are all men of the highest standing in their profession.



JUDGE WILLIS VAN DEVANTER.



JUDGE JACOB M. DICKINSON.

Those of them who have not served as presidents of the American Bar Association would be regarded by their fellow lawyers as well-qualified for that honor. Even Mr. Hitchcock has been admitted to the bar. He

has not, however, practiced law, and has made his way in the public service and in political life. The only two members of the new cabinet who are not lawyers are the holdovers from the present cabinet, Mr. Wilson and Mr. Meyer, both of whom are highly trained public men of long experience in legislative and executive work. With the personality of the new cabinet, the country is not as yet well acquainted, for obvious reasons. But there can be no doubt as to the tried efficiency of each individual unit in the group, and the country will soon learn the personal traits of these much-respected and exceedingly capable members of the learned profession of the law. These men are of a high quality of patriotism and public spirit, and they will serve Uncle Sam as faithfully as they have ever in the practice of their profession served the interests of any private client. Mr. Taft has many and serious problems before him, and it evidently suits him to have as heads of departments men possessing great legal knowledge and experience, who are also capable in matters of business. A high standard has been set by the Roosevelt cabinet, and the way has been blazed in many directions. The new department heads cannot easily excel their predecessors.

*Other
Official
Posts.* Mr. Taft will find the general business of the Government well organized and in the hands of officials well known to him, hundreds of them having been selected either by him personally as head of a great department, or with his advice and approbation. Thus the change of administration will not mean, as at some former periods, a wholesale turning



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MR. FRED. W. CARPENTER.

(Who will be Secretary to the President under Mr. Taft.)

out of useful officials for the benefit of clamorous office-seekers demanding political rewards. Mr. Taft, like Mr. Roosevelt, will uphold the principles of civil-service reform. Mr. Knox, as head of the State Department, will carry forward Mr. Root's great practical reform of the consular service, and he is to have the benefit of a permanent under-secretary of State who will relieve him of much of the detailed work that Mr. Root has performed and give him more freedom for larger matters of public policy, both foreign and domestic. The office of Secretary to the President has grown to be one of as much importance in many respects as that of a department head. It was expected that Mr. Loeb, following so tactful and able a Secretary as Mr. Cortelyou, would find it difficult to measure up to the high standard that had been set. But his success as Secre-

tary to the President is admitted, and his experience in that delicate post has made him one of our best-informed and most capable public men. It is understood that he is to become Collector of the Port of New York under Mr. Taft, this being a post of great political and administrative importance, and one for which Mr. Loeb is exceptionally well qualified. Mr. Taft follows the example of Mr. Roosevelt in promoting his own private secretary to the position of Secretary to the President. Mr. Fred. W. Carpenter has been Mr. Taft's secretary for a number of years, and will fit into his new office with the advantage not merely of long association with his chief, but also with a wide knowledge of men and affairs. Announcements have not been made regarding changes in the diplomatic service, and such changes are not likely to be immediate or numerous. When Mr. Root, having been elected senator, retired from the State Department late in January, Mr. Robert Bacon, as first assistant, was promoted to be Secretary of State. The country has no more loyal public servant than Mr. Bacon, and few better qualified to serve it at home or abroad.

*Direct
Nominations In
New York.*

Partly because of Governor Hughes' vigorous championship of the cause, partly because the Eastern States have lagged behind the rest of the country in the matter of primary legislation, so that the Empire State is this year the central battle-ground of the general primary reform movement, the effort to substitute direct nominations for the present convention system in New York interests the whole country. There is another reason why the action to be taken by the New York Legislature on this subject should attract unusual attention in other States. In New York the delegate, or convention, method of making party nominations, has reached the highest degree of perfection, regarded simply as a piece of political mechanism. No other State has elaborated this system so carefully. In no other State has party organization obtained so thoroughly legalized a hold on the process of candidate-making. For many years past every step that has been taken by the dominant party organization in New York has had the sanction of law. If there has been usurpation of power within the party it has been under the form of law, and it cannot be maintained that any large body of voters has been excluded from a voice in the

party councils by any unlawful act on the part of those in control of the party machinery. If, then, the people of New York, having given the convention system a fair test under a law framed and executed by the friends of that system, have at last reached the conclusion that a more direct method of naming candidates is desirable, such a conclusion is a matter of interest to the country at large and especially to those States that have not yet adopted the direct primary.

*The
Convention
System.*

To get the full significance of the proposed change we should hark back a few years to the time when party primaries, in New York as in every other State, were practically unregulated by law, when might made right in party affairs, when party organization was not held in any way amenable to the State's discipline or inspection. Comparatively youthful voters can recall those conditions. They were not ended in New York until 1898, when the present primary law was enacted, and at that time a luminous account of the whole situation was contributed to this REVIEW by Judge William H. Hotchkiss, of Buffalo, who was last month named by Governor Hughes as Insurance Commissioner. In the decade that has elapsed since the New York law went into operation every State in the Union has enacted some form of primary legislation. In the earlier years the tendency was wholly in the direction of legalizing delegate conventions, but recently the laws of many States have established the direct primary as a means of enabling the individual voter to express his choice of party candidates. Thus the two distinct movements,—one for legal regulation of the caucus, or convention, the other for abolishing the caucus,—overlapped each other. While one State was enacting regulation, a neighboring commonwealth might be agitating for abolition, and the confusing fact in the whole business was that in each case it was the "reform" element that clamored for the change, although at first blush one agitation seemed wholly inconsistent with the other.

*The
Real
Issue.*

The party convention safeguarded by legal regulation is now to give place, we are told, to a kind of party folk-mote in which no single group of voters shall have more say than another in the naming of candidates, but in which every individual voter shall count for as much as his neighbor. The average New



MR. WILLIAM LOEB, JR.

(Who will be Collector of the Port of New York and a force in the politics and affairs of the State.)

York voter of the partisan type is not a little astonished when he learns that already more than half the population of the United States is living under State and local governments placed in power through the operation of the direct primary. The wave of ballot reform that swept over the country twenty years ago now has its counterpart in the wave of primary reform. So swiftly has this advance been made that here and there even the politicians have been caught napping, and it is not strange that the plain, quiet citizen, suspicious of political innovation, should now and again be confused by the turmoil. Since we already have the legalized primary, why, he asks, should we not continue to make use of it? Just what can direct nominations do for us that is not now accomplished through the delegate convention?

*The
Convention
and the Boss.*

Much is claimed for the direct primary, but the one claim that must everywhere be taken seriously is that it eliminates the party boss as a dictator of nominations. Under the legalized convention system as now operated in

New York, Pennsylvania, and other States the boss has not the slightest difficulty in naming his own candidates. This is not to say that he never disregards his own personal preferences in making nominations; for it is sometimes politically expedient to name a candidate obnoxious to the boss himself, but popular with the voters. The nomination of Governor Hughes last year was an instance in point. Observe, however, that the New York bosses had it absolutely in their power to "turn down" Governor Hughes at Saratoga, and they held such power through the workings of the legalized convention system, the strict legality of which none could gainsay. It is true that the New York law under which this is done was enacted in obedience to a popular demand, and it was believed that it was needed to facilitate the expression of the popular will within the party, just as to-day the advocates of direct nominations make a similar plea for a more radical change in the party machinery.

*The
Voter's
Viewpoint.*

At present in the State of New York the enrolled voters of each party, in cities and villages of more than 5000 population, vote twice a year,—once in the spring and once in the fall,—for delegates to conventions which either themselves nominate candidates to be voted on at the next ensuing election or choose delegates to nominating conventions. It was thought when the primary law was enacted that the doing away with evils that had grown up under the old system of unregulated primaries would in itself be a stimulus to enrollment, and would bring about the participation of a better class of voters in the making of nominations. In the city of New York some improvement of this kind was experienced. The proportionate enrollment there is large,—84 per cent. of the registration in the boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx and 92 per cent. in Brooklyn. Yet it appears that a considerable number of voters who classify themselves as party men in every sense neglect to enroll themselves for participation in the primaries as at present constituted. Various causes are assigned for this fact, but the most obvious explanation seems to be that the voter finds himself so hopelessly deprived of any real power in effecting the party nominations that he thinks it not worth his while to give the time or to take the trouble required to qualify as a primary voter. At all events, there is a prevalent belief, whether justified or not, that

the rank and file of the voters have nothing whatever to do with naming the party's candidates, that responsibility being taken over by a small group of managers who run the organization. By adopting the scheme of direct nominations, on the other hand, the voter would be assured at least an opportunity of recording his preference for one of several candidates for each office.

*The
Candidate's
Viewpoint.*

It is quite conceivable that under such a system a candidate who is now stigmatized as boss-made might be actually preferred by the voters of his party, but in that case he would have what he now lacks: a party endorsement and certification. There is no conceivable reason why any candidate seeking office should not consider such a certification a far more valuable asset than the mere endorsement of the boss. In order to win success in the direct primary every candidate must possess some positive merit. The advocates of direct nominations hold with much show of reason that it would be more difficult for an unworthy candidate to succeed in the direct primary than in the delegate convention. The argument is not unlike that which has for many years been urged against the constitutional method of having United States Senators elected by State legislatures instead of by the general electorate. But whether or not the character of nominations would be improved by the change, the responsibility of the candidate to his party would be at least more direct and the candidate could be held accountable to the whole membership of his party. By so much as this accountability would be increased the candidate's obligation to powerful individuals for personal favors would be lessened; and right here is the crux of the professional politician's interest in direct nominations. If direct nominations in New York State can really do what it is claimed they have done in other States,—break up the trade of the broker in offices,—the day when a direct-nominations bill is passed by the New York Legislature will signify much in New York politics.

*Concessions
to the
"Regulars."*

There was much uncertainty at Albany last month regarding the details of the new primary bill. It was agreed that party enrollment must be a condition of voting in the primaries, but there was difference of opinion as to the time and manner of making this enrollment in the rural districts. Representatives of the party

organizations generally favor enrollment one year in advance of voting, so far as the cities are concerned. The extension of the system over the more sparsely settled portions of the State brings in a new set of problems that the operation of the old law, applying only to populous communities, has never encountered. There will be some difficulty, no doubt, in framing a law that will be satisfactory to city and country alike. It is probable, too, that New York will embody new principles in her primary law. One point much discussed already is the proposition advanced by the Young Republican Club of Brooklyn to print on the primary ballot the names of candidates proposed by a nominating committee chosen at the primary a year in advance. The names of rival candidates would be admitted to places on the ballot by petition of a required percentage of the voters, as in other States where the direct primary is in operation. If so great an advantage is to be given to the party organization in getting its candidates' names on the ballot, the more radical among the direct-primary advocates will insist on some method of rotation in printing by which candidates who lack the organization's backing may at least have a fair field and no favor, so far as the ballot is concerned. It is intended that the primary shall have all the safeguards that are now placed around the regular election. It will be conducted entirely at public expense.

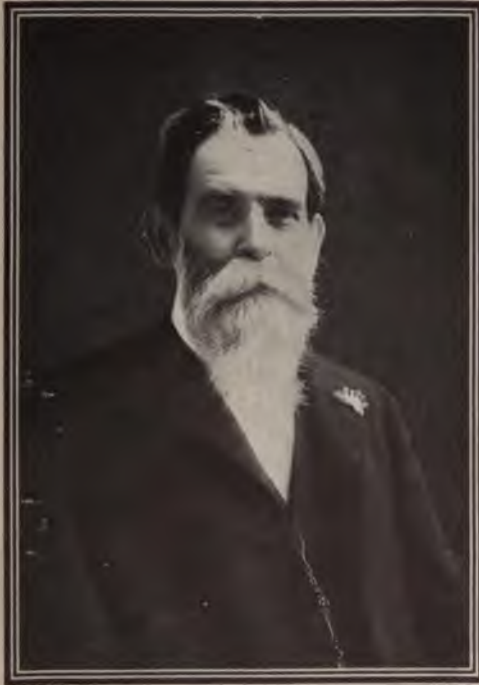
Party Organization Maintained. If the bill should finally be passed without the provision for committee, or "slate," nominations, there would still seem to be little danger of any legitimate political organization suffering serious harm from the primaries. Members of committees would be chosen at the same time that nominations for office are made. State platforms would be adopted either by the State committees or by the candidates. The party machinery would be kept intact as it is now. Innumerable conventions and caucuses are held every year under the present system, but everyone knows that the real work of "getting out the vote" is done outside of these gatherings and quite independently of them. That work would be necessary to party success, with or without the direct primary. Why should there be less loyalty to party in one case than in the other? Restrictions may indeed be advisable in the matter of campaign expenditures. Otherwise the moneyless candidate is at a decided disadvantage. It is also an open question



HON. WILLIAM H. HOTCHKISS.
(New York Insurance Commissioner.)

whether "second-choice" voting should not be required, in order to prevent the nomination of candidates receiving less than half the total vote cast. Both Senator Stephenson, of Wisconsin, and Senator Hopkins, of Illinois, who were last year chosen by direct primaries to succeed themselves, were minority candidates. The question of immediate interest in New York is whether a fusion movement in a municipal election would be rendered impossible by the direct primary.

The New York Insurance Commissioner. The Insurance Commissionership of New York is in one sense a national office. The official appointed by the Governor to this important post is entrusted with authority over some of the most powerful insurance corporations in the world,—companies that have national and even international constituencies. By his appointment of Judge William H. Hotchkiss, of Buffalo, as Commissioner of Insurance, Governor Hughes gives assurance to the country that the insurance law of the State, which the Governor himself had an important part in framing, will be administered wholly in the public interest and with an intelligence and discretion worthy of so responsible an office.



HON. GROVE L. JOHNSON.

(The member of the California Assembly whose anti-Japanese bills caused much discussion last month.)

*California
and the
Japanese.*

While anti-Japanese bills or resolutions were actually introduced in the legislatures of four or five Western States last month, the California and Nevada measures were typical of those which got out of the committee stage. Resolutions in Oregon, Washington, Montana, and Nebraska were either proposed or killed by parliamentary strategy. The California legislation is really an aftermath of the much-discussed San Francisco school bills of two years ago, which at the time aroused such widespread discussion throughout this country and Japan, and which called forth from the President and the State Department unmistakable expressions of the right and intention of the Government to observe and enforce the constitutional superiority of international treaties over any State legislation. Early in January four bills were introduced in the California Legislature: (1) providing for the segregation of Japanese and other Orientals in residential quarters at the option of municipalities; (2) prohibiting aliens not citizens of the United States from owning land in California; (3) prohibiting aliens from becoming directors in California corporations; and (4)

providing for separate schools for Japanese students. They were introduced by Representatives A. M. Drew and Grove L. Johnson. President Roosevelt at once made known the attitude of the federal Government in this matter, in a series of letters and telegrams to the Governor and other California State officials.

*The Position
of the
State Officials.*

It soon developed that there was considerable sentiment, engineered largely by the Asiatic Exclusion League and the labor interests, in favor of the passage of such measures. Most of the higher State officials and the more responsible commercial interests of the State, however, realizing the truth, justice, and wisdom of President Roosevelt's attitude in the matter, were willing to trust to the accuracy of the figures of decreased Japanese immigration presented by Mr. Straus, Secretary of Commerce and Labor, and to place confidence not only in the ability and intention of the administration to conserve their rights but in the integrity of the Japanese Government in its promise to prevent in the future the immigration of coolie laborers to our shores. The attitude and concern of the federal administration, made evident in the correspondence between President Roosevelt and a number of the California officials, including Governor Gillett, Assemblymen Drew and Johnson, and Speaker Stanton of the Assembly, is shown in the telegram quoted on the opposite page. In his message to the Legislature on the Japanese question, sent on January 26, Governor Gillett reviewed what had been done by the governments of the United States and Japan to meet the wishes of both peoples with regard to the immigration of Japanese laborers to our Pacific Coast and pointed out firmly but courteously to the legislatures that the question of immigration is one for the federal Government alone to settle. The message closes with these recommendations:

The passage of all or any of the proposed bills will not prevent a single Japanese from landing here or cause one to leave the country. They will in no sense check immigration or change the Japanese way of doing business or his manner of living. Whatever we shall attain in the way of restricting Japanese immigration must come to us through treaties entered into by the federal Government or through laws enacted by Congress. Our efforts should be made through the proper channels and we should prepare a statement of facts to support any petition we may present. I would, therefore, recommend that a sufficient appropriation be made to enable the State to take a census showing the number of

Japanese now in the State, the number classed as laborers and those classed as agriculturists; the number of acres of land owned by Japanese and the number of acres leased, and to get such other and further information as may be useful in making a proper report to the President of the United States and to Congress.

The President's Intervention. The entire American people can easily understand, and does readily sympathize with, the perfectly proper desire of the Pacific Coast people that the western shore of the United States shall be reserved to the white races for their own use and development. Undoubtedly, however, President Roosevelt simply voiced the sentiments and desires of the entire American people when, on February 8, he sent to Speaker Stanton, of the California Assembly, the telegram setting forth the Government's views in the matter of the Drew and Johnson anti-Japanese bills then pending in the State Legislature.

Attitude of the Federal Government. This telegram expresses the attitude of the federal administration so well and so conclusively that it is worth while quoting the major part of it here. President Roosevelt said:



GOV. JAMES N. GILLETT, OF CALIFORNIA.

(Who has loyally supported the President in observing the obligations of our treaty with Japan.)



SENATOR GEO. C. PERKINS, OF CALIFORNIA.

(Who is not in sympathy with President Roosevelt's attitude on the question of Japanese immigration.)

We [the Federal Government] are jealously endeavoring to guard the interests of California and of the entire West in accordance with the desires of our Western people. By friendly agreement with Japan we are now carrying out a policy which while meeting the interests and desires of the Pacific slope is yet compatible not merely with mutual self-respect, but with mutual esteem and admiration between the Americans and Japanese. The Japanese Government is loyally and in good faith doing its part to carry out this policy precisely as the American Government is doing. The policy aims at mutuality of obligation and behavior. In accordance with it the purpose is that the Japanese shall come here exactly as Americans go to Japan, which is in effect that travelers, students, persons engaged in international business, men who sojourn for pleasure or study and the like shall have the freest access from one country to the other, and shall be sure of the best treatment, but that there shall be no settlement in mass by the people of either country in the other.

During the last six months under this policy more Japanese have left the country than have come in, and the total number in the United States has diminished by over 2000. These figures are absolutely accurate and cannot be impeached. In other words, if the present policy consistently followed works as well in the future as it is now working all difficulties and causes of friction will disappear, while at the same time

each nation will retain its self-respect and the good will of the other.

But such a bill as this school bill accomplishes literally nothing whatever in the line of the object aimed at and gives just and grave causes for irritation, while in addition the United States Government would be obliged immediately to take action in the Federal courts to test such legislation, as we hold it to be clearly a violation of the treaty.

In short the policy of the Administration is to combine the maximum of efficiency in achieving the real object which the people of the Pacific slope have at heart with the minimum of friction and trouble, while the misguided men who advocate such action as this against which I protest are following a policy which combines the very minimum of efficiency with the maximum of insult, and which while totally failing to achieve any real result for good, yet might accomplish an infinity of harm.

If in the next year or two the action of the Federal Government fails to achieve what it is now achieving then through the further action of the President and Congress it can be made entirely efficient.

*Defeat
of the
Bills.*

After a protracted contest in the California Assembly, which was discussed with considerable feeling by the American and Japanese press in general, the Drew bill, against land holding by aliens, the least objectionable of the four, was defeated by a vote of 48 to 28, this vote effectually disposing of all anti-Japanese legislation at the present session, since the California Senate has already gone on record as opposed to any such measures. The Johnson bill for the segregation of Japanese students in the public schools was actually passed in the Assembly, but was reconsidered and rejected on February 10.

*The
Precipitation
of Nevada.*

A flamboyantly worded resolution, attacking the President's attitude in the Japanese immigration question, recommending that California "pay no attention whatever to the admonition of the President in this particular," and asserting that "if we must have war with the Japanese Empire sooner or later now is a better time to lay down terms to that empire," was introduced by Speaker Giffen in the first days of February in the Nevada Legislature and caused a good deal of newspaper discussion and general condemnation. The resolution was finally modified and as passed was actually harmless in character beyond having a tendency to inflame jingo sentiment in this country and Japan. The anti-alien land holding bill, specifically aimed at Japanese and Chinese, introduced also by Speaker Giffen, was passed by the lower

house at Carson, but laid on the table by the Senate. The resolution introduced by Senator Bailey in the Oregon Legislature was defeated. A bill introduced on February 16 in the lower house of the Montana Legislature provided for the segregation of Japanese and Chinese children in the public schools of the State. The fate of this bill is undecided as we go to press.

*Restraint
in
Japan.*

The general sentiment in Japan in the matter as expressed by public speeches of officials and in the editorials in the press has shown unusual restraint, the popular opinion being that "Nevada is not the United States," that the general sentiment of the American people is friendly toward Japan and that the Government at Washington may be depended upon to act with justness, fairness, and strict regard for its treaty obligations. Japan, said Count Komura, minister of foreign affairs, in a speech to the Imperial Diet on February 2, is on terms of cordial agreement with the United States in the matter of restricting immigration. The trade returns for the year 1908 show that the trade of the empire with the United States exceeds that with any other country. It should be noted here that, in response to a resolution of the United States Senate, asking for information concerning the number of Japanese in this country, their occupation, and their relation to the communities in which they live, a report will soon be published of such data collected during the past year by the Immigration Commission, which was created by the Congress in 1907.

*Position of the
Western
Senators.*

It should be said that in general the Senators from the Western States have cordially supported President Roosevelt in his enunciation of the federal attitude toward the observance of our treaty obligations with Japan. Senator Flint, of California, heartily supports the President. Senators Nixon and Newlands, of Nevada, while maintaining the propriety and justice of the anti-Asiatic feeling in their State, have generally supported the President. Senator Perkins, of California, however, has not been in accord with the attitude of the federal Government. His public utterances on the question of anti-Japanese legislation as well as on the question of the general naval policy of the country have generally been at variance with the views of the present administration.



THE COURSE OF THE AMERICAN BATTLESHIP FLEET IN ITS VOYAGE CIRCUMNAVIGATING THE GLOBE.

The Return of the Ships. The world-encircling voyage of the American fleet came safely to an end when the sixteen battleships, under Admiral Sperry, having finished the last run of 3600 miles from Gibraltar, dropped anchor in Hampton Roads in February. Here the entire fleet, including the escorting third squadron of the Atlantic fleet, under Rear-Admiral Arnold, was reviewed by President Roosevelt on February 22. It was exactly one year and sixty-eight days before that the President had started the fleet off from this same port on its famous cruise around the world. In this period the ships covered a distance of approximately 45,000 miles, touched at many ports in South America, Australia, Japan, China, and points in the Mediterranean, and received everywhere the most gratifying welcome from private and official sources. In every way the cruise has been a pronounced success. Not a single accident marred the course of the entire voyage. In fact, the ships, in the opinion of the commanding officer, returned home in even better condition than when they steamed away. The experience has been a valuable one for officers and men. The fleet,—in the words of Admiral Sperry,—has “found itself,” the long and harmonious service together having vastly increased the working efficiency of each individual unit and their combined effectiveness as a fleet. This American naval achievement has set new standards for various phases of naval efficiency. Foreign nations have observed it with keen interest, while to the American people it has been a source of pride as well as an object lesson in the value of an effective naval force. The President’s action in dispatching the battleships on this unprecedented cruise has been fully justified by its excellent results.

The Treaties with Canada.

In spite of the unshaken opposition of Sir Robert Bond, Premier of Newfoundland, an agreement between Mr. James Bryce, the British ambassador to the United States, and Secretary of State Root, to submit the Newfoundland fishery dispute for arbitration to the Hague Tribunal, was tentatively signed on January 28. Sir Robert continued his opposition, but the Newfoundland Legislature a week later definitely approved the treaty, the Newfoundlanders being placated by certain concessions in the instrument itself. The British foreign office immediately signified its formal assent to the treaty, which was then sent to the United States Senate for formal ratification. Another highly important agreement with our Canadian neighbors signed by Mr. Root several days before his resignation from the Secretaryship of State was what is generally known as the Waterways Treaty, officially agreed upon between Great Britain and the United States, but, the British journals inform us, was submitted to the authorities at Ottawa before approval.

What the Treaty Accomplishes

This agreement, the chief results of which are the preservation of Niagara Falls and the definite settlement of the entire Canadian-American boundary, was not ratified at the last session of Congress, the Senators deciding to hold the matter open until the new session, which begins the middle of the present month, when Mr. Root, in his new capacity of Senator from New York, will be able to answer certain alleged objections to some of its provisions. It is interesting to note in passing that the chairman of the Canadian delegation to the North American conservation conference, which was held in Washington last month, upon

President Roosevelt's invitation, was the Hon. Sydney Fisher, minister of the Dominion Department of Agriculture. Mr. Fisher is in full accord with the broad conservation policy of Mr. R. L. Borden, the leader of the opposition to Sir Wilfrid Laurier's present ministry, so Canadian journals report.

*Cuba
Once More
Independent.*

The second American intervention in Cuba terminated officially on January 1 of the present year, with the beginning of the homeward movement of American troops of the Army of Occupation. With the formal inauguration, on January 28, of the newly elected chief officials of the government, President Gomez and Vice-President Zayas, Cuba again resumed her place among the independent nations of the earth. On that day Provisional Governor Magoon handed over his seals of authority to the newly elected President and several days later departed to report in person to the President at Washington. Mr. Magoon believes that, despite many difficulties and problems in the way, General Gomez has shown excellent judgment in selecting his advisers. He believes, also, that the new government will have "reasonably fair sailing." One of the most important officials appointed by the new President is Gen. Pino Guerra, who is to be commander-in-chief of the permanent military forces of the republic. General Guerra was at one time candidate for the presidency.

*Recent
Cuban
History.*

It will be interesting just now to retrace rapidly the changes that have taken place in Cuba since the termination, on May 20, 1902, of the first American intervention. First came the revolution against President Palma, in 1906. Secretary of War Taft was proclaimed provisional governor to represent the second American intervention on September 29, 1906; on October 13 of the same year Governor Taft was succeeded by Charles E. Magoon; on January 14, 1908, President Roosevelt issued his proclamation to the Cubans stating that the island would be turned over to them before February 1, 1909; on November 14 of last year General Gomez was elected president; the first detachment of American troops to evacuate the island embarked on January 1 of the present year; Cuba's new Congress met and canvassed the electoral vote on January 23; and Governor Magoon turned over the administration of Cuba to the new president on January 28.



MAJOR-GENERAL PINO GUERRA.

(Who will command Cuba's permanent army.)

*Settling
with
Venezuela.*

After nearly two months' arduous diplomatic labor, United States Special Commissioner William I. Buchanan succeeded in securing the agreement of the Venezuelan Government to a protocol which practically settles all outstanding differences between this country and the South American republic. The protocol was signed on February 15 after approval by the Venezuelan Government. Three claims,—(1) those of the United States and Venezuela Company (the "Critchfield concession"), (2) the Oronoco Steamship Company, and (3) the Oronoco Corporation,—are to be submitted for arbitration to the Hague Tribunal. A fourth, that of A. F. Jaurett, the Frenchman who had taken out American naturalization papers and was expelled from Venezuela by former President Castro, was settled by the award of a cash sum (\$3000) without arbitration. The fifth, that of the New York & Bermudez Asphalt Company, has been settled by direct negotiation between the Venezuelan Government and the claimants,—through the intervention of Special Commissioner Buchanan. The company regains possession of the property in Venezuela and agrees to pay the Caracas Government a fixed minimum revenue annually as well as a cash indemnity to drop the suit brought against it by the government on account of

its alleged participation in the Matos rebellion. This is by far the most important news from South America during the past month.

*The
Pan-American
Congress.*

Highly significant and interesting, however, were the developments of the Pan-American Scientific Congress, which began its sessions on December 28 last in Santiago, Chile, and continued until the first of last month. Dr. Leo S. Rowe, chairman of the delegation of the United States at the congress, who early last month returned to Washington, is enthusiastic over the friendly feeling shown by the Chileans of all classes for North Americans. Dr. Rowe believes that our evacuation of Cuba according to promise and our forbearing policy toward Venezuela have created a most favorable impression over the entire Southern continent.

*Is an Invasion
of England
Possible?*

British interest in the visit to Berlin last month of King Edward and Queen Alexandra (the first visit of British sovereigns to the German capital in a century) would undoubtedly have been much greater than the news dispatches indicated had it not been for the perturbed feelings of the British public at the time, over the question of a foreign invasion. For years,—more than a decade,—many British statesmen and writers have been preaching the necessity for a realization of the defenseless state of the country. Lord Roberts has delivered more than one solemn public warning upon the necessity for a large army of at least partially trained men; Secretary of War Haldane has been energetically working to raise a Territorial Army of 300,000 men (without succeeding, after two years' work, in raising two-thirds of that number); the *Times* has been stoutly advocating compulsory military training, while Mr. Kipling and Mr. George Bernard Shaw have often attempted by their wit to arouse phlegmatic Britons.

*A
Remarkable
Play.*

Now comes an anonymous play, —ascribed, however, to Guy du Maurier, son of the famous author of "Trilby,"—entitled "An Englishman's Home." This production, crude and weak from an artistic standpoint, has a certain psychological appeal, and it has succeeded where all the other warnings have failed. It would seem that John Bull is actually aroused, perhaps over-aroused. "An Englishman's Home" is simply a dramatic

representation of the characteristic attitude of the different classes in England on the question of a possible invasion. A typical English rate-payer, several sporting young men who denounce volunteering as "silly rot," and some flippant girls are the char-



HON. WILLIAM I. BUCHANAN.

(United States Special Commissioner to Venezuela.)

acters in the play,—all of them rather keen satires on existing British types. Attempting to defend his "castle," the poor rate-payer is condemned to be shot as a civilian in arms by the invaders.

*All
England
Aroused.*

This is what the author of the play evidently regards as the plight in which Britons would find themselves should a hostile army elude the British fleet and land on British soil. For weeks the play has been drawing crowded houses all over London, and has begun its tour of the provinces. It has been exciting tremendous interest, and the newspapers have been devoting more space to it than to any other one topic. Lord Roberts' plan for an army of 1,000,000 partially trained men is becoming more popular, and the volunteers are flocking to enlist in the Territorial Army. The ministry, for some months divided on the question of the increase in the navy, has finally decided (as announced on February 12) to lay down five

Dreadnoughts during the coming year. The admiralty had demanded six and the majority of the cabinet itself had insisted that four should be the maximum. The building of the extra warship is believed to be due to the impression created by du Maurier's play. Radical changes in the organization of the navy formation itself are reported, including the absorption of the Channel fleet into the general formation, under Admiral May. Lord Charles Beresford, its former commander, is retired after fifty years' service.

The Irish League Convention. Under impressive circumstances last month more than 2000 delegates participated in the deliberations of the national convention of the United Irish League, whose spokesmen in the British House of Commons are the members of the Irish Nationalist party. The features of the session were the contest between Mr. John E. Redmond and Mr. William O'Brien over the Birrell land-purchase project, and the triumphal re-election of Mr. Redmond to the chairmanship of the Irish Parliamentary party. The new land-purchase bill, which will be urged at the present session of Parliament by Mr. Augustine Birrell, Chief Secretary for Ireland, aims to enlarge the scope of the Wyndham act (which became a law in 1903) so as to insure the distribution not merely of a part, but of virtually all the landed estates in Ireland among peasant proprietors, with, further, a distinct improvement in the terms of payment. This bill, with certain minor amendments, was warmly supported by Mr. Redmond at the convention of the League at Dublin. The convention defeated a resolution extending the franchise to women.

The British Monarch in Berlin. An excellent impression upon the German Government and people has undoubtedly been made by the visit last month of the British King Edward and Queen Alexandra to Berlin. While no definite "understanding" in the political sense has resulted, and while it may be doubted whether the discussions between Chancellor von Bülow and the British foreign secretary, Sir Charles Hardinge, who accompanied King Edward, achieved any political result, it is beyond question that the visit actually relieved the tension which for months has characterized the relations between Europe's great naval and commercial rivals. The British sovereigns were received with sincere and cordial welcome in the German capital, and their hosts, if we may believe the cable dispatches, were very much impressed by King Edward's tact and candor. It is significant, also, that upon the day of his arrival in Berlin the French and German foreign offices signed a highly important agreement covering all differences between the two nations regarding Morocco. A better understanding with England and a definite agreement with France have clarified the field of foreign relations very satisfactorily for the German Government, which, in the face of its present domestic difficulties, is being sorely tried.

Germany's Home Problems. Financially, Germany is, it must be said, in a bad way. German financial methods and problems have more than once been discussed at length in these pages. In essence, the unfavorable conditions result from an antiquated and poorly distributed system of taxation, and the rather cumbersome electoral methods in Prussia, which bring about much political discontent. Chancellor von Bülow is now finding considerable difficulty in maintaining his ascendancy in the Reichstag, since the so-called "bloc," the coalition of Conservatives, National Liberals, and Radicals, by the support of which he has hitherto managed to control the Reichstag and the Prussian House of Representatives, has been broken up. Much opposition has developed to that provision of the government's tax-reform measure which demands the imposition of death duties. The situation had become so grave last month that the Chancellor's forced resignation was expected in some quarters. Favorable reports of progress in the African possessions of the Empire made an excellent impression in the Reichstag.



THE KING AND THE KAISER AS DOVES OF PEACE.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

Russia, Turkey and Bulgaria. Russian prestige in the Balkans has been in large measure restored by Foreign Minister Isvolski's clever move last month in bringing Turkey and Bulgaria to an agreement in the matter of the indemnity which the latter should pay for Turkey's recognition of her independence. Originally, it will be remembered, the Ottoman Government demanded \$24,000,000 as the irreducible minimum for the capitalized tribute of Eastern Rumelia now incorporated in the new "Czardom" of Bulgaria and the price of that portion of the Turkish Oriental Railway taken over by Bulgaria when independence was declared. The government of Czar Ferdinand, however, has heretofore refused to pay more than \$16,400,000. The Bulgarian treasury being practically empty, even the smaller amount would have had to be provided through a foreign loan. Here came Russia's opportunity. Instead of waiting for the rest of Europe to impose its united will upon the government at Sofia before advancing a loan, the Russian foreign office at once made its proposition to Turkey.

The Russian Plan. According to the Berlin treaty, the Ottoman Government was to pay to Russia as a war indemnity \$1,600,000 annually for 100 years. No payments of this indemnity have so far been made. Russia now proposes to remit these payments, which bear no interest, until the Turkish claim of \$24,000,000 against Bulgaria is satisfied. Russia, on her part, will collect from Bulgaria \$16,400,000 in similar instalments. These payments will bear such interest, and will be distributed over such periods of time that, it is expected, the amount of the interest will recoup Russia. Bulgaria has formally accepted this proposal, and as we are going to press with this issue of the REVIEW it is reported that the plan is satisfactory to the Turks. It is understood that the government at Constantinople will at once recognize "Emperor" Ferdinand without waiting for a conference of the powers. The Russian scheme will also obviate the necessity for international control of Bulgarian finances, and will better the situation considerably.

Cabinet Changes in Turkey. While, as Mr. Santo Semo asserts in an article in the London *Review of Reviews*, quoted on another page (350) this month, there are really no reactionary elements in the Turkish Parliament, there have been, during the past



HILMI PASHA, WHO SUCCEEDS KIAMIL PASHA AS GRAND VIZIER OF TURKEY.

few weeks, evidences of a recrudescence of attempts on the part of the old palace clique to overthrow the Young Turks. This so-called Liberal Union, composed of officeholders in the main favorable to the old régime, succeeded, at the time Parliament assembled, in winning over to their views the aged Grand Vizier, Kiamil Pasha. The Committee of Union and Progress, which engineered last summer's successful revolution and holds control of a majority in Parliament, has grown dissatisfied with the foreign policy of the Grand Vizier as needlessly timid and conservative. The committee leaders have felt that negotiations with Bulgaria and Austria should have been carried on more aggressively. Kiamil's appointment of two new ministers of suspected disloyalty to the reform administration brought to a head the opposition to him on the part of the Committee of Union and Progress (the "Young Turks"), which had been growing for some weeks. On a vote of confidence, taken on February 13, Parliament repudiated the Vizier by a vote of 198 to 8. He at once resigned, and Sultan Abdul Hamid appointed in his stead Hilmi Pasha, minister of the interior in the Kiamil Pasha cabinet. These ministerial changes are regarded as a triumph for the Young



THE ROUTE OF THE BAGDAD RAILWAY.

Turk party, which has now virtually imposed upon the Sultan an entire ministry of its own nomination. Some opposition has developed to this action on the part of the Young Turks, which the British press has been denouncing as "despotic."

Turkey and the Bagdad Railway.

The three major problems confronting Turkey, which include all others, are, it has been said: peace, finance, and Arabia. Peace and finance are largely, if not almost exclusively, dependent on such adjustment of the empire's Balkan relations as now seems likely to be made. The problem of Arabia (whose fanatical tribesmen are constantly in revolt) and its hinterland, with Ottoman relations with Persia, is more difficult of solution, and much will depend on the wisdom and diplomacy with which the Young Turks use their power confirmed by the ministerial victory of last month, already noted. The much-discussed Bagdad Railway, the first section of which was opened for traffic in 1904, and upon which construction has since halted, would seem to be the secret of Germany's apparent opposition to the reform régime at Constantinople. Into the mazes of the financing of this line it is unnecessary to go here. When completed to Bussorah, as will be seen on the accompanying map, it will tap a country rich in agricultural and mineral possibilities, and will undoubtedly be extremely

valuable to the Sultan for strategic and administrative purposes. It was announced last month that Germany, England, and France had reached an agreement with the Turks whereby construction on this railroad would be resumed at an early date. Great Britain has always watched this project very carefully, since the line, when completed, would bring middle Europe, dominated by her commercial rival, Germany, into close communication with her Indian empire, which is always an uncertain quantity in Britain's foreign relations. Some of the underlying causes of the present unrest among the Hindus are set forth in a leading article on another page this month (354).

France, Germany, and Morocco.

Each year the continent of Africa looms larger in the political news of the world. During the past month highly important developments in state-making were recorded from the extreme north and the extreme south of that vast division of the earth's surface, which was so long known as the Dark Continent, but which has already proceeded so far on the road to complete enlightenment that the term "dark" no longer properly applies. On February 9 the French foreign office issued the text of the Franco-German declaration respecting Morocco, which had been signed the same day in Berlin. This declaration defines the scope given by the two governments to the

various clauses of the Algeciras convention with a view to avoiding future misunderstandings. The text follows:

The French Government, entirely solicitous for the maintenance of the integrity of the Shereefian empire [Morocco] and determined to safeguard economic equality and therefore not to impede German commercial or industrial interests there, and the German Government, having only economic interests in Morocco and recognizing on its part that the political interests of France are there closely bound up with the consolidation of internal order and peace, and being therefore resolved not to impede those interests, declare that they will neither pursue nor encourage any measure of a nature to create in their favor or in favor of any other power an economic privilege, and that they will seek to associate their nationals [subjects] in undertakings of which those nationals may obtain the concessions.

Thus, it may be said, is closed one of the most unnecessary, dangerous, and long-drawn-out incidents in the history of the past ten years in European politics.

*Federation
of British
Africa.*

Far to the South of the Continent, the British colonies have almost completed their arrangements for a federation which shall take in under one colonial government Cape Colony, Natal, the Transvaal, Orange River Colony, and Rhodesia. The proceedings of the Closer Union Convention, held in Cape Town during January and February, were secret; but the outside world understands that an agreement to federate was practically reached, with a double capital,—Pretoria and Cape Town,—determined upon. On another page this month (324) we print some stirring sentences of warning and counsel from an address to this convention written by Olive Schreiner, who for nearly a generation has been known as the most brilliant writer among the English-speaking peoples in Africa. Among other developments of recent weeks in Africa have been: The gratifying, optimistic report of the German Colonial Minister, Herr Dernburg, on the African possessions of the Fatherland; Secretary Root's formulation (in his letter of January 11 to the Belgian minister) of the conditions imposed by the United States Government before it will recognize the transfer of Congo sovereignty from King Leopold to the Belgian Parliament; and the agitation in Liberia and by Liberian agents in Washington to secure an appropriation from Congress for the expenses of an American commission to investigate into the "present critical circumstances in the Black Republic."

*The
Plight of
Liberia.* Mr. Root has always maintained that Liberia is to all intents and purposes an American colony, having been founded in 1819 by the United States Government. President Roosevelt, moreover, late in January sent to Congress a brief report from the Secretary of State, recommending an appropriation for an investigation. In this report the state of things in Liberia, and the reasons for an investigation, are set forth as follows:

In connection with the present conditions existing in Liberia, consular reports speak of the magnificent possibilities of the country. The Liberian people are generally very shiftless, very poor, and constantly pressed in upon by their French and British neighbors. The country is absolutely undeveloped as to its rich hinterland. A comparison of Liberia with the British colony of Sierra Leone, founded under exactly the same conditions and having the same character of hinterland, establishes the fact that the territory of the republic is rich in possibilities. It would be unfortunate for American prestige if we were to fail at least to give once more some real assistance to the republic.

President Roosevelt's great hunting trip, the purposes and organization of which are set forth on another page (299) by Mr. Edward B. Clark, will, beyond a doubt, result in an intensified interest in conditions of Africa and African life. The wonderful story of economic and industrial "Africa in Transformation" is set forth briefly but cogently by Mr. Cyrus C. Adams on page 322; and the great work of one religious denomination in the missionary field in the continent is outlined in the sketch of Bishop Hartzell (page 326).

*Lessons of the
"Republic"
Collision.* Perhaps the most noteworthy fact in connection with the loss of the White Star steamship

Republic, which was sunk in the fog off the coast of Nantucket Island on the morning of January 23 in collision with the Italian liner *Florida*, was the efficacy then proven of the equipment and organization for safety of travel at sea which now obtains on all great modern sea-going passenger vessels. Less than a generation ago an accident involving an equal number of men (1600) would, beyond a doubt, have resulted in the death of all or almost all on board both ships. Thanks, however, to the staunchness of the two great ships themselves, the water-tight bulkheads, the discipline and organization of the crews, and the marvelous facility for calling aid which was made possible by the use of the wireless telegraph apparatuses on the

Republic and the ships that answered her calls, only five human lives were lost in this collision,—two passengers on the *Republic* and three of the crew of the *Florida*. All of these came to their death from the impact of the collision and none from drowning. The officers and men of all the vessels concerned behaved with exemplary discipline and coolness. On another page this month (330) we present an illustrated, authoritative description of the equipment which renders modern sea-going craft safer for travel than even steam transportation on land. An increasing popular agitation, drawn out doubtless by the loss of the *Republic*, is calling the attention of our State and national law-makers to the necessity for some legislation which shall compel ship-owners to equip all their passenger vessels with wireless telegraph apparatus; and, further, which shall in some way prevent "interference" with wireless messages on official business or private business of importance to human life and safety. On February 16, the House of Representatives passed the Burke wireless bill. This provides that all ocean-going ships carrying more than fifty passengers and traveling 200 miles or more shall be equipped with a wireless instrument and an operator. The bill prescribes a penalty of not to exceed \$3000 or imprisonment for not to exceed one year, or both, for violation of its provisions. One year is allowed for the installation of the equipment.

Woman
Suffrage
Progress

The highest distinction which has yet come to the cause of woman suffrage throughout the world is undoubtedly the victory won last month by the suffragists in Sweden, when, by a substantial majority in each house of the Diet, a law was enacted providing that hereafter all persons, without distinction of sex, who shall have attained a designated age and who fill other prescribed conditions, shall exercise the parliamentary franchise. Sweden is an independent nation whose people are among the most enlightened on earth, who apparently are quite willing to confide to their women equal powers with their men in deciding vital questions of national welfare and defense. Woman suffrage now obtains in Norway, Finland, New Zealand, and the commonwealth of Australia, and in four of our Western States (Colorado, Wyoming, Idaho, and

Utah). The victory for the suffragist cause in Sweden has greatly encouraged advocates of that policy in England, who have for the past three or four years been conducting a campaign for the suffrage right remarkable for its vigor, persistence, and somewhat sensational character.

Aftermath
of the
Earthquake.

Earthquake shocks and volcanic activity at widely separated points on the earth's surface, notably in Asiatic Turkey, in Hungary, in Persia, in Turkestan, and from the crater of Mt. Colima, in Mexico, during the month of February, kept the attention of the world fixed upon these destructive natural forces, the power of which was so tremendously emphasized in the catastrophe at Messina. The work of relief in Sicily and on the Calabrian coast has gone on unremittingly since the first days after the disaster. Even by the middle of last month, however, trustworthy reports from Rome indicated that, while much good work had been done on the sites of the cities of Messina and Reggio, the vast stricken area behind them, once filled with crowded villages, is still practically untouched by relief measures, while its desolate, houseless, and starving population of a quarter of a million souls,—and bodies,—cries to the world for aid. The organized philanthropy of the world, nowhere manifested in larger measure than in these United States, has already contributed many millions of dollars in money and supplies. A notable instance of this last month was the presentation by Ambassador Griscom to Queen Helena, of the sum of \$250,000 from the American Red Cross Society for the foundation of an orphanage to care for 100 children who lost their parents in the earthquake. There is still urgent need for more. The Italian authorities announce that it is difficult,—increasingly difficult,—to get efficient labor and that there is urgent need of some arrangement which will substitute private, paid exertion for the work now being done by the troops. A number of severe shocks have been felt at Messina at intervals of several days during late January and early February. It is reported that Queen Helena has decided to undertake with her own private funds the reconstruction of a town on the outskirts of Messina. The name of the town is to be Regina Elena.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From January 21 to February 17, 1909.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

January 21.—The Senate passes a bill increasing the salaries of twenty-nine circuit judges and eighty-four district judges....The House debates the Naval appropriation bill.

January 22.—A message is received from President Roosevelt transmitting the report of the National Conservation Commission and an inventory of natural resources....The Senate passes the Legislative appropriation bill, retaining the provision making the President's salary \$100,000....The House passes the Naval appropriation bill.

January 25.—The Senate passes the Urgent Deficiency appropriation bill and considers the Postal Savings-Bank bill....The House considers District of Columbia business.

January 26.—The Senate passes the Lodge bill to prohibit the importation and use of opium for smoking....Mr. Cummins (Rep., Ia.) makes a speech in opposition to the Postal Savings-Bank bill.

January 27.—The Senate, in executive session, confirms the nominations of Robert Bacon as Secretary of State, and John C. O'Laughlin as Assistant Secretary of State, and considers the Canadian waterways treaty....The House passes the Post-Office appropriation bill.

January 28.—The Senate considers the Omnibus Claims bill and the Brownsville affair....The House begins discussion of the Army appropriation bill.

January 29.—In the House, statements are read from Charles P. Taft and William Nelson Cromwell, denying charges in connection with the Panama Canal purchase.

January 30.—In the House, Mr. Hamilton (Rep., Mich.), chairman of the House Committee on Territories, introduces a bill providing for separate Statehood for Arizona and New Mexico.

February 1.—The Senate passes a bill making February 12 a special Lincoln holiday....The House passes a bill to prohibit the importation of opium for smoking.

February 2.—The Senate reaches an agreement to vote on February 23 on the Aldrich substitute bill providing for a court of inquiry into the reenlistment qualifications of the negro soldiers of the Twenty-fifth Infantry....The House passes the Army appropriation bill.

February 3.—The House debates the Agricultural appropriation bill.

February 4.—The Senate considers the District of Columbia appropriation bill....The House strikes out from the Agricultural appropriation bill the appropriation for the pure food referee board.

February 5.—The Senate passes the District of Columbia appropriation bill....The House receives a message from President Roosevelt vetoing the Census bill.

February 6.—The House passes a bill amending the bankruptcy law.

February 8.—A message urging that ocean-going passenger vessels be equipped with wireless telegraph apparatus is received from President Roosevelt....The Senate, in executive ses-



HON. ROBERT BACON.

(Mr. Root's successor as Secretary of State.)

sion, discusses the Japanese question and the nomination of Dr. Crum to be collector of the port of Charleston....The House devotes the day to District of Columbia business.

February 9.—The Senate discusses the type of canal which is to be constructed at Panama....The House completes consideration of the bill materially changing the methods of administration in the Panama Canal Zone.

February 10.—The electoral votes are counted in a joint session of the Senate and House, the election of Taft and Sherman being formally announced by Vice-President Fairbanks....The Senate discusses the Postal Savings-Bank bill....The House considers the Agricultural appropriation bill.

February 11.—The Senate passes the bill introduced by Mr. Hale (Rep., Me.), designed to allow Mr. Knox to accept the portfolio of Secretary of State under President-elect Taft, and the joint resolution making February 12 a special legal holiday in the District of Columbia and the Territories in honor of Abraham Lincoln

...The House passes the Agricultural appropriation bill.

February 12.—Exercises appropriate to Lincoln Day are held by the House.

February 15.—The Senate considers the Naval appropriation bill.... The House passes the bill to reduce the salary of the Secretary of State to obviate the constitutional bar to the service of Senator Knox in that capacity, and the Separate Statehood bill for Arizona and New Mexico.

February 16.—The Senate amends the Naval appropriation bill so that in the discretion of the President one-half of the navy shall be kept in Pacific Coast waters; it limits the size of the two battleships to 21,000 tons each, and bars the purchase of powder from any trust except in war time.... The House passes a bill increasing the membership of the Interstate Commerce Commission to nine members, and a bill making the installation of wireless telegraph apparatus on ocean steamships compulsory.

February 17.—The President transmits to Congress the report of the engineers who accompanied President-elect Taft to Panama.... The Senate passes the naval appropriation bill.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

January 25.—Elihu Root, Secretary of State, offers his resignation to President Roosevelt, and Robert Bacon is nominated to succeed him.

January 26.—Governor Gillett, of California, sends a special message to the Legislature urging conservatism on the Japanese question.... The Kansas Legislature elects Joseph L. Bristow (Rep.) United States Senator to succeed Chester I. Long (Rep.).... The Nevada Legislature re-elects United States Senator Francis G. Newlands (Dem.).

January 27.—The South Carolina Legislature elects E. D. Smith (Dem.) United States Senator to succeed Frank B. Gary.... President Roosevelt announces the appointment of a commission on naval departmental reorganization.

January 28.—Elihu Root, United States Senator-elect, addresses both houses of the New York Legislature.

January 29.—The Boston Finance Commission, in a report to the Massachusetts Legislature, criticizes nearly every department of the city government.

February 1.—The Philippine Legislature is convened at Manila.

February 3.—Governor Charles N. Haskell, of Oklahoma, is indicted by the United States Grand Jury for conspiracy to defraud the Government in connection with the scheduling of Muskogee town site lots.... A 2-cent fare bill is signed by Governor Vessey, of South Dakota.

February 4.—The California Assembly passes a bill barring Japanese children from American schools; Governor Gillett receives a letter of protest from President Roosevelt.... The California Legislature passes an anti-race-track gambling law modeled on the New York State law.

February 5.—Governor Hughes, of New York, names William H. Hotchkiss, of Buffalo, to succeed Otto H. Kelsey as State Superintendent of Insurance.

February 10.—The Japanese school segregation bill fails of passage by the California Legislature.

February 16.—The United States War Department decides to establish a large military station



A NOVEL OPERATION IN TURKEY: VOTING FOR MEMBERS OF THE NEW OTTOMAN PARLIAMENT.

at Hawaii, and make it second to the Department of the Philippines in importance.

February 17.—Bench warrants are issued at Washington for the arrest of the owners and editors of the *New York World* and the *Indianapolis News* on charges of libel in the Panama purchase.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

January 26.—The Prussian Diet rejects various electoral reform measures advocated by the Socialists.

January 27.—The Czar of Russia appoints M. Timireazell to succeed M. Shipov as minister of commerce.

January 28.—The annual conference of the British Labor Party is opened at Portsmouth. . . . Gen. José Miguel Gomez is inaugurated President of the Cuban republic. . . . The Russian cabinet approves a bill to form a new Polish province to be attached to Russia proper.

January 31.—Differences on the question of the selection of a capital cause a crisis in the South African Convention. . . . M. Lopukhin, formerly Director of Police in the Russian Interior Department, is arrested on a charge of high treason. . . . The Viceroy of Manchuria, forewarned that he is to be removed, resigns.

February 2.—The Russian Duma adopts interpellations regarding the cases of Azev and Lopukhin; leaders of the opposition make sharp attacks on the Government. . . . M. Picard presents to the French cabinet a plan of naval reorganization involving an expenditure of \$45,000,000.

February 3.—Rebels in Ispahan overthrow the government and assume control of the city government.

February 5.—A fierce fight between German and Czech deputies closes the session of the Austrian Reichsrath.

February 7.—General Fredericks, former governor of Nijni Novgorod, Russia, is convicted of complicity in the grain frauds and sentenced to dismissal from the service and a fine of \$5000.

February 9.—The United Irish League votes by a large majority to adhere to Mr. Redmond's policy of strict independence.

February 10.—The Austrian Premier reconstructs his cabinet to restore tranquility to the empire. . . . The Russian Duma tables indefinitely the bill abolishing the death penalty.

February 12.—Bills appropriating \$11,000,000 for the defense of Denmark are introduced in the Folkething by the Government.

February 13.—Both chambers of the Swedish Diet pass the bill permitting all inhabitants of the country over twenty-four years of age to vote, with proportional representation in the parliament. . . . The Turkish Chamber votes "no confidence" in Kiamil Pasha, the Grand Vizier, who resigns office. . . . The French Chamber of Deputies approves the policy of M. Clemenceau in granting amnesty to strikers and refusing it to the Latin Quarter students.

February 14.—The Sultan of Turkey accepts the resignation of Kiamil Pasha as Grand Vizier and instructs Hilmi Pasha to form a new cabinet; Ali Riza Pasha is reappointed minister of war.



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PRESIDENT-ELECT TAFT INSPECTING THE WORK ON THE PANAMA CANAL.

(S. B. Williams, chief engineer of the Pacific division, at the left.)

February 16.—The British Parliament is reopened by King Edward, who deals in his speech chiefly with the improved outlook for European peace and plans for social legislation. . . . It is announced that the Turkish Minister of Finance has resigned.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

January 27.—The Newfoundland fisheries treaty is signed at Washington.

January 28.—Russia proposes joint action by the powers on the question of the adoption of military measures on the frontiers of Turkey and Bulgaria. . . . An official note is issued at Paris showing that the powers are trying to prevent the outbreak of hostilities between Turkey and Bulgaria. . . . Official correspondence made public at Boston shows that the United States is withholding recognition of Belgian sovereignty in the Congo Free State.

January 29.—Bulgaria begins to disband her reservists on the representation of the powers. . . . Bulgaria sends a note to the powers complaining of Turkey's attitude, and declaring that the Porte will have to take the consequences.

January 30.—French diplomats strive to in-

duce Austria-Hungary to agree with England, France, Russia, and Italy on the disputed Balkan question.

January 31.—Turkey demands that Bulgaria state whether or not she desires to resume negotiations.

February 1.—Russia submits a plan for the settlement of the dispute between Turkey and Bulgaria.

February 2.—Count Komura, the Japanese Foreign Minister, states in the Japanese Diet that friendship with the United States is absolutely essential to the nation.

February 3.—Germany and Venezuela sign a trade treaty, by which the former country obtains "most favored nation" treatment.

February 4.—Sir Robert Bond gives his consent to the provisions of the Newfoundland fisheries treaty.

February 7.—President Davila, of Honduras, sends an apology to Guatemala for a reference to the latter country in his annual message to Congress.

February 9.—The agreement between France and Germany regarding Morocco is signed at Berlin....The United States replies to a protest of the Government of Panama against criticisms of President Obaldia made in the House by Representative Rainey, disavowing the responsibility of this Government.

February 12.—Conferences between English and German statesmen at Berlin are reported as having resulted satisfactorily; the two nations agree on nearly all important questions of foreign policy.

February 13.—A protocol embodying the terms of an agreement between Commissioner Buchanan, representing the United States, and President Gomez, of Venezuela, regarding the settlement of pending American claims, is signed and ratified by the Venezuelan cabinet.

February 15.—The governments of Ontario, Quebec, and New Brunswick oppose the fisheries section of the International Waterways treaty as being an invasion of their rights....It is announced that two-cent postage between the United States and Newfoundland will go into effect on March 1.

February 17.—King Alfonso, of Spain, accepts the Anglo-German proposal that he should arbitrate the Walfisch Bay boundary dispute.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

January 22.—One hundred and seventy-three persons lose their lives in floods in the Transvaal and northern Natal.

January 23.—The White Star liner *Republic*, bound from New York to the Mediterranean, is rammed in a fog off the Nantucket Lightship by the Italian steamer *Florida* and abandoned in a sinking condition, the passengers and crew being transferred first to the *Florida* and later to the White Star steamer *Baltic*, which is notified of the *Republic's* distress by wireless telegraphy; later the *Republic* sinks; two passengers of the *Republic* and three seamen of the *Florida* lose their lives....Earthquake shocks are felt at places as far apart as Bombay, Smyrna, and Cape Town.

January 24.—The Cunard liner *Mauretania* is reported as making 26¾ knots an hour on the westbound voyage.

January 25.—President-elect Taft sails from Charleston, S. C., for Panama on the United States cruiser *North Carolina*....A conference on methods of caring for dependent children is opened at the White House with an address by President Roosevelt.

January 27.—Emperor William's fiftieth birthday is celebrated in Germany....Judge Taylor, of the United States District Court, announces that fares on the Cleveland street-car lines will be raised from three to five cents.

January 28.—Emperor William gives out a rescript establishing a German imperial monopoly on the trade in all diamonds found in German Southwest Africa.

January 30.—It is shown that radium can be produced from the refuse of a Cornwall mine.

January 31.—Six of the American battleships reach Gibraltar and begin coaling for the trip across the Atlantic....M. Bonheur, lieutenant-governor of French Cochinchina, is found dead.

February 1.—President-elect Taft and the engineers accompanying him make a detailed examination of the Culebra cut at Culebra, Panama....In the wrecking of the British steamer *Clan Ranald*, near Edithsburg, Australia, the captain and forty-six of the crew are drowned....Prince Edward Island is frozen in and cut off from communication with the mainland....The United States Supreme Court rules in the case of the Continental Wall Paper Company that a trust operating in violation of the Sherman law cannot use the federal courts for the purpose of collecting debts.

February 5.—Many lives are lost and damage done to property in Germany through floods caused by heavy rains and warm weather....A gift of \$32,500 is made to the University of Heidelberg, Germany, for the establishment of a department to investigate radium.

February 6.—The United States battleship *Delaware*, known as the American *Dreadnought*, is launched at Newport News, Va....The American battleship fleet sails from Gibraltar on its voyage to Hampton Roads....The Norwegian Storting appropriates \$18,000 to finance the Amundsen polar expedition.

February 7.—President-elect Taft sails from Colon for New Orleans on board the cruiser *North Carolina*....The Russian synod sentences the Archimandrite Michael, of Winnipeg, and Bishop Innocent, who confirmed him, to two years' close confinement in the monastery at Nijni Novgorod.

February 8.—The Cunard liner *Mauretania* makes the eastward passage from Sandy Hook to Daunt's Rock in 4 days, 20 hours, and 27 minutes....French, German, Italian, English, and Spanish steamship companies reach an agreement on rates between Mediterranean and American ports.

February 9.—King Edward and Queen Alexandra arrive in Berlin and are welcomed by Emperor William and the imperial family.

February 10.—Dr. Ernst Haeckel, the well-

known German scientist, celebrates his seventy-fifth birthday and retires from his professorship at Jena, Germany. . . . The American Pacific fleet sails from Callao, Peru, for Panama.

February 11.—Oscar Erlesloeh, the German aeronaut, crosses the Alps in the balloon *Berlin*, remaining thirty hours in the air with the thermometer averaging twelve degrees below zero. . . . President-elect Taft arrives in New Orleans as the city's guest.

February 12.—President Roosevelt lays the cornerstone of the memorial building at Abraham Lincoln's birthplace near Hodgenville, Ky.; the one hundredth anniversary of Lincoln's birth is celebrated in many cities and villages throughout the country. . . . The New York Academy of Science celebrates the one hundredth anniversary of the birth of Charles Darwin and the fiftieth anniversary of the publication of "The Origin of Species." . . . The steamer *Penguin* is wrecked off Cape Terawhahi, New Zealand; fifty-two bodies are washed ashore.

February 14.—Revival meetings held in Boston result in thousands of reported conversions.

February 15.—In the burning of a theater at Acapulco, Mexico, 300 lives are lost. . . . Seven women are stabbed in Berlin, making a total of twenty; the police are unable to find the criminal. . . . Thirty men are drowned in the collision of an unknown sailing vessel and the Belgian steamer *Australia*, near Gibraltar. . . . Memorial exercises in honor of those killed in the sinking of the battleship *Maine* in Havana harbor are held in Washington.

February 16.—As the result of a mine explosion followed by a fire near Newcastle, England, 180 miners are entombed. . . . A national tariff commission convention meets at Indianapolis.

OBITUARY.

January 21.—Wilson Fox, C.B., controller-general of the commercial and statistical department of the Board of Trade, London, 47. . . . Rev. John Pagan, D.D., 78. . . . Hesba Stretton, the English novelist. . . . Col. Francis Jewett Parker, of Boston, 84.

January 23.—Rev. William O'Brien Pardow, S.J., the famous Roman Catholic preacher, 62.

January 24.—The Earl of Leicester, a member of the British House of Lords for sixty-six years, 87. . . . Most Rev. Arthur Sweatman, Archbishop of Toronto and Primate of all Canada, 75. . . . Former Governor Caleb Walton West, of Utah, 65.

January 27.—Benoit Constant Coquelin, the French actor, 68 (see page 367).

January 30.—Miss Martha Finley, author of the "Elsie" books, 81. . . . Dr. Lorenzo Gates, a well-known botanist.

January 31.—Countess de Lesseps, widow of the promoter of the Suez and Panama canals, 58.

February 1.—Baron Burton, director of the brewing company of Bass & Co., London, 72.

February 2.—John Gilmer Speed, the writer, 55. . . . Dr. Joseph Bernhard Mauch, last survivor of the North Polar expedition of the *Polaris* (1871-'73), 60.

February 3.—Cardinal Serafino Cretoni, 75. . . . Vice-President Joseph Marshall Graham, of the Erie Railroad, a well-known engineer, 55. . . . Amos Merchant Ensign, city editor of the New York *Tribune*, 58. . . . José F. de Navarro, builder of the first modern apartment house in New York, 86.

February 4.—Thomas Lowry, lawyer and capitalist, of Minneapolis, 66.

February 5.—William Purcell, a prominent banker and railroad owner in Mexico, 64.

February 6.—Rev. Henry G. Weston, president of Crozier Theological Seminary, 89. . . . John B. Moran, District-Attorney of Boston, 49.

February 8.—Ernest A. H. Coquelin, known as the Younger Coquelin, French actor, 61. . . . Adolph Stocker, formerly German court chaplain, 73. . . . Catulle Abraham Mendès, the French writer, 68.

February 9.—Walter L. Hawley, for nearly twenty years political reporter for the New York Evening *Sun*, 49.

February 10.—Silas Belden Dutcher, New York financier and politician, 80.

February 11.—Russell Sturgis, architect, art critic, and writer, 73. . . . John W. Albaugh, actor and manager, 72. . . . James McArthur, editor, critic, and playwright, 43.

February 12.—Rev. E. D. Huntley, D.D., former president of Lawrence University, Appleton, Wis., 67. . . . Rev. William Dunn Mitchell, of Baltimore, a widely known Methodist evangelist, 40.

February 14.—H. E. Hoerring, State Councilor and former premier of Denmark. . . . Prof. William Mathews, author of "Getting on in the World," 90. . . . Representative Daniel L. D. Granger, of Rhode Island, 57.

February 15.—Marquis Costa de Beauregard, member of the French Academy and a Chevalier of the Legion of Honor, 74.

February 16.—Rear-Admiral James G. Green, U. S. N., retired, 68. . . . Thomas P. Grasty, a widely known writer on Southern commercial and industrial topics, 60. . . . Marquis Emmanuel de Noailles, former member of the French diplomatic service, 79.

February 17.—Grand Duke Vladimir, eldest uncle of the Czar of Russia, 62. . . . Rear-Admiral Charles J. MacConnell, U. S. N. (retired), 71. . . . Geronimo, the noted Apache chief and raider, 86.



SOME OF THE CURRENT CARTOONS.



WHY GO TO AFRICA FOR BIG GAME?
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).



IN THE WHITE HOUSE ATTIC, AS MOVING TIME APPROACHES.
MR. ROOSEVELT: "I wonder how much of this stuff Bill wants me to leave behind?"
From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).



OREGON CAN LEAD AN ELEPHANT TO WATER AND MAKE HIM DRINK.
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



SORRY HE AWAKENED IT.
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



"A FRIEND IN NEED."
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



BRYAN: "Mother, I want you to get me a sled like George Chamberlain's."
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



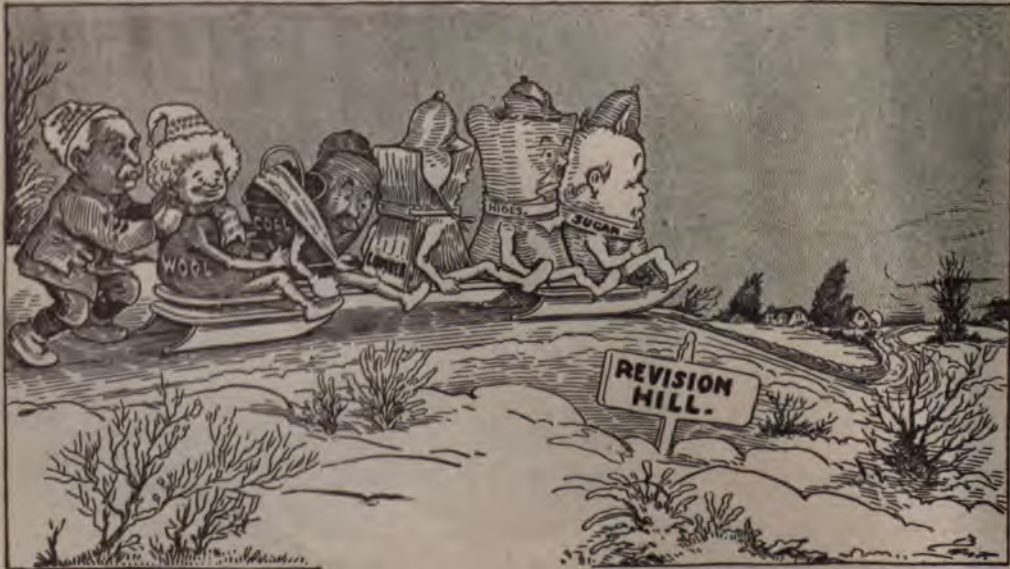
WHO'S GOT THE BUTTON?
(Apropos of the proposed Federal investigation of the meat business.)
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



ARIZONA AND NEW MEXICO HAD BETTER "GO BACK TO THE RANCH."
From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



HE CERTAINLY BROKE THROUGH THE WALL OF THE SOLID SOUTH.
From Coler's Bulletin (Brooklyn, N. Y.).



A GOOD START IN THE RIGHT DIRECTION.
From the Journal (Minneapolis).



CHAINED DOWN.

This cartoon has reference to the refusal of Congress to make an appropriation for the purchase and development of flying machines, and to the fact that foreign nations have been liberal in their support of the science of aerial navigation.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



SMALL POTS ARE SOON HOT.

From the *Evening Herald* (Duluth).

In this cartoon California and Nevada are pictured as little pots that were so heated up over the Japanese question that there was some danger of their boiling over in the form of legislation adverse to the Asiatic residents of those States.



CALIFORNIA'S MISFIT.

You would hardly think Japan would take such a spectacle seriously.

From the *Daily News* (Chicago).

The cartoonist here makes the point that California does not represent the attitude of the entire United States in the Japanese matter.



TONGUE-TIED!

(How can the bell of peace ring out its melody in the Balkans or elsewhere while the jealous European powers keep its tongue tied?)

From *Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart).



HE FEARS THE GREEKS—OR THE ENGLISH—BEARING GIFTS.

KAISER WILHELM (to King Edward on the latter's visit to Berlin): "Say, uncle, are you sure you have no *Dreadnoughts* concealed on your person?"

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



THE BALKAN BARGAIN OF AUSTRIA AND TURKEY—AN ITALIAN VIEW.

KAISER FRANZ JOSEF OF AUSTRIA (to Turkey): "My dear madam, here you have an offer of 65,000,000 crowns for two thin, old birds. Note my revolver and tell me whether it is not a good bargain."

From *Rana* (Bologna).

INTO AFRICA WITH ROOSEVELT.

BY EDWARD B. CLARK.

BEFORE this month has ended Theodore Roosevelt will leave America for Africa to hunt wild animals in the interest of science. The enterprise was conceived by Mr. Roosevelt and he will carry it out as leader, but the expedition will not bear his name. It is not to be as the press has tried to make it, The Roosevelt African Expedition, but The Smithsonian African Expedition, and its leader is the last man to desire that it be known by any other name than that of the national scientific organization which has given its aid to the undertaking.

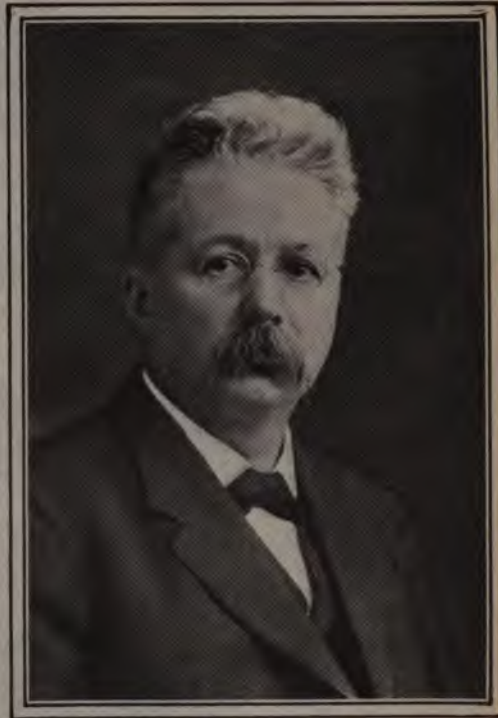
The end to be sought is science, not sport. There will be no butchery of game, nor shooting for shooting's sake. There have been attempts to make it appear that Mr. Roosevelt and his field companions are to go into Africa in the spirit that the Frenchman said was the Englishman's spirit: "Good morning, it's a fine day; let's go out and kill something."

The men who believe in the study of the living mammal and the living bird, the hunting with the field glass rather than with the rifle, know the necessity of museum collections of mounted specimens in order that field identification may be made certain and that the life study of animals may be stimulated. The mammals and birds collected by Mr. Roosevelt and his companions will be turned over to the National Museum in Washington as a part of its educational exhibit, and for the use of students who need such material for comparative purposes.

A PURELY SCIENTIFIC EXPEDITION.

The true nature-lover gets the zest of the outdoor life, the sense of the freshness and beauty of things that means everything to him from a trip afield, and to get them his rifle does not have to crack every time a twig breaks or a leaf stirs. Mr. Roosevelt and his companion scientists will have their outing, and they will collect what the National Museum wants and needs without making a shambles out of the African fields.

It is agreed by the authorities that Mr. Roosevelt has added more than any other man to our knowledge of the big game mammals of the United States. His African trip



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DR. C. HART MERRIAM, CHIEF OF THE UNITED STATES BIOLOGICAL SURVEY.

(With whom Mr. Roosevelt has consulted regarding the scientific details of the African expedition.)

probably will occupy a little less than a year, but those who know him and his methods believe that in the time at his disposal he will use his hand and his head as best he knows how to extend our knowledge of the wild life in a field that is new to him.

There is nothing novel or startling in this plan of a scientific institution to send a collecting expedition into a faraway land. Where the scientific returns are fairly certain to be valuable, museum authorities have paid the entire cost of collecting enterprises and have held the money to be well spent. Thirteen years ago the Field Columbian Museum of Chicago sent Dr. Daniel G. Elliot and Carl E. Akeley into Africa with a large train of attendants. The expedition cost the museum much money, but the returns were adequate. Three years ago the

Chicago institution dispatched a second expedition into Africa under the leadership of Mr. Akeley, who was accompanied by Edmund Heller, who is to be one of Mr. Roosevelt's companions on the forthcoming trip. The second enterprise of the Chicago museum was as successful as the first, and, in fact, experience has shown that under proper leadership and with proper advance study of conditions that are likely to be met, these journeys afield in the interest of science are worth many times the amount of money that they cost.

The African expedition will be outfitted by the Smithsonian Institution, which will deposit the specimens that are collected in the United States National Museum. Mr. Roosevelt, however, will pay all the expenses of himself and his son, Kermit, who is to accompany him, including outfitting and transportation. The Smithsonian Institution is relieved of this expense, one that it would have met eagerly in order to secure the services of a man trained as is the President to the field life and to the pursuit of big game.

It will be the endeavor of Mr. Roosevelt and his companion hunters and scientists to secure for the National Museum an adult specimen of each sex of the big game animals which they may find in the course of their field excursions. Specimens of the smaller mammals and the birds will be secured if possible. There will be no other killing except such as is necessary to supply the camp with meat. Two specimens of each

species encountered,—so much for the stories of intended slaughter.

The American companions of Mr. Roosevelt will be Dr. and Col. Edgar A. Mearns, United States Army (retired); Edmund Heller of California, a trained naturalist; J. Alden Loring, an experienced collector of small mammals and birds, and Kermit Roosevelt, who will act as the official photographer of the expedition. On the other side of the water R. J. Cuninghame, an Englishman, who has guided numerous hunting parties in Africa and who also is an experienced collector of natural history specimens, will join the party as guide and caravan chief.

About the first of May the Americans expect to land at Mombasa in British East Africa. From this point northward runs a railroad line toward Uganda. Upon both sides of the railway in different places and at different seasons of the year there is excellent hunting. It is an absolute impossibility to trace exactly the path of the

Americans through the hunting fields. Mr. Roosevelt himself knows it only in part and it may be that circumstances will compel a departure from such of the line of march as already has been mapped out. It is practically certain that the expedition will follow the line of the Uganda railroad to Nairobi and that from this place the start will be made for the interior.

It is well within the possibilities that near the first stopping place the Americans may find many of the animals which it is their



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KERMIT ROOSEVELT.

(Who will accompany his father and act as photographer of the expedition.)

purpose to secure for the National Museum. This, however, is to a considerable extent a matter of chance, but whether the hunting there be good or bad the members of the party will prepare themselves for other fields. There must be some rifle practice. The hand, no matter how steady and experienced it may have been at one time, loses its cunning from months of inaction. There will be target practice of some kind before the real hunting is undertaken. No sportsman needs to be told what the loss of a minute fraction of a second means in pressing the trigger. Every member of the expedition is a good shot, but a good shot becomes temporarily an indifferent shot in the dearth of daily practice.

ROUTE NOT FULLY DETERMINED.

There has been curiosity about the exact trail of travel of the African expedition. Every hunter of whatever country knows that game constantly shifts from place to place, being moved to change by drought, by wet, by scarcity of food or by persecution. Game may be here to-day and gone to-morrow. Hence it is impossible to tell accurately the localities in which Mr. Roosevelt and his companions will hunt.

Just where the party will go depends largely upon the advice of R. J. Cuninghame, the experienced hunter and caravan chief. It is believed to be Mr. Roosevelt's intention to get at some distance from the railway as soon as possible after leaving Nairobi. It can be accepted as a fact that the party will go as fast as conditions permit to the place where it hopes to get the best results, be that place where it may, provided of course that it is within striking distance. Mr. Roosevelt appears to have in mind the country towards Mount Kenia and Mount Elgon which lie north of the railway. It is the belief of many sportsmen that there the party not only will meet with many species of known game, but that well up on the mountains they may find specimens of new animal races. The Lake Rudolph country, also to the north of the railroad, has its attractions, and may afford many opportunities of securing valuable scientific material.

In the country lying along a straight line drawn from Nairobi to the nearest point on Lake Victoria Nyanza there are to be found ordinarily scores of species of African game including giraffes, a pair of which it is the hope of the Americans to add to their store. The truth is that all of the country which



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MR. ROOSEVELT IN HUNTING COSTUME.

Mr. Roosevelt's party is to pierce at times abundantly with game. It is likely, however, to be distributed and for this reason the hunting path cannot be traced in advance.

Mr. Roosevelt himself is authority for the statement that it is an impossibility to tell just where he and his companions will go. In the matter of his itinerary, the expedition leader has committed himself only thus far in a letter to Dr. Charles D. Walcott, of the Smithsonian Institution:

By May 1 I shall land at Mombasa and spend the next few months hunting and traveling in British and German East Africa; probably going thence to or toward Uganda with the expectation of striking the Nile about the beginning of the new year, and then working down it, with side trips after animals and birds, so as to come out at tidewater, say, about March 1. This will give me ten months in Africa.

NO LACK OF BIG GAME, BUT NO TIGERS.

What is to be brought back to the National Museum as the result of carrying the American rifle into Africa? Judging from the comments which have been made upon the forthcoming journeyings of Mr. Roosevelt and his party, it would seem that the average American knows that there are elephants and lions in Africa and that here his knowledge of the fauna of the one time dark continent seems to stop. Mr. Bryan, who has not lacked company in his belief, is on record as speaking of the tigers of Africa. There are no tigers of Africa unless they have succeeded in keeping themselves "incog" through the centuries. The Smithsonian authorities doubtless would be willing to pay a premium for an African-taken tiger with an affidavit signed by a truthful scientist, attached to its tail.

It is not at all certain that Mr. Roosevelt and his companions will bag either lions or elephants. The expedition's leader hopes strongly that he will secure specimens of both species, but elephants and lions are uncertain quantities: it may be that they will elude the American hunters, though they will do no eluding if systematic search and systematic effort can prevent. The success of the expedition does not depend in the least upon the taking of the king of beasts and his bigger if less royal neighbor. Africa is a continent which holds a magnificent supply of game, and big game at that. Considering the possibilities of the game bag of the expedition the lion and the elephant may be ignored, and there will remain a multitude of treasures of which the securing of only a fractional part will be necessary to mark the expedition as a success.

Recently it was stated in the Congress of the United States that there is no such thing

as a white rhinoceros. There were no African hunters present to controvert the statement, but any good zoological book would have set the matter right. There are white rhinoceroses in Africa and it is possible, although not probable, that the American hunters will secure a pair. These animals have been killed off largely from their original range, but it is more than half suspected that a likely white rhinoceros locality is known and that some one will impart its secret to Mr. Roosevelt.

There is the other rhinoceros and there is the hippopotamus and there are giraffes and leopards and zebras and buffaloes and lions and elephants and nearly forty species of antelopes which come under the general head of big game.

ANTELOPE-HUNTING.

The antelopes and gazelles of Africa form a great group holding a deep interest for the scientist and a keen interest for the sportsman. The antelopes resemble generally the deer in the lightness and "elegance of their forms, and in their agility." The horns of the antelopes "are solid and permanent, straight or curved, in some species annulated; in others surrounded by a spiral, and in others smooth."

It is not the easiest thing in the world to shoot the African antelopes. They are shy, and quicker than the proverbial chain lightning. Patience and hard work, a quick eye and a quick finger are necessary to bring them to bag. Every member of Mr. Roosevelt's party is a good shot and has in his time killed game every whit as difficult of approach and as quick in its escaping faculty as are the antelopes of Africa.

In the country in which the members of the American expedition will do their hunting there are to be found three species of the hartebeest, the roan antelope, the sable antelope, the oryx, the lesser reed buck, the oribi, the steinbuck, the water buck, the greater and the lesser kudu, the eland, the bushbuck, the gnu or white throated wildebeest, and enough more of the antelope species to make the list count up nearly to the two-score mark.

PLANS FOR THE CARE OF SPECIMENS.

The Smithsonian Institution officials and with them Mr. Roosevelt know every species of big game which it is likely the expedition may secure. As for the expedition's leader,

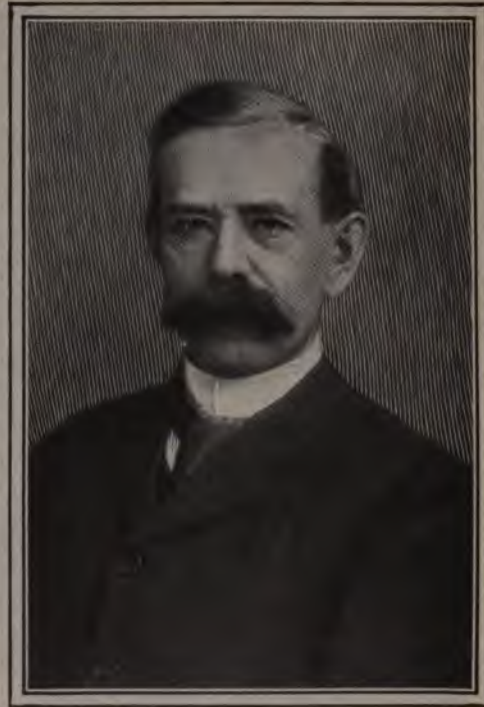
he has the name of every species of antelope at his instant command and he has a picture in his mind of every kind of creature that through his instrumentality may one day be added to the National Museum's stores. During his last months in the White House a portion of the President's time was given over to the study of the fauna of that part of Africa which the American caravan will traverse. The smaller mammals and the birds have not been left out of Mr. Roosevelt's calculations. The scientific interest in a wild creature is not gauged by its size; the mouse has its interest no less than the lion.

The expedition into Africa will be equipped thoroughly. Everything that knowledge of conditions can suggest will have its place in the outfit. The quarry that is secured will be prepared instantly for transportation. The skins and the hides will be salted and dried, and packed in a way that will make their preservation certain. Such skeletons as are to be saved, and the skulls which are of first value for comparative purposes, will be cared for as only field scientists know how. It is a fair prophecy that save for the possible occurrence of some disaster which neither can be foreseen nor provided against, the collected treasures of the African trip will be brought to Washington in a condition to delight the hearts of the Government scientists.

MR. ROOSEVELT'S COMPANIONS.

The names of the members of the Smithsonian African Expedition have been given. Something of the personality and of the field achievements of the hunter-scientists is worth while. Of Theodore Roosevelt it is not necessary to write. What he has done as a scientist and as a hunter is known to all.

Dr. and Col. Edgar A. Mearns, United States Army (retired), is a graduate of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York City. He has been in the military service for twenty-six years and during that time while on field duty and on detached service he has pursued his zoological studies. Admittedly Dr. Mearns is one of the first field naturalists of the country, and his reports and books are acknowledged authorities. His publications include studies of mammals, birds, and plants. He was the naturalist accredited by the Government to the Mexican boundary expedition, and as the result of his researches the scientific world



DR. EDGAR A. MEARNS.

(The army surgeon and field naturalist who will accompany the expedition.)

has the work entitled "Mammals of the Mexican Boundary of the United States." This work includes a summary of the natural history of the region covered, with a list of the trees of the country adjacent to the boundary. Dr. Mearns knows birds as he knows mammals, and his knowledge of American ornithology is second to none.

This army officer who will accompany Mr. Roosevelt is known as one of the most successful surgeons and physicians in the service list. He is inured to the hardships of field life. He is a good shot and a good companion. Of him a Washington scientist who has been in the field with him time and again said the other day: "He is the kindest man I ever knew. If it is cold he wants you to take his coat in addition to your own; if it is hot he wants to help take off your coat before he will take off his own. He knows nothing of contention and no man can be found to make a better camp companion."

Edmund Heller is a graduate of Stanford University of the class of 1901. He is a thoroughly trained naturalist, whose special work will be the preparation and preserva-



EDMUND HELLER.

(Mr. Heller's special function, as a member of the expedition, will be the preparation of specimens of large animals.)

tion of specimens of the large animals that the expedition secures. Mr. Heller went with Carl E. Akeley into Africa on a collecting trip for the Field Columbian Museum. The expedition was successful in every way. Mr. Heller has conducted successful scientific excursions into Alaska and through the Death Valley. In the latter place he followed the trail which Dr. C. Hart Merriam, of the Biological Survey of Washington, had taken some years before and in a large measure he duplicated the Merriam collecting achievement. Mr. Heller has explored and collected in Mexico and in Central America, and it is said of him that he "always has made good." He has the faculty of making friends and never in the course of any of his expeditions has there been the slightest trouble with the natives.

J. Alden Loring, of Owego, N. Y., is known as a successful collector of birds and small mammals. In addition to this Mr. Loring is a field naturalist who understands

the preservation of skins in all climates. He was attached for some time to the United States Biological Survey, and later he was connected with the Bronx Zoological Park, New York City. Mr. Loring has made field trips in various parts of the United States, British America, and Mexico. The United States National Museum once sent him abroad as a traveling collector of small mammals. In three months of field work in Sweden, Belgium, Germany, and Switzerland he collected and shipped 900 specimens all carefully prepared. This stands as a record-breaking field achievement. Men who have been in the field with Mr. Loring say that it is impossible to discourage him, and that his hopefulness and spirit make



J. ALDEN LORING.

(Collector of birds and small mammals.)

things cheerful on every day that otherwise would be a blue day in camp.

If preparation, enthusiasm, energy, and ability to shoot straight, count as they should count, the Smithsonian African Expedition under the leadership of Theodore Roosevelt will be the success that all Americans want it to be. The belief is strong that some fourteen months hence a natural history contribution of inestimable value will be received by the National Museum.



BOXING CALIFORNIA ORANGES FOR SHIPMENT IN AN UP-TO-DATE PACKING-HOUSE.

IMPROVED METHODS OF FRUIT-HANDLING.

BY FRANCIS JOHN DYER.

CONSIDER what it would mean to the world if there should be such a revolution in methods of handling and shipping that the finest table grapes, peaches, apricots, strawberries, and other delicate but delicious horticultural products could be transported from their native vineyards, orchards, and berry-patches to the remotest markets in perfect condition. A Georgia peach is a luscious but a delicate thing. Yet an expert of the Department of Agriculture says that it is easier to get a ripe Georgia peach from New York to London with proper handling than it is to get it from Georgia to New York under ordinary shipping conditions.

It may seem at first but a little thing to the uninitiated; in reality, it is one of the greatest problems of the new century. Setting aside the benefit to the consumer,—for we can all appreciate the advantage of having plenty of ripe fruit just as good and probably just as cheap as if raised in the country adjacent to one's place of residence,—consider what it would mean to the world's commerce. Fruit culture at this day is universal, so that every section of the country would benefit. But some sections are better suited

to fruit-growing than others, and certain fruits grow well or attain their best perfection only in certain localities. Pre-eminent in fruit growing is California; but Washington, Oregon, Colorado, Arizona, Michigan, New Jersey, New York, Delaware, Florida, Texas, Louisiana, and all the rest of the States and Territories also produce fruit. The apples of the Shenandoah Valley divide the favor of the public with those from Oregon's Rogue River Valley, and the peaches of Georgia and Delaware and Michigan and Colorado fight for supremacy in the markets with those from California. In certain lines the latter State is easily first, yet, with all of its advantages of soil and climate, it has always been a problem how to get California's fruit crop to market in a condition fit for consumption. The perishable quality of ripe, or even of partially ripe, fruit has always been apparent, and so it came that the growers and shippers felt themselves compelled to rely on sending to market unripe fruit in refrigerator cars attached to fast freight or express trains, resulting in placing before the consumer an unsatisfactory article at such a heavy cost for handling, icing, and trans-

portation that the grower was held fortunate if he had anything at all left for himself after paying the bills charged up against him. Added to this was a constant loss from decay in transit, which was often a heavier tax than any other on the receipts.

While the value of the fresh fruit crop has grown until it is represented by hundreds of millions of dollars, the marketing of it has gone on for many years with no improvement of importance except quicker transportation and the adoption of refrigerating and cooling devices. There came a limit to development on these lines, and then the progressive horticulturists of California and Florida, carefully inquiring into the reasons why they failed to make the profit that seemed possible with oranges, peaches, and other fruits so cheap at the orchard that they were hardly worth the cost of picking, and selling at 5 cents and more for individual fruits in New York, decided that one prime reason for failure to get their share of the profit lay in the decay of the fruit in transit. This was long after distrust of the middleman led to the organization of the California fruit-growers' exchanges for the marketing of their own fruit. The exchanges helped but they did not cure all the troubles of the growers; so the Hon. James Wilson, Secretary of Agriculture, was called on, and in response to the appeal of the citrus fruit-growers he sent out experts to investigate the matter. That was the beginning. The details, worked out painfully, scientifically, accurately, untiringly, by trained men from the Department of Agriculture, can be had by any one who cares to ask for the reports made by them to their chief. The results are what the public and the growers care for; and the results are of the very highest importance.

Like many other scientific discoveries, that relating to the proper methods of handling and marketing fresh fruit seems very simple when it is known, yet it took careful study before the facts were disclosed. The secret, briefly, consists in careful handling to avoid injuring the fruit before shipment, proper and uniform cooling before shipment, and co-ordination by the various agencies having the fruit in charge from the time it leaves the orchard until it gets to the consumer. Under the time-honored system still chiefly in practice the orchardist felt that he had done his part when he delivered his fruit to the transportation company; the latter took the fruit and conveyed it in refrigerated cars to its destination, feeling that its task was properly

fulfilled. The selling agent or produce-man disposed of it to the best advantage, deducting losses from decay, and felt that his work was complete. The producer received his report of losses from rot more or less incredulously, and felt that there was bad management or dishonesty of which he was the victim. No one was conscious of wrong methods. It was a puzzling problem, but the Department of Agriculture set out to solve it.

Some of the first work done to ascertain causes of decay in fruit was at the Geneva Experiment Station in New York, in charge of Prof. N. P. Hedrick. The object was to ascertain whether apples grown in highly cultivated orchards had better keeping qualities than those from orchards which were sodded. These experiments were carried on for three or four years, and satisfied the department that while apples from grass-grown orchards were more highly colored, those from cultivated orchards kept better.

HANDLING NEW YORK PEARS FOR EXPORT.

Next there was started an investigation of conditions governing the export of Bartlett pears from western New York, in 1902. The problem to be met was how to prevent a glut due to an immense production of Bartlett pears for several successive years from Michigan eastward to the Atlantic Coast, and especially in western New York. Commercial exports of pears were failures because the fruit, packed in barrels, arrived in London overripe and the effort to ship abroad was practically abandoned, although California pears, shipped in boxes and half-boxes, arrived in London in fair condition. The Government experts took up the question, and shipped a fifty-barrel lot of pears from Niagara County, New York, to London. The fruit reached its destination in fair condition and netted a good profit. The next year pears were shipped in carload lots, some in barrels and some in boxes and half-boxes. The fruit in boxes fetched the highest price of any carload shipped that year from Niagara County, so that the commercial shippers were encouraged to step in, and they developed a large export business in Bartlett pears. The experts under Mr. Powell continued their experimental work in storage, and discovered that the failure of the fruit to carry well in barrels was due to the fact that there was too large a mass of fruit to cool quickly and uniformly. After storage the fruit around the outside of the barrel was found to be sound, while that in the center was over-



HAULING PEACHES FOR SHIPMENT.

(A packing-house in the Georgia fruit district.)

ripe. As the fruit softened it became more compact, allowing the sound fruit to shake about with resulting bruises, from which rot developed.

As a result of these experiments there has been a wider sale for Bartletts with no glut of fruit in the American markets. Of course, it is recognized that pressure from California has decreased because of the pear blight, but, on the other hand, whenever the market is high enough to warrant it, pears are shipped to London with good success. The withdrawal of New York pears from the markets of the Middle West has been a great benefit to Michigan, which State now supplies the bulk of the Bartletts consumed in Chicago, Milwaukee, St. Paul, Minneapolis, and all the upper part of the Mississippi Valley, and the market for winter apples has been similarly benefited.

COOLING GEORGIA PEACHES IN TRANSIT.

Encouraged by the success achieved in the Northern fruit fields, the Department of Agriculture turned its attention to the Georgia peach situation. In Georgia the peach crop, ranging from 1500 to 5000 carloads,

ripens mostly in July, and it reaches market practically within a period of four weeks. Evidently it is of great importance that the crop shall be distributed as widely as possible in order to prevent a glut in any market. This is made more difficult by the humidity usually prevailing when the fruit ripens. To prevent the growth of fungi, particularly the brown rot, which is more rapid when humidity prevails, it has been found necessary to cool the fruit quickly and uniformly. Formerly this was attempted by putting the freshly picked fruit in refrigerator cars, but in studying the temperature of the fruit at different points in transit the fact was shown that while the lower tiers were cooled quickly, the upper tiers cooled much more slowly. In consequence, the upper tiers continued to ripen after the lower tiers were almost at freezing point, and on arrival of the fruit at its destination the upper tiers of boxes contained a large proportion of overripe fruit while the lower tiers contained fruit which was in first-class condition. It was determined that the reason for this was that the ice capacity of the cars was insufficient to cool the entire carload quickly enough to stop

ripening in transit. Experiments demonstrated the fact that with quick cooling the ripening in transit could be greatly reduced, the temperature would be maintained at a uniform degree, and the fruit would arrive in much better condition. Formerly the only way known to the growers to prevent excessive decay in transit was to pick the fruit before it was matured, which lowers the wholesomeness and attractiveness of the fruit, and hinders the widening of the market.

THE DEPARTMENT'S REFRIGERATING CAR.

A serious difficulty in the way of applying the principles evolved by the department's experts is that the growers have not yet reached the stage of having cooling plants, and the question of cost, where the plants could be used for such a short time each year is a serious one. The Department of Agriculture is having built a refrigerator car which is really a miniature refrigerating plant in a car, for use in the field where the fruit is picked and packed. Whether the fruit should be cooled before or after loading, and other details, are still to be worked out. Mr. Wm. A. Taylor, who has charge of the field investigation work, says that the benefit to date is to emphasize the importance of getting the fruit quickly into an iced car. Formerly there was no hurry in handling. Sometimes, now, when the humidity and heat are great, shippers will not put the full load into the car, thereby reducing the total heat to be withdrawn from the fruit, and when the fruit reaches its destination the top tiers, which are ripest, are sold first.

HELPING CALIFORNIA ORANGE-GROWERS.

It was after these investigations had satisfied the officials and scientists of the Department of Agriculture that they were on the right track, that they decided to take up similar work in California, where three-fourths of the orange-growers were united in the exchanges, enabling experiments to be carried on with a unanimity of purpose not attainable where every man was working out his own destiny in his own primitive way. Mr. G. Harold Powell was assigned to this work as pomologist in charge of fruit transportation and storage investigations. Under Mr. Powell's direction this work was carried on in all parts of the citrus belt, especially in Riverside, which has 20,000 acres of citrus fruits and is in the very center of the citrus industry. It was due, in fact, to Mr. J. H. Reed, a Riverside grower, that this work was undertaken at all. And the orange industry certainly was worth succoring, for there were 75,000 acres devoted to it in California by between 5000 and 6000 orchardists, who annually send to market some 30,000 carloads of fruit, or about 10,000,000 boxes, worth at wholesale something like \$30,000,000.

Under the scientific investigation by Mr. Powell and his staff of assistants, whose deductions were finally made from results noted in about 500 shipments of oranges to New York, handled in different ways, it was demonstrated that decay in oranges was due almost entirely to careless, ignorant and unskillful handling. It was shown that injured fruit under fairly favorable conditions was practically immune to decay. Once the tender skin of the orange was punctured or abraded, decay set in. Then Mr. Powell showed by actual tests that from 10 to 40 per cent. of the fruit was damaged either by thorn bruises, by the clippers used in cutting it from the trees, or by gravel in the boxes before it left the orchard. Growers found it hard to believe that the injuries shown them, usually slight, condemned the fruit to decay, but this was proved by hundreds of actual tests in which the growers



EXPERIMENTAL PRECOOLING PLANT, USED AT LOS ANGELES, CAL., TO LOWER THE TEMPERATURE OF ORANGES BEFORE SHIPMENT.



A TYPICAL SCENE IN THE CALIFORNIA CITRUS BELT.

(Palms and olive trees in the foreground, orange orchards in the middle distance, and snow-covered mountains hemming the valley in.)

and shippers participated. Several boxes full of the damaged fruit and several others filled with fruit apparently perfect would be stored under conditions similar to those that would obtain in a car during transit to market, and at the end of two weeks most of the oranges in the damaged lot would be found decayed, while in the undamaged lot there would be no decay except in a very few specimens, where the fungus growth would be found centered in a wound so small that it had been overlooked when the fruit had been selected for the test. By making actual tests like these, Mr. Powell compelled the growers to locate the blame for rotted fruit where it belonged.

With the cause of the trouble located, it became a question whether that cause could be eliminated. Naturally opinions differed. Some of the more progressive growers determined that there should be more care in picking and packing. In orchards where the proportion of damaged fruit had been from 10 to 30 per cent., that proportion was reduced with better methods to 2 or 3 per cent., and in certain instances to less than 1 per cent. The increased cost of the better work was but a trifle compared with the benefits.

One man who had invested over \$100,000 in orange groves had been losing about 40 per cent. of his shipments through decay, and the

trade had grown so suspicious of his brand that it did not care to handle it. He called on Mr. Powell, who told him that his methods were all wrong, and going with him from the tree where the fruit was being picked through every step of the work to the final shipment of the loaded car, he showed how improvement could be made. That man had the courage to stop all operations in the middle of the season, alter the equipment of his packing-house and the manner of handling fruit, and when he began again to ship, his fruit jumped to the top of the market and remained there for the entire season.

Formerly every grower picked and sent his fruit to the packing-house, if he belonged to an exchange, and was credited with the weight due him in each grade after the exchange had graded it. In the settlement he got his pro rata of the returns. Mr. Powell found that some growers turned in fruit free from wounds or abrasions; others turned in fruit 50 per cent. or more of which was damaged by the clippers or otherwise. He also found that some pickers did not damage the fruit, while others jabbed, cut, and slashed half of what they handled. As a result of this discovery, the exchanges have taken charge of the picking; they furnish help when required, and it is all done systematically, with care, with some more expense, but with much better financial results.

But, important as it was, this was only the first step. As the result of further investigations it was found that in the packing-houses, equipped often with complex and extensive machinery for grading, washing, brushing, packing, and boxing oranges, the fruit was further damaged by the processes used. Once convinced of this fact, a general overhauling and even rebuilding of the packing-houses began. During the past year alone, this work has been carried on at an expense of hundreds of thousands of dollars.

Another fact demonstrated was that the temperature of fruit at the time of shipment was of the greatest importance. Experiments to determine this were made on an extensive scale. It was shown that in a cool, dry atmosphere even injured fruit will carry a long distance before showing signs of decay, and uninjured fruit will keep indefinitely. The effect of loading fruit already at a high temperature from warm packing-houses into un-cooled cars was carefully watched. Fruit delivered without being heated and kept as cool as practicable until loaded in the car, and other fruit artificially cooled to thirty-five or forty degrees before loading, were tested, with significant results. These experiments were repeated until there was no possible question of the reduced amount of decay when the fruit was started on its long journey at a low temperature. For four seasons, with the co-operation of growers and transportation companies, test cars were sent on under these varying conditions as to temperature when started, often with an expert attending the train, carefully noting the temperature at frequent intervals, until the fruit reached its destination. The important deduction was that precooled fruit suffered much less decay than that not precooled. Another result was to explode the fallacy that it was necessary to keep fruit in the packing-houses for several days before shipping to "cure" it and improve its shipping qualities. The fruit is now shipped as soon as possible after it is picked, and so perfect is the system of the packers that if it be found at ten o'clock that the fruit is coming in too fast, picking can be stopped in all the orchards before twelve.

Primarily, the gain to the most careful growers, according to estimates made by the best business men among them, from the more careful and intelligent handling of their fruit, has been from 25 cents to \$1 a box; but to average the small growers with the big, and the careless with the careful, the average

saving would be less. However, with an annual pack of 10,000,000 boxes, it would be needful to save but 10 cents on each box to make the benefit to the whole industry reach a round million dollars every year.

It is small wonder that the orange-growers, packers, and shippers, and, in fact, the whole business community of California, are grateful to the Government and to Mr. Powell and his able associates for research work which inures so greatly to their benefit.

Secondarily, of course, the gain from these investigations must inure to all humanity; for their effect will be far-reaching. The work done in the interest of the orange-growers but followed the general lines Mr. Powell had laid down in the similar investigation he undertook to learn about the causes of decay in apples in cold storage. He is now investigating causes of decay in California peaches and table grapes.

EXPERIMENTING WITH OTHER CALIFORNIA FRUITS.

California has nearly 8,000,000 peach trees in orchard, and in one year it has shipped East 1946 carloads of fresh peaches, the gross value of which was about \$20,000,000. The shipments of table grapes from California now amount to about 3500 carloads a year, but the shippers say that if the fruit could be delivered in all parts of the United States in a perfectly sound condition the shipments might easily reach 10,000 carloads annually. This problem of transportation is now being solved. From the research work already accomplished it is pretty definitely settled that decay in grapes begins in split or broken berries, and that if there be no mechanical abrasion of the berry or stem, due to improper methods of handling and preparing for market, the spores of the mold which causes decay cannot find lodgment for propagation.

Experiments with grapes, both as to cold storage and transportation, were continued all through the season of 1908. Experiments already conducted have demonstrated that with careful handling grapes will keep from two to four months longer than when handled under ordinary conditions.

With such promising beginnings, it is probable that the aid of scientific investigators will be invoked by growers and shippers of fruit and vegetables everywhere for the extension of markets and the annihilation of seasons in what now are "seasonable products."

COLONIZING THE TRAMP.

BY GUSTAVUS MYERS.

THE tramp question has been for fifty years an apparently unsolvable one in America. It need hardly be said that the administration of law has not been able to cope with it. Workhouses, jails, and prisons have not diminished the number of tramps. Charitable societies long ago gave up in despair all idea of attempting to settle the question either by the ordinary or extraordinary methods of charity. To the railroads the tramp problem has been an ever-present and a very serious one. It is estimated that the railroad corporations of the United States suffer an annual loss of \$25,000,000 by reason of the depredations, intentional or unintentional, of the army of tramps. This, at any rate, was the estimate made by Major Pangborn, representing President Murray, of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, at the National Conference of Charities and Corrections at Minneapolis in June, 1907.

This \$25,000,000 yearly loss represents property destroyed or taken in one form or another. The losses are continuous from explosions or flames due to careless lighting of fires by tramps. Robberies, obstruction of tracks, interference with signals, stopping of trains, injuring and frequent killing of employees, and wrecks which entail large immediate loss and heavy suits for damages,—these are some of the disastrous results of the doings of tramps. The immense number of tramps trespassing upon railroads, and the fatalities which overtake many of them, may be judged from the fact that in a period of five years recently 23,964 trespassers were killed and 25,236 injured while stealing rides on railroads. Most of them were tramps.

MORE THAN HALF A MILLION VAGRANTS.

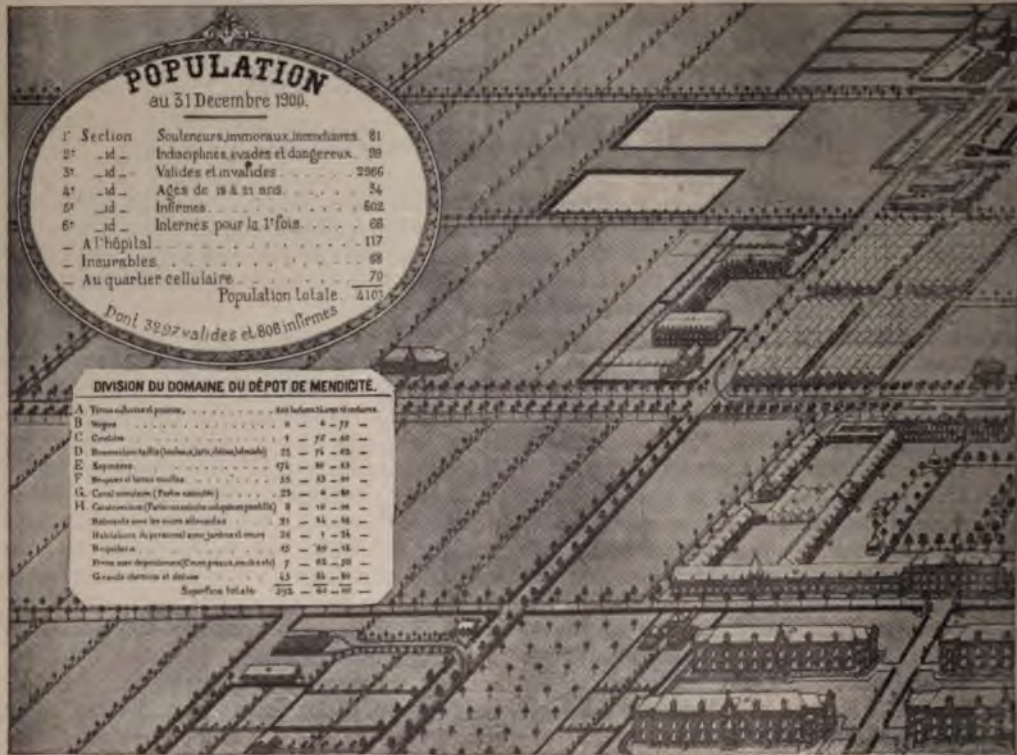
It is conservatively estimated that there is an army of at least 500,000 tramps in the United States. This figure is calculated by taking as a basis the number of tramps killed on the railroads every year and multiplying it by the proportion of train men killed in the year compared to the total number of train men employed. But it is entirely probable that the number at present reaches nearer a million than 500,000. The recent

industrial depression added large accessions. Reports from railway agents throughout the country show that never in the history of the railroads was so large a number of tramps met with.

A large proportion are youths ranging from sixteen to twenty-one years of age. Beginning with a yearning for adventure, about one-half quit the nomadic life and return home, or settle down, while the remaining half become inveterate tramps and gradually tend from vagrancy into a career of crime or semi-crime. A very large percentage of tramps, however, are adults and comprise every species from men who will not work or who have become chronically unfitted for work, to those who are innocent victims of downright adversity.

Both the charitable societies and the railroad corporations have long desired some practicable method of dealing effectively with all aspects of the tramp problem. If it could be done the charitable societies would be relieved of a burdensome drain upon their time and resources, and railroads would benefit by the stoppage of the great losses and annoyances to which they have been subjected, while from a humanitarian standpoint the tramp would be given an opportunity to regain his standing in society. Hitherto all experiments have failed. The committing of the tramp as a vagrant to the workhouse or jail is, of course, an old method. More recent expedients are the municipal lodging-houses and work-yards run by charitable societies. These, while of some effect, have been utterly impotent, considering the problem as a whole.

The charitable societies and the railroads believe that they have at last come upon a plan which is quite certain to prove efficacious. This plan is a transplanting, with certain modifications suitable to American conditions, of the tramp colony idea already in force in Holland, Belgium, and Switzerland. Since the instituting of these colonies vagrancy has been unknown in those countries, and although they have certain features which cannot well be adopted in this country, the general plan of these European experiments will be followed.



THE GROUNDS AND BUILDINGS OF THE STATE

(In this colony, according to the latest official report, issued in 1900, there were 4103 inmates, of whom

NEW YORK'S PROPOSED COLONIES.

The first step toward the establishment of tramp colonies in America has been taken in New York. Such public-spirited men as Edmond Kelly, R. Fulton Cutting, Robert W. de Forest, Samuel J. Barrows, and others have joined with all of the charitable societies and the railroad lines in drawing up a bill which has been introduced in the Legislature. That this bill will become a law, if not at this session of the Legislature, eventually, is regarded as certain. Railroad corporations which have so powerful an influence at Albany have enthusiastically pledged their support. In fact, their attorneys assisted in drawing up the bill and in suggesting some of its most important features. The New York Central, the Erie, the New York, New Haven & Hartford, and other railroads have definitely and specifically given assurance that they will do their utmost to have the colony system established. It is more than likely that it will be introduced throughout the United States.

What are the provisions of this bill? The

measure appropriates \$750,000 to establish three tramp colonies, one near New York City, the second in the neighborhood of Albany, and the third in the vicinity of Buffalo. Part of this fund, it is proposed, will be used in buying sufficient areas of waste land for the colonies, and the remainder for the erection of necessary buildings. The Governor is to appoint five men who shall constitute a Board of Trustees of Labor Colonies, and who are to serve without pay. This provision is intended to obviate purely political appointments and to secure competent officials. These colonies, the bill sets forth, are to be devoted to the detention, reformation, and instruction of persons convicted of vagrancy, habitual drunkenness, and violation of section 426 of the Penal Code. This section, it may be noted, is the particular one covering offenses against railroads, such as trespassing, theft, and other crimes. All three colonies are to be places of compulsory detention. Magistrates are to have the full power of fixing the duration of sentence, although no sentence is to exceed two years. Any inmate will be able to get a parole upon



TRAMP COLONY AT MERXPAS, BELGIUM.

806 were invalids. The total area of the colony at Merxplas is 592.6 hectares, or approximately 1464 acres.)

giving proofs of good behavior and if the trustees are convinced that he will not violate the law. But if any tramp attempts to escape from the colony in which he is confined, he is to be subject to a term in State prison for a period of from one to three years.

The colonies are to be more agricultural than industrial. The aim will be to subordinate the industrial features to the agricultural. Competition with free labor will be strictly avoided. Waste land will be reclaimed and cultivated as truck gardens. It is believed that the large cities are able to absorb so much produce that these gardens will not interfere with the trade of small farmers. Probably the entire product of the colonies may be supplied to State institutions. Every inmate is to be paid for his labor, and the cumulative amount given to him when he is released. This compensation, it is provided, shall be based upon the pecuniary value of the work performed and "also on the willingness, industry, and good conduct" of the inmate. In place of other penalties and punishments the superintendent of each colony is empowered to maintain a system

of fines to be imposed at his discretion. Any tramp who violates the terms of his conditional release is to forfeit all that he has earned.

EUROPEAN EXPERIENCE.

One of the most important provisions is that allowing the trustees to appoint as adviser any person who has acted in the same capacity in any similar institution outside of the United States. In Europe a number of tramp colonies are in successful operation, and it is the intention to engage an expert from one of them to initiate a similar system here. Mr. Edmond Kelly, who for years has been studying these European colonies and has personally visited all of them, says that "if American legislatures were to take the matter in hand vagabondage and all its attending evils would disappear like magic from American soil,—as it has already disappeared in Holland, Belgium, and Switzerland; and not only have labor colonies rid the streets and highways of tramps in Holland and Belgium, but they have done so *inexpensively* in Switzerland." Mr. Kelly

goes on: "If, therefore, by the introduction of labor colonies the community can be relieved of the enormous expense in money and human life that attends on the present tramp system . . . and if incidentally the youths who constitute a large percentage of the present tramp army can be rescued, and out of the remainder all who are capable of reform can be reformed; if, too, the substitution of the labor colonies for workhouses and almshouses can greatly diminish the dreariness and expense of the institutions . . . it seems as though the experiment ought to be tried."

In many respects these Continental tramp colonies have been so successful that England recently sent a commission to investigate and report on them. But it is well understood, so far as the United States is concerned, that a number of their features are not suitable to American conditions.

It was Holland which first took the initiative of establishing tramp colonies, and it was in that country where it was first proved that labor colonies could be used in ridding the streets and highways of tramps. One serious defect, however, in the Dutch system is the absence of measures designed distinctively to reform the inmates. The Belgium colony system has also its disadvantages along with its advantages. It is a direct outgrowth of the Holland system. The Belgian colonies at Merxplas are chiefly industrial. Agriculture occupies a minor part.

But they are very remarkable institutions and invaluable as object-lessons.

BELGIUM'S INDUSTRIAL COLONIES.

Practically every trade is carried on at Merxplas. "The enormous buildings," says Mr. Kelly, "of which Merxplas is composed, are the work of the vagabonds. They have built the gas house and the machines used on the place, including the most delicate electrical apparatus. It was among the vagabonds that were found the architects who drew up plans for the buildings, the draughtsmen who furnished the designs for their carpets, and the sculptors who modeled the statues that decorate their chapel. Every kind of weaving is done at Merxplas, from the commonest to the most perfected. Tiles, too, are manufactured there of every degree of quality and style; also wagons, buttons, bags, and a great variety of other articles." Merxplas is a very large colony, accommodating from five to six thousand inmates.

It is recognized that the Merxplas system could not be introduced into the United States. The establishment of such an industrial colony here would bring it into instant and intense conflict with the labor unions. Moreover, the disciplinary system of military surveillance there is not considered compatible with American ideas. Still further, the labor at Merxplas is exploited by outside contractors who thus get articles manufactured cheaply and sell them at dear



THE MODEL PRISON FOR REFRACTORY TRAMPS IN THE WITZWYL COLONY IN SWITZERLAND.



TRAMPS WORKING ON THE ROAD IN THE TRAMP COLONY AT WITZWYL, SWITZERLAND.

prices to the public. Another ground for criticism is the fact that an industrial colony demands skilled labor, while the greater part of the army of tramps is unskilled.

FARMING PREFERRED TO MANUFACTURING.

"Although," Mr. Kelly comments, "the opinion largely prevails that manufacture is more profitable than agriculture, yet on a careful examination of the subject it will be found that while land is a difficult thing from which to derive income, it is an easy thing from which to derive nourishment. Thus agriculture is better suited to a colony of tramps than manufacture. To make money out of manufacture, it is essential that the labor employed be skilled, whereas it is possible to get a livelihood out of land with labor that is unskilled. Agriculture, therefore, is better suited to tramp colonies than manufacture." Finally Mr. Kelly urges that wherever the industrial element predominates over the agricultural there will inevitably be a temptation to sacrifice reform to finance.

The Swiss tramp colonies are regarded as much more approaching the ideal. The laws of the different cantons separate the genuine unemployed from the thieves, loafers, and shiftless. Fourteen of the twenty-two can-

tons are embraced in the Swiss Intercantonal Union of Travelers' relief book. This book sets forth all of the facts necessary to identify its bearer and certify to his good faith. Its possession enables him to travel through the fourteen cantons without any work whatever being exacted from him. The introduction of this passport feature in America, however, is not considered advisable or desirable.

METHODS ADOPTED IN SWITZERLAND.

In Switzerland it gives the real unemployed wanderer a legal method of proving his good faith. All other vagrants are committed to the tramp colonies, municipally those of Witzwyl and Tannen-^hhof. But these two colonies are of a very different composition. That of Witzwyl is a forced or compulsory cantonal labor colony, while Tannen-^hhof is a free colony originally started by individual philanthropists, but now a cantonal institution.

Although these colonies have workshops, they are both essentially agricultural. The workshops are of a secondary importance, and are only intended to utilize the labor of inmates who are specially fitted for industrial services or unfitted for agricultural work. Witzwyl particularly is the radical

opposite of the Belgian colony at Merxplas. At Witzwyl the inmates do not work in squads. The surveillants are not armed nor are they military; they are chosen from among the inmates and work among them. There is an entire absence of the military discipline which characterizes the Belgian colony. Every inmate has a cell to himself in which he is locked at night. These cells are lighted by electricity, and the inmates are encouraged to decorate them as they please in order to impart a homelike appearance. During the working hours conversation is freely allowed, while the presence of a surveillant keeps it from branching into forbidden channels. If an inmate is refractory he is punished by being put in a cell in which he must sleep on a hard plank instead of on a bed. As for those who are incorrigibly bad they are brought by the director before a magistrate and sent to the penitentiary. Deserving inmates get five francs a month clear.

The Witzwyl colony yields a yearly profit to the canton of Berne of about 87,000 francs (\$16,800). "This excellent result," says Mr. Kelly, "is due to the fact that the director is a skilled farmer. Witzwyl, before it was purchased by the canton of Berne, was exploited by a company at a loss so great that the company failed, and it was put up at public auction. Mr. Kellerhals, by the application to this domain of sound agricultural methods, has made it pay. . . . The expenses of surveillance disappear in view of the fact that the surveillants earn their salary by working with the inmates."

REFORMATORY FEATURES.

But the benefits of the Witzwyl colony do not end here. The results have proved that the colony not only manages to pay its expenses and make a profit, but it also reforms those who are susceptible to reformatory influences. The method is one of great simplicity. At the expiration of their term the inmates are offered the alternative of either working for a period at the free colony of Tannenhof, which has no penal restrictions of any kind, or of working in one of the numerous small colonies which the director has established in the vicinity of Witzwyl.

The Tannenhof colony includes not only vagrants, but also indigents whom age, illness, or accident has unfitted for earning their living in the competitive market. The sub-colonies are run by employing farmers. Here the inmates eat with their employers; are allowed to smoke; are not confined in cells and have many freedoms. Recently the director of the Witzwyl colony has begun a system of reconstituting reformed inmates having families by furnishing them with a cottage surrounded with a small plot of land for the cultivation of vegetables. The charge for the cottage is eighty francs a year. Some of these families have already proved that it is possible not only to support themselves, but to save money.

COMPETITION WITH FREE LABOR.

"The problem," reports Mr. Kelly, "of how to avoid injurious competition with free labor is essentially a local one, and can only be solved by every colony for itself. At Witzwyl it is solved by selling produce not in the neighborhood, but by contract with distant hotels, and by growing beetroots, which competes with French and not with Swiss farmers, who do not grow them. In America the same thing could be accomplished by selling in large or distant markets, or by growing produce not grown in the neighborhood."

The experiment of establishing tramp colonies in the United States is one that all humanitarians are looking forward to with deepest interest. Of course, there are those who insist that the tramp is a product more or less of the present social and industrial conditions, that these colonies will be makeshifts at best, and that a radical change must be made in existing conditions themselves. These criticisms can well be anticipated. Nevertheless, whatever the point of view, whether radical or conservative, it will doubtless be agreed by all elements that the experiment is well worth the trial. One of its main qualifications is that it is an immediate attempt at solving this tragic problem, and for this reason will undoubtedly have the support of persons of all views who desire to see some practical remedy in operation.

THE NEW UNION AMONG THE STATES.

BY W J MCGEE.

(Secretary United States Inland Waterways Commission; member National Conservation Commission.)

THREE recent expressions may be regarded as signs of the times and indications of national progress.

The first was the report of the Inland Waterways Commission, approved and transmitted by the President in February, 1908. It recognized the essential unity and interstate character of the navigable and source streams of the country; recommended their improvement in the interests of the people through co-operation of the federal Government with States, municipalities, communities, corporations, and individuals; and proposed a conference of State executives with experts on waters and related resources.

The second expression was the Conference of Governors with the President in May last, and the unanimous declaration that (among other interstate relations) "in the use of natural resources the independent States are interdependent, and bound together by ties of mutual benefits, responsibilities, and duties." Forty-six Governors of States and Territories took part in this unique conference, a few only being withheld from personal attendance by illness or pressing official demands; all concurred in the declaration.

The third expression was the joint conference in December last between the National Conservation Commission and some thirty State conservation commissions, including a score of Governors. A formal report was adopted indorsing the principle of interstate interest in the natural resources, and recommending to the respective legislative bodies the policy of co-operation between States and nation. This report, with the indorsement of the President, is soon to be published.

The conferences between Governors mark a new departure in American history. Still more significant is the underlying motive; for it marks an awakening of the public conscience to the permanent needs of the people, and a stirring of a sense of trusteeship in the guardians of public interest. Viewed broadly in the light of national progress, the first expression was a call to action; the second was a declaration of interdependence among the States, worthy to rank with the Declara-

tion of Independence by the Colonies; the third was a proclamation of union among the States, one breathing full life into the perfectly modeled form of the Constitution.

Hitherto this nation has been a prodigal. The pioneer born into economy and thrift entered into the far country, and found it full of all things needful, quick to respond to all demands; and he squandered the abundant substance beyond all precedent in the history of peoples. Happily wiser than his prototype, he begins to see that the sources are not boundless, and that unless they are conserved the day of husks will surely dawn. So the prodigal has arisen,—not to return impoverished unto the paternal protection, but, instead, to avert the traditional fate.

Largely in response to the call, the States and nation have made a rough inventory of resources.

WHAT IS LEFT OF THE PUBLIC DOMAIN?

Of the public land, some 375,000,000 acres, or one-sixth of the original territory, remain,—but nearly every acre is too arid for settlement on the original plan. Of State land the amount is limited, save swamp and overflow tracts that can hardly be settled by individual effort. Over 75,000,000 acres of wet lands might be reclaimed to form homes for 10,000,000 people, while 40,000,000 or 50,000,000 acres of arid lands might be irrigated to sustain as many more; but this cannot be done by individual or family pioneering, and must be done, if at all, either at collective cost in the public interest, or by corporate enterprise for personal interest. No longer is Uncle Sam "rich enough to give us all a farm"; his princely possession of a century past is already given; hereafter land must be re-made before the giving,—or else it must be bought from private interests at monopoly price.

THE SHAMEFUL WASTE OF WATER.

The fresh waters which render the country habitable have been measured. They are derived wholly from the yearly rainfall (including snow), averaging thirty inches over the

entire surface and aggregating 215,000,000,000,000 cubic feet in quantity, equivalent to ten Mississippi rivers. Half the rainfall is evaporated; a third flows into the sea through navigable and other streams; and a sixth is either consumed by living things or absorbed into the earth. Of the three Mississippis going down to the sea, some 90 per cent. flows in flood torrents, impeding navigation and destroying property to a value reaching over a hundred million dollars yearly; and although hundreds of millions of public money have been spent in "improving" the channels so ill-advisedly that river navigation has steadily declined, both floods and the correlative low waters are increasing, while not more than 5 per cent. of the volume is utilized for navigation or power. Of the water-power available at a cost comparable with that of steam installation, a sixth is utilized, a twentieth runs over Government dams unused, and the remaining 30,000,000 horsepower remains unharnessed,—enough to drive every wheel and spindle, propel every train and boat, and light every city, town, and village in the country. Nature stores in lakes and ponds (including the American portion of the Great Lakes) a volume equivalent to three years' rainfall; also, in the first hundred feet of soil and earth, a volume of ground water equal to seven years' rainfall,—enough to form a reservoir some seventeen feet deep over the entire country. These stores are ill used.

An eighth of our population, residing in cities, have learned that land is merely appurtenant to water as an ultimate value, and have acquired 1,000,000 acres as catchment areas in which the waters are protected and controlled for human use; while some 6,000,000 inhabitants draw their water supply from lakes and ponds,—and a few are beginning to protect these from thoughtless contamination or seizure by private interests. Most of the remaining four-fifths of our population and nearly all our domestic animals derive their water supply from springs and permanent streams or wells fed by the great ground-water reservoir, which is at the same time the sole support of agriculture and other industries and so the chief resource of the nation. Through deforestation and reckless cultivation most of the springs and wells of the pioneers have failed, and many of the clear brooks have run dry or grown foul; the figures show that over a great part of the country the water-table is lowered from ten to fifty feet, that some 10 per cent. of the

ground water has been squandered, and that the producing industries are progressively jeopardized by the waste. A hopeful ray shines from the arid region, where water is recognized as a resource and viewed as a value; \$250,000,000 have been expended in the control of the waters for irrigation and other uses, 13,000,000 acres have been irrigated, and homes have been made for several million settlers.

Except in arid districts and among municipalities controlling their catchment basins, the "twilight zone" between States and nation has been widening; both shrank from the borders of the forbidding figment, and the public interests were neglected by the duly constituted trustees of the people. Meantime private interests were quickened by the neglect; water-fronts and terminals passed under monopolistic control, and commerce was driven from the rivers by discriminating tariffs; and of late a hydra-headed interest is arising in the shadowy zone stealthily to gain possession of water-power sites by shrewd manipulation of legislatures and other machinations designed to shackle every industry and take toll from the commodities required in every home.

The tale of the country's water,—its richest natural resource,—is a sorry one. Fortunately it aided in opening the way for the call, the declaration, and the proclamation.

HOW LONG WILL THE COAL LAST?

America* became a manufacturing nation through the large use of coal and iron; and now the coal seams and ore beds are measured, and the States and the nation are estimating the probable duration of the supplies. We have 1,400,000,000,000 tons of accessible coal, of which 480,000,000 were mined in 1907, and even more in 1908; with 3,840,000,000 tons of high-grade iron ore (of which some 50,000,000 were used in 1907), besides 59,000,000,000 tons of low-grade ore. At the currently increasing rates of extraction, the high-grade iron would be exhausted soon after the middle of this century, the high-grade coal about the middle of the next; and it is clear that the time has come for checking waste and substituting industrial methods which will prolong the availability of our stores. Now that the need is felt, the state of the public mind has changed. In past decades each State gloried in her imperial wealth and strength much as did the monarchy of old, and boasted the inexhaustibility of her special resources; to-day

the executive and each other citizen of every other commonwealth looks askance at the boaster, and suggests the wisdom of so using his own as not to rob his fellows of the common inheritance.

THE SLAUGHTER OF OUR FORESTS.

The forests, too, have been inventoried. Of the 850,000,000 acres of woods primeval, 550,000,000 remain,—chiefly of inferior quality. Meantime the consumption of wood is three times the rate of timber growth and is increasing rapidly, while we waste in logging and milling and manufacturing two-thirds of the average tree as it stood in the forest; meantime, too, we permit forest fires to do more damage than the axe, entailing loss in every direction and yielding benefit in none. Worse than all else, the forest devastation imperils the streams; it generally hastens surface run-off, and so robs the ground-water reservoir with the springs and brooks naturally feeding the rivers during the intervals between storms. The tale of woodland wantoning is no less grievous than that of the waste of waters; but it was the concurrent observation of a million citizens on the relations between woods and waters that at last awakened the public conscience and led to the recent expressions of public intent.

THE EARLY "STATE-RIGHTS" SENTIMENT.

When the American Colonies achieved independence, resources were hardly recognized,—other than the land as a place for homes. The forests were obstructions to settlement; of iron, a few dozen pounds served a well-to-do-family; of coal none was used; and of water there was a redundancy, with a legal doctrine holding it appurtenant to the land and free as air or sunlight. Inspired by the ideal of liberty, the colonists looked to perpetual independence on the land of their life and labors, and the parental sense of territorial rights was intensified. "Land of the Pilgrims' pride, land where our fathers died"; such was the deep-rooted sentiment. This was the period of States' rights par excellence.

A decade later questions of interstate and foreign commerce arose, and the need for military defense became clear. Although land alone was deemed a resource, the rivers and bays were recognized at once as ways of commerce and as natural bonds of strength; and it is not too much to say that the union of the independent States under the federal Constitution rested on commercial interde-

pendence through the natural waterways,—*i. e.*, that infantile America first effectuated the idea that lands are united rather than severed by intervening waters. The sense of States' rights indeed remained strong; some framers withheld their hands from the Constitution, and some signed in behalf of their States only, on this ground; and the chief merit of the Philadelphia conference was the shaping of a plan whereby the people were enabled to adopt the immortal document written therein despite both independent spirit and provincial pride. Even after ratification, reaction was expressed during the first Congress in 1789, notably in the tenth amendment: "The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively or to the people"; a reservation which would clearly have been to the people solely had the provision been framed in the original body. Still the skeleton articulated in 1787 and incarnated later by Marshall's masterly decisions marked an epoch in the mental growth no less than in the material unification of the infant republic.

INCREASING DEPENDENCE ON NATURAL RESOURCES.

Through wise laws, America became a nation of invention; then of manufacturing, with the attendant weighing and measuring; and in due course of scientific methods applied to practical affairs. Iron was discovered and mined, and came gradually to be recognized as a resource and the iron lands as having value because of their contents; and now 1200 pounds of high-grade ore are extracted yearly for each man, woman, and child of our 86,000,000 population. Coal mining began less than a century ago so thoughtlessly that the part used was but half of that wasted; within a half-century it came to be reckoned as a resource and coal lands as possessing other than surface value; now for each of our people about six tons is burned and nearly three tons wasted each year, and an average of between 5 per cent. and 10 per cent. of the thermal energy of the coal consumed is utilized. Meantime the forests were cleared, long for the sake of clearing, later for the timber which we use from three to ten times more freely than other nations,—incidentally losing from three to twenty times as much through fires. For generations the timber went with the lands without value of its own, but is now reckoned a resource; and more than one large private fortune was

made through acquiring forests as land before the timber was recognized as valuable in itself, and then marketing the wood as the value grew. The iron and coal and wood built our railways, and with them and the teeming products of the soil made the nation great; and with the growth the age of the machine dawned, and more than any other folk Americans came to depend on natural sources both for the materials and for the power employed in a complex industrial life. Rapidly as population increases, the consumption of coal and iron increases more rapidly, the use of power more rapidly still. It is not the growth of population so much as the increasing use per capita and the continued wastes that now threaten perpetuity.

At first natural and spontaneous, the material development, with the attendant habits of measurement and of statement in terms of quantity, fostered the scientific method; and now this method has entered into the very fiber of thought pertaining to every walk of life, and is reaching its highest form in prevision, or definite foresight in terms of experience. Hence the inventory; for the pinch is already experienced in advancing prices of wood, coal, iron, and land as the stock of these commodities diminishes.

IMPORTANCE OF WATER.

Now that stock-taking is well begun, it has become clear that the prosperity and perpetuity of the country no longer rest solely on the land, as when the Colonies became independent, nor even on the land with the waters for commerce, as when the nation took form; it has become clear not only that the minerals and forests are equally necessary for national existence, but that the availability of all the other resources is determined by the associated water. Without our annual rainfall, the land and the mines would be of no avail; with half the land area receiving ten Mississippis of rainfall, America's production and capacity for population would be great as now, plus the advantage of cheaper transportation; with twice the rainfall equably distributed, productivity and population might be more than doubled. Of our 3,000,000 square miles of territory, fully a third,—a territory exceeding that of the United Kingdom, France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Germany, Austria, and Denmark,—is practically unproductive and nearly uninhabitable by reason of dearth of water; and hardly anywhere does the rainfall reach the optimum for full productivity. Now unlike land and its con-

tents and products, water is mobile and constantly changing in state and place; in bounding States it unites them, and both in surface streams and in the ground-water reservoir it passes freely from State to State. It is the prime value which gives their sole worth to all other resources; it is acquiring price because there is not enough for all; yet all are entitled to an interest in it, regardless of residence or State affiliation.

INTERDEPENDENCE OF THE STATES.

The reckoning of the resources has stirred the national consciousness in a new way. First among the Governors as the direct sponsors for the welfare of their respective commonwealths, then among other State and federal officials, and finally among the citizens generally, the realization of interdependence and the sense of solidarity have taken form and are finding substance. Statesmen see that Michigan and Alabama cannot deplete their iron deposits, or Pennsylvania waste her anthracite and coking coal, or Florida export her phosphates, or Oregon squander her timber, or Minnesota feed her forest fires, without imperiling the future of neighboring States; and so the idea of interstate responsibility spreads. Citizens observe that the deforestation of Pennsylvania reduces the navigability of the Ohio and lower Mississippi, that the devastation of the Appalachian woodlands impairs the water-powers of the Southland, and that the diversion of waters in Montana and Idaho affects the regimen of the Missouri and the Snake to their mouths; and the idea of complete control of the waters in the common interest becomes fixed. The courts see that the private woodlands of Maine must be protected against reckless owners in the interests of the streams, and that the waters of New Jersey must be saved from ill-considered transfer in the interests of the inhabitants; and so the solidarity of the States and of their people is crystallized. The fundamental principle of equity and law that each shall so use his own as not to injure others is felt to apply not only between man and man within each State, but between State and State throughout the entire Union; and it is felt as never before that each State owes a sacred duty to each other commonwealth in connection with each resource, indeed with each unit measure of that resource.

The most striking result of the inventory of resources is the realization that America's water supply is too meager for full productivity and a dense population. Since there

is too little, all is clearly to be conserved and used wisely; and it is no less clear that equitable distribution is needed to counteract both waste and monopoly, and to secure for each a fair share of the common requisite for all,—a distribution spanning State and sectional boundaries freely as does the water itself. Here the experience of ancient peoples half consciously guides thought and action. In Arabia and Egypt, in Arizona and Peru, and in other cradles of human culture, the common strife against sun and sand drove primal men into either fierce enmity which few survived, or helpful amity which left progeny to people the ranges and subjugate the scanty flora and fauna; so that the world's civilization came out of the deserts. To-day, no less than of old, the realization of the value of water arising in our arid regions is directing agricultural and other enterprise, and is shaping laws, both temporary for the few and permanent for the many, like unto the laws of battle long ago; and the unselfish legislation of the arid States generally touches a higher plane of patriotism than is reached where appreciation of the chief substance of vitality is less vivid.

Through the measurement and reckoning of the natural resources, the material essentials of national existence are becoming clear; our fundamental maxim becomes not merely

the greatest good to the greatest number, but that for the longest time; and our patriotism is both intensified and extended accordingly. The sentiment can only be reflected in quicker sympathy and quickened honesty between States and men; and while the community sense is strengthened, individuality is stimulated by the sense of duty and responsibility. It is not too much to say that the sense of individual and State rights is merging into a sense of personal and State duties, in which the good of each becomes the good of all. The keynote may be material and personal interest; but the chord is common welfare.

During centuries past human aspiration has gone forth again and yet again for liberty, equality, fraternity. The Declaration of Independence was written for liberty; the Constitution was framed for equality; the Governors' declaration of interdependence marks our longest step toward fraternity,—with closer union among the States on the triune basis. And just as the Constitution made a nation on the basis of land and commerce, so the new declaration and proclamation of union are making a stronger nation on the broader basis of all the sources of prosperity to which both States and citizens owe their homes and hopes. Such seems to be the tenor of the recent expressions.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing.

Henry Gannett. (Statistician.)	Thomas R. Shipp. (Secretary.)	W J McGee. (Waters.)	George W. Woodruff. (Lands.)	Gifford Pinchot. (Chairman.)	Overton W. Price. (Forests.)	Joseph A. Holmes. (Minerals.)
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THE CHAIRMAN AND EXECUTIVE FORCE OF THE NATIONAL CONSERVATION COMMISSION.

AFRICA IN TRANSFORMATION.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

IN less than two generations explorers covered Africa with a network of 1400 routes which they had followed through the unknown. They brought the Dark Continent into the light so that all men could see it. Nearly all the large phases of this colossal work were ended twenty years ago; and then the time was ripe to test the capacity of Africa to confer greater blessings upon its native population and the outside world. The progress of this movement is even more wonderful than the great achievements of pioneer exploration. We do not yet realize the full meaning of this era of development, for it is too near us to be seen in correct perspective; but a few illustrations of the new aspects of Africa may give an idea of the wonderful transformation that is coming over the scene.

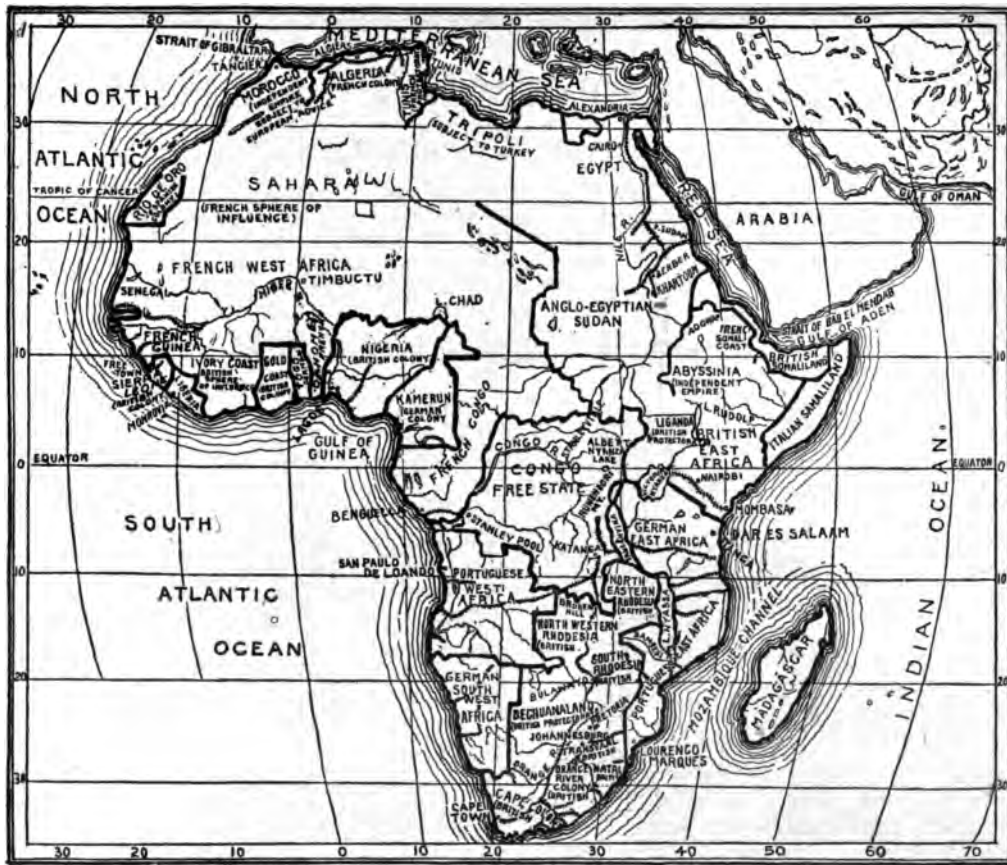
When Stanley wrote that, in a quarter of a century, a railroad would join Victoria Nyanza with the Indian Ocean, many laughed at him as a visionary. Last month appeared a handsome handbook of this Uganda railroad, 584 miles long, completed in 1902 and joining the northeast corner of the lake with the ocean at Mombasa. Speke was a year and Stanley eight months on the way to the lake, but tourists now make the journey in the daylight hours of two days. It is a common event to pass from the train to a lake steamer, travel around the coasts of the second largest of all fresh water seas, touching at every port, and return to the ocean in about a month.

A statesman, opposing this railroad project in the British Parliament, declared that "for every mile of rail laid through the country of the Masai, you will sacrifice the life of a white man." But these braves of old go on the warpath no more, and many are police in the service of the whites. High up on the western plateau, where the Masai used to stampede the cattle of their enemies, European stock is kept to improve the native breeds, and white ranchmen are herding European sheep, reared for their wool, under the equator, the industry being possible because the land stands much over a mile above the sea.

Thirty-five years ago, Mombasa, Tanga,

and Dar es Salaam were known chiefly as places where miserable gangs of slaves were marched through these coast towns and huddled into filthy dhows, to be sold in Zanzibar or in the Persian Gulf. But Africa is now wholly redeemed, excepting a bit of it in the Sudan, from the shame of Arab slave raiding. These once notorious towns are now thriving young cities, with well-kept streets, public gardens, hospitals, and railroads stretching far into the interior. They are ports of call for several steamship lines, and Tanga is clamoring for more warehouse and wharfage facilities, because the accommodations for the train loads of sisal hemp, cotton, ground-nuts, hides, and other commodities are not adequate.

Even hundreds of miles from railroads the impulse of the new life of Africa is felt. In Katanga, near the sources of the Congo, is a large area, believed to be one of the great copper fields of the world, and rich also in gold. The enterprises developing there cannot wait for the railroad now extending toward it from Benguela on the Atlantic, or for the branch of the Cape to Cairo line that is to tap this region in the heart of tropical Africa. Every month gold is carried on the backs of men or in dugouts on the streams to far away Victoria Nyanza, whence it is shipped to the sea, the export for August last amounting to \$166,000. "Give us transportation or this country is not worth a penny," is the cry rising in all parts of Africa, and it is meeting with a wonderful response. There is now continuous steam transportation, by rail and water, from the Nile delta to Gondokoro, within 300 miles of the equator; and from Cape Town to Broken Hill, 1940 miles north, crossing the Zambesi at Victoria Falls, now a tourist resort, though not a dozen white men saw them for nearly fifty years after Livingstone told of their existence. The Congo Government is building railroads around every stretch of rapids that impede navigation in the Congo, and in a few years it expects to have steam transportation on or along the river for 2500 miles. The whistles of locomotives are heard daily in the capitals of Dahomey and Ashanti, once notorious as the scenes of



THE CONTINENT OF AFRICA AS IT IS TO-DAY.

[This map, which was prepared with the help of data made available by science and exploration since the latest atlas maps were printed, indicates the main political divisions of the continent and the principal railroad lines as at present constructed. The famous Cape to Cairo route, which has been the ambitious dream of Cecil Rhodes and the British statesmen who have succeeded him in South Africa, at present consists of a constructed and operated line from Alexandria, on the Mediterranean, to Khartum; and from Cape Town, in the south, to Broken Hill, in northwestern Rhodesia. From Khartum to Broken Hill surveys have been made, but no construction attempted.]

wholesale human butchery. The railroad from Lagos will soon cross the Niger on its way through northern Nigeria, the cotton region of greatest promise in Africa. These are only the larger enterprises now in construction; a score of others are on the way.

The French have lifted the veil of mystery from the Sahara. On their camels, trained to fleetness, they cross the desert in all directions, traveling lightly laden, for they march fast enough to replenish supplies at various oases. They have tamed the desert bandits, made the routes safe, established regular postal service nearly across the desert, and their trans-Saharan telegraph line, now advanced a third of the way, has been surveyed throughout. Men trained to scientific serv-

ice go with each expedition, with the result that exact geographical knowledge of no other part of the uncivilized world has advanced so rapidly in the past ten years as that of the Sahara; and the French are also creating new oases by tapping the ground waters that spread in a wide sheet under the permeable strata of the thirst lands.

All this progress in many lines is splendidly serving the material and moral welfare of millions of the black race. They are learning the primary lesson in human progress that there is blessing in downright hard work. It is the brawn and the trained skill of the black, as well as the directive impulse of the white race that must uphold and advance the regeneration of the continent.

THE NATIVE PROBLEM IN SOUTH AFRICA.

BY OLIVE SCHREINER.

[After a silence of nearly ten years, Olive Schreiner, undoubtedly the most brilliant writer of South Africa, has again spoken on the native question. The following is a portion of her "address" to the Intercolonial Conference. It cannot fail to be of interest to those who, in the Western or Eastern Hemisphere, are face to face with the problem she discusses,—the relationship between the governing minority of one race and the majority of the natives of the soil.—THE EDITOR.]

NO exact census exists of the population of South Africa, but it is roughly calculated that there are about nine million of inhabitants, eight million of dark men and one million of white.

The white race consists mainly of two va-



OLIVE SCHREINER.

rieties, or rather mixed European descent, but both largely Teutonic. Our vast, dark native population consists largely of Bantus, who were already in South Africa when we came here; of a few expiring yellow varieties of African races, and a small but important number of half-castes, largely the descendants of imported slaves, whose blood was mingled with that of their masters, as is always the case where slavery exists; and a very small body of Asiatics. It is out of this

great, heterogeneous mass of humans that the South African nation of the future will be built.

The dark man is with us to stay. Not only does the Bantu increase and flourish greatly, as is natural in his native continent, and under the climatic conditions which are best suited to him; not only does he refuse to die out in contact with our civilization, as the yellow races have largely done, rather tries to grasp and make it his own; not only can we not exterminate him,—because we cannot even transport him,—because we want him! We want more and always more of him, to labor in our mines, to build our railways, to work in our fields, to perform our domestic labors, and to buy our goods. We desire to import more of him when we can. It has more than once happened in a house of legislature that bitter complaints have been brought against the government of the day for employing too many natives on public works, and so robbing the land-owner of what he most desires,—native labor.

They are the makers of our wealth, the great basic rock on which our state is founded,—our vast laboring class.

In our small, to-day dominant, European element we have the descendants of some of the most virile of the Northern races; races which, at least for themselves, have always loved freedom and justice; in our vast Bantu element we possess one of the finest breeds of the African stock. A grave and an almost fatal error is sometimes made when persons compare our native question with the negro question in the Southern States of America. Not only is the South African Bantu (a race probably with a large admixture of Arab blood!) as distinct from the West Coast negro, who was the ancestor of the American slave, as the Norwegian is from the Spaniard, but he has never been subjected to the dissolving and desocializing ordeal of slavery. We find him in the land of his growth with all the instincts of the freeman

intact; with all the instincts of loyalty to his race and its chiefs still warm in his heart; with his social instincts almost abnormally developed and fully active; we have only with wisdom and patient justice slowly to transfer them to our own larger society,—they are there! Every man and woman who has studied the Bantu in his native state knows that the proudest of us may envy many of the social virtues which the Bantu displays. We have a great material here, wisely handled.

In our small, permanent, and largely South African born, Asiatic population, we have a section of people sober, industrious, and intelligent, rich with those deep staying powers which have made many Asiatic peoples so persistent and often dominant in the past and present. Even in the most disorganized element of our population, often without definite race or social traditions, I believe that careful study will show it to compare favorably, and often most favorably, with analogous classes in Europe.

This is the material from which our nation must be shaped; and we, the small and for the moment absolutely dominant white aristocrats, on whom the main weight of duty of social reconstruction rests, have reason to be thankful it is what it is.

I would not willingly appeal to the lowest motives of self-interest, yet it may be permitted to say this: As long as the population of South Africa is united, and the conditions of warfare remain what they are, we need fear no foe. With our inaccessible coast and few harbors, our mighty mountain ranges and desolate plains, into which the largest armies might be led and left to starve, we are as unassailable as northern Russia, behind her steppes and icefields,—it would take more than a Napoleon to walk over us; we are, indeed, an impregnable fortress in these southern seas,—as the entire population is united.

But what if we are not united? What if, when the day comes, as it must, when hostile fleets,—perhaps not European,—gather round our shores, and the vast bulk of our inhabitants should cast eyes of indifference, perhaps of hope, toward them? Having no share in the life of our state, being bound to us by no ties of sympathy, having nothing to lose, might not the stranger even appear in the guise of a deliverer, and every bush hide a possible guide, and the bulk of the men and women in our land whisper, "It is no business of ours; let them fight it out"?

As long as nine-tenths of our community have no permanent stake in the land, and no right or share in our government, can we ever feel safe? Can we ever know peace?

We cannot hope ultimately to equal the men of our own race living in more wholly enlightened and humanized communities if our existence is passed among millions of non-free subjected peoples. The physical labor we despise and refuse, because they do it for us, the continual association with human creatures who are not free will ultimately take from us our strength and our own freedom; and men will see in our faces the reflection of that on which we are always treading and looking down. If we raise the dark man we shall rise with him; if we kick him under our feet he will hold us fast by them.

Lastly, if I were asked what in South Africa is our great need at the present moment, I should answer, "Great men to lead us."

The man fitted to be the national leader of a great heterogeneous people requires certain qualities not asked for in the leaders, even of a homogeneous race. The man who should help to guide us toward the path of true union and a beneficent organization must be a man able to understand, and understanding to sympathize with, all sections of our people; loving his own race and form of speech intensely, he will never forget it is only one among others, and deserving of no special favor because it is his. At all costs to himself he will persist in holding up before us the ideal by which he is himself dominated,—of a great South Africa, in which each element of our population, while maintaining its own individuality, shall subserve the interests of others as well as its own. The hearts of great men unite peoples.

The states and territories of South Africa will ultimately combine in some form of union; it is inevitable; no man can stay it. If among those things which fate still holds hidden from us in the hollow of her hand there be such a man, or such men, loving justice and freedom, not only for themselves or their own race, but for all their fellow-countrymen, and able to imbue us with their own larger conception of the national life, and lead us toward it, then I see light where the future of South Africa rises; if not,—we shall still attain to a political unification in some form or other, but it will be a poor, peddling thing when we have it.

BISHOP HARTZELL AND HIS WORK IN AFRICA.

BY FERDINAND COWLE IGLEHART.

THE Rev. Joseph C. Hartzell, D.D., LL.D., a bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church for Africa, is one of the most influential men in the world. For a dozen years, by his ability and service, he has been one of the most conspicuous and potential factors in the mental and moral transformation of Africa. He was reared on a farm in Illinois; finished his college education at the Wesleyan University, Bloomington, Ill., and was graduated from the Garrett Biblical Institute, at Evanston, Ill., in 1868. He became noted at the theological school, by his heroic rescue of five men from the wrecked schooner, *Storm*, on Lake Michigan, almost losing his own life in the effort. This signal act of bravery on the part of the young student was a prophecy of the heroic leader who was to bless two continents; who for twelve years has struggled against stormy seas, savages, fevers, and all forms of danger, with a self-abandonment truly sublime, in a burning passion to rescue the millions of his fellowmen from mental, social, and moral shipwreck.

Two years after his graduation, the young Hartzell was sent to New Orleans, and during the following twelve years was pastor, district superintendent, and then founder and editor of the *Southwestern Christian Advocate*. He had a large share in the work of founding institutions of learning and churches in the South and West, immediately after the war. In 1882 he was elected executive officer of the educational work of the Methodist Episcopal Church in the Southern States, then known as the Freedmen's Aid and Southern Education Society. In this position he had in charge forty-five institutions of learning, among both whites and blacks in the Southern States. He occupied this position until 1896, when he was elected Missionary Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, for Africa. After twelve years of epoch-making service in the dark continent, Bishop Hartzell has returned to this country, for a brief period, to promote the African Diamond Jubilee.

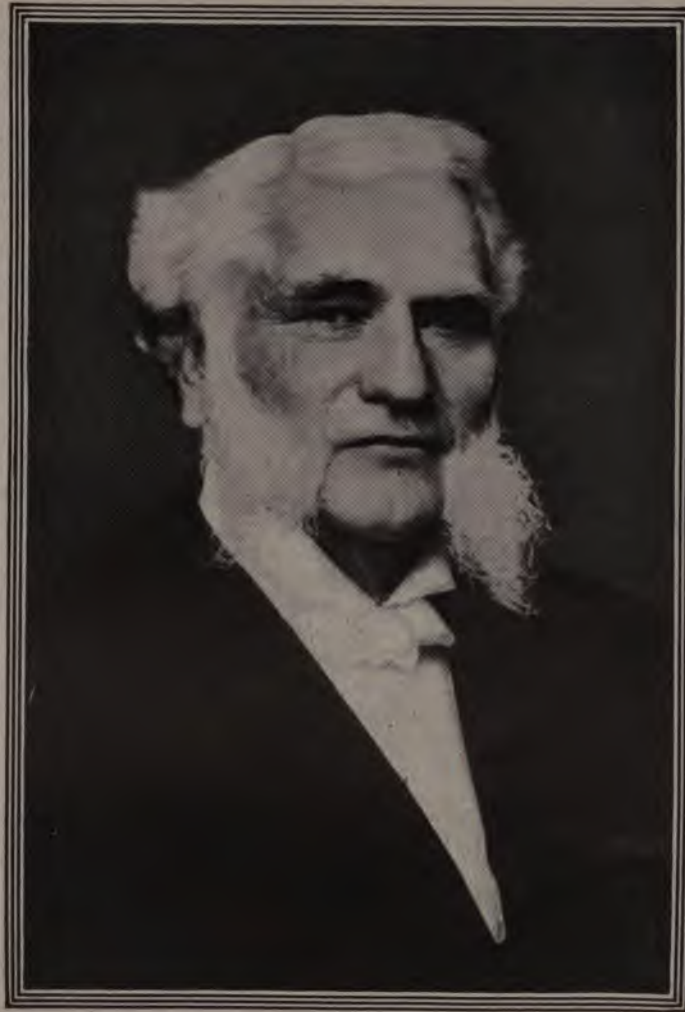
Seventy-five years ago, Melville B. Cox, the first missionary worker, was sent by the Methodist Church of the United States to

Africa, and he was the first foreign missionary sent to any land, by that church, in this country. Mr. Cox, worn out with labor in the home land, and suffering with disease, said he felt called upon to go to Africa. He arrived in Liberia in March, and died in July of the same year. His moral heroism was contagious, and many offered themselves to take his place. The bodies of Cox, and other martyrs, like the heart of Livingston, buried under the tree, are the seed from which there has arisen a bountiful harvest.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT ON CIVILIZATION IN AFRICA.

Bishop Hartzell's plan in this Diamond Jubilee is to present to the church the results of these seventy-five years of missionary endeavor, and to raise a fund of \$300,000 for the more rapid education and evangelization of the vast countries over which he has supervision. The African Diamond Jubilee was most auspiciously inaugurated at Washington, on January 17, 18, and 19. The meeting on Monday evening, January 18, at the Metropolitan Methodist Church, was a memorable one. On this occasion President Roosevelt made an address which has been, and will be, read with absorbing interest and benefit by millions in every civilized nation on the earth. Among other things the President said: "The twentieth century will see, and is now seeing, the transformation of Africa into a new world. Within a few years its vast domain has been partitioned among various European nations. Steamship lines encircle the continent. A continental system of railroads and of lake and river steamboats will soon extend northward from Cape Town, six thousand miles, to Cairo. The results of science are being utilized in mining and agriculture. The growth of commerce which will be developed cannot be estimated. The white man rules; but there is only one white man on the continent to one hundred others; who are either barbarous black heathen or fanatical Mohammedans.

"But there is a question that is larger than either government or trade, and that is the moral well-being of these vast millions.



BISHOP JOSEPH C. HARTZELL, OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

The representative of the Christian religion must have his place side by side with the man of government and trade, and for generations that representative must be supplied in the person of the foreign missionary from America and Europe. Civilization can only be permanent and continue a blessing to any people if, in addition to promoting the material well-being, it also stands for an orderly individual liberty, for the growth of intelligence, and for equal justice in the administration of law. Christianity alone meets these fundamental requirements."

THE LARGEST DIOCESE IN THE WORLD.

William Taylor, of world-wide fame, preceded Bishop Hartzell as Bishop of Africa.

He engaged in forty years of devoted service, twelve of them being in the dark continent. Bishop Hartzell's introduction to Africa, twelve years ago, was fortunate. At Bulawayo, where four hundred men joined in a banquet that cost \$100,000, celebrating the completion of six hundred miles of the Cape to Cairo Railroad, he made an address. At the close he called attention to the two great flags at the end of the hall, a magnificent Union Jack, and side by side with it, the Stars and Stripes, with their colors the same,—red, white, and blue. Then he referred to the people back of these flags, one in blood and sentiment, religion and destiny; and closed with this challenge: "These two flags, may they float side by side at ever

strategic point on the face of the earth, where there is a conflict between civilization and barbarism, and may their people be one forever in the uplift of humanity." The guests sprang to their feet, cheering lustily.

Under Bishop Hartzell's leadership, the work has been greatly enlarged, until now six centers are occupied in a half-million square miles of territory, among which are ten millions of pagans and Mohammedans. A leading London magazine has called it the largest diocese in the world. These six districts include Liberia, that Negro republic so closely related to the United States, over which the Rev. Isaiah Scott, also a Methodist Missionary Bishop of Africa, presides; Portuguese Angola, a plateau country inhabited by the intelligent Kimbundu and other Bantu tribes; the Madeira Islands, "The Pearl of the Portuguese Crown," Portuguese East Africa; British Rhodesia, where Anglo-Saxon government and the Christian Church are working together for the uplift of the native races; and Algiers, where dwell the keen and strong Mohammedan whites.

AN IMPORTANT INDUSTRIAL WORK.

Bishop Hartzell came into communication with Earl Grey, at present Governor-General of Canada, who was at that time Governor of Rhodesia, and also with the Honorable Cecil Rhodes, with reference to opening up missionary work for the Methodist Episcopal Church in that British colony. Mr. Rhodes believed in England, and by his statesmanship gave Great Britain the magnificent dependency of Rhodesia, with its vast territory and fruitful resources. He was also deeply interested in helping the native races. Through his influence the British South-African Company turned over to the Methodist Episcopal Church the village of Old Umtali, and thirteen thousand acres of land surrounding it, as the plant for an industrial mission. That industrial institution has been a decided success. It has a farm of three thousand acres, with several buildings, which, with the equipment in farm and mechanical implements and stock, is exceedingly valuable. There are 120 boys and 50 girls in the institution. Half the day is given to the school, and the other half to the industrial work on the farm, in the shop, and in the home.

BISHOP HARTZELL AS A DIPLOMAT.

Bishop Hartzell was also the means of adjusting misunderstandings and difficulties

concerning missionary work in Portuguese territory in Africa, namely, in the Madeira Islands, Angola, and Portuguese East Africa. He had an audience with the King of Portugal, and with the Prime Minister, as a result of which important changes in the laws governing schools and churches in the African dependencies were made, and more friendly relations established between Protestant and Catholic work. The Bishop also was made a special representative of the Government of Liberia in important diplomatic matters between that Republic and Germany, during which he secured the friendly offices of the United States and Great Britain.

AFRICA'S RELIGIOUS DESTINY.

The religion of a nation determines its character and destiny. Africa could not be other than a dark continent, dominated by her false religions. They have given no light to the intellect and no warmth to the heart. It is Christianity that is giving to that continent light and life. The very explorers who were looking for lakes and the sources of rivers, who were penetrating the jungles, to find out how the faces of the natives looked, and how they lived, were many of them missionaries, whose consciences had driven them to search for the souls of their fellowmen. The enterprising men who followed close on the track of the explorers, hunting for gold and diamonds, and the products of wood and field, were not able to overtake the humble men and women who had hastened to save the tribes from heathenism and barbarism. Africa could never be anything but dark with the Sphinx as a God,—Sphinx is a Greek word for an Egyptian idol, which means a squeezer, or strangler. This deity has squeezed the spirit life out of the continent. Like other forms of African paganism, the Egyptian religion acknowledged man's inability to save himself, and the necessity of his securing help without. So it laid hold of power, as the thing necessary. At Gizeh it carved out of solid stone a huge figure of a human head on the body of a lion, the expression of the greatest animal force, as the symbol of the union of humanity and power. The figure is 172 feet long by fifty-six feet high. In front of the breast is a chapel with an altar.

This idol stands to-day, as it has done for four thousand years, an unsolved riddle. A falsehood as a substitute for the truth, and the uncarved stone and snakes and sticks of

pagan Africa express the same untruth. A little boy was brought to Africa to escape the fury of a murderous king. He came to express the union of humanity with Deity, and He was the Truth. The face of the Sphinx was a riddle that no one could solve, the body was power, so cold that it froze the heart; the Divine human Child, though the Mystery of Mysteries, was Infinite Love, which is the key that unlocks all the mysteries of life and of death. He came to be a brother to every other man on the earth, and to make all men brothers, and to bring them to the heart of His Father.

When the people of North Africa heard of His beautiful life and of His death upon the cross, they worshiped Him as divine, and founded some of the most magnificent churches that ever existed upon the face of the earth, having as able writers, as eloquent pulpit orators, and as consecrated men and women as the church has ever had in any age. These men furnished the first Greek translation of the Old Testament Scriptures, invaluable to the early Christian Church, and formulated the Apostles' Creed, that is used in Universal Christendom today; but men came with swords in their hands, and frightened some, and some with honeyed words that enticed others, and after centuries of fidelity they let their faith slip, and gave up Christ for Mohammed; and the light that should have illumined all of Africa went out, and the continent with nothing but the Sphinx, and Islam to help, sank down into the darkness of heathenism.

Moses, himself a native of Africa, now rules most of the countries there, by the laws of the civilized nations, which exercise authority over the darkened continent. Their jurisprudence is based upon his code. The Divine human boy of Nazareth, who was saved from death by Africa, is now saving Africa. The rulers of Europe, that govern most of Africa, recognize him as their Lord and Master, and by the earnest services of his

followers, such as Bishop Hartzell, and his faithful company, and the consecrated men and women missionaries sent out by all denominations, from all countries, the native converts, and colonists who are loyal to the faith, Jesus the real King, is claiming the vast continent which belongs to Him. President Roosevelt, the best expression of a Christian American manhood, with his keen wisdom, wide knowledge, and deep conviction, said in his Diamond Jubilee address, that the religion of Jesus is a necessary instrument in the redemption of Africa, and it is a matter of congratulation that while on his trip of well-earned recreation, and scientific investigation, he will visit missions in the countries through which he shall pass, which will be as great an encouragement to the workers in the foreign field as it will be an inspiration to those at home, who sustain them.

They made a statue of General Gordon in native costume, on the back of a camel, and instead of placing it in Khartum, with his face to the people, as an example and inspiration, as would be the natural thing to do, they put it on the banks of the Nile, with its face turned away from the city, looking out upon the desert; and the reason given for doing so was that General Gordon not only worked for and believed in the redemption of the Sudan but of all Africa from paganism and Mohammedanism, and they arranged his figure so he could wait for, and see, all Africa coming to the Cross. And government, commerce, evangelical zeal, and wide generosity, including the \$300,000 Diamond Jubilee Fund, which will certainly be raised, are helping to fulfill Gordon's prophecy, and answer his prayers. Just laws, honest dealing, good schools, and well equipped missionary organizations, are valuable only as they bring Gospel truth and liberty to the individual hearts of the men and women of the darkened continent, and inspire them with a new life and love.



SAFETY OF TRAVEL ON THE MODERN OCEAN LINER.

BY E. A. STEVENS.

(Vice-President of the Society of Naval Architects and Marine Engineers.)

EVERY year a thousand ships are lost at sea. Most of these, it is true, are sailing craft. The number of passenger vessels propelled by steam, however, which are destroyed at sea annually is appallingly large. And yet, in spite of this fact, the safety of the passenger on a modern ocean liner has been so often demonstrated by statistics that, theoretically at least, it will be quite generally admitted.

There is, however, to many minds, something appalling in a catastrophe at sea. Death by drowning, we may argue, is not specially painful, but still we recoil from the very idea. Those few minutes of hope-

less struggle after the ship has gone down, present a picture over which none of us cares to linger. The awe of the sea which so many feel may, perhaps, be a matter of instinct, but whether it be or not, it does exist and persist. The Church has special prayers and hymns for "those in peril on the sea," and they are often used in her public worship. None has yet introduced a prayer for those exposed to the much greater risk of a trip by rail, say to Chicago, or the, by comparison, positively reckless hazard of an afternoon spin in a forty-horsepower motor car.

Notwithstanding this awe of the sea, comparatively few of the passengers on a modern liner know anything about her safety, and even fewer of those who have knowledge of the subject apply that knowledge in choosing by which ship they sail. That many possess this knowledge and willingly incur what risk there may be in shipping on a vessel not provided with all the modern safety devices, is proof of the truth of my opening statement. There is, however, always a demand for more knowledge on a subject of such immediate personal interest to so large a number. To a desire to satisfy this demand is due the following short account of the important safeguards to human life which, of late years, have been fitted to ships.

THE MANY PERILS WHICH MAY BE FACED,
BUT SELDOM ARE.

The dangers to which a ship and all on board are exposed are, indeed, manifold in character, even if the risk as to any one actually happening is remote. Within the memory of man there has been both danger and loss of life and of property at sea from high explosives, from escape of poisonous fumes, from failures of boilers, piping and engines, from fire, from grounding, from collision with derelicts, with icebergs, and last and greatest, with other ships.

Better practice in a design of construction and equipment, based on the experience of the past, has eliminated or greatly reduced many of these dangers. Those of grounding



THE MARCONI OPERATOR ON ONE OF THE STEAMERS
OF THE HAMBURG-AMERICAN LINE.



OFFICERS ON THE BRIDGE OF THE "MAURETANIA."

and collision are the principal ones to-day, and the main interest in safeguards centers around those designed to prevent these accidents or mitigate their results.

BENEFITS AND LIMITATIONS OF "WIRELESS."

Before considering in detail the means whereby safety is sought, I would draw attention for a moment to the general characteristics of the devices for this purpose. These divide themselves naturally into three classes:

First, those whose object is to prevent accidents to the ship; second, those which aim at saving the ship with her passengers from loss, after the accident; third, those which aim at saving the lives of passengers and

crew, after the loss of the ship has become inevitable.

The proverbial superiority of one ounce of prevention to a pound of cure is nowhere more evident than in the case of a ship at sea, and along this line much has been done in recent years. Of what wireless telegraphy can do to-day, we have heard much of late. No man can be sure of what will be in its power to-morrow. Of one thing we may be sure, the full benefit of this invention will not be realized until its use on passenger ships, at least, is obligatory, nor until international regulations prevent the meddling interference with even the most important business that now so seriously detracts from its usefulness. This interference

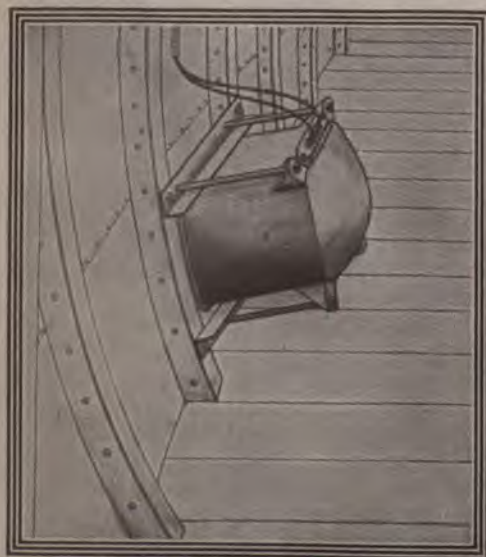
whether arising from a mistaken sense of humor, from pure curiosity, or from conflict between rival companies, is to-day a serious matter.

As a preventive of collision and grounding, wireless telegraphy to-day plays an important part, and wireless telephony may to-morrow be its serious rival. The recent case of the *Republic* and the *Florida* shows that even when the electric power plant is out of commission, the wireless can still be worked efficiently from storage batteries. This means that the apparatus could be used on any ship without necessitating the presence of a power plant. A present defect in wireless is the inability of the receiver to detect the direction and distance from which the message has been sent.

It seems the general opinion of experts in this branch that the defect is an inherent one, but those who have watched without taking part in the development are skeptical as to the so-called "impossibilities of wireless telegraphy."

ADVANTAGES OF SUBMARINE SIGNALING.

Whether this defect can be eliminated or not, there is at hand to-day a very efficient system of signaling, whereby both the direction and distance between the sending and receiving stations can be estimated with sufficient accuracy for the purposes of navigation. This system is the so-called Submarine



THE RECEIVING TANK OF A SUBMARINE-BELL, ATTACHED TO THE INSIDE OF THE HULL, SHOWING CONNECTING WIRES.

Signal. As usually applied to a ship it consists simply of a receiving apparatus. There are two tanks of a few cubic feet capacity, each fastened to the "skin" of the ship, one on each side, near the bow. These tanks are filled with sea water, and in each of them a pair of microphones are suspended. These microphones connect with the pilot-house or bridge. The sending apparatus is a submerged bell, tuned to a high note. The sounds of this bell can be perceived at a distance of from eight to ten miles. It is a peculiar fact that water is a better and more trustworthy transmitter of sound than the air. The sound of a fog-horn will often be inaudible, even in still weather, at a distance of two or three miles, when its nominal range is eight or ten. The Submarine Signal is not liable to this disturbance. It has been installed, generally, as a receiving system, since the beginning of this century, on most of the large vessels in transatlantic service, and as a sending apparatus on light-ships both on this coast and in Europe. There is no reason why it should not be installed as a sounding apparatus on all ships where its use would enable vessels approaching each other in a fog to become aware of each other's approximate distance and bearing.

IMPROVEMENTS IN NAVIGATING APPARATUS.

Recent improvement in navigation, *i.e.*, determining the ship's position, consists mainly in the perfecting of apparatus. The oldest instrument of navigation is the compass, and its study and improvement are still going on. The old ship log has disappeared from the Atlantic steamship. Its place was first taken by the patent towing log, succeeded by special logs, in which the speed is obtained from the pressure of the water against the open end of a submerged pipe. A more careful observation and systematic recording of the revolutions of a screw form, perhaps, the most trustworthy method of determining a ship's position by dead reckoning.

Sounding machines to indicate the approach to shore are so perfect that soundings are taken without slowing the vessel. A very ingenious device in the nature of a submerged kite, whose submergence can be regulated at will, has been devised so as to ring a signal on striking bottom. This device has not, however, reached practical application to high speeds.

We hear much of the unsinkable ship, and it seems hard to think how some of the lat-

est productions of the shipbuilders could be sunk, and yet no ship is to-day probably safe against foundering from any thinkable combination of untoward conditions.

GREAT SERVICE OF THE WATER-TIGHT BULKHEADS.

The most efficient protection against foundering is internal subdivisions by water-tight bulkheads. In the well-known *Lusitania* and *Mauretania* this has been carried to an extreme. There are two fore and aft and three cross-ship bulkheads in the boiler space, and four cross-ship bulkheads and the coal bunker bulkheads, besides those in the boiler space. These spaces are the danger zone, not only on account of their size, but because their flooding puts the power-plant out of business.

With a subdivision carried to this extent means of access below the water-line between compartments is necessary, and the doors for this purpose must be capable of being closed under any condition. But few years ago this closing was done by hand. It is now done either by electricity, compressed air or hydraulic power.

Bearing in mind that the engine and boiler room force have no desire for a device that will either increase their arduous task or



OFFICER LISTENING TO SUBMARINE-SIGNALING APPARATUS.

(Signal can be heard for a distance of from three to twelve miles.)



APPARATUS FOR CLOSING WATER-TIGHT DOORS.

(Time required, twenty seconds, of which five seconds is consumed in ringing warning gongs. On board of one of the North German Lloyd Line steamships.)

coop them below decks without hope of escape in case of accident, and that it is always in man's power to render any mechanical device ineffective, any successful door closing system must not seriously obstruct the passages necessary for working the ship under normal conditions; must give some notice of its action; must close doors slowly, but with absolute surety; must allow of doors being opened by men below after having been closed from the bridge, and must automatically close them after such opening. If for any reason a door in a bilged compartment has not been closed from the bridge, it should close automatically before a dangerous amount of water can pass through.

All of these requirements are met on most if not all of our modern liners. Besides all these the actual closing of doors is shown by a tell-tale on the bridge, so that any failure is at once made known.

HOW MUCH "HARD USAGE" CAN A BULK-HEAD STAND?

The doors on the *Republic* worked properly, and their doing so undoubtedly saved many lives. What happened in her case



INDICATOR ON CAPTAIN'S BRIDGE, "LA PROVENCE."

(For enabling the officer in charge to see at a glance whether and what bulkhead doors are open or closed. When any of the doors are open, the number of such door on indicator is obscured instead of being plainly visible as in illustration.)

may happen again. It is doubtful whether any ship can absorb the energy due to the blow delivered by a weight of 10,000 to 20,000 tons moving at the speed of ten knots, without so dislocating her entire structure as to destroy the water-tightness of bulkheads and their doors. In such a case it is merely a question between the respective capacities of the hole in admitting and of the pumping plant in removing water. The chief engineer of the *Republic* is quoted as saying that two good pumps might have saved that ship.

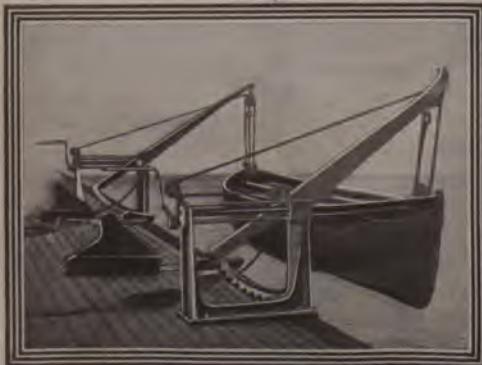
In the high power ships of to-day the amount of water pumped through the condensers becomes enormous. In the *Mauretania* it has been estimated at 300,000 gallons an hour at the normal speed of the cir-

culating pumps. These pumps can be speeded up and are fitted to draw from the bilges in case of need. Besides these, however, the bilge pumping outfit of a liner is capable of dealing with vast quantities, if it stays in commission, and therein lies the risk.

Much has been learned as to the necessary strength of water-tight bulkheads. The question does not lend itself very well to a purely mathematical discussion, but the investigations carried on by the bulkhead commission in England some ten years ago, and by the naval authorities of this and other countries, have given a mass of information from which the strength of the bulkheads can be very fairly determined, under the conditions of test; what the conditions after a collision may be is the question. It must be remembered that as ships grow in size the efficiency of the subdivision naturally increases, and the danger of such dislocation of a bulkhead as to cause leaking rapidly diminishes. In other words, mere increase in size, if accompanied by proper design and construction, furnishes an easy means of increasing safety.

THE MODERN LIFE-BOAT.

In spite, however, of all precautions, the best equipped modern ship may receive fatal injury either in collision or by grounding, and it may become necessary to take to the boats. In such a case, the requisites are an adequate supply of safe boats and satisfactory



THE QUADRANT DAVIT FOR LAUNCHING LIFE-BOATS.

means of launching them. As vessels naturally increase in size, a portion of such increase takes place by the addition of decks. The number of persons carried per square foot of water-line area increases, while the capacity for carrying boats does not increase in the same ratio.

Some comment was excited in the case of the *Republic*, on account of the fact that the boat equipment was not large enough to carry all persons on board. It is doubtful whether this is the case in any ship carrying a large number of passengers. The largest life-boats have a capacity of from forty to fifty people, and if the total complement be taken at 2400, it will be seen that from fifty to sixty of such boats will be required. The question arises how such an outfit of ordinary boats could be provided. The folding boat in its latest forms seems to meet this demand to some extent, but still leaves much to be desired, and life-rafts are difficult to handle. The ordinary life-boat of to-day is practically the same as for a number of years in the past. The means of launching the life-boat, however, have been improved.

The old davit had many drawbacks. Most modern ships are generally fitted with some improved type of apparatus for this purpose, as the Quadrant Davit, shown in the illustration. The boat can be more quickly lowered and takes the water further from the ship with this form of davit, than with the ordinary type. Both of these are important matters in getting the boat clear of the ship. Releasing gears of various types are now on the market, one of which is shown in the illustration.

LIFE-PRESERVERS AND BUOYS.

The loss of the *General Slocum* some years ago called special attention to the subject of life-preservers. While this apparatus is not likely to save many lives in collisions on the open sea, in the case of grounding it is probable that it would prove of value.

A modern type of life-preserver furnishes a much lighter and compact belt than those

of block cork, without any loss in floating power. Most ships are equipped with a device for projecting a line ashore in case of grounding, and for transferring passengers over it by means of the Breeches Buoy. Where this apparatus has been used it has demonstrated its efficiency to a remarkable degree. It has lately been adapted for use from a vessel, and a Revenue Cutter thus fitted is now stationed on the Pacific Coast. The general adoption of such a means is one of the possibilities of life-saving in the future.

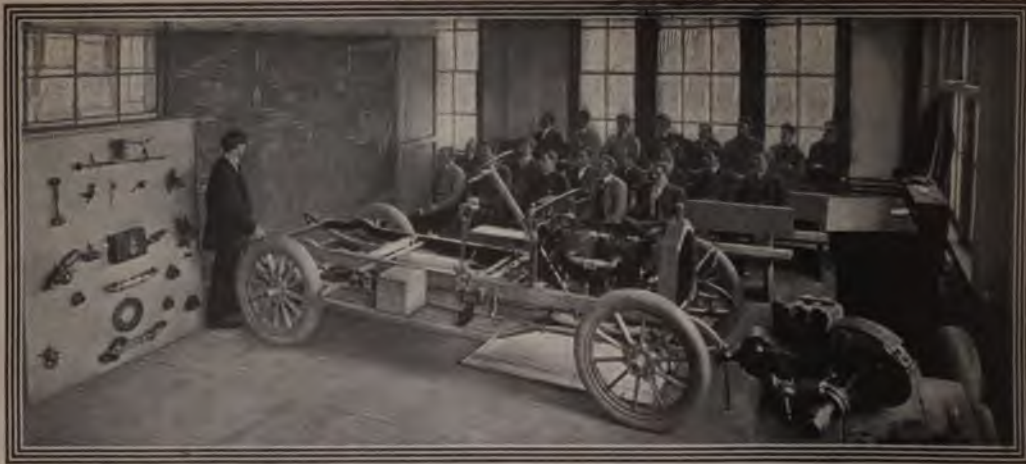
Until the full official report on the loss of the *Republic* is published it will be unsafe to



FIRE DRILL ON ONE OF THE GERMAN EXPRESS STEAMERS.

venture any final opinions upon the question of whether the conditions existing in her case were as severe as any ship is likely to meet with. It is also premature to venture views upon the reasons of her foundering. It must be remembered, however, that she was a modern ship of large size, designed and built by competent engineers of the highest reputation, and handled with skill and bravery. Lessons will undoubtedly be derived from the experience in this case. How far, however, changes in construction and design could have prevented her loss must, for the present, remain a matter of uncertainty.

There is no doubt that the ship was well handled, and it is well in closing to draw attention to the fact that, however perfect life-saving apparatus may be, its value greatly depends on the men working it.



SCHOOL FOR THE INSTRUCTION OF CHAUFFEURS.

THE MOTOR CAR AND ITS OWNER.

BY E. RALPH ESTEP.

FOURTEEN years ago a pertinacious inventor won the first motor vehicle contest in this country, which was really an experiment to see if motor vehicles could run at all. The history of said inventor is the epic of any pioneer. He has seen the motor car as a broad invention, an experiment, a sport, a pastime, a stylish affectation, and, at last, taken seriously for what it is,—the modern vehicle.

There are about 150,000 automobiles in the United States. They are all kinds of cars and belong to all kinds of people. There is no longer an automobile clan, any more than there is a horse-and-buggy brotherhood. The automobile has established itself as an every-day vehicle, but the public has not adapted itself to the automobile. The dear public took up a fad and has found itself taken up by a habit. It is just learning the game. The game is just becoming a custom.

Meantime the public, as a whole, is learning its duty to the motor car by fitting itself to new conditions of living. Instead of cursing the automobile, which occupies that part of the street bounded on the east by the curb and on the west by the trolley car, the intelligent citizen now has learned the trick of dropping off a street-car with his feet going forward while his eyes are looking backward.

Motor cars are now, by variety of types and prices, pretty well adjusted to immediate needs. The public's adjustment to

motor cars cannot be upon a wholesale basis. Each individual and each family has its own peculiar problems in making the motor car an integral part of the household economy.

The family which can afford a stable of cars may use three or more to good advantage. There is the limousine or landaulet replacing inclosed or semi-inclosed horse-drawn carriages for general town driving; there is the runabout for the man or woman who wishes either a convenient city or country car for personal driving, with the chauffeur,—if he is carried at all,—placed in the tiger seat, and, finally, of the typical equipment, there is the touring car, for general country work in which it is necessary to carry a party and baggage.

The standard touring car, with its big tonneau, which may hold from three to five persons, a dozen bundles, and the family children, is, more correctly, a utility car. Compromised between the extremes, with some of the features of all other types of motor cars, it is the old reliable for the man or family that wants but one automobile. It is a fair-weather vehicle for boulevard and park driving; for shopping and for business trips about town. With its cape cart top and wind-shield, it becomes the people's limousine. Loaded with a batch of Joneses or Smiths, it is the vehicle of countless week-end jaunts. Filled with persons of itinerant instincts, it annihilates the map and brings the

hills of New Hampshire close to the meadows of Maryland. It is the infallible friend of politicians, press agents, stage managers, yellow journalists, magazine editors, and other students of the human-interest game.

THE TRAINING OF CHAUFFEURS.

Whether a man buys one car of moderate cost for all kinds of driving, or whether he buys a stable full of high-priced cars of different types for special purposes, his education in motoring begins and ends with the word chauffeur. It is easy enough to be one's own chauffeur if inclination and circumstances dictate such a proceeding. There is less to learn than when chauffeurs are hired. The employer has not only to learn what a chauffeur should do, but he also has to learn the chauffeur who is doing it. That is one reason why many men of sense are making chauffeurs instead of buying them ready made.

The instructor of one of the largest schools of motor instruction in the country says that 50 per cent. of his pupils are old coachmen, sent by their employers to learn how to drive the new carriages. They make good chauffeurs, too. The simple reason is that, while they may not be blessed with a great amount of mechanical knowledge, they know what a vehicle is, what it is for, and that it should be treated seriously.

The same testimony is given by one of the large automobile manufacturing companies, which has established a chauffeurs' school. This school makes chauffeurs out of any kind of material that purchasers of cars may ship in. Most of the material, and the best in a general way, is comprised of coachmen, old and young. They have had experience in caring for fine carriages. They know how to drive on city streets. They are anxious to make good in the care of fine automobiles. Consequently they are painstaking and, in most cases, apt pupils.

All of these chauffeurs' schools teach a principle that is just as important to the private owner who drives and cares for his car without a chauffeur's assistance as it is to the professional driver,—or to the man who employs a chauffeur,—that it is more important to learn how to properly maintain a car than it is to learn how to drive it.

The students are carefully taught how a car is made and why. They are taught the meaning and function of every piece. They are shown the difference between the trivial things and those of vital importance. They

tear the car down and put it together. They learn its anatomy thoroughly. They are taught the most common causes of mechanical trouble and how to remedy them. They are made to respect the car as they would any other piece of machinery, and are impressed with the fact that a little work in advance means the prevention of many, if not most, of the ordinary ailments from which the cars of the careless suffer. Finally, they are given a few lessons in driving, particularly devoted to the proper handling of the car and the mediums of control, such as the speed-change levers. They are told what a driver should do and what he should not do; how to drive a car to get the greatest efficiency, and what works for economy, safety, and comfort. Proficiency in driving they may learn by experience, which is mileage.

There is no school that will make a careful driver out of a reckless one. The only way to teach a new driver how to drive himself out of tight places is to get him to follow the example of the best drivers, whose cleverness lies in staying out of tight places.

The man who is his own chauffeur and teaches himself gets the best fun and greatest pleasure out of motoring when he educates himself along the same lines. Driving he can readily learn. His first aim should be to master enough of the mechanics of his car to save himself the annoyance and expense of trouble arising from neglect and abuse.

When the chauffeur's work is considered only as a job of driving, the man who has a professional chauffeur and the man who has no chauffeur are in the same fix. The first chauffeurs were drivers. The fascinations of driving an automobile pulled many young men into the calling without proper qualification. The improvement of automobiles and the improvement of chauffeurs have worked together for the welfare of the motorist. The chauffeur with sporting proclivities who loves a steering wheel and hates an oil can is a creature of the incipient days. The owners had to have chauffeurs. The demand made possible the breed that has bred trouble. Now owners are mastering their chauffeurs in more ways than one and mastering the chauffeur's educational needs.

MOTORING IN CITY AND COUNTRY.

Too few people apparently distinguish between town driving and country touring. When one motor car is used for both, it must be a compromise. It is not fair to the automobile to purchase a car which is merely a

city vehicle and expect it to perform as well on the roads as a car made strictly for touring. A more common and equally bad mistake is to imagine that great differences in price may be disregarded in service. In buying an automobile, just the same as in buying anything else, the customer gets what he pays for. A very cheap, small car will not do what a large, high-priced car will do. It may be that the former is fully capable of the work which the buyer wishes it to do and is the right rig to get. On the other hand, the roads have been worn full of ruts by persons who bought low-priced, light automobiles and then tried to emulate the motoring style of the owners of large, high-power cars. Overloading, overspeeding, and all other kinds of overworking have been the direct causes of unreasonable expense. The same principle applies to the use of more costly cars. Their up-keep is what one makes it. Even in the case of the biggest gamble, tires, careful driving has much to do with the result in dollars and cents.

The trade also has been responsible for many false impressions by overestimating its own goods. The purchaser who can afford several cars may have the greater comfort and style of cars built expressly for town service by breaking away from the recent fad of using extremely high-power, large, racing-type cars for city driving. Room to carry passengers comfortably will be more and more in demand as customers learn more about the radical difference between city and country motoring.

THE PROBLEM OF THE GARAGE.

In a large city the garage problem is as hard as any other metropolitan problem which is based on high real-estate values. In the smaller cities the factors are merely architectural and commercial. Already great advancement has been made in the incorporation of private garages in residence property, while general garages maintained in residential districts have become common. These garages now supply drivers by the hour for those who do not wish the entire services of a chauffeur. In the country the garage question is a matter of individual requirements, extending from the mere housing of the car

in a horse barn or carriage shed to the most elaborate private garage. The country garage, under any circumstances, is an easy question. Its two most notable considerations are heating in winter and the maintenance of a supply of gasoline and lubricating oil. The horse barn has not proved to be a good garage. Cars of some colors will turn color if kept in a horse stable, on account of the fumes.

THE SCIENCE OF TOURING.

Learning to tour is an educational matter that has been neglected. Too many automobilists have acquired the desire to go without having learned how to travel. Extensive tours have a broadening influence. They teach people how to take things as they are. The first long trip of the amateur tourist is often a failure. He expects too much, takes too much, or works too much, to get the full enjoyment out of the journey.

The hard-and-fast schedule, with predetermined eating stations, may be all right in railway procedure. The joy of motoring is freedom from the trammels of other kinds of travel. This means freedom from baggage, dress, conventionality, and time-tables. The road that everybody takes is dusty. Each year thousands of families learn that there is a great new kind of pleasure in driving about on unaccustomed highways, among unaccustomed sights. Hundreds of American families now take their motor cars to Europe for tours of from 5000 to 10,000 miles, which get them closer into touch with the old world than would be possible in any other way. One family has crossed the continent from the Pacific to the Atlantic Coast, a feat previously accomplished only by factory drivers.

There is a good way to tour and a good way to use an automobile as a town carriage. Knowing the distinction is a great part of knowing each. The rest of the knowledge is partly common sense and partly getting the proper focus on the mechanics, up-keep, and driving of a car under the circumstances which govern individual experience. The best information is not in books. It is on the road and in repair bills that are studied with careful consideration of cause and effect.

THE EPOCH OF ROOSEVELT.

BY JUDSON C. WELLIVER.

LOOKING back over the seven and a half years of Roosevelt's Presidency, the effort to summarize and appraise its work must be introduced with the recognition that only four years of it have been his very own. It is useless to speculate how much different it might have been if it had all been Roosevelt. Almost half of it was pledged to the policies of another man; it might be called diluted Rooseveltism, or McKinleyism with the Roosevelt personality superimposed.

Never until Roosevelt had a man stepped from the Vice-Presidency to the Presidency by reason of the death of the chief executive, and been able thereafter to succeed himself through a popular election. The effort of one man to execute the policies and guarantees of another, in a place surrounding him with so many difficulties, had seemed so nearly impossible that it had become a truism of politics that the man who inherited the Presidency thereby lost all chance of winning it. With this historic experience in mind, and with recognition of the tremendous difference between the Roosevelt and McKinley personalities, it must be conceded that, whatever success he has had, however he may have commended himself to his countrymen, one of the greatest achievements of Roosevelt has been this of succeeding in the footsteps of another. Perhaps it was better for Roosevelt and for the country that the necessities of his position as providential heir to McKinley compelled modification and moderation of the real Roosevelt during the first term. It gave him opportunity to feel out his position, to learn its powers and limitations, to study the instruments with which he must work, to test the national mind, and determine by easy advances how far the people were willing to go with him along the course which he knew was laid out for him, but on which he was not yet free to enter save tentatively and experimentally.

THE M'KINLEY INHERITANCE.

Roosevelt recognized that his administration must be a continuation of McKinley's. The country had chosen McKinley's policies and his methods; twice chosen them, and therefore doubly approved them. Roosevelt

kept the faith his party had pledged to the nation, as nearly as it was in one man to do another's work in that other's way. It may have irked his eager soul at times, but he did not tire of it. The contrast between the free and independent Roosevelt of the last four years, and the Roosevelt of the first administration, is the proof of the man's real capacity for self-control and continence. Inheriting the McKinley cabinet, he worked with it smoothly and naturally. There was no evidence of jar or friction; changes came only as naturally and inevitably as they would have come had McKinley remained at the head of the council board. For the patience, care, and earnestness with which he adapted himself to the obligations of his position, he was rewarded with an election, in his own right, by a majority three times the greatest ever before polled. And at the end of this new lease of power in his own name and right, wielded in his own way, he was so strong with the country that he could refuse the renomination that needed only the word of willingness, and induce the party and the country to accept his advice in choosing his successor.

TARIFF REVISION AS AN INSTANCE.

So the Roosevelt régime falls into two periods, the administration of the McKinley inheritance, and the conduct of the political estate in Roosevelt's own right. Just one instance will serve to show how studiously in that earlier period Roosevelt avoided getting out of bounds. In his last public address, at Buffalo, President McKinley flung out the banner of tariff reform. He declared that the period of exclusiveness was past, and sounded the keynote of what he intended should be the policy of his second administration, in a declaration for tariff reform. It was a startling development; one which could not fail to coincide with the personal preferences of Roosevelt. Yet, with this plan of McKinley's exposed to him,—a plan he cordially approved,—Roosevelt held back from attempt at revising the tariff because of his determination to err if at all on the side of moderation in the effort to live by the rule that his predecessor would have followed.

Many believe that McKinley, had he lived, would have given us long ago the tariff reform on which we are now entering.

READJUSTMENT OF BUSINESS STANDARDS.

But, while this part of McKinley's program was postponed, Roosevelt ushered in a period of wonderfully varied and wide-reaching effort at readjustment of conditions. It has been a time in which people have thought farther into their social and economic problems than they are commonly willing to do. This is perhaps the first service of Roosevelt to the country: he set it thinking. He led it to change its mind about a good many things. He clarified its ideas, and he improved its ideals. He preached away at a doctrine, almost new when he began expounding it, of moral leaven in business. He began the movement as a citizen, urging and advising and teaching; he continued it as executive, administrator, and constructive statesman. He preached his crusade first, and later he put on the armor and led the crusading hosts. His influence as the preacher of a better community and business morality is certain to be projected as a potent force after he leaves public place. He has convinced the community that many things which used to be looked upon as a trifle dubious in strict morals, but on the whole legitimate enough because "that was the way of business," cannot be exempted from judgment by moral standards. He brought the public mind to believe there was need of a rehearing before rendering a final decree of divorce between business and conscience. He brought business to a new and stricter accountability at the bar of community thought. Even the severest critics of the President grant that he has been a real leader in this moral upward movement, and that, however some of his other activities may be regarded, he has in this deserved the recognition and approval of all well-intentioned citizens.

GOVERNMENT'S CHANGED ATTITUDE TOWARD CORPORATIONS.

Along with this moral contribution, President Roosevelt has made a contribution of the greatest significance to the educational movement which has been changing opinion about the proper relation of the State to its creatures, the corporations. The fact that the State cannot endow its corporate offspring with souls, has been developed into an argument for the alternative, which the Presi-

dent has conceived to be rigorous supervision and control of their methods. Time was when the State commissioned the corporation to go out and deal and make money; if there were complaint against its derelictions the State pleaded irresponsibility, and the public rather cynically accepted the plea and admitted that the case was hopeless. In this regard there has been a change. The corporation is not granted immunity from moral obligation, and the State is not permitted to avoid its responsibility for its creature. Nowadays instead of standing aloof the State has a way of setting the Bureau of Corporations at work to get the facts, or the Interstate Commerce Commission to investigate, or the Department of Justice to start a prosecution. The public mind has been made up in favor of government shouldering responsibility for its creatures, and laying the heavy hand of authority on offenders.

This new view of government's responsibility has made the government service more attractive to men with motive of real service. It has made them more willing to go into politics, to hold office, to help in administering the laws. There has been a larger view of the opportunities of public service. It has been the effort of the national administration to give substantial support to movements it indorsed, and so there has been presented the spectacle of the President using his personal and political influence to back the policies of Hughes in New York, to sustain Heney in his fight on San Francisco graft, and to ferret out and punish corruption in Pittsburg. Strictly within its own sphere, the national Government has pursued the despoilers of the public domain, has prosecuted great combinations of capital found violating the law, and has treated the combination of labor just as it has treated that of capital. "I have no use for the sort of public man who is always arrayed against wealth because it is wealth, or in favor of capital because it is capital," said the President on one occasion. "I distrust the man who takes any other attitude than that of opposing capital when it is wrong, and just as vigorously opposing labor when it is wrong."

More or less disconcerting shock was unavoidable in some quarters when the Roosevelt policy toward corporate offenders began clearly to develop. One day the Attorney-General filed suit to dissolve a great combination accused of violating the Anti-Trust law. There was wonderment and conster-

nation, and one of the chief backers of the attacked interest hurried to Washington to protest.

"Why was it not possible, Mr. President," he asked, "to notify me before taking this public action?"

The President explained that was not the method of doing government business, and that it was not possible to make an exception in a particular case.

"But isn't it possible to fix this thing up?" urged the capitalist.

"How? What do you mean?" asked the President, puzzled.

"I mean, can't my lawyer see your Attorney-General, and undertake to effect an adjustment without a lawsuit?"

"Quite impossible," replied the President. "The matter is now in the courts and will have to be decided by them." The case was fought out in the courts, resulting in one of the most important victories the Government has won in its effort to establish its right to control great corporations and combinations.

REGULATION VERSUS PREVENTION.

The earlier period of Rooseveltism was marked by a series of determined attacks on the big combinations, in the effort to stop the tendency to consolidations by application of the Anti-Trust act. But latterly there has been less of this; and the explanation really marks one of the most significant developments of the administration. The President became convinced that in the nature of things combination and concentration must go on. Prevention he considered impossible, even if desirable. Therefore he turned to the alternative of establishing government supervision and regulation of combinations; of making them good, instead of destroying them. His co-operation with the Civic Federation in the attempt to develop a satisfactory bill for amendment of the Sherman law along these lines has brought small results as yet, but it has directed attention to a line of policy which is assured increasing consideration as the discussion of these problems continues.

SPECTACULAR ACHIEVEMENTS.

There has been much of the spectacular, the dramatic, in the Roosevelt procedure. The striking, picturesque things make deeper impression than the plodding drudgery of effort at better administration or at development of sound policies in legislation. How much of the spectacular there has been is il-

lustrated by the result of an effort to get four students of affairs to express their opinions as to the largest achievement of the administration.

"Reawakening the public conscience," said one.

"The peace between Japan and Russia," insisted the second.

"The movement for conservation of natural resources," said the third.

"Curbing the corporations," proposed the fourth.

In the effort to referee the dispute these additional paramount achievements were proposed by other observers:

The acquisition of the Panama Canal and the assurance that it will be successfully constructed.

The establishment of the United States in the first rank of powers and the assumption of accompanying responsibilities which was announced by sending the fleet around the world.

The inauguration of a new era in the relations of the Three Americas by bringing the Latin-American countries to understand and have confidence in the good intentions of the United States.

The settlement of the anthracite strike.

On the day when this fruitless inquiry was made the man who was its subject was engaged in riding 108 miles on horseback in order to demonstrate that a regulation requiring an army officer to ride ninety miles in three days wasn't unreasonable or impossible. The next day he sent a characteristic message to Congress in the forenoon and in the afternoon explained to a delegation of college boys his admiration for clean, vigorous athletics.

MAINTAINING THE WORLD'S PEACE.

Roosevelt has made a peculiar appeal to the imagination of Europe; and explanation of this may be found in a contemplation of the wide range of his undertakings in the field of international affairs. Some of the biggest of them are as yet little known to the world; others are almost unremembered because more recent ones have crowded in upon attention.

All the world knows how the President initiated the movement for peace between Japan and Russia, which brought the treaty of Portsmouth and ended the war in Manchuria. Not so many know the significance of his part in preventing a European war over the rival pretensions of France and Ger-

many in Morocco. At the time when those two powers were straining at the leashes, and war seemed possibly a matter of hours, President Roosevelt tendered the good offices of the United States, became an intermediary among the powers directly and indirectly concerned, and initiated the move which made the Algeiras conference possible. There was protest against the United States being represented there; protest from some Americans who saw in it a transgression of the ancient doctrine of aloofness from old-world quarrels. But in truth it was in a peculiar way the United States' affair; and it saved the peace of the world.

OUR RELATIONS WITH LATIN AMERICA.

It was the President who conceived sending Secretary Root and a delegation of appealing personnel to the Pan-American Congress at Rio de Janeiro. South American countries had long misunderstood the Monroe Doctrine, interpreting it as the attempt of this country to maintain a sort of mild suzerainty over the other nations of the Americas. Commerce with the Latin-American countries was mainly controlled by Europe, and their sentiments were far from friendly to us. The time and circumstances were propitious for an appeal to a better understanding, and Secretary Root and his colleagues succeeded in that appeal. Relations have been better, and commercial conditions have shown improvement as a result. The work done at Rio was but a beginning; its effects will go on for generations.

RESPONSIBILITIES IN SANTO DOMINGO.

In the Santo Domingo fiscal arrangement, the United States assumed a financial guardianship of the Dominican republic, assuring on one side that it would pay its foreign debts without complications, and on the other that it would cease to be harrassed with revolutions. The national revenues were placed where they could not become a bone of factitious contention, and there was left neither the inspiration nor the means for carrying further the series of revolutions which had been almost a continuous performance. It established for good or ill the precedent of American fiscal supervision in like cases for the little republics to the south.

FURTHERING THE SETTLEMENT OF INTERNATIONAL DISPUTES.

When the Hague international peace movement had fallen into disrepute after the

Russo-Japanese War, it was President Roosevelt who initiated the effort to reinstate it. He issued invitations in the name of the United States to another peace parliament to reaffirm the work of the first parliament, in 1899, and strengthen it. The Czar later indicated that, as prime mover in the first convention, he had been intending to call a second. Whereupon the United States' invitations were withdrawn and the parliament of 1905 was held on the invitations of Russia.

Arbitration treaties with practically all the countries except Russia and Germany have been made, providing for arbitration at the Hague of all save matters of honor and of vital interest. These pacts are alike a guarantee of our own peace and an example to other nations. Like arrangements with Germany and Russia are under negotiation.

Following the Manchurian War, conditions in the Far East were fundamentally changed. The United States under Roosevelt's leadership stepped in and led in establishing new guarantees of the open door and the territorial entity of China, all the powers acquiescing. More recently the complications between the United States and Japan have been adjusted through the Root-Takahira exchange of notes, which has been accepted by the diplomatic world as a most enlightened and sane arrangement between two nations anxious that their field of friction be reduced to a minimum, and that breach of the peace be made, so nearly as might be, impossible.

It was the interest of Mr. Roosevelt likewise which started the movement for the international opium conference now in session at Shanghai. The need of prohibiting or controlling this traffic was suggested to the President by Bishop Brent, of the Philippines; the international conference was the President's idea. Preliminary to this development, inquiry in this country developed startling evidence that the opium habit was vastly more common and menacing than had been dreamed.

When Argentina and Chile were fast approaching warlike conditions, the words of calming counsel which started matters toward understanding and finally assurance of peace, were Mr. Roosevelt's words. Later, when Brazil and Argentina were on the point of hostilities over the Uruguayan question it was again the President of the United States who helped them find a way out with peace and honor.

Under Mr. Root's management at the

State Department, all the questions between the United States and Canada have been settled,—the Newfoundland fisheries dispute, the Alaskan fur seal affair, the Alaska and other boundary differences, the question of preserving, yet utilizing Niagara, the problem of armaments on the Great Lakes, the use of water from the lakes for power and artificial means of navigation.

It is not easy to realize to-day that only a few years ago relations between the United States and Germany were threatening, and that war seemed altogether possible. By dint in the main of personal relations with the Emperor, leading to establishment first of a personal and then of a national better understanding, all this has been changed. The adjustment of matters in our customs administration which had amounted to grievances to Germany, was accomplished with advantage to us commercially, and to the satisfaction of the Germans. The rapid increase of the American naval power was not without influence in connection with relations with both Germany and Japan.

American Jews will not forget the efforts of Mr. Roosevelt to induce Russia and Roumania to ameliorate their condition. The President received a great petition addressed to the question of treatment of the Jews in Russia, and through diplomatic channels asked the Russian Government if it would be willing to accept the petition. The note of inquiry by the American Government contained the substance of the petition. Russia politely declined to accept a petition thus relating to a matter of purely internal administration; but the moral effect was secured, and it was good.

The President has taken active and persistent interest in behalf of better conditions in the Congo Free State. Castro has been eliminated in the vexing Venezuelan situation through a plan of Dutch intervention which would have been impossible without the acquiescence of the Washington Government. Relations with Colombia and the Panama Republic are well on the way to satisfactory readjustment, following the Panama revolution and secession which made it possible to secure a route for the Isthmian Canal. Cuba has been occupied and pacified, saved from civil war, and started anew on the difficult path of self-government. The world has been given a good example of national faith-keeping in this performance. In the Philippines administration has been securely established, peace guaranteed, and

the beginnings made on a program looking to final self-government. The gratitude of China has been earned by returning a large share of the indemnity awarded to this country for its part in suppressing the Boxer uprising. And, finally, the battle fleet has toured the world, carrying America's olive branch and incidentally giving suggestive display of American power.

ARMY REFORM.

All this is not a list, a catalogue, of accomplishments in the field of international and colonial activity. It is far from complete. Turning to another department of the Administration, the army shows the effects of like industry and energy. The lessons of the Spanish war brought, with Roosevelt, the movement to inaugurate the general staff, for which the law was passed on February 14, 1903, and took effect in May of that year. Roosevelt was the father of the general staff movement, and Root worked out the system.

The coast and field artillery have been separated by law, and each is now highly specialized. Formerly officers served alternately in one and the other. Both have been strengthened in men and armament, so that the guns are efficiently armed. Increase in the corps of engineers and in the ordnance department has been authorized, the cavalry and infantry having previously been increased. The medical department has been reorganized into the medical corps, and a medical reserve of civilian physicians and surgeons established, which may be called upon for service in time of need. Their service is optional, but the majority would go to the field if needed.

One important part of military policy has been rapid abandonment of small army posts and concentration of the troops in larger bodies at great posts near the centers of population. Better experience is thus given to the men, drilling in greater bodies; and they are more available for emergencies because transportation is more ample. There has been an increase in the pay of the service. All officers, save the lieutenant-general and second lieutenants, have had \$500 annually added to their salaries. The enlisted men, especially the noncommissioned officers, have been given the encouragement of advances, which in case of some of the noncommissioned officers amounted to doubling their pay, thus affording new inducement to veterans to reenlist and encouraging improvement of dis-

cipline and *esprit*. This pay legislation was especially the work of the President.

The arms and accoutrements have been vastly improved, the new Springfield rifle being widely regarded as the best infantry weapon in the world. The rations of the army have been bettered. Arrangement has been made, by law, for annexing the militia of the States to the regular service, so that it may be called into the field as a second line of national defense without a word of legislation save provision of money; and there is planned a scheme of establishing a great third line, a volunteer force subject to call, which would make it possible to place 2,000,000 of men in the field in event of a tremendous conflict.

NAVAL DEVELOPMENT.

The navy has developed vastly more in force, under the impulse of the President's interest, than has the army; while in effectiveness and efficiency per unit it has improved at least as much. The nominal fighting power has been approximately doubled during the Roosevelt Presidency, but the actual efficiency has increased more, because of improved organization, continuous practice in gunnery, and the experience gained by the cruise around the world. The United States has been advanced to a secure second position along the powers in naval strength. For this the President has had a continuous struggle with the opposition in Congress. A year ago, demanding four new battleships, he got two and a promise of making two each year the rule of the future. This year he again asked four and got only two. But these are authorized to be of tonnage, speed, and power equal to the largest building for any navy in the world, putting them entirely out of the class of any vessels heretofore built for our navy. They will probably be of approximately 26,000 tons, and armed entirely with fourteen-inch guns, vastly more powerful than the twelve-inch rifles now used. This increase in the power of the new units represents a much larger addition to fighting force than is suggested by the mere number of vessels to be added. It means moreover, an announcement of this country's purpose to maintain its present rank among naval powers, while the world-cruise is construed by all naval authorities as preliminary to the definite establishment of the two-ocean naval policy which shall make both coasts equally secure from attack.

During the Roosevelt régime two battleships have been laid down in the Government

yards, establishing the policy of keeping one fighting ship of the first type at all times under Government construction. Officers and men alike, in the navy, have been given substantial increases in their pay. The Government has built a powder factory at Indian Head, where the best quality of powder is produced at forty-five cents per pound, against sixty-seven formerly paid to private enterprise for the same explosive. This plant will be enlarged in the near future so it will have its capacity doubled and be enabled to produce two-thirds of the navy's powder supply. Likewise there has been established a Government torpedo factory at Newport. The enlarged naval academy at Annapolis has been put into commission, and the number of cadets greatly increased. A naval training station for the lakes has been established on Lake Michigan.

One signal and characteristic policy of the Administration has been to encourage, rather than suppress, criticism of the construction of American fighting craft and of the navy organization. Convinced for a long time that the navy organization is imperfect in many directions, the President has been more than willing that the public should become familiar with its weaknesses. The agitation for establishment of a general staff has been pressed vigorously, the President having within a few weeks appointed a special volunteer commission of naval and civilian authorities to make a thorough study of the whole science of naval administration and report what is needed to perfect our own defense afloat. There have been outbreaks of virulent criticism of the seaworthiness and fighting quality of the big ships, and these have been answered with some modifications of type and detail; especially in the adoption of the policy of building much larger ships. But in the matter of general seaworthiness and efficiency, the tour of the world has been a thorough vindication of the naval material.

GOVERNMENT SPENDING MORE MONEY.

It has come to cost over a billion a year to run the Government. Great expenses have been incurred for navy, army, fortifications, public buildings, increase of the postal service, river and harbor improvements, the reclamation service, and all the manifold operations of the Government. The policy of reclamation of the arid lands, of bringing the wasted waters to the wastes of arid plains, has added what already is assuming the proportions of a small empire, to the useful area

of the country. Forest reserves have been created of a vast area, as well as reserves to preserve the birds and beasts indigenous to the continent. In all its multiplied activities the Government has immensely increased its expenditures. For the current fiscal year they are \$1,008,397,452.56. It seems and indeed is but a few years since the extravagance of a billion-dollar Congress became a national issue; now every session is a billion-dollar session. The functions and activities of the administrative departments have grown accordingly. Yet despite the increase in expenditures there was a growing surplus in the revenues until the depression began in the later months of 1907, since which time there has been a deficit.

The bank panic of 1907 forced a series of difficult problems upon the Administration, resulting among other things in the passage of the Aldrich-Vreeland currency measure, designed to provide means for issue of emergency circulation and to introduce an increased measure of elasticity into the money system. This was an emergency measure, and its efficacy is suggested by the statement that not a dollar of currency has been issued under it. The assurance of the opportunity to make such issues removed the conditions requiring them. A currency commission has been established by law, which is engaged in an exhaustive study of money systems with a view to revision of the currency and improvement of the banking system.

THE GREAT "CONSERVATION" MOVEMENT.

The movement for conservation of natural resources was a logical development from the experience of the Interior Department in administering the public domain. It was found that tremendous frauds had been perpetrated, through which private interests had possessed themselves of a large part of the public lands, especially those rich in metals, minerals, and forests. Prosecutions have been carried on unrelentingly against these practices, and many convictions have been secured, some of the prosecutions reaching into the highest places in the Government. Large areas have been deeded back to the Government; larger ones have been withdrawn from the privilege or entry, while the forest and geological services have made appraisals of the wealth they contain, with a view to preventing the Government being further looted.

The President, impressed with the rapid disappearance of forests and consumption of

coal, called a Conservation Congress, to which the Governors of the States were invited. This gathering set on foot the practical movement for preservation and restoration of natural resources. An international conference of representatives of Canada, the United States, and Mexico on this same subject, with the view to co-operation in a continental movement of conservation, has been held, as one of the last big accomplishments of the Roosevelt Administration. Parallel to this movement and closely related to it is that for systematic development of waterways as a means of cheap transportation. Only very recently the President has informed Congress of the evidence in his possession, indicating the existence of something like a trust aiming to control and monopolize the water powers, and, distributing their energy electrically, to come into substantial control of the future power of the country. Measures designed thoughtlessly to give away control of this power have been vetoed, and Congress has been urged to establish effective national control of these powers.

NEW ACTIVITIES OF GOVERNMENT.

Under Roosevelt one new department,—that of Commerce and Labor,—has been added to the machinery of administration, and another, that of Agriculture, has been built up from small beginnings to large utility and practical value. The Department of Agriculture has introduced and popularized science in the industries of the soil; it has scoured all the continents for varieties of plant life which might be useful here. It has led in better farming methods, has carried on scientific experimentation in breeding and growing of plants and animals, and has gradually been invested with large powers. The pure food law is administered through it, and so is the national meat inspection law. These two pieces of legislation are accomplishments of the Roosevelt era, each being the fruit of a hard fight against determined opposition.

The Department of Commerce and Labor has been created to give the Government an instrument for exercising supervision over the great aggregations which modern conditions inevitably develop in both capital and labor. Under it is the Bureau of Corporations, designed to gather information concerning these organizations. It has conducted many investigations, which have developed information of practical advantage to the nation.

The Postoffice Department has greatly widened the range of its service through extension of rural free delivery, till now that service reaches many millions of the rural population who formerly were miles from postal facilities. Two-cent postage has been placed on an international basis as between the United States and several countries, and will be further extended so fast as treaties can be perfected. The President has given his enthusiastic backing to proposals for widening the functions of the postal department to include the postal bank and the parcels post.

The powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission have been increased through the passage of the Hepburn and Anti-Rebate laws, and the principle of governmental power to control rates and charges and enforce publicity of accounting and financial operations has been established. A uniform system of accounting, with the necessary measure of publicity, has been provided and imposed upon the interstate carriers. Further advance along these lines has been strongly recommended by the President.

The settlement of the anthracite strike was essentially the personal achievement of the President. It developed recognition of the public's interest in such quarrels of labor and capital, and showed the public's as the real paramount interest. Conciliation in labor disputes has been established as a most efficient means for administering the ounce of prevention of such disorders. When some of the railroad systems proposed to initiate reductions of wages after the period of depression had set in, the President took vigorous steps which stayed their hands; and the result is that as to these great employers, whose wage scales have influence everywhere, there has been no reduction, despite that in other periods of depression the wage scales have always suffered early.

There has been inaugurated a detailed inquiry into the condition of women and child workers; a child labor law has been passed for the District of Columbia as a model for the States; a federal employers' liability law has been passed; and another act defining the liability of the Government to its own employees who may be injured, and opening a way for them to get redress.

MR. ROOSEVELT'S PERSONAL ACHIEVEMENTS.

Two great and picturesque feats have been the personal accomplishments of the President. One is the Russo-Japanese peace, the other the purchase of the Panama Canal, and the settlement of the riddle of centuries at the Isthmus; the adjustment of international difficulties, the organization of the great construction force, and the half-completion of the canal itself. The story of the peace in the Far East does not need be recounted; the world knows it. It ended a war in which the greatest armies of modern times, at least, had met in some of the most terrific battles; and it ended it in a fashion in which diplomacy agreed the initiative of no other man could have done it.

As he goes from the executive chair, Mr. Roosevelt leaves many things long to be remembered as representing his beginnings. He has roused public interest and attention in many subjects which must be disposed of without his assistance. He has had time to finish few things; but he has begun many which others must carry forward. In his determined, insistent way he has in truth piled up business for those who will come after; he has cut out work which they will not be able to avoid, even if they might wish. And his beginnings will keep his own era of personal activity in mind of legislators and administrators who for decades will be wrestling with the troubles he stirred up, but didn't have time to solve.



LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

ARMIES, THE REAL PEACE PROMOTERS.

MORE than a hundred years have passed since Washington, in a speech to the Houses of Congress, voiced his opinion that "to be prepared for war is one of the most effectual means of preserving peace"; and still the dictum holds good. Peace societies, national and universal in the scope of their operations, have come into existence; peace congresses have convened, deliberated, and adjourned; poets in prophetic vision have seen a time when "the war-drum throbbed no longer, and the battle-flags were furled"; but the regrettable fact remains that armies are being increased, battleships are being multiplied, guns are being made more formidable, and even prizes are offered for the invention of new engines of destruction on the earth and in the air. In a word, the nations seem to have tacitly agreed that their best security against war is preparation for war. This is the tenor of an instructive article in the December *Chautauquan* by Col. William Conant Church, editor of the *Army and Navy Journal*. Colonel Church gives some interesting statistics relating to the efforts toward "preserving peace" which are being made by various countries. Take ourselves, for instance. Prior to the war with Spain our navy was of such inferiority as to exclude it from any table of the principal navies of the world. To-day it has attained to second place.

In 1881 we had in our navy forty-seven screw propellers and six other steam vessels; twenty-four ironclads, including monitors; two torpedo boats and twenty-five tugs. Of this total only fifty-seven were in efficient service. The number of guns was 1933. We had, altogether, 9538 officers and men in the navy, besides 1577 in the marine corps. In November, 1907, we had 294 vessels, not including twenty-nine under construction and twelve unfit for service. The total number of officers and men was 35,377, besides 8316 in the marine corps.

Not in numbers only has there been an increase, but in skill, in marksmanship, and in the handling of ships and supplies, resulting from long voyages, has there also been an enormous improvement. Owing to "improved mechanism for handling and maneuvering the guns and to the greater attention now paid to the training of the gun-

ners," the total energy of gun-fire has within the past ten years been increased fivefold. Of this Colonel Church gives a startling illustration. Taking as a basis the number of carefully aimed shots which each gun could deliver under battle conditions, and estimating the muzzle energy in foot tons, whereas the thirty-six guns of the *Oregon*, in 1897, represented a total energy in five minutes' firing of 819,456 foot tons, the thirty-six guns of the *Rhode Island*, in 1907, showed a total energy of no less than 3,927,172 foot tons.

A comparison of the present British *Dreadnought* with the *Dreadnought* of thirty-six years ago shows that the destructive power of the modern ship is nearly one hundred times that of the old vessel.

That the nations of the world are not contemplating any reduction in their war preparations is shown by the following table of amounts voted for new construction and armaments. It will be seen that there is little change in the case of France, Great Britain, Russia, and Japan; the remaining three countries exhibit large augmentations of their sea forces:

Country.	1907-1908.	1908-1909.
Great Britain.....	\$46,135,000	\$43,301,010
France	26,662,470	26,578,950
Russia	14,231,340	13,518,605
Germany	31,426,125	41,832,190
Italy	6,990,555	9,331,790
United States.....	33,018,525	38,994,075
Japan	16,166,490	14,839,590

Incidentally, Colonel Church gives a striking illustration of the potentiality of modern ordnance. He says:

The range of the sixteen-inch breech-loading rifle now at Sandy Hook is estimated at between twenty and twenty-one miles, the gun being elevated at the extreme angle of forty-five degrees, and firing a 2400-pound projectile. At this range the projectile would rise at the highest point of its trajectory over five and one-half miles above the earth, 29,040 feet. This would carry it over Mont Blanc, with Pike's Peak piled on top of it.

As regards their armies, the same evidences of preparedness for war are to be noted.

Nation.	Peace footing.	War footing.	Guns.—Approximate number.
Austria	409,000	2,234,000	1,912
Belgium	49,909	143,000	204
Bulgaria	57,720	205,000	462
China.....	About 100,000	trained.	
Denmark	14,000	50,000	96

Nation.	Peace footing.	War footing.	Guns.—Ap-proximate number.
France	604,350	2,516,000	3,720
Great Britain.....	132,500	739,045	1,194
India	146,645	222,219	336
Germany	617,000	3,260,000	4,524
Greece	22,104	82,000	120
Holland	27,366	68,000	120
Italy	284,823	3,330,000	1,726
Japan	220,000	800,000	684
Mexico	29,904	146,500	96
Norway	30,900	80,000	66
Rumania	63,280	173,948	366
Russia	1,200,000	4,000,000	5,000
Spain	119,432	500,000	408
Sweden	37,200	570,000	240
Switzerland	20,122	526,105	288
Turkey	375,000	1,150,700	1,356
United States.....	83,286	188,286	504

As Colonel Church very properly remarks, military training by no means implies war. Indeed the army has been found an excellent training school and educational institution. President Hadley, of Yale, has testified to this in the case of Germany. Quoting Colonel Church again:

It is found that the time which is subtracted from the life of a German youth by service with the colors is fully compensated for by a corresponding extension of his working period, due to the physical training he receives in the

army and the knowledge he acquires as to the best means of preserving his health, and hence increasing his longevity and working capacity.

On the aid to workmen derived from the habits of order and discipline and the manual dexterity acquired in the ranks, Colonel Church cites Sir Joseph Whitworth, the eminent English inventor, and Col. F. N. Maude, C. B. The former states that "the habit of prompt obedience and thoroughness acquired by military training increases the value of the workman"; and the latter "estimates that the skill of the army-trained workman adds \$56.16 annually to the value of the product on which he works." To quote Colonel Church further:

Whether or not we accept these calculations as exact, it would be possible to show that enforced military training has been the controlling factor in the progress of Germany to imperial greatness . . . during the 100 years since she lay prostrate at the feet of Napoleon I. It is military service that has created an Imperial Germany out of a medley of small states, just as it has created a united Italy by the same methods.

EMPLOYEES AS PARTNERS IN RAILROAD INTERESTS.

"AT first glance, the idea that an employee can be converted into a real, wide-awake partner in the affairs and interest of his railroad, may appear to some to involve an undertaking of enormous proportions. As a matter of fact, it is nothing of the kind." This passage may be said to form the key-note of an article on "Labor and the Railroads," which appears in the *Atlantic Monthly* for February, as the first of a series of papers on "The Industrial Dilemma." The author is Mr. James O. Fagan, whose "Confessions of a Railroad Signalman" is one of the recent notable books, and who writes with the authority of an employee who has seen nearly thirty years of service on the "steel highways." The industrial dilemma, he says, may be fittingly described as "the difficulty that now confronts public opinion when it is called upon to choose, or in some way to draw the line, between the interest and demands of labor and the corporations, and the more important necessities and rights of society." That public opinion just at present is not inclined to treat corporations and managers reasonably, is due to the fact that the latter have not assisted the public to the conclusion that their business is aboveboard and legitimate. If they

would advertise and demonstrate these facts, reconciliation would be certain to follow frankness and publicity.

While the student, the social improver, and the mere theorist have thoroughly analyzed the industrial situation on railroads, the public has yet to learn the employees' views.

Just what the worker himself has to say about it, what his honest opinions and observations amount to as he works at his job, listens to the conversation of his fellows, and draws thoughtful conclusions from every-day practical data, is as yet an unwritten chapter in the history of industrial progress. For it must not be forgotten that the employees on the railroads are the most important factors in the situation from every point of view. Their opinion, their policies, their behavior, are the great topics to be considered, socially, financially, and industrially. Out of every dollar earned by the railroads, the employees, 1,700,000 of them, receive 42 cents in wages. Consequently, the habits of thought, the point of view of these men, their actual work at the present day, and their probable behavior and intentions for the future, are matters of great social importance.

As regards wages and similar conditions, Mr. Fagan says "hard-drawn business compulsion" is "the only form of advice, warning, or incentive to which corporations and labor unions pay any attention." He cites the case of the enginemen.

An engineman of my acquaintance leaves his home at six o'clock in the morning, and completes his day's work in six hours. For this service he receives from \$4 to \$5, according to circumstances. Some enginemen work longer hours and receive more money; but any way you look at the labor or the wages, the conditions leave little to be desired. With hardly any exception the same satisfactory state of affairs is to be found in nearly every branch of the train service. By degrees, step by step, from a comparatively low plane, an almost ideal standard of wage and treatment has been arrived at. In my own sixty-lever signal-tower, for example, within the past few years the pay has been run up from \$13 to over \$18 per week, and the working day has been run down from twelve to eight hours. Now, among the thousands of railroad men whose material condition I have been describing, there is but one opinion as to the means that have been employed in bringing about these satisfactory results; and I think this general opinion is voiced when I say that the motive power employed in securing these benefits was simply and actually business compulsion.

Railroad managers have tried to break away from the "thralldom of mechanical methods," but from lack of public support they have abandoned the struggle, or "have relegated the human and sympathetic side of management to the editors of the railroad magazines."

Nowhere is the fact that power is privilege so patent as on the railroads. As illustrating this, the condition of the crossing-men is presented.

Within a short distance of my signal-tower there is a crossing at grade. The man in charge receives \$1.35 for twelve hours' work. As a matter of fact, the crossing man holds a very responsible position. Alertness, attention to duty, and presence of mind, are absolutely essential for the proper protection of travelers on trains and on foot. There are actually more people injured and lives lost at these crossings than on trains, or in any way connected with trains. Therefore, good men and good pay should be the rule at these crossings. Increased efficiency of service would probably make up for the additional expense. Up to date, however, it never has entered into the heads of well-paid enginemen, conductors, and others, to bestir themselves in the interest of these men. Beginning with the management, we all understand that they are down, to stay down until they are able to lift themselves. Unfortunately, these gatemen are unorganized, and unable to organize, and there is nothing back of them to make trouble for anybody.

Such is only one of numerous object-lessons which the employee has constantly before him, and consequently he may be pardoned for concluding that actual business compulsion is your only wage-raiser.

Not in wage-progress only is the compulsory method the most effectual factor: it

affects the operation of the roads, and by it alone can efficiency be secured.

During the month of August, 1908, in the State of Massachusetts, two passenger trains at different points were handled faultlessly for thirty or forty miles past a succession of electric block-signals. Later, with the same crews, these trains were telescoped by other passenger trains on track where these safety devices were not in operation. The cause of these accidents was short-flagging and reckless running. On the roads in question the rules in regard to block-signals are now enforced; the men are actually compelled to live up to them; but the rules in regard to reckless running and short-flagging are not looked upon in the same light,—the same attention is not paid to them, and the penalties for violation of the rules are by no means so impartially bestowed. The compulsory method, then, is not only the most effectual factor in wage-progress, but the principle itself is found to affect in a marked degree the operating department.

Most people will agree with Mr. Fagan when he remarks that it is "utterly repugnant to the solid Christian sense of the community that the condition of the employees and the efficiency of the service must wholly depend upon hard-and-fast rules and agreements."

The paramount industrial problem of today is how to harmonize the rights of society, of corporations, and of labor unions. As far as the unions are concerned, he says, these are dominated by a few of the highest officials. The rank and file of railroad men do not approve their line of thought and action, which favors a policy of separation. When, in 1908, the Boston & Maine management took the employees into their confidence, and after showing them how serious the reduction in the amount of business had been, asked them to accept a reduction in wages of 5 per cent., the men agreed to do so. But the union leaders promptly vetoed the whole business. "The management was humiliated, the referendum was a farce, and the ideas of the men and their leaders in regard to the relations that should exist, and the co-operation that should be permitted, between employees and managers, were fundamentally at variance." The agreement of the men to accept the reduction of wages, proposed by the management, was the result of some "plain talks" by the president of the road.

In so many words, he said: "The corporation needs money. I ask you to help us. I am quite aware that the proper way to secure your assistance and co-operation is to take you into our confidence."

This "taking into confidence" should be extended by the railroad managers. Herefore the employee "has been treated as an implement: from now on he will have to be considered as a man who, with proper encouragement, will base his progress and interests upon reasonable and sympathetic foundations." In this connection Mr. Fagan relates the following incident:

A few days ago, in a freight yard, while I happened to be looking on, a freight car was cornered through careless handling. Slight damage was done to the side and roof of the car. I asked the man who was responsible for the accident to give me his idea of the damage in dollars and cents. He thought a couple of dollars would fix it up all right. A month or so later, happening to meet this man on the street, I informed him that the actual expense incurred for repairing the car had been \$47.50. He was surprised beyond measure. I then asked him if he thought employees should be educated along these lines. Would it do him any good as a man, and consequently the service, if the manager were to tell him that the trifling act of carelessness, the price of which he estimated at \$2, was simply an item of a bill for breakages of over \$5000 a year in the small yard in which he worked, making no mention of the killed and injured. . . . I had quite a lengthy conversation with this man. Would it make any difference to the crossing man, I continued, if his attention was called to the statistics and the nature of crossing accidents on his particular railroad, to the dangers to be guarded

against, and to the vast expense and suffering involved? Would it do any good to those whose duties are connected with the passenger and station service to know that it cost the road a matter of \$80,000 a year for such trifles as icy platforms, doors closing on hands, falling lamps, defective seats, tripping on station platforms, and the like? Would it, in his opinion, be a good idea for the management to get after every man and his job in this personal way?

To all these questions the man answered bluntly and frankly, "You bet your life it would make a big difference." Then I said to him, "Now, if the president of the road were to come out with a bulletin calling our attention to an expense account, for the year 1908, of \$1,000,000 for preventable accidents and miscellaneous carelessness, and ask the men for a 5 per cent. reduction on these items for 1909, what do you suppose would happen?"—"He would get it," was the reply.

In the West, corporations are beginning to realize that the railroad manager of the future will have to be first of all an educator. When, by systematic and organized efforts, managers interest and instruct employees in the human and economic sides of their calling, and when as a result, the employees are "converted into real, wide-awake partners in the affairs and interests of the railroads," there will follow, as a natural consequence, greater economy of operation, greater safety of travel, and greater general efficiency of service.

TURKEY'S NEW PARLIAMENT.

THE writer of the Acts of the Apostles, in describing the occurrences on the Day of Pentecost, states that the assemblage in Jerusalem consisted of Parthians and Medes, Elamites and dwellers in Mesopotamia, in Pontus and Asia, in Egypt and Libya, Jews, Cretans, and Arabians. In Constantinople to-day a similarly cosmopolitan gathering may be witnessed at the sessions of the new Ottoman Parliament which includes among its members, besides Turks proper, Arabs and Greeks, Armenians and Kurds, Bulgarians and Servians, Jews and Koutzo-Valaques. Probably in no other parliamentary body in the world is there to be found represented such a variety of nationalities. No official classification of the deputies has yet been published; but an authentic statement as to their nationalities, politics, and religions is contributed to the *English Review of Reviews* by Mr. Santo Semo, the "John the Baptist of the Young Turkish Movement." In an introductory note, the

editor recalls the fact that it was Mr. Semo "who at the Hague Conference first astonished the world by proclaiming the coming triumph of the great popular movement that has recently transformed the Ottoman Empire." From Mr. Semo's article we learn that the total number of deputies will be about 260, and that they may be divided as follows:

Turks, 119	All Mussulmans
Arabs, 72	{ 41 arrived al- ready here. 31 not arrived yet.	Only one Christian (Cath- olic); all the rest Mus- sulmans.
Greeks, 23	Christians (Orthodox).
Albanians, 15	All Mussulmans.
Armenians, 10	Christians (Gregorians).
Kurds, 8	Mussulmans.
Jews, 4 (all Spano-Portu- guese)	Israelites.
Bulgarians, 4	Christians (Orthodox).
Servians, 3	Christians (Orthodox).
Koutzo-Valaques, 2	Christians (Orthodox).

It will be seen that only one Arab Christian was returned, although there are a million and a half of Arab Christians in the Empire. Also that of the forty-three Christians only one Roman Catholic was elected. Curi-

ously enough, the solitary Christian Arab was returned by a constituency of which only one-third was Christian, the remaining two-thirds being Mussulmans. It is very evident that had there been any antagonism between Christians and Mussulmans in this district, the latter could easily have elected one of their own faith. This, Mr. Semo points out, is worth noting, as "illustrating the cessation of the religious feud."

It had been anticipated by many persons that the diversities in language would prove to be a difficulty in the proceedings of the Parliament; but such is not the case.

There are hardly ten who do not know Turkish at all. Seven of these are Arabs, including four or five from Yemen, and two are Greeks from the Ægean Islands. The others, although they might not all be able to deliver a speech in Turkish, can most of them use this language sufficiently well to make themselves understood in the Chamber. No inconvenience has arisen so far from the language question. Only once a Greek deputy wrote his interpellation in Greek characters and Turkish words and read it, but the President answered that he did not understand, and asked his neighbor in Greek *τη λεγει?* ("What does he say?") His neighbor happened to be an Arab who understood neither Turkish nor Greek, and could only answer with a gesture, like a deaf and dumb person, which made all the others laugh.

As regards political parties, "there have, fortunately, not yet been formed any distinct religious or national groups." Nevertheless, two currents of opinion are to be distinguished,—the "centralizers" and the "decentralizers," which are thus described by Mr. Semo:

The first are chiefly Turkish deputies who have been elected through the support of the Union and Progress Young-Turkish Committee,—in Turkish, *Ittihad ve-terakki djemietti*. In the beginning they numbered 152, of whom about a fourth part were already members of this committee before the promulgation of the Constitution, but as they found afterward that the interference of the committee in the Parliamentary business was excessive and anti-constitutional, the Committee of Union and Progress recently decided officially to abstain from interfering in the affairs of the deputies. It remains as a private organization ready to intervene only in case of the Constitution being in jeopardy. They have secured the seat of the President of the Chamber (the Speaker) to their leader, Ahmed Riza, and most of the vice-presidents, secretaries, and quæstors are their members. This gives them, of course, a great influence in the Chamber.

The *decentralizers* count about thirty-five to forty deputies, who form a special group under the denomination of "Liberal Union" (*Ahrar Furcaci*), and the remaining, *i.e.*, about seventy deputies, are independent of both these commit-

tees. Out of the ten Armenians seven or eight are affiliated to the Armenian "Tachnakziouzioun" Committee, which is rather revolutionary and very powerful in its sphere of action. The Bulgarians and Servians are mostly socialistic. In general, all non-Turkish nationalities are, of course, in favor of the decentralization of power,—some very moderately, like the majority of the Arabs, others are ready to ask even for some sort of national autonomy or Home Rule.

Referring to the assertion, which has been made by Prince Sabah Eddin's opponents, that he aims at the disintegration of Turkey, Mr. Semo, who has been the Prince's private secretary and confidential counselor, says the charge is not true. As to Sabah Eddin's retirement from public life, the Prince himself

says he merely retired for the present from politics and is organizing the National Education Board based on private initiative. He will undoubtedly come back to the political task later on. Some people considered him as an ambitious man. This is quite wrong. Had he been ambitious, after the wonderful reception he has had here he could have formed a committee just as important as that of the Union and Progress. His patriotism deprecated two captains in this vessel of Turkey, already so difficult to steer; so he preferred to retire entirely, and left a free hand to the others.

On the result of the elections generally, Mr. Semo holds that they have demonstrated the necessity of a reform in the electoral system. The non-Turkish and non-Mussulman are in a minority in so many places that, under existing conditions, they might never get a fair amount of representation. What is wanted is a system of proportional representation, such as Belgium has adopted with satisfactory results.

Mr. Semo is optimistic about the future and "the definite establishment of constitutionalism" in Turkey. He says there is not a single reactionary in Parliament. He believes that liberty will become so firmly implanted in the country that "no régime will ever be strong enough to uproot it."

As another proof of the progress of parliamentarism in Turkey, Mr. Semo states that M. d'Estournel de Constant wrote some time ago to the president of the Turkish Chamber, Ahmed Riza, and to Bostani Etfendi, deputy, suggesting the idea of proposing to the Ottoman Empire the formation of a *Groupe Parlementaire pour l'Arbitrage Internationale*. Such a group, Mr. Semo states, has already been formed; it contains about forty members, and it is believed that it will eventually number at least 100.

WHAT JOURNALISM HAS DONE FOR PERSIA.

LIKE the sleeping princess of old, Persia is awaking from her centuries-long sleep, at the touch of her lover, who is called progress. Many times, and in various guises, he has sought in vain to penetrate the thicket that surrounded her; at last success has crowned his efforts, and, in the name of literature, he has called her to life. The course of this awakening has been carefully told by M. Marylie Markovitch, in *La Revue*.

During the reign of Nassr-ed-Din, says M. Markovitch, a scholar, by name Sanyed-Dowlet, sought to establish a news budget in Persia; but as any attempt at liberal speaking was treated as an act of lèse majesty, he was forced to give his paper a scientific trend. By means of his "house of translation" he was enabled to give the people the best works of French literature. The only official newspaper was also under his able direction. To subscribe to it was an act of loyalty, for his Majesty occasionally deigned to contribute an article. No outside news, by any chance, found its way there.

His Majesty deemed his tales of the chase, his migrations from winter to summer palaces, the nomination and decoration of favored officials, sufficient news for his loyal subjects. . . . Not a sheet would have dared publish a sensational event until it had cooled sufficiently to be harmless for the people,—and for the journalist.

Such was the condition of the press in Persia until 1876. One bright morning in that year a young Frenchman, fresh from Paris, and full of hopes and high ambitions, landed in Persia, determined to start a newspaper.

In a great burst of enthusiasm, he called his paper *La Patrie*, and in the first issue declared his standard: To speak in absolute independence; to enlighten the country as to its real needs; to promote progress; to make war "on abuse and those who perpetrate it." This was a terrible thunder clap! The King, ministers, mollahs nearly died of fright. The chief of police dispatched his swiftest courier to order the suppression of the proofs.

Since the proclamation of the constitution in Persia and the establishment of Parliament, journalism has enjoyed a tolerance that speaks well for its future. From time to time one paper or another has been temporarily suspended for some too energetic article, but it has shortly resumed its accustomed activity. In 1906 Persia boasted but

four newspapers; in two years the number had increased to twenty-five.

The influence that the newspaper exerts can readily be seen in the keen interest the people take in affairs of state. The bazar at Teheran is the meeting place for all classes of people. There is scarcely a shop that does not have at least one paper; and it is a common thing to find a mirza reading the news aloud to a group of interested persons gathered around him. Thus, those who cannot afford to subscribe to a paper glean the events of the day, as well as those who do not know how to read. It must be understood that, in spite of the advantages offered in the schools of Persia, people who ten years ago were ignorant, remain so still; and, what is more, they have allowed their sons to grow up without learning to read. Despite this, when they hear the news each day, they learn to discuss it, and think about it intelligently, which is a decided advance.

Each of these Persian newspapers deals with one particular subject. One considers largely questions in economics; another, current literature; a third touches on and discusses official affairs and the doings of the National Assembly; still a fourth gives the political side of the country. Besides these, there is a monthly review that has shown decided tendencies toward assisting the feminine portion of Persia.

Many times this magazine has accepted and printed articles by a woman who assumes the ironical pseudonym of Assyriol-Djaval (she who is in a sack). . . . Inserting the verses of a woman, written in honor of the Parliament, the *Madjellé-Estebdad* adds this comment: "Yes, now our women are working with just as much zeal as our men, and, at this very moment, the two ranks of women in the capital are prepared to do anything to strengthen the foundation of the constitution." If one of these days recognition of womankind takes place in Persia, it will be the result of man's appreciation of her broadmindedness and patriotism.

These papers are the organs through which men of advanced thought and liberal views make themselves known. Their object is not to make money, but to expound principles. Men will empty their personal coffers to support their theories, and then yield their places to others, well satisfied if their end has been accomplished.

Persians attach so little importance to everything in a paper that does not pertain to politics that the outward appearance of their daily news-sheet is a matter of indifference.

THE MUNICIPAL ACHIEVEMENTS OF BUENOS AIRES.

THE capital of the Argentine Republic presents to-day a good example for all other countries in the Latin-American groups in the matter of municipal progress. It is only fair to say that,—as Mr. Barrett, in his series of papers on the "Municipal Organization in the Capitals of Latin-America" is illustrating in the *Bulletin of the International Bureau of the American Republics* from month to month,—other cities also make a fine showing of municipal pride and enterprise.

The statement in the *Bulletin* reports that the city of Buenos Aires, had on June 30, 1908, 1,146,865 inhabitants. The rate of increase has been close to 5 per cent. from year to year, and promises to rise above this, owing to circumstances that are naturally and artificially advantageous. This growth of the city is high as compared to other important cities of both Europe and America, surpassing even every city in the United States except Chicago. We quote from the article at this point:

The reasons for this increase can be traced to three causes. The first is the steady stream of immigration which flows from other countries toward the River Plate; in 1907, 329,122 individ-

uals landed at the port; of these 209,103 were immigrants arriving for settlement within the country. The nationality of these embryo citizens is of great interest; Italy and Spain send the largest proportion, but Russia, Syria, France, Austria, Germany, Great Britain, and Portugal each sends over 1000; every country in Europe offers some contribution, all divisions of Africa and many of the Latin-American republics are represented, while North America, China, and Japan and Africa help to swell the total. Not all of these immigrants become residents of Buenos Aires, some going farther into the interior, and a measurable proportion returning to their oversea homes (of course, this does not imply that the same individuals come and go, but immigration usually surpasses emigration by certain fairly accurate figures); the result, however, is that upward of 100,000 immigrants are added each year to the population. The second cause is the high birth rate enjoyed by Buenos Aires; for several years this has been steadily maintained at close to 35 per 1000. This is twice as high as that of Paris, half again as high as that of London, higher than that of New York, and surpassed by the birth rate of Nuremburg (Germany) only. The third cause is the low death-rate of the city, in which respect it compares very favorably with all the cities of the civilized world, being lower than that of Paris and New York, and higher than that of London, Edinburgh, Berlin, and Hamburg. The results in the reduction of the death-rate are due unmistakably to the great progress



THE MUNICIPAL SLAUGHTER HOUSES AT LINARES, ARGENTINA.

(These furnish Buenos Aires with its fresh meats. Linares is a suburb of the capital, but within the city's limits.)



THE POLICE DEPARTMENT BUILDING, BUENOS AIRES.

made by the municipality in all details in improving the hygiene of the city.

The following paragraph from the *Bulletin* reports gives a good idea of the city's general trend along progressive lines during the past few years:

The municipal slaughter houses, which furnish Buenos Aires with an excellent supply of fresh meats, are located at Linares, a suburb within the limits of the corporation, about eight miles distant from the center of the city. These well-equipped establishments are models of neatness and order, and a source of revenue to the municipal government. The New Model Market is under municipal control. The arrangement is good and the location convenient. The greatest neatness and cleanliness are observed in the sale of food products, and the organization and management of the market is a credit to the municipal government of the city. Buenos Aires has one of the best drilled and most efficient fire departments of any of the large cities of the world. The equipment is thoroughly modern, and excellent service is rendered on all occasions. The sixteen sections into which the department is divided comprise 1200 officers and men. The gala parades of the department show the skill and ease with which this well-trained corps is able to perform the most complicated and difficult maneuvers.

WHAT IS BRITAIN REALLY DOING IN INDIA?

ON the 11th of December last Lord Minto, the Viceroy of India, in the Legislative Council, at Calcutta, India, passed into law in one sitting a new Crimes Act, which empowers the magistrate to arrest any one under suspicion of conspiring against the life of a British official or against the established government, and also empowers the Governor to declare any association unlawful if he deems it necessary in the interest of the state. "The special procedure provides for a preliminary inquiry by the magistrate," says *India*, the organ of the Indian National Congress in London, "into the evidence offered on the part of the prosecution, during which inquiry 'the accused shall not be present unless the magistrate so directs, nor shall he be represented by a pleader, nor shall any person have any right of access to the court.'"

When the magistrate is satisfied that the evidence is sufficient to put the accused upon his trial he frames the charges under his hand, and the trial takes place before a special bench of the High Court, composed of three judges, without jury and without bail in case of remand. Section 13 of the Act also provides that "the evidence of a witness taken by a magistrate . . . shall be treated as evidence be-

fore the High Court if the witness is dead and cannot be produced, and if the High Court has reason to believe that his death or absence has been caused in the interest of the accused."

Close upon the enactment of the above Act, nine persons were arrested in the province of Bengal and placed under personal restraint, curious to say, not under the authority of the new Crimes Act, but by bringing into requisition a regulation of 1818, which empowered the Viceroy to exile any man if he deemed it advisable in the interest of the state. The most influential of these are Mr. Aswini Kumar Dutt, proprietor of the Broja Mohan Educational Institute at Barisal, in eastern Bengal, and Mr. Krishna Kumar Mitra, the editor of the Calcutta *Sanjibani*. Another of the prisoners is Mr. Subodh Chunder Mullick, a Bengali millionaire, who had been for the past few years a liberal donor to the Nationalist cause. He is head of the Mullicks, of Wellington Square, Calcutta, one of the richest families in the city. When the National Council of Education was started nearly three years ago, for the purpose of providing higher education independent of the government colleges, he made a gift to the cause of a lakh of rupees (\$33,-

ooo). He was the chief support of the *Bande Mataram*, the organ of the Nationalist party in India. In connection with these arrests it is to be noted that the High Court at Calcutta has dismissed the appeal of the *Bande Mataram*, and has made absolute the order for the forfeiture of the printing press and all copies of the paper wherever found.

The passing of the new Crimes Act as well as the deportation of these nine men, without proffering any charge against them, created the greatest indignation in Bengal and a sensation throughout Hindustan. The *Bengali*, of Calcutta, says:

We are bound to say that the Home Member who introduced the bill and the other members of the council who spoke in support of it failed to make out anything like a case in favor of the new legislation, nor are we in any way convinced that the law, as it had been framed, will serve the purpose for which it is ostensibly intended. . . . The real criminals, we are firmly convinced, cannot possibly belong to associations which work in broad daylight, and which, in many cases, have quite laudable objects in view. In so far as the new law will enable the police and the executive to suppress some of these, it will be an engine of oppression and will do nothing but mischief.

Another native journal, the *Amrita Bazar Patrica*, of Calcutta, observes:

Are the authors of the new Crimes Act homœopaths? The reader knows, that according to the homœopathic theory, the way to kill a disease is to create a similar one. There is no doubt that the new Act instead of stopping sedition will only create or aggravate it. Hence, we fancy they are creating sedition to kill sedition, their motto being *similia similibus curantur*, and they have, we think, a good answer to the objection that the Act has been opposed by the whole Indian nation. "You see," they may say, "half a dozen wise men are stronger than one hundred millions of fools; and as we, the supporters of the Act, are decidedly the wisest men in the universe, therefore our conclusions should carry greater weight than those of six hundred millions of witless people."

On the subject of deportation the *Tribune*, of Lahore, says:

It is a pity the government of Lord Minto should have felt called upon to resort to this weapon in the face of all the legal facilities placed at their disposal by a number of legislative measures, including the most recent one which has received the sanction of the Viceroy's Council. . . . The prospects of India are not really good, for there will be a continuance of discontent and agitation. The Viceroy will, I fear, suffer in health and may resign. . . . The Viceroy is warned thereby to insist on the strictest precaution being taken against the plots of anarchists and all seditious persons. An exceedingly critical time for British rule in India is impending.



KRISHNA KUMAR MITRA.

(One of the most eminent of the Hindu agitators recently condemned by the British authorities.)

The *Bengali*, speaking of the arrests, says:

The arrest of Babu Krishna Kumar Mitra, editor of the *Sanjibani*, has given a great shock to the Indian community, and has produced a sensation like of which we have not witnessed for many a long day. What the charges against him are we do not know; but to imagine or suspect that he could be associated with any act of violence or wrong-doing is absurd. . . . He has always been the friend of constitutionalism, and has consistently denounced all forms of lawlessness and violence. "Righteousness exalteth a nation, wrong-doing leadeth to national degradation and ruin," has been the key-note of his preachings. . . . We cannot help thinking that his arrest is a political blunder of the gravest magnitude, and will greatly intensify the present unrest and excitement.

Of one of the other eminent men apprehended, the *Daily Chronicle*, of London, writes:

Babu Aswini Kumar Dutt is a personality of remarkable force. For years past he has been known as the uncrowned king of Backergunge, the district in eastern Bengal, of which Barisal is the chief town. When the partition (of Bengal) was effected and the boycott of British goods begun, no district in the province was better organized than Backergunge, and Barisal was the center of unceasing propaganda. Aswini Babu was commander-in-chief of the boycotters. The most untiring of Swadeshi missionaries, he visited every part of the district, addressed innumerable meetings, and had the whole countryside under the Swadeshi vow to abstain from foreign food, clothes, and luxuries. Since then he has been the acknowledged leader of the nationalists in eastern Bengal, his

personal following being hardly less than that of Mr. B. G. Tilak in western India. Aswini Kumar Dutt, however, has never been looked upon as a revolutionary of Tilak's kind.

Lala Lajpat Rai, who himself was deported to Burma eighteen months ago, and who is now in England, wrote to the *Morning Leader*, of London:

No Englishman can possibly conceive how many hundreds of widows and orphans, how many thousands of sick and needy, how many hundreds of thousands of spiritually inclined Indians,—men and women,—have been made disconsolate by this latest act of high-handedness on the part of the British Government in India. The people of India will never believe, in spite of what Lords Morley and Minto may say from their high places, that two such pure and austere souls brought up in an atmosphere of religious spirituality could have anything to do with a campaign of violence. . . . Add to this the inequity of these men being condemned without a hearing. The Bengalis are not likely to forget this, even if Lord Morley were to give them a full parliamentary government.

The country had hardly got over the shock of the extraordinary proceedings in India, when Lord Morley, the Secretary of State for India, announced in the House of Lords in London (on December 17 last) a reform scheme for India, which he will propose in the coming session of the British Parliament. Commenting on this announcement, *India* says:

There are seven major provinces in British India. Two of the seven,—Bombay and Madras,—are what are called presidency governments. Their Governors are appointed every five years from England. Each is assisted in the work of administration by an executive council of two senior officials. The proposal is to double the number of members, one of the four to be an Indian. The other five provinces,—Bengal, Eastern Bengal and Assam, the United Provinces, the Punjab, and Burma,—are administered by lieutenant-governors belonging to the Indian Civil Service, without executive councilors. Lord Morley is of opinion that it would be advisable to create, as opportunity offers, an executive council of members in these provinces. . . . Each of the seven provinces is at present provided with a so-called Legislative Council. It is, of course, presided over by the Lieutenant-Governor, its membership is overwhelmingly official, and its non-official members may be said to have no power at all. Under Lord Morley's scheme these bodies will not be only remodeled, but transformed. . . . The same principles of reform apply to the supreme government. The Viceroy's Legislative Council is to be increased in number from twenty-four to sixty-two, the official element being not more than half, and the powers of the elected members are to be enlarged as in the provincial councils. . . . The appointment of an Indian to the supreme Executive Council promised by Lord Morley was announced by the Manchester *Guardian* as practically certain some months ago.

According to dispatches received in London, Mr. Gokhale, Sir Pherosesholi Mehta and Mr. Surendra Natti Banerjee,—the leaders of the Moderate party in India,—expressed satisfaction with the reform proposal of Lord Morley. Mr. Gokhale said that they (reforms) constituted a real beginning of provincial self-government. Sir P. Mehta observed that the reforms were most substantial and exceeded expectations. He considered, however, that Lord Morley's remark, that he did not aspire to a parliamentary system for India, might have been left unsaid. Mr. S. N. Banerjee said:

* We asked for definite and effective control over finances and executive government. I cannot say that we have got either, but we have obtained substantial concessions which will prepare the way for those great ends. I regard the new scheme as the beginning of Parliamentary institutions.

Sir Henry Colton, M.P., said:

The reforms are as might have been reasonably expected twenty years ago. If they had come even two years ago they would undoubtedly have had a great effect on the discontented. They are, however, coupled with repression of so severe a kind that it is doubtful whether, in existing circumstances, an angel from heaven could do anything to appease the feeling unless the spirit of the administration in India is changed.

In spite of Lord Morley's reform proposal the feeling of alarm created by the new Crimes Act and deportation in the minds of many leading Englishmen in England was not allayed, and a number of members of Parliament and other publicists formed themselves into an Indian Civil Rights Committee. The committee pledged itself to use every effort to obtain the restoration to the people of India of "those elementary civil rights of which they have been deprived," and adopted the following resolution: That, while welcoming all proposals for associating in a larger degree the people of India with the government of that country the committee deplored the

wholly unprecedented measures lately sanctioned against the personal liberties of the people of India, inasmuch as no grounds have been laid before Parliament or the public justifying the deportation of citizens of India from their homes without charge or trial and "without intention to try or charge" or for subjecting accused persons to secret inquiry before a magistrate on the most serious charges, when they can neither be present nor heard in their own defense, or for giving absolute power to the executive to declare any body of persons an unlawful association and the members of it criminals.

AMERICA'S TEN-YEAR RECORD IN THE PHILIPPINES.



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HON. W. CAMERON FORBES.
(Vice-Governor of the Philippines.)

AMERICANS who desire to know what are the actual conditions in the Philippines, and what has been accomplished since the United States took possession of the islands, will do well to read the account, contributed to the February *Atlantic Monthly* by the Vice-Governor of the Philippines, Mr. W. Cameron Forbes, of the first decade of America's rule in her over-sea possessions. This narrative is both interesting as general reading and valuable as having the authority of an official statement. By way of introduction, the Vice-Governor gives the following summary of results to date:

We have completed the separation of Church and State, buying out from the religious orders their large agricultural properties, which are now administered by the government for the benefit of the tenants.

We have put the finances on a sound and sensible basis.

We have established a complete new system of auditing and accounting.

We have placed our civil administration on a strictly self-supporting basis, receiving no aid whatever from the United States Government, except in so far as they have elected to help

us in charting the coasts for naval purposes. This charting, which is being done at a rapid rate, is at the joint expense of the Insular and National governments.

We have established a uniform and stable currency on a gold basis.

We have established schools throughout the Archipelago, teaching upward of half a million children, and we find that the Filipinos are eager to learn and are rapidly learning the English language.

We have started a general and thorough system of road construction and maintenance, in which the Insular, Provincial, and Municipal officials co-operate.

We have established the policy of constructing all public buildings, as well as bridges and wharves, of durable material, preferably reinforced concrete, in order that our work may endure.

We have given the Filipinos almost complete autonomy in their municipalities.

In the issue of the REVIEW for November last we presented some extracts from a report by Judge Lobingier on the proceedings of the first session of the new Philippine Legislature. The article now under review gives some additional particulars concerning this body. The Filipino Assembly, it will be remembered, consists of two chambers: an Upper House appointed by the President of the United States, four of its members being Filipinos, and a Lower House, elected by the people. The establishment of the latter chamber was a most important step in the gradual process of giving self-government to the Philippines; and Vice-Governor Forbes thus describes its make-up:

The principal parties which developed were the Nacionalista, favoring immediate independence, usually with some vague qualification as to a protectorate; and the Progressista, the re-organized Federal party, favoring ultimate independence, but continuance of the present form of government.

The delegates elected are thus divided among the parties:

Nacionalista	32
Progressista	16
Independent	20
Immediatista	7
Independista	4
Catholic.....	1
Total.....	80

Those classed as Independent were affiliated with no party. The Immediatistas wanted to emphasize the urgency of their desire for immediate independence.

The Assembly chose as Speaker the Honorable Sergio Osmeña, of Cebu, "a young man under thirty years of age, who had been Governor of his province, which he had ad-

ministered with great ability." He prepared a system of rules based on those in vogue in the House of Representatives at Washington; and this was adopted by the Assembly. A notable feature of the first session was the evident desire of the two Houses to "sink factional causes of dispute and to unite with the administration to better the condition of the islands." A very important result of the inauguration of the Assembly has been "to draw the Filipinos and Americans much more closely together."

The Filipino, it seems, takes readily to politics, and for many positions makes an excellent official. Naturally the Filipino "rejoices in the Filipinization of the service"; but in this connection the Vice-Governor has a word of caution to say. "It would be most unwise for us to put Filipinos into positions for which they are not yet qualified. And, besides, some consideration must be shown for Americans; otherwise we shall find the best of them taking advantage of their leaves of absence to secure other positions, and it will be the worst of them who will return to the islands." There is one thing that those Americans at home, who talk so glibly of what ought to be done in the Philippines, are apt to forget, and that is the widely differing nature of the peoples (as well as their island homes) which we have to govern.

In the Moro country, where the population is Mohammedan, not so far advanced in civilization as the Christian Filipino, and exceedingly hardy and intractable, we have a government which is more paternal and military in form, the Governor being a general of the United States Army, and the troops being used more freely for the maintenance of order, whereas in the rest of the islands order is now maintained wholly without the assistance of troops.

There is a third group of peoples who are for the most part savages, who have a purely paternal government, very much as do the Indians in the United States, administered without representation of any kind by the civil government in Manila, although the officers appointed to the minor positions are very often natives.

There are more than three thousand islands in the Philippine group, and their total area is 115,000 square miles; yet the total population is only about 8,000,000, or about seventy to the square mile, as compared with 300 to the square mile in Japan. As the soil and climate of the Philippines are as productive as those of neighboring countries, the Vice-Governor believes that the islands can be made to support a population of at least 300 to the square mile, or a total of

35,000,000. The administration is trying "by means of education to leaven the whole mass of the Filipino people and to raise them to new levels higher than any which have been attempted by other countries in administering similar peoples." There have, however, been heartbreaking difficulties to contend with. The people are "too poorly nourished and too much weakened by disease to do the work which an able-bodied and healthy people ought to do; the infant mortality during the first year of life is 50 per cent.; beriberi is common, and tuberculosis prevails; there have been great losses through diseases among horses and cattle; and, besides, there are such natural troubles as swarms of locusts, untimely droughts, and destructive typhoons." But great progress has been made. "Smallpox has been robbed of its terrors; cholera is no longer a menace to those who observe the simple rules of health; and in several municipalities where artesian wells have been bored the death-rate has decreased twenty per thousand." A complete system of well-constructed roads has been planned; and the local authorities, on whose co-operation its success depends, have supported it with enthusiasm. Public order has been improved to such an extent that it is now safe to travel everywhere without carrying a weapon,

excepting only in some of the more remote parts of the mountains, where lurk bands of wild tribes who might possibly mistake the object of a visit, and in the southern part of the great island of Mindanao, which is inhabited by intractable Moros, who have not yet acquired an amiability of character toward strangers of any race.

The successful development of the islands will, according to the Vice-Governor, be best promoted by the establishment of experimental farms from which seeds as well as instruction can be distributed; by the charting and lighting of all the harbors; by the dredging of the river-mouths; by the establishment of trade-schools in the provinces, which might be used as machine-shops for the manufacture and repair of agricultural machinery; and especially by the adoption of a comprehensive scheme of irrigation for the farming districts.

The Philippines have almost a monopoly in the production of hemp; copra, rubber, tobacco, and sugar are also produced. The undeveloped resources of the group are enormous; and the Vice-Governor believes that the islands "have before them a future literally golden."

THE LAST OF THE AZTECS.

IN the State of Sonora, Mexico, on the coast of the Gulf of Lower California, at the mouth of a river which twice a year rises like the Nile of Egypt, and, overspreading the lower bottom-lands, still further enriches the already rich soil, is a peaceful valley. This is the one-time home of the Yaqui, a people that for a hundred years, against unheard-of odds, waged war with the Mexican nation. Although Yaqui-land is Mexican territory, the Yaqui is not a Mexican, writes Mr. Charles R. Price in the *Pacific Monthly* for February.

He is a descendant of those enlightened Aztecs against whom Cortez conspired. Physically he is short, stocky, high-chested, and muscular. He has a dark bronze skin, steady, honest eyes, and a face that is sober but not sullen.

Ever since the time when the Aztec forces were scattered by Cortez the tribe now known as the Yaquis dwelt in the valley which bears their name, and which, being isolated and far from the path of civilization, offered "a haven of quietness for this peace-loving people who had been driven from their former home by the Spaniards whom their sires had

honored and welcomed." The climate of the Yaqui Valley is perfect; and the soil, of exceptional fertility, "stretches like a vast billiard-table, covering an area of over a million acres, with its surface unbroken by arroyo, canyon, or ravine. Through the center flows the Yaqui River, carrying ample water at all seasons." About a hundred and thirty years ago the Spaniards came to covet this attractive region, which is thus described by Mr. Price:

There in peace and plenty the Yaqui lived and reared his family. His towns were thick along the river bank; and the houses that he built therein were not the wigwam and the tepee of our Western tribes, but were permanent structures. . . . For years and decades he lived in this paradise and he was not molested in his Altruria.

Nature provided for his every want. . . . Dates, oranges, and other fruits of delicious flavor grew wild. In the cocoanut palms vivid-hued parrots hid. Wild ducks, quail, and other game-fowl swarmed like bees, and, tame as chickens, were at hand when his palate craved them. Great oyster beds stretch about the shoals where the Yaqui empties into the salt water, and in the sands that rim this same shallow water, the huge lumbering, green deep-sea



THE ENTIRE YAQUI ARMY.

(Photograph taken in the Bacatete Mountains of Sonora, in May, 1908. Chief Bulle, the leader, is marked X.)



YAQUI SCHOOL AT COCORIT.

turtle lays its eggs. Barracuda, corbino, bonita, and fish peculiar to the Pacific's waters crowd pompano, smelt, mackerel, herring, and other fish that Atlantic fishermen know. In the hills are deer and mountain sheep; or, if he would ride, wild horses and droves of those small, rough-coated mules,—yclept burros,—to serve as burden carriers.

The Spaniards attempted to dispossess the occupants of this peaceful valley. The Yaquis rallied to the defense of their home: fighting continued for some time and then ceased for a while. The Yaquis say the peace was due to a treaty under the terms of which they were left undisturbed in their ownership of the district. This the Mexican forces denied, and they declared that "the Yaqui was a menace to civilization and must be suppressed." The conflict was renewed; and for over a century "this handful of people, for decade after decade, repulsed the legions that were sent against them."

In 1894, when this war was at its height, the population of Mexico was 12,084,000, and the Yaqui people had less than 4000 fighting men; yet in spite of all that Mexico could do, it was not till 1908 that the Yaqui was subdued. This end has only been accomplished by the Mexican policy of avoiding the Yaqui forces, instead of meeting them, of raiding their villages, taking the women and children prisoners, and sending them to Yucatan. Thus it was, with all that made for the joy of living taken away, the Yaqui was forced to yield. He, a lover of his home and family, gave up the unequal strife, in consideration of being again united with his family.

Mr. Price waxes enthusiastic over the bravery of the Yaqui. "History," he says, "contains no parallel of such a warrior."

The history of the Yaqui is filled with examples of personal bravery and of fortitude that shine as brightly as Polarius in the zenith of the high dome of courage. Do not think that the Yaqui was a common Indian. His patriotism makes that of Leonidas, Horatio, and of our own Revolutionary sires seem dim in comparison.

The Yaqui is admittedly the best workman in Mexico; and the reason is not far to seek. For months at a time he has slaved in the mines, or worked as a farm laborer, or on a plantation, or on the railroads, denying himself everything but bare food in order that he might "find" himself for his fight against his oppressors. Cajeme, one of the Yaqui leaders, in order to gain knowledge of modern warfare, actually entered the Mexican army and rose to the rank of captain. He then returned to his people, organized them as a modern government, drilled an army of 4000 men, and fought a drawn battle with the Mexicans under General Pisuiera.

In 1897 the Yaquis surrendered and accepted as their reservation a tract on the north bank of the river; and in May of last year a treaty was concluded by which all Yaqui resistance was to terminate. A few irreconcilables are in the hills in the interior, but the Mexican troops are closing around

them, and "the end is but a matter of a few weeks." Meanwhile the peaceful valley where the Yaqui farmer scattered his seeds, "scratching them into the ground," has taken on a new life.

It has become the home of foresighted Americans who are building a community of American interests only a short distance from the southern boundary of the United States. Railroads built by Americans traverse the broad valleys. A large irrigating system, to carry water to the lands, is being built. Towns have sprung up along the railroads, and American ranchers and farmers are planting oranges,

lemons, pineapples, cocoa nuts, limes, bananas, and other fruits, as well as broad fields of corn, cotton, tobacco, wheat, and hay. Great fields of alfalfa stretch across the country. In them the harvester is always busy, for the yield is eight crops a year. And the hay sells at \$15 to \$20 gold per ton.

And what is to become of the Yaqui himself?—

The liberty-loving Yaqui, after his century of conquest, has failed; and, deported and exiled, has left his fair lands to the heritage of the descendants of that other race whose sires strove contemporaneously with his sires,—and won. The patriotic Yaqui has gone forever.

A NOTABLE HEALER: FATHER JOHN OF CRONSTADT.

ON the second of January last there passed away at Cronstadt, Russia, one of the most notable figures of the century. His full title was "The Most Reverend John Ilytch Sergiev"; but to millions of the Russian people he was "Father John of Cronstadt." In the *London Review of Reviews* for February is a character sketch by Mr. W. T. Stead on "Healers and Healing," which includes a study of this remarkable man and detailed descriptions of some of his wonderful cures. In his introductory paragraph Mr. Stead, after citing a number of reputable physicians and other prominent men who have come to admit that "faith healing is a reality," says: "The Church of England, stirred from her skeptical lethargy, is beginning timidly to try by actual experiment whether the saying 'the prayer of the righteous shall heal the sick' had any truth at the back of it." Instead of "theorizing and dogmatizing" on the subject of faith healing, Mr. Stead thinks it is more profitable to note what the various healers have actually done and to hear what is their theory as to how they do it; and he begins with Father John, whose death at the age of seventy-nine "gave a shock to the consciousness of all Russians." He writes:

It seemed almost against the order of Divine Providence that this great Healer should succumb to Death. He healed others, himself he cannot heal. The simple peasants refused to believe that the gates of death could prevail against the miracle worker, and some are said to be confidently awaiting his reappearance, while others confidently assert that he has ascended into Heaven in the fiery chariot of the Prophet Elijah. But Father John never claimed for himself exemption from the common lot of mortal men. Lazarus, the daughter of Jairus, and all other persons who have been raised from

the dead only were respited for a season. After a few years they went down to dusty death like the rest of their fellows: and as Father John has gone, so Mrs. Eddy will go. Thomas Lake Harris, who assured me that he had discovered the secret of renewing his youth, and expected to live for many centuries, is no more in our midst. In time the Christian Scientists assure us that they will be victorious over death. But as yet they walk by faith, not by sight.

The son of peasant parents in Archangel, Father John "was born poor, he lived poor, and he died poor." After studying at the Ecclesiastical Academy at St. Petersburg, he was appointed curate of St. Andrew's Cathedral at Cronstadt; and there he spent his whole life. How deeply he had impressed himself on the Russian people is seen in the fact that 20,000 of them, many in their bare feet, followed his body over the ice at Cronstadt.

Mr. Stead quotes from Father John's autobiography a number of truly wonderful cases of healing,—diphtheria in two children, inflammation of the bowels, spitting of blood, all kinds of disease seem to have yielded to his power. In one case the patient was 500 miles from Cronstadt, where Father John was.

Dr. Dillon in the *Daily Telegraph* (London) gives the following as among "the best authenticated stories of Father John's activity," which Mr. Stead reproduces, and is here given in full:

In the village of Konchansk, some years ago, a new church had been consecrated, and dinner was being served to the eminent guests present from St. Petersburg and Moscow. Among these was Father John, who that day looked completely run down. All at once a group of three rustics holding a stalwart peasant woman entered the room, whispering, treading heavily,



"FATHER JOHN OF CRONSTADT."

and approaching John, who sat at the head of the table. The woman was suffering from the worst form of the so-called classical hysteria, supposed not to be amenable to suggestion. For ten years she had never been able to receive Communion. Her husband had separated from her. During frequent acute attacks her face was wrenched, the soles of her feet touched the back of her head, and she rolled about as though possessed by evil spirits. The peasantry unhesitatingly attributed her deplorable condition to the presence of devils. The rector of the local church had attempted to exorcise her, but prayers only made her worse. Father John, whose voice was usually soft and insinuating, exclaimed in shrill, loud tones, addressing the three peasants who were holding the woman, "Leave her alone!" They answered that she would fall if left alone. "I command you to leave her alone!" he insisted. The three companions shrank back while the woman reeled.

"Look upon me!" exclaimed the priest. The patient endeavored to fix her rolling eyes upon the speaker, but failed. She tottered. The local police superintendent sniggered, and whispered: "It looks as though the performance is going to begin with a miracle."

The pastor again spoke in a still louder voice: "I command you, look into my eyes!" Little by little the woman's body grew steadier and her gaze sharper. Finally she fixed her eyes on the drawn face of the inspired-looking priest.

"Make the sign of the Cross," he exclaimed. "I cannot," she answered.

A vast nervous force seemed suddenly to enter into Father John's body. His eyes burned in their sockets, and with a voice that caused the hearts of all present to thrill he uttered the

words, "Begone, in the name of the Lord God, begone!" while a weird yell, such as fiends might utter, resounded in the hall, causing all present to shudder. From the woman's lips were heard the words, "I am going."

Several guests, and the sniggering police superintendent among them, sobbed with emotion. The priest continued: "Make the sign of the Cross." After one or two tentative motions of her right hand the patient obeyed the behest, then, without uttering a word, she laid her head on the pastor's shoulder.

Nervous emotion unmanned all present. They felt that they had witnessed a phenomenon transcending the occurrences of everyday life.

Soon after Father John, addressing the patient, said: "You are perfectly well, God will bless you with children, go in peace." After this the peasant woman began to lead a normal life, her health was excellent, her husband returned, and Father John's prediction was fulfilled.

Dr. Dillon, who knew Father John personally for a greater part of a century, adds:

I myself met Father John in various houses in St. Petersburg, Moscow, and other cities. He was possessed of remarkable sharpness of insight, which was sometimes indistinguishable from clairvoyance. "God will make you strong; cheer up," or "He desires to take you to Himself; make ready to respond to the call," were the words which he would pronounce sometimes after a few moments of conversation. Thousands claimed to have been restored to health by Father John's prayers.

On Father John's own statements as to his *modus operandi* Mr. Stead observes:

He did not, like the Christian Scientists, regard disease as a delusion of the mortal mind. He did not deny its existence, he affirmed it in the strongest terms. He said:

"Also remember that all our maladies are God's punishment for sins; they cleanse us, they reconcile us with God and lead us back to His Love."

He did not even regard sickness as being always an evil. It was often a benediction from on high.

Though Father John "approximated to the methods of the Christian Scientists in his affirmation of the essentially divine character of man," he was "as the antipodes to Mrs. Eddy in his readiness to call in medical aid." In his autobiography he wrote: "Those commit murder who will not have a doctor to attend them or another person who requires a doctor's help." Mr. Stead concludes his article with the following paragraph:

Father John's method, therefore, as thus displayed before us in his own words, was to pray, to pray, and again to pray, to assert the essential unity of the soul of man with the Deity, to affirm the illusion of all that is not lovely and ideal, to offer an uncompromising defiance to the Devil and all his legions, and so to loosen the incredulity, doubt, oppression, and every passion which he quaintly says are the teeth which the Devil fastens in the heart of man.

SIR FREDERICK TREVES: SURGEON TO KING EDWARD.

IT was Emerson, if we recollect rightly, who said that "each man is a hero and an oracle to somebody"; and readers of a certain article in *Putnam's Magazine* for February soon come to realize that Sir Frederick Treves is the hero and that the "somebody" is Dr. Wilfred T. Grenfell, who writes concerning him, and whose paper not only furnishes an excellent illustration of the truth of Carlyle's definition of hero-worship,—"transcendent admiration of a great man,"—but also discloses a notable example of affectionate regard existing between a student and his old professor and which grows the stronger with the passing years. It would be difficult, we think, to find a more delightful tribute than that which Mr. Grenfell pays to his hero in the following passage:

I am confident that among all that stimulates the youth of a nation to greater effort and higher ideals, none are more helpful, more practical, or more imperious than the life and example of a really great man. No sermon can touch the oratory of a life that is worth while. It was Frederick Treves who introduced me to a life among sailors. It was he who stated the case plainly for me, when I balanced up between a life in London and a missionary life at sea. From that day to this, in a thousand ways, Sir Frederick Treves has been a stimulus and an inspiration to me, to say nothing of the thousand personal kindnesses that I, with all his other old students, am indebted to him for. . . . Whatever he does he does well, and no amount of toil is counted lost, so long as the end is reached. I think of him when I hear "Seest thou a man diligent in business, he shall stand before kings."

Sir Frederick is a notable example of the man who literally carves out his own success. He had his way to make, with only a few dollars to fall back upon; but even then so confident was he as to his future that he took a house in Wimpole Street, then the haunt of the greatest in the medical profession in London. He was a firm believer in the old adage, "Work spells success."

Four A.M. has seen him at work day after day, summer and winter, the simple preparations necessary to render it possible being made in a few minutes by himself. At seven o'clock the flannels and sweater, which served just as well for intellectual work as physical, were doffed. A cold bath and a light breakfast at 7.30, and then the more conventional garments and the operative work at his private hospital; then away to the lecture-room and public. A light luncheon at home, private visiting and ward work, and then dinner at seven, and the evening always with his family.

While he works indefatigably while at



Photograph by Lafayette, London.

SIR FREDERICK TREVES.

work, he has always believed implicitly in play. For years,—ever since Dr. Grenfell has known him,—he has thrown everything aside and left London regularly for three months every year.

To be able to regulate one's life as he has done impresses you with the fact that, while a master of other men, he is master of himself; that while he was a veritable Tartar in discipline with his assistants, he was equally strict with himself,—and this in a man with his sense of humor, his *bonhomie*, and the love of life he possesses so abundantly, shows a versatility that very few men possess.

When Frederick Treves was teaching surgery at the London Hospital, Sir Andrew Clark, the eminent physician, was teaching medicine; and the students would "run hot-foot from the medical to the surgical side" in order not to miss the famous surgeon's clinic. It is mainly as a surgical author, however, that Sir Frederick has risen to fame. He was once described as "the most prolific surgical author alive"; and of his well-known "Operative Surgery," it was remarked that so clear were the directions given and so inspired did the student become with the author's confidence, "that you can go to work confident that all will go well . . .

and you can almost see your patient walking away well and grateful before you begin." His "Tale of a Field Hospital," written after being in South Africa, was said to be "the best thing written about the war." One of the greatest honors that have come to Sir Frederick was his election, against a powerful rival, to the Lord Rectorship of Aberdeen University, his popularity among the students having been greatly helped by that sense of humor which pervades his books on non-professional subjects. Among other accomplishments Sir Frederick can sail a ship "with the best of them," having qualified himself by examination in navigation and seamanship. He is a firm believer, too, in the "sensible" upbringing of children. One of his daughters won a race off the Scilly Isles in an ordinary islander's punt, "sculling away from the crowd." On the same occasion Sir Frederick himself won the swimming

race for men over forty-five. Dr. Grenfell says of him:

To me he has always been the ideal all-around man; and I would just as soon to-day take his advice on how much of the main-sheet to get to claw a vessel best to windward, as I would on how far to venture in a delicate surgical operation.

To-day Sir Frederick is Sergeant-Surgeon to the monarch whose life he saved. King Edward's partiality for his genial surgeon is well known. Recently His Majesty granted to him Thatched House Lodge, in Richmond Park, London, in the grounds of which still stands the famous "Thatched House," whose walls and ceilings are decorated with paintings by Angelica Kauffman.

It is understood that Sir Frederick will be head of the new institution founded by private beneficence in Ireland, for research into the curative properties of radium.

RUSSIA AND JAPAN "MAKING UP."

IT is one of the ironies of fate that an armed conflict, instead of engendering a feeling of animosity, should beget a friendly feeling between the belligerents, when war is ended. The Russo-Japanese war seems to have had such a result. On the side of Japan, at least, a sincere effort is undoubtedly being made to win the friendship of the Russian nation,—an effort which, apparently, has been fruitful. The Russian Government, in spite of the opposition of the military class, has shown itself willing to reciprocate the courtesy extended by Japan. Perhaps the foremost advocate of a Russo-Japanese *rapprochement* is, on the side of Japan, Baron Goto, a rising statesman of the Mikado's Empire, who occupies the portfolio of Minister of Communications, and who thus is the Director-General of the newly established Imperial Board of Railways. It is understood that his trip to St. Petersburg last year was on the mission to promote a cordial relation between the two nations. A visible outcome of this trip is the establishment of co-operation between the Siberian and the Eastern Chinese Railways of Russia and the South Manchurian Railway of Japan.

While the government at Tokio has been endeavoring to befriend Russia, the people of Japan have not been reluctant to follow the lead. That we see, in the editorial comments in the leading journals throughout

the country such as the *Jiji* and the *Asahi*, expressions of pro-Russian sentiment, undoubtedly an indication that the Mikado's subjects regard the Czar's people in a very different light from that in which they looked upon them prior to the war. Nor is the advocacy of a Russo-Japanese *entente* limited to the class of publicists and journalists; the financiers of the Empire are likewise alive to the fact that the commercial intercourse between Japan and Russia must be encouraged by all means, in order that the two nations might become close friends.

As an expression of the general sentiment prevailing among the Japanese financiers, we note here an article in a recent issue of the *Taiyo* (Tokio) from the pen of Mr. K. Nakada, a well-known financier. Referring to the common belief that the late war was brought about because of Russia's ignorance of Japan's real prowess, military and financial, he urges his countrymen to study the conditions in Russia more carefully, in order that there might be no fresh occasion for misunderstanding between the two nations. He further asserts that an *entente cordiale* between the two nations must be consolidated only by developing economic interests common to both. He says:

The late war proved to be a golden opportunity for us to stimulate commercial intercourse with Russia. Thanks to the war, a num-



BARON GOTO, THE JAPANESE MINISTER OF COMMUNICATIONS.

(Who has just returned from a highly important diplomatic mission to St. Petersburg.)

ber. of mail steamers are now plying between Vladivostok and the Japanese port of Tsuruga, while in Manchuria Japanese *entrepreneurs* are coming increasingly in contact with Russian men of business. Furthermore, the Czar's government is unmistakably desirous of withdrawing its hand from military misadventures which characterized its policy prior to the war, and devoting its energies to the development of the economic interest in its Far Eastern territories. With this point in view, perhaps, Russia has shown itself inclined to enter into commercial co-operation with the Japanese; and it would be a great blunder on the part of Japan if she should fail to utilize this splendid opportunity.

While the writer does not blink the fact that the recently concluded Russo-Japanese convention is the assurance of an *entente cordiale* between the two powers, he is, nevertheless, of the opinion that a political alliance, which is not founded upon a firm basis of mutual commercial interest, cannot be but artificial, and liable to be endangered by the conflict of economic interests, which are all-important in these days of industry and commerce. In his view, Russia is essentially an agricultural country; the vast territory of Siberia still remains undeveloped; her Far-Eastern regions must depend upon foreign countries for manufactured articles. On the other hand, Japan is an industrial country; her

manufacturing enterprises are of no meager order; she must needs seek market in foreign land for her surplus products. And here is the opportunity for the Japanese, the writer asserts. Russia's maritime, trans-Baikal and Amour provinces, and we might add her sphere of influence in Manchuria, are open to the activities of the Japanese merchants. "A harmonious relationship recently entered into by the Japanese-Manchurian railway and the Russian railways in the Far East and Siberia is but a step toward the establishment of a greater, firmer economic co-operation between the two nations."

Mr. Nakada asserts that a serious obstacle in the way of a better understanding between Russia and Japan lies in the matter of language. Only a very limited number of Japanese are able to understand the Russian language, while still fewer Russians have any knowledge of Japanese. Whatever knowledge the Japanese people have of Russia and the Russian has naturally been gleaned from books written by English authors, most of whom have entertained strong prejudice against the Muscovite Empire. It is, therefore, imperative that the Japanese should study Russia at first hand, if the friendship between them is to be fostered.

"HOW LONG WILL MENDELSSOHN SURVIVE?"

MAINTAINING that "there was no difficulty in 1870 in deciding pretty accurately where Beethoven will ultimately stand"; that before 1911 and 1913 arrive practically every one will be agreed as to the precise significance of Liszt and Wagner; that in 1933 "the present opposing views as to the essential quality of Brahms' art will have struck a balance," Mr. Ernest Newman, in the *Contemporary Review* for February, voices his opinion that "the world,—or at all events the English-speaking world,—has not yet arrived at this truce of opinion upon Mendelssohn."

The centenary of his birth, indeed, finds the great majority of musicians and the general public still in conflict upon the question of his final worth. To the former his name has become, not altogether justly, the symbol of all that is amiably weak in music; to the public at large he is still one of the great masters, to be classed vaguely with Bach, Beethoven, and Mozart. The exaggerated esteem in which he is held by the man in the street has had the inevitable effect of making most modern musicians rank him a little lower than he deserves. All of us who have had occasion to write about him have been guilty of this in our time. Our excuse is that we were really peppering away not so much at Mendelssohn as at Mendelssohnism.

"Symbolic murder of this kind," he adds, "has to be committed occasionally in art criticism." Most readers of Mr. Newman's article will, we think, be inclined to admit that he has amply demonstrated this. Indeed, when he gets through with his victim, poor Jakob Ludwig Felix Mendelssohn-Bartholdy is (artistically speaking), like Marley in the "Christmas Carol," as dead as a door nail.

Mr. Newman commences to "pepper away" at the composer in the following paragraph:

Mendelssohn, of course, is not wholly answerable for the sins of his uncritical worshipers; but when we reflect upon the evil that has been wrought in English music in his name, the dire effects of his influence upon a whole generation of our musicians, the dead weight of entrenched tradition against which our more original composers have had to struggle, the stumbling-block that "Elijah" has become in the concert-room, the hindrance that the choral style thus blindly worshiped has been to our choirs developing a serviceable modern technique of choral singing,—it is hard to refrain from turning one's guns occasionally upon Mendelssohn himself as well as upon his followers. There can be little doubt that he will be ranked by future historians, so far as English music and musical life are concerned, as one of the most maleficent forces in history.

Mendelssohn's hold on the British public is, it appears, relaxing; he is "losing his vogue with the gradual passing away of the conditions that gave it him."

He came here at the psychological moment. . . . As the oratorios were just on the level of the better musical intelligence of the time, the piano works appealed irresistibly to the feebler musical intelligence. Sentimentality was rampant in all the popular art and popular literature of the day. . . . The age that could cry over the sentimental women that the novelists mostly drew . . . was just the age to take to its bosom the simpering and chattering piano pieces of Mendelssohn.

Mr. Newman does not spare "the doughty London critics" of the time. Henry F. Chorley is "one of the critical bullies who at this time devoted most of their time to setting the clock back in England"; Davison, of *The Times*, is "Chorley's brother in critical iniquity"; and even the composer, Sterndale Bennett, is dubbed "Mendelssohn's maiden sister."

Comparing the "resounding hero-worship of that time" with the present position of Mendelssohn in England, Mr. Newman says that "in almost every department he has been



MENDELSSOHN IN HIS PRIME.

(From the drawing by Hass, as reproduced in the *Illustrirte Zeitung*, Leipzig.)

outdistanced not merely by later composers, but by his two great contemporaries."

His pianoforte music now looks very feeble and bloodless by the side of that of Schumann and of Chopin. His chamber music has little or nothing of the vitality of some of Schumann's. . . . His piano concertos have dropped out of the repertory of almost every pianist, though the G minor is occasionally played by young ladies, who like it for the easy opportunities of display it affords. Where Mendelssohn still commands a hearing is with his violin concerto and his sacred choral works,—neither of which Chopin or Schumann attempted.

Proceeding to analyze the composer's productions, our critic remarks that "almost the whole of Mendelssohn is summed up in two typical works, the 'Midsummer Night's Dream' and 'Elijah.'" Almost everything that is good in his other instrumental works has something of the spirit of the overture in it; while "Elijah" is "his supreme effort to express definite human emotions in his art." We can only give a few excerpts from Mr. Newman's other criticisms. Following is the substance of them:

Any one volume of his instrumental works will give the key to him as an instrumental composer. He is extremely fond of rapid, bustling, prattling figures, as in the fairy music in the overture to the "Midsummer Night's Dream." Often these figures are the cheapest make-believe; there is a vast amount of flummery and fidget going on . . . but nothing at all is be-

ing said. . . . His instrumental music at its best shows him to be an excellent dancer and a good miniature painter, but a poor poet. . . . The frequent use of the same cadence is a vice with Mendelssohn. Scarcely a work of his is free from it. Always the effect is to soften the melodic outline, sometimes to the verge of flabbiness. . . . His piano music is, as a rule, quite uninteresting from the purely pianistic point of view; no man who played the piano so well as Mendelssohn ever wrote so emptily, a great part of his time, for it. . . . With his larger vocal works, time after time he is hopelessly outclassed by his subject. Mendelssohn is an example of a consummate technique acquired at an early age, helping expression to expand as time went on,—not adding to the little stock of ideas that were there from the beginning, but greatly clarifying and deepening them. . . . Recognizing that "Elijah" is simply a better "St. Paul," and that in none of the other vocal works is there any sign whatever of his capacity to break new psychological ground, we are justified in believing that with his last oratorio he had come to the end of his resources on this side of his art.

As to the future, our critic thinks that it is in some of the orchestral works that we have the enduring Mendelssohn. "Elijah" is bound to disappear in time as "St. Paul" has done. "We shall be left ultimately with little else but the two chief symphonies and some four or five of the overtures. The Scotch and Italian symphonies will presumably keep their charm for a long time to come."

COQUELIN, THE GREATEST OF FRENCH COMEDIANS.

BY the verdict of the artistic world in general and of his own profession in particular, the late Benoit Constant Coquelin (who died on January 27) was the ablest and most eminent of modern comedians. Cut off as he was when just about to gain the crown of his artistic career,—on the eve of the final rehearsals for the famous, long-delayed Rostand drama, "*Chanticleer*,"—Coquelin, says the *Paris Temps*, editorially, will be mourned by every one,—“by the author, of whom he was the brilliant interpreter; by the public, of whom he was the idol; by the great and humble, and by poor actors, of whom he was the benefactor.”

He was born in Boulogne in 1841, the son of a baker. His natural inclination and ability soon led him in the direction of the theater; and in 1859 he gained admission to the Paris Conservatory, and became a pupil of the distinguished actor, M. Regnier. From the first Coquelin exhibited extraordinary capacity. In less than a year he won the second prize for comedy, and

made his first appearance at the Théâtre Français in the character of one of Molière's lackeys. Before he was thirty he had been elected a *sociétaire*, and was established as one of the leading attractions of the famous house. For a number of years he was seen most frequently in plays of the classic repertory, such as "*Dépit amoureux*," "*Les Fourberies de Scapin*," "*Les Plaideurs*," "*Le Mariage de Figaro*," and "*Don Juan*." By degrees he drifted into the more modern drama. One of his triumphs was in "*L'Aventurière*," his Don Annibal furnishing "one of the most striking examples of humorous, yet realistic, intoxication known to living memory." Another famous impersonation was his Duc de Septmonts, in "*L'Etrangère*," which was followed by his Léopold in "*Les Fourchambault*." As he became more famous, he began to grow restless under the restrictions of his contract with the Théâtre Français. Objection was raised to the provincial tours which he had undertaken, and he was informed that he must confine his public appearances to the Français, or forfeit the pension to which he was entitled. He declined to yield, severed his relations with the theater, and signed agreements for his first American engagement. The



BENOIT CONSTANT COQUELIN.

(His latest portrait at the home he founded, rehearsing his part of "Cyrano de Bergerac," his own creation.)

fight lasted for three years, when a compromise was effected, by which he returned to the Français (in 1889), with the understanding that he should act there for six months in the year and be at liberty to play where he chose during the remainder of the time. Thereafter, M. Coquelin made frequent tours in France, England, and elsewhere, until his final retirement from the Français. He made a fine impression in the United States.

In summing up Coquelin's career, the *Nation* (New York), from which we have just quoted the biographical sentences, says:

Of his career viewed as a whole it must be said that he was not one of the world's great actors,—he could not be ranked, for instance, in the same category with Talma, Rachel, Bernhardt, or Salvini,—but he was one of the most accomplished performers produced by the French stage during the last century. Reared in the best traditions of the Théâtre Français, he was, in all the regions of comedy, a complete master of his art, his impersonations being no less remarkable for the perfection of their technical finish than for the richness of their natural humor.

Within his limitations, says the *Outlook* editorially, Coquelin was a really great man. Coquelin's first American tour, with Mme. Jane Hading, was begun in 1888, but he returned for a more extended visit in 1894, also with Mme. Hading, and in 1900,—with Sarah Bernhardt. His younger brother, Ernest Alexandre Henri Coquelin, usually known as Cadet, died last month. He also was an eminent comedian, though less famous than his brother. The *Figaro* (Paris) maintains that all Frenchmen should be grateful for the honor the elder Coquelin achieved for French dramatic art.

PAST AND PRESENT OF THE GERMAN UNIVERSITY.

HERE in America we are familiar with the idea that genuine university activity, in the modern sense of the word, is a thing of recent growth in our country,—dating, indeed, from the establishment of the Johns Hopkins University in 1876. But it is not a matter of familiar knowledge that even in Germany the university organized for the pursuit of truth in the spirit characteristic of the German universities of our time dates back only a century or so. An article in the *Deutsche Rundschau* on "The Development of the German Universities," closes its survey with a graphic review of what took place in the general shake-up,

weeding out, and transformation of the German universities at the beginning of the nineteenth century, and an eloquent summing up of the lofty service rendered by these noble institutions in the century that has just elapsed.

During the revolutionary and territorial changes which convulsed Europe from 1797 to 1818, eighteen of them were abolished, among these being the University of Bonn, originally founded in 1777 as an academy, and the University of Münster, opened in 1780. But this was scarcely noticed by a single contemporary, for, with the exception of the Mainz University, restored in the eighteenth century, they had long since ceased to live as scientific or social factors. Several of them were totally unknown

beyond their own city walls. Duisburg, for example, when it was abolished in 1809, had only four professors and fifteen students remaining; Erfurt, under the protection of Napoleon, Rinteln, under that of the King of Westphalia, between twenty and thirty. Three of the abolished universities,—Strasburg, Bonn, Münster,—were subsequently revived, but no century, not even the gloomiest one in the life of the nation, called as few universities into being as the nineteenth. It did, on the other hand, equip and transform the new and the old in a way that has no parallel in any other age. The notion, however, bred by the influence of the French Revolution, of severing the universities also from their historical development and reconstructing them upon an entirely new basis, was, fortunately for them, never carried into effect. The old faculties created by external exigencies were retained. But all other arrangements which were instituted and justified only in a period of decadence, gradually disappeared; for even that which is most venerable must fall, when, under changed conditions, the causes that occasioned its origin no longer exist. In place of the old exemptions and privileges there was substituted the new academic freedom of teaching and learning. And in this reorganization,—without the special rights or privileges which once constituted the greatest possession of the universities, ever armed for defense,—subjected to the general law, incorporated in the new political and social conditions, they have developed to a degree surpassing the most unbounded hopes of their founders. Far more important, however, than this outward development is the inward development which characterizes all the universities of our time, favored by the students' and instructors' liberty of changing their local attachments, which unites them all at present into one great spiritual body; whereas in the Middle Ages they often confronted each other as enemies, as one stronghold against another. Free, too, from the internal restraints of a former time, each, in the noble zeal not to lag behind the others as an educational institution for the better prepared youth and as a fostering ground

of science striding irresistibly forward, has contributed its equal share of great achievement.

The universities of to-day, continues this writer, have assumed the leadership in the various sciences, which, the more limited their ground of culture, the more have they gained in substance and certainty,—that is, in truth. And to fathom the truth, wheresoever it be, to extend the limits of knowledge, is, of course, the aim of every science.

More than two-thirds of all the literature of the special sciences now proceeds from those bodies, where factions of the most varied kinds once agitated themselves in hackneyed academic formulas, profitless to science, over empty questions; bodies which were once regarded with contempt as decayed institutions that, unfortunately, could not as yet be dispensed with. And the present universities are not only nursing-grounds of irresistibly advancing science; they are likewise the bulwarks against a dangerous stream of increasing half-culture. Nurturing and leading all the nobler spiritual tendencies, the universities have at the same time powerfully interwoven all that is most vigorous in modern achievement into the spiritual life of the people. They have fought for freedom of thought and for freedom of the individual, and upheld, even in the darkest days, faith in the lofty ideals of life, faith in the external victory of goodness, truth, justice. They have scattered many spiritual seeds which have ripened to splendid fruit. With full confidence and just pride, therefore, does the German nation look upon its present universities, in which it finds its spiritual needs satisfied, its longing for knowledge and culture embodied. Would that the German universities might in the future as well remain what they should be: impregnable strongholds of real learning, lofty beacon-lights of a free spirit, abodes of holiest peace and universal tolerance, faithful interpreters of the past, bold prophets of the future.

HAS PARLIAMENTARISM BECOME BANKRUPT?

STUNG to the quick by the recently exposed rascality of their Minister of Justice, the bank president and agrarian leader Alberti, the Danes have turned on the whole representative system of government, holding the man as well as his chances for evildoing to be logical results of that system. Pessimistic utterances have been noticed in newspapers and magazines throughout the country, and in the same way as when the Paris Commune drove Taine and Renan into a reactionary attitude, so the intellectual element in Denmark is just now inclined to talk with appreciation of the supposed benefits of "enlightened despotism."

In an article appearing in *Gads Danske Magasin* (Copenhagen), Arthur Christensen shows that similar misgivings are common throughout those parts of Europe that have attained to a democratic form of government. In his introduction Mr. Christensen reviews what he regards as the basic shortcomings of parliamentarism in the following words:

The main error of liberalism was that it built its program on two fundamental principles that were mutually exclusive: freedom and equality. Firm in its dogmas and faithful to its principles, it has continued to close its eyes to this antinomy. For this reason the historical part of liberalism has, on the whole, been that

of a mere path-breaker for democracy, the new great power which has assumed the reign, leaning on the idea of equality alone. Of course, democracy accepted freedom in the bargain, but was prepared at the same time to throw it overboard as soon as the two principles should come into conflict with each other. To the nineteenth century, democracy became what the Church of Rome was to the Middle Ages,—a sacrosanct, infallible institution which had its foundation in the revered Nature itself. Just as did the religious faith of the Middle Ages, so this new faith filled everything with its spirit, coloring all the phenomena of life: art, literature and science, manners and dress, everything became democratic. Like a resistless flood, democracy swept aside all that stood in its way. It smothered every heresy in its inception. And to complete its universal supremacy, it began at last, assisted by machine guns, railroads, and journalism, to raise the sluggish Asia itself out of its millennial ruts.

But in the shadow of this "democratic autocracy" the writer notices the growth of a new opposition which has firmer ground for its criticism than a naïve faith in long expired ideals, but which also, because of its principally negative character, has great difficulty in establishing any new, better ideals. The growth of this opposition Mr. Christensen traces through the writings of a long and brilliant line of French sociologists and philosophers, including men like Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, Gustave Le Bon, Alfred Fouillée, and Raymond Poincaré. Having summarized the theories of Le Bon in regard to the psychology of the mass,—theories that are well known in this country,—he quotes the following interesting utterance by Fouillée, the man who has been named as the foremost successor of Taine:

The danger inherent in our modern democracy is what Balzac calls the "mediocracy." Or perhaps it would be better to say that the danger lies in the antithesis of aristocracy, in "kakistocracy," the supremacy of the worst citizens. Another danger lies in the exaggerated specializing of the pursuit of politics, whereby it is placed in the hands of "politicians" who turn a purely moral mission into a remunerative business. . . . The so-called universal suffrage with which we have been blessed, and which in reality is only a partial, disproportionate, anarchical and formless franchise, exterminates almost everything that is not connected with local, class, or individual interests. It tends toward a government which uses the name of the masses for show, but which is actually represented by a few leaders or exploiters who possess all the real power.

Mr. Christensen cites the famous incident in the French Chamber of Deputies when the members of that body met early one morning without previous notice to the public and raised their own annual salaries from

9000 to 15,000 francs. It took them five minutes to do so, and it was done in the midst of a hubbub which prevented the few outsiders present from understanding what was going on. In this way in a few minutes an expense of 6,000,000 francs was added to the budget. And ever since the popular nickname for the deputies has been "the fifteen thousand."

Not only France, however, furnishes the Danish writer with ammunition. He quotes similar expressions from Werner Sombart and Professor Rehm in Germany, as well as from Sir Henry Maine, Sidney Low, and Lawson Walton in England. Mr. Walton is a member of the Parliament who recently declared that "the constitutional form of government has ceased to be parliamentary and has become ministerial." Another significant quotation is taken from the *Paris Temps*, which says in approval of an attack by the Socialist deputy Forunière on the prevailing order in France:

The Chambers alone rule and administer; neither the judicial nor the executive authorities escape their omnipotence, which is not counteracted by any factor guaranteeing the freedom and rights of the individual. We have simply substituted a sort of collective Cæsarism for our previous individual Cæsarism.

Mr. Christensen summarizes his ideas on the matter of parliamentarism in this closing paragraph:

Thus we see that throughout Europe, in wide circles, there prevails much dissatisfaction with the results which our noble dreams of liberty have produced. Political freedom has proved itself a chimera, and this individual freedom of the citizen is, to an increasing degree, exposed to encroachments. Not only is the individual compelled to make more and more numerous sacrifices of a personal and economic nature for purposes over which he has only a nominal control, but we have also recently, and in countries with such radically different civic attitudes as France and Prussia, seen the popular representatives being used for the enactment of laws that seem wholly opposed to the popular ideals of right and justice [the legislation against the Church in France and against the Poles in Prussia]. Monarchical despotism was superseded by parliamentary despotism, and the latter is about to become changed into ministerial despotism. France is now in a state of transition; in that country the power is still supposed to rest with the majority. England has already accomplished the change. Apparently we are in the midst of a process of development, the future course of which we are not yet able to make out. And the laws of evolution will prove themselves stronger than the dogmatism which believes that the sacred forms of parliamentarism have been established for time and eternity.

THE TRADE IN WHITE SLAVES.

TO what an alarming extent the accursed traffic in white girls has grown in both the Eastern and Western hemispheres is brought out in a late issue of the *Hollandische Revue*. Though this abominable traffic, says the *Revue* writer, is not openly recognized or permitted by the governments of the countries in which it flourishes, nevertheless it is in some civilized lands tolerated by the official organs. At least, is not openly opposed by them.

According to this writer, the countries where this traffic finds its largest field of operations are the Argentine Republic and Brazil. To substantiate this he quotes the following from a letter written from Buenos Aires to Switzerland:

In a single month the number of European young women, mostly still minors, who landed here and entered disreputable houses amounted to 117. The scoundrels who had brought them to Buenos Aires and Montevideo had made them believe that there were no consuls of their nationalities in those cities, and that for want of the necessary papers, they were liable to be arrested and imprisoned unless they followed the advice to report themselves as older than they were; with the design, however, on the part of their rascally deceivers, to have them enter the houses to which, against their will, they were conducted.

This traffic is thoroughly organized and conducted on a very large scale. The leading traffickers in white slaves, are mainly Jews. One of their leading agents is a Russian Jew, Maschke Rufinowski by name. He constantly travels back and forth with Russian passes, under several aliases, between South America and Europe. He is said to have acquired great wealth, and is the owner of a house in Buenos Aires, with which one of the most notorious dens in that city is connected. Says the writer further:

These traders in young girls in the Western Hemisphere have their agents in various European cities, who, under pretense of procuring honorable and profitable employment, induce them to accept their guidance and direction in emigrating to America, but who, instead, send them to their employers, to be by these, under one pretense or other, led into a service, the character of which they only discover when too late. The principals are informed by telegraph at what time and by what vessel a consignment may be expected, to describe which they use fictitious terms descriptive of common merchandise. For example, they announce the forwarding of five casks of Hungarian wine, to arrive at a given time at some designated port, which means that five girls of great beauty will arrive then and there. Or the very attractive

young women will be announced as so many bales of fine silk on the way to the port agreed upon. Less attractive ones may be billed as so many bags of potatoes. The prices at which these white slaves are sold range, according to quality, at from £120 to £150.

At the request of European governments the Brazilian Government enacted in 1897 most stringent laws with reference to this traffic and ordered the various authorities in the ports and cities of that country to enforce these laws without respect to persons. But through the venality of the local police these measures were rendered almost wholly ineffective, the more as the infamous traffickers almost invariably succeed in bribing the higher officials. As a result, as reported by the *Germania*, a German paper published in São Paulo, European girls are imported for immoral purposes as freely into Brazil as into Argentina.

In the Old World the central point for this nefarious traffic is found in Constantinople. The English and German press have repeatedly, but vainly, remonstrated against this trade.

The agents here are owners of infamous resorts in Pera and Galata, who have their agents in the cities of Austria-Hungary, Roumania, Galicia, and wherever the handsomest girls can be found. When the hapless victims arrive at the Golden Horn they are taken to the dens owned by these scoundrels, and which not seldom have on them the double eagle of Austria-Hungary, and here they are traded off, after which they find themselves helplessly plunged into the abyss of shame.

Even several years before Mrs. Butler entered upon her notable work against this world-wide evil, Dr. O. G. Heldring began his crusade in Holland, continuing it till his death, in 1876, when he was succeeded in this specific work by the Rev. Dr. Pierson. In 1877 the first international congress against prostitution was held at Geneva, though two years before, in 1875, the British, Continental, and General Federation for the Abolition of Prostitution had been formed. This was followed by a large gathering having the same object in view at Utrecht in 1878. In 1883 was held the first international congress of the Federation, which again brought about the National Congress held at the Hague from April 30 to May 3, 1899. These, however, had for their main object the combating of the evil of prostitution in general.

The campaign aimed directly at the white

slave trade began with the establishment, in 1882, of the International Union of the Friends of Young Women.

It was not till 1899, however, that the first international congress was held in London to discuss this alarming subject specifically. The first and most important point of this was the establishment of the Society for the War Against the Trade in Women, a society organized at the urgent plea of Mr. W. A. Coote, of

London. At a conference held in Paris in 1902 deputations were present sent by the governments of various European countries, and at this national committee were appointed to conduct the campaign in the countries there represented. From these great results may be expected; but more, perhaps, from the recent publication in Germany of a work by Dr. Otto Henne am Rhyn, "Prostitution und Mädchenhandel," in which the terrible facts concerning this traffic are fully set forth.

THREE YEARS OF "PARLIAMENT" IN RUSSIA.

A KEEN, searching survey of the results of "parliamentary government" in Russia,—as far as such has actually existed since the promulgation of the famous manifesto of October, 1905,—is given editorially in the *Russkaya Mysl* (Russian Thought).

In discussing the relation of the present ruling parties,—the Octobrists and the Reactionaries,—to the popular yearning for real constitutional government, the editor of this Russian review says:

Those who are agitating against the "Constitution" are endeavoring to fall back upon the traditional public sentiment, the devotion of the people to the Orthodox faith and the strong patriotic feeling which array themselves against everything that may shake the unity and power of the empire, and upon loyalty to their monarch.

In the frontier provinces, we are informed, this propaganda of the Reactionaries has been quite successful among the broad masses of the native Russian population.

There it was, to a certain extent, even of a democratic nature. But in the interior of the empire, these reactionary sentiments were manifested by the very anti-popular elements; the large landed-proprietors and the bureaucratic oppressors who enlisted recruits to their cause from among the ignorant and drunken mob, either by means of money or other considerations. Hence, this so-called Party of the Rights is paralyzed by this deep dilemma and is rotting away in the slough of scandals, robberies, and personal tattle of adventurers who endeavor to deceive the people. We, therefore, see all over Russia astounding examples of political charlatanism and fraudulent deceit.

The masters of the situation at the present day, continues the reviewer, are the Octobrists.

This may sound rather ironical, since these gentlemen who are the masters of the situation dare nothing, know nothing, and cannot rely upon anybody, because not less than one-half of their number consist of outspoken members of the infamous "Black Hundreds." Of their former intentions to regenerate Russia, according to their own program they have forgotten

long ago. They were given a fixed problem: to sanction some measures of the government. A sad weakness pervades all their actions and words; and the fact that Komyakov (President of the third Duma) was a close friend of the notorious Purishkevich is certainly a symbol of the moral downfall of the Octobrists. The third Duma is compelled to humbly fulfill all the wishes of the government or it will cease to exist. Whenever a seemingly successful measure has passed the Duma, the Octobrists claim the credit for it, and if such a measure fails they hold the Constitutional Democrats responsible for the failure.

"However," adds this writer, significantly, "nothing of real importance has as yet passed the Duma."

The principles of the manifesto of October 17, 1905, can be carried out "only by those men who are actually imbued with the ideals of civic freedom and civic equality," who are free from class interests that took root centuries ago. The majority of the Octobrists belong to the nobility and can "hardly digest the ideas of civic equality," or to the "cowardly bureaucracy who think only of a career and cannot accomplish any deeds themselves."

The program of the Octobrists promised much.

All the Russian citizens, without distinction of nationality or creed, were to take part, on equal terms, in the creation of the constitutional government; but the Octobrists have given the Duma a constant and foolish persecution of nationalities. All the promises of the manifesto, personal liberty, free press, free meetings, and free associations, have remained a dead letter, owing to the reactionary policy of the Octobrists. In the agrarian question the program of the Octobrists even acknowledged the necessity of the alien nobility in extraordinary cases of private lands for the benefit of the peasants. If, however, to-day some one would dare to propose such a measure for alien nobility in the Duma, the Octobrists, Markov and Purishkevich, would drag him down from the platform and Prince Goltz in would speak of the demagogues who incite the peasants against the nobility. In short, the Octobrists are not willing to grant the people any more

than the Russian Government is willing to grant.

Since the fighting mood has changed in the country, and the representation of the people has become more friendly to the government, the latter "does not trouble itself any more with liberalism, and the list of promised reforms is getting shorter and shorter."

In the manifesto of March 6, 1907, Premier Stolypin still spoke of the conjoined work of the government with the representatives of the people; but with the delegates of the third Duma he has already changed this tone and speaks of "Your conjoined work with the government." There is no more mention of a labor movement, professional associations, of the non-punishment of strikes, of school reforms, of the responsibility of the officials, of the freedom of conscience, of the inviolability of the home, etc. In the bills introduced in the third Duma by the government there appears a reactionary project which may forbid any person of the Greek Orthodox Church to join any other church. The only gain, however, is the very existence of the Duma, and if this Duma in the long run will not serve its real purpose, *i. e.*, the deliberation and the welfare of the people, the decay of the old autocratic régime will be hastened.

The most horrible feature of the present situation, in the opinion of the *Russkaya Mysl*, is the development of class-hatred in Russia. The editor is much concerned over this. He says:

Millions of mysterious and malicious pamphlets inciting against the intellectual Jews, Poles, and other non-Russian citizens, against the Liberal leaders, etc.; the malignant rumors spread about the conspiracy of the Freemasons and the Jews, against the Russian Orthodox Church, the government, and the Czar, are distributed bountifully among the ignorant masses, and will undoubtedly bring forth rich harvest. The "Black Hundred" associations are spreading anarchy. The international and inter-religious relations have taken a more strained and dangerous form now than under the régime of Plehve. Another great minus in the account of the last three years is the absence of judicial instinct in the country, and especially in the administration. Never before has Russia seen such illegal acts as after the manifesto of October 17, 1905. Colossal extortion, monstrous abuse of power have received the right of citizenship that people are no longer ashamed of them.

To sum up: "We may say that the whole work of the last three years has not been successful."

THE GERMAN INVASION OF ITALY.

"IT is not Pomeranian grenadiers who are marching down upon the East, it is commercial travelers who are slipping in; German or Austrian cannon that will not roar in the Balkan Mountains, but the whistle of the locomotive will cry the triumph of German civilization to the skies."

Thus spoke a clever young parliamentary debater in the Italian Chamber of Deputies not long ago, while another member of that assembly called attention to "German emigration" to the Balkan peninsula, where, he declared, German villages had been founded which would soon become towns. He stated, likewise, that at least a quarter of Sofia's population was German, that there was a "predominating" German element in Belgrade, and even an "important" one in Bucharest; "and we are only now," he exclaimed, "remembering the railroad from Vienna to Salonika!"

To the readers of this magazine, and of current newspapers, the efforts and ambitions of Germany to obtain fresh outlets for the flourishing commerce of the empire in eastern countries,—by means of the Bagdad railroad, for instance,—are not matters of special nov-

elty; but these and other Italian references to the spread of pan-Germanism in the East import something that will sound new and surprisingly to Americans, something that thus far has found no utterance in our press. A single sentence from a recent article in the Roman *Nuova Antologia* reveals the place where the shoe pinches:

The commercial exchanges between Italian and Adriatic ports, already so considerable before the occupation [by Austria] of Bosnia and Herzegovina, will perpetually diminish, and after the completion of the direct line Vienna-Mitrovitza-Salonika-Tiracus, Italy may be abandoned as the short route from England to India, with serious detriment to Italy's trade, and particularly to the port of Brindisi's.

In short, uneasy feelings are being publicly expressed by prominent Italians that the energetic, enterprising merchants of Germany and Austria are not merely taking away Italy's business with the East, but seizing the business of the Italians in Italy and effecting the commercial conquest of that land. And it is even more than a question of business, for, according to Signor Diotallevi, who contributes "The German Penetration of Italy" to *L'Italia all'Estero* (Rome), "going down

the Lake of Garda to-day from Riva [on the Austrian frontier], you get the impression of scarcely being on Italian soil when you see Teuton banners obscuring our sun in celebration of German national festivals." To quote some of this writer's further animadversions:

Whether you proceed into Italy from Trieste, the Brenner Pass, the Lake of Garda, or Switzerland, the German invasion must look formidable to the most careless and sanguine eyes. The province of Venetia, always so solidly and passionately Italian, is being literally invaded, not only by German tourists and inn-keepers, but by the most varied interests of their country. German capital comes skirmishing from abroad, and is spreading more and more through the territory of Verona. Is not Milan profoundly Germanized as to industrial capital and management, as to the signs and methods of the shops, as to many popular usages and even as to some private customs? . . . The streets and doorways and inns of Genoa, too, swarm with Germans; the industries of that city, while tenaciously maintaining themselves as Ligurian so far as labor is concerned, yet are largely operated by capital nominally Italian, though really German. Genoa's mercantile connections with Hamburg are tending to turn it into a commercial dependency, thanks to the excellency of the German banking system. . . . One of the greatest insurance companies,—belonging to Munich, in Bavaria,—has its largest branch in Genoa under the ægis of an American. And

while a bank of frankly German origin controls an enormous lot of Italian business, the whole of the Riviera is invaded by Germans, resident or transient, invalids or speculators, who are constantly gaining ground there and multiplying their influence.

Florence and its surroundings are full of Germans holding property, or studying, or otherwise interested; Germans are working upon Bologna and Ancona; Germans are buying up health resorts in the Apennines and mineral springs that well out from the flanks of our magnificent mountain spine; the same energies are beginning to break into Rome, as usual preceded by the proud vanguard of inn-keepers; Naples, Tozzuoli, and Bagnoli are now permeated with German industries and punctuated with German villas; Capri, Apulia, and Sicily afford prosperity to German business managers and pleasure to German travelers; and even Calabria, that irreducible stronghold of an ancient and sturdy Italian spirit, has for some years been cutting down its forests,—under German auspices,—in order that they may supply ties for the empire's railroads, while we, who are willing to give up our forests to anybody, shall soon perceive that we have none left for our own railroads.

Similarly, numerous individual railroad enterprises, tramway lines, electric light and power plants, mines and iron foundries, sugar factories, distilleries, cooperage, cutlery, and pharmaceutical works are under the control of German capital. And in our best workshops are able operatives, in our universities distinguished teachers, in our libraries industrious students,—all come from Germany.

BELGIUM'S ELECTORAL SYSTEM OF PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION.

THE English Premier, Mr. Asquith, in the course of a reply to a deputation which waited on him last May, said: "You cannot achieve social reforms worthy of the name so long as your political machinery does not respond readily and promptly and persistently to the real will and genuine wishes of the people." He also informed his hearers that he considered it "a binding duty on the part of the government that, before this Parliament comes to an end, they should submit a really effective scheme for the reform of our electoral system." Taking Mr. Asquith's words as his text, Mr. John H. Humphreys by way of commentary gives in the *Contemporary Review* an account of the Belgian system, from which it appears that the little country of Belgium is really far in advance of its powerful neighbors as far as true representation of the people is concerned. The distinguishing features of the Belgian system are the following:

In the first place, Belgium has manhood suffrage, ingeniously tempered by a system of graduated voting. Secondly, each elector is compelled to vote, or at least to present himself at the polling place. Thirdly, both the chambers are elective, and, although provision exists for the dissolution and the election of Parliament as a whole, only one-half of each chamber is, in the ordinary course, elected at a time, each Senator being elected for a fixed period of eight years, and each member of the House of Representatives for a period of four years. Fourthly, there has been in force since 1899 a system of proportional representation by means of which each party is enabled, with reasonable accuracy, to obtain representation in proportion to its strength.

There are three leading political parties in Belgium,—Catholic, Liberal, and Socialist; and the unique franchise system was not adopted until after many months had been spent in discussing their rival schemes. Every male Belgian who has attained the age of twenty-five years has the right to vote. A supplementary vote is granted to every

married man of the age of thirty-five and upward who pays five francs in taxes on his dwelling. Every owner of land or house property of the value of 2000 francs is awarded an additional vote. Two further votes are awarded to those who have obtained a diploma of higher education and to those engaged in the professions. The highest number of votes that any elector may claim, however, is three. This is in direct contrast to the systems of plural voting. In England, for instance, a wealthy man, by buying property, may obtain the right to vote in as many constituencies as he pleases. In Belgium he can secure two additional votes only, and the well-educated voter is placed on an equality with him.

The obligatory vote is regarded by most public men in Belgium as a measure of great value. Formerly the political organizations had to persuade and exhort the electors to vote: now each voter receives from the returning officer a command to do so. But "the exercise of the franchise being regarded as a duty which each citizen owes to the state, the obligatory vote is accepted without demur."

The elector must attend at the polling place, take his ballot paper and deposit it in the ballot-box. Unless he forwards to the Electoral Officer an explanation, in due form, of his absence from the polling booth, he is liable to prosecution. The percentage of abstentions is very low.

The particular feature of the Belgian system is proportional representation. Fifteen days before the date of election lists of candidates (which must have received the support of at least 100 electors) are sent to the returning officer. A list may consist of one or of several names. Seats in Parliament are allotted not according to the number of votes obtained by individual candidates, but according to the number of votes recorded for the list as such. Each list is divided into two parts, separated by the word "Suppléants." The candidates so described are called upon to fill any vacancy arising from the retirement or death of a duly elected representa-

tion on the same list, thus obviating the necessity of by-elections. The total number of votes for each list is divided successively by the numbers 1, 2, 3, and so on, and the highest totals are then arranged in order of magnitude to the number of the candidates to be elected, the lowest of such totals being called the "electoral quotient." In the election which Mr. Humphreys attended and which he describes, there were eleven vacancies to be filled; and the allotment of votes was made as follows:

The votes for each list were:

List No. 1.	List No. 2.	List No. 3.	List No. 4.	List No. 5.	List No. 6.
78,865	39,788	913	1,094	23,118	271

The totals for each list were divided by the numbers 1, 2, 3 and so on, and arranged thus:

List No. 1.	List No. 2.	List No. 3.	List No. 4.	List No. 5.	List No. 6.
78,865	39,788	913	1,094	23,118	271
39,432	19,894	11,559	...
26,288	13,262	7,706	...
19,716	9,947
15,773
13,144
11,266

The eleven highest figures thus obtained were then arranged in order of magnitude, and the seats allotted accordingly:

1st seat.....	78,865	(List No. 1 ..	Catholic)
2nd seat.....	39,788	(List No. 2 ..	Liberal)
3rd seat.....	39,432	(List No. 1 ..	Catholic)
4th seat.....	26,288	(List No. 1 ..	Catholic)
5th seat.....	23,118	(List No. 5 ..	Socialist)
6th seat.....	19,894	(List No. 2 ..	Liberal)
7th seat.....	19,716	(List No. 1 ..	Catholic)
8th seat.....	15,773	(List No. 1 ..	Catholic)
9th seat.....	13,262	(List No. 2 ..	Liberal)
10th seat.....	13,144	(List No. 1 ..	Catholic)
11th seat.....	11,559	(List No. 5 ..	Socialist)

The eleventh figure, 11,559, as already explained, is called the "common divisor" or "electoral quotient." The Catholic total, 78,865, contained the "quotient" six times, with a remainder of 9511; the Liberal total, 39,788, contained the "quotient" three times, with a remainder of 5111; the Socialist total, 23,118, contained the "quotient" twice; and the Catholics, Liberals, and Socialists obtained six, three, and two seats respectively.

It will be seen that List No. 5, the Socialist party, although it received only 23,118 votes as against 78,865 for List No. 1, the Catholic, nevertheless secured two seats.

It was prophesied that the new system would result in the splitting of parties into petty factions: the actual result has been the contrary. One marked effect arising from the representation of minorities has been a considerable augmentation of public interest in political questions.



LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

A HIGHER INTEREST RATE?

GERMAN, French, and Italian periodicals of finance had a good deal to say last month about the American money market. To the casual reader, even though an investor, the discussions might have seemed academic. But they were n't.

The safer an investment, the more it is affected by the interest rate. Last month, for instance, a man could borrow money in New York for two or three months on a good note at $3\frac{1}{2}$ and $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. Suppose this rate should be doubled in six months, and stay so. Union Pacific stock would be more likely to go up than down, other things being equal. Union Pacific first 4 per cent. bonds would be more likely to go down than up, because the security is so overwhelming as not to be a factor in the price of the bond. The latter is worth pretty nearly what money itself is worth.

Typical of the foreign wonder at the lasting cheapness of American money is a review in the last number of *L'Economista dell'Italia Moderna*, published at Rome. For more than a year now "call money" in New York has averaged under 2 per cent., and commercial money around 3 per cent. This "persistent abundance of capital seeking employment," the *L'Economista* finds remarkable in financial history.

One of the most representative German papers, the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, does not think this sort of thing can last much longer.

One reason is that the very bankers who have unheard of sums to lend on security subject to instant call, are still "out of the market" when it comes to loan money for distant dates at the present rates. They evidently expect a better demand later on. This will undoubtedly be coincident with a revival in general business."

Even the hardest Wall Street speculators will need no more money at present, but when the clouds of tariff uncertainties are dispelled, there will be a two-fold demand: first, Wall Street, by starting in on a new bull movement, will discount the future, as it always does, and then on the heels of this movement the money market will experience a strong and probably steady demand from commerce and industry.

To the average man and woman the situation is hopeful. The stocks of the standard railroads and of all well-managed concerns should soon be drawing down greater profits from a larger volume of traffic and trade. Money is wisely put into any of the many issues of short time notes, with railroad equipment or other good security behind them, now being poured forth enormously but instantaneously absorbed.

The man or woman acting on responsible banking advice, and feeling an interest in personal investment, may be glad to have cash coming due in five years. As the late Mr. Russell Sage said on a similar occasion: "By that time money may be fashionable again."

WHAT THE ENGLISH INVESTOR EXPECTS.

A PUZZLED young fellow is said once to have sought out Lord Rothschild in Frankfort for a little investment advice. There was a very sound bond at 5 per cent. Then there was a very attractive stock paying 8 per cent. Which would Lord Rothschild recommend?

"If you want to eat well and live well," Lord Rothschild's answer went, "buy the 8 per cent. stock. But if you want to sleep well,—take the bond."

One nation that appreciates this natural law is England, as is plain from some of the

London financial reviews that reached these shores last month.

"The discreet investor will for months to come have an ample choice of 5 per cent. yields on fairly good foreign stocks."

This prophecy of W. R. Lawson in the *London Outlook* is doubly suggestive. It is an estimate, from a thorough student, of the relations for some time between the world's money rate and the price of securities,—a fact that the investor too often ignores,—and it bears witness to the Englishman's feeling that he can't expect a stock (this word in Eng-

land often means "bond") to be more than "fairly good" if it yields as high as 5 per cent.

The London *Money Market Review* comments on the decline of the "superstitious reverence", with which Consols, the government stocks, now selling on a 3 per cent. basis, were once regarded. "It is recognized that there are other investments which are almost as well secured, and which, besides offering a higher return, are not subject to constant and frequently unfavorable fluctuation."

Last year, for instance, more than a billion dollars' worth of capital was raised by means of the London market for new loans and enterprises in most parts of the world. Seven-eighths of this enormous sum, so the London *Statist* calculates, was furnished by the British investor himself.

What did he buy? A table given by the *Statist* shows that he has a leaning first for loans to governments and municipalities, or "corporations," to use the English financial term; next for railway stocks and bonds, especially in India and other British colonies, and America and other foreign nations; and, thirdly, for ventures in trading and manufacturing concerns everywhere. The "5 per cent. Englishman" did not go into plantation stock last year,—rubber, tea, or coffee, nor into nitrates, oil, etc., nor into beer and spirit enterprises.

Of course, the type of man who can sleep on a risk, and indeed, rather likes one, can find what he wants on the London Exchange.

One such investment list, of interest to Americans as mentioning the popular "Steel preferred," was given by the *Cosmopolitan Financier*, a London weekly.

"At the outset it must be postulated," this journal very frankly remarks, "that in the ordinary way high interest means risky security; but there are times in the history of industries when the speculative risk is surmounted and the stage of perfect security is reached."

Here are the twelve stocks and bonds chosen for variety of enterprise and of geographical location, and for reasonable prospect that their speculative risks are being "surmounted":

	Price.	Yield.
Peruvian Corporation 6% Debentures..	100½	6
London Bank Mexico shares.....	10¼	6
U. S. Steel 7% Prefs.....	117	6.15
Burmah Oil Ordinary £1 shares.....	4¾	6.30
San Paulo Railway Ordinary.....	205	6.30
British Bank of South America.....	18½	6.60
Canadian General Electric Common..	106½	6.60
Bukit Rajah Rubber £1 shares.....	4¾	7
Forestal Land 6% Participating Prefs.	1¼	7
Bartholomay Brewery 6% Debentures..	80	7.5
Spies Petroleum 10s. shares.....	10s.	7.5
Biograph Theatres 10s. fully-paid shares..	14s.	10

The Peruvian Corporation is a company formed to take over the outside debt of Peru, having received in return annuity, and claims on the customs, the government railways and steamers, guano and land grants. The *Financier's* further comments evidently put the Peruvian and U. S. Steel securities ahead of the others above. The two are compared as the sort of thing that an American banker would call "an attractive semi-speculative business man's purchase for high yield."

LIGHT ON THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE.

WHEN a grin of amusement goes around a circle of brokers as some one reads aloud lurid extracts from the latest attack on "Wall Street gambling," the quiet observer is sorrowful.

It is usually quite easy for the man familiar with financial definitions and mechanism to point out some technical slip on the part of the enthusiastic reformer.

And without doubt the latter's effort to make a sensation, without balancing all the facts, alienates the very body of conservative, intelligent opinion that could add most weight to the pressure for better methods.

But all this is a pity, because changes are really called for. Wall Street would do better if it came more into the light.

Now that the commission appointed by Governor Hughes is investigating New York Stock Exchange transactions; now that legislators are struggling with bills to solve this complicated problem; now that the psychological moment for a "Wall Street crusade" is appearing to the newspapers and magazines of wide circulation, it might be well to refer to the articles entitled "The Use of Speculation" and "The Abuse of Speculation," which were printed in this magazine for June of last year.

A large number of letters were received at the time from readers who had before never sat down and considered (1) that the exchanges for buying and selling stocks, grain, etc., enable thousands of the produc-

ing class to avoid risks they would otherwise have to take; (2) that these very farmers, merchants, and investors, however, usually come to grief when they pervert this machinery and try to make money out of assuming the risks of other people; and (3) that a certain section of Wall Street is to blame for the manner in which "small margin" speculators are encouraged.

Last month, by a forceful article in *Everybody's Magazine*, this third point was again emphasized. "The evil of stock speculation, as now indulged in, grows out of the fact that the gambler is able to borrow more than the real loan value of the stock." The author, Frederick S. Dickson, very pertinently calls for a law which will

prohibit the broker from lending any additional sum beyond the bank loan, and insist that the broker shall inform his customer of the number and description of the certificates which he has bought, the amount of the loan, and the name of the bank where the loan is placed. Make it clear also that the ownership of the stock is wholly in the customer, and that it will be grand larceny for the broker to use this collateral for his own advantage.

Such a law would at least keep the people who will try to trade in stocks "on the side" from getting so far beyond their depth.

The careful banker will not lend more than 75 or 80 per cent. of the quoted price of an "active" stock price. Thus the trader would have to put up 20 to 25 per cent. This would limit the business of those brokers who supply the gap between the conservative bank loan, and the thin ten-point margin of the speculator, with their own capital,—all for the sake of making twice as much commission, the number of shares bought on a ten-point margin being twice as many as those bought on a twenty-point margin.

The real investment houses of Wall Street, those that keep the same customers year in and year out, would come into their own upon the passage of such a law. Many of these houses will not accept instalment accounts at all, unless it is a matter of convenience for the purchaser, enabling him to buy stocks, and often bonds, at a low price and pay up the difference as his money comes in.

What form such a law could take, whether it would necessitate the incorporating of the Stock Exchange, which now is merely a private club,—these are questions which will doubtless be much better understood upon the report of the intelligent and well informed commission now at work. Governor

Hughes has gone about the matter by the same methods that produced the recent model changes in the New York banking law.

The article in *Everybody's* was contradicted by the financial press all the more easily in that it contained statements which, as Mr. Dickson himself remarked, are "not susceptible of actual proof." Such was the declaration that the 1907 crisis, panic, and depression was purposely meant as a lesson to Theodore Roosevelt; and that "in October, a still more drastic fall in values was decreed," and that "money was made scarce" by a group of men acting in concert.

The perusal of the most eminent international financial authorities on this panic of 1907,—the writings of several men like Leroy-Beaulieu, Francis Hirst, and Theodore E. Burton,—does not reveal any other cause for the 1907 trouble than for the trouble of 1903, 1893, 1884, or 1873,—over-expansion. When people spend more and save less year by year, they approach a crash. Capital must be changed from stocks, bonds, and notes to "liquid" form. The thing has happened so often that thoughtful people have drawn some sort of law concerning it.

In 1907, moreover, it happened not only in the United States, but in every civilized country.

IF MARGINS WERE STOPPED.

Determinations like that of *Everybody's*, to "put a stop to margin gambling," called forth a reply from the *Wall Street Journal*. The editor considers the consequence if the New York legislature should pass a law forbidding margin trading. He foresees (1) a severe decline in the prices of all securities, good and bad; (2) a transfer of financial business to some other center; (3) the transfer of the Stock Exchange to Jersey City.

The fourth result would be an enormous shrinkage in the business of our national banks, and their power to furnish credit for the industrial and commercial development of the whole country.

The possibility of New York becoming the principal financial center of the world would disappear. No such financial center can exist without an unrestricted stock market because no financing of any magnitude can be done without a free market for securities.

The recovery in business which we are all hoping for would be indefinitely postponed. Railroad expansion would be suspended, because there would be no sufficient market in which to sell new securities. Every industrial concern in the country would consequently be affected, and widespread industrial distress of the most intense character would ensue.

Not only the brokers who solicit business, but those who actually perform the transactions on the "floor" of the Exchange, are held up by *Everybody's* as in need of regulation. Some of the accusations are very broad indeed. A carefully edited financial journal, *Moody's Magazine*, replies as follows:

Unquestionably there is cause for strong criticism of certain methods which have been employed in some quarters in the Street during the past few years, but a criticism always loses its force when it is intemperately applied and made to embrace the innocent with the guilty. The sweeping statements regarding all Stock Exchange transactions and all commission business which are being dignified with space in certain of the popular magazines can only defeat their own purpose. We shall comment further on this matter in our next issue.

Between such views and those of the out-and-out "reformer" there is a wide gulf. Whoever wishes to search about in this gap for facts upon which to base his own opinion would do well to read the serious discussions by President Hadley, of Yale, Prof. Henry C. Emery, of Yale, Walter Bagehot, Charles A. Conant, and others of international reputation.

THE CERTAINTY ABOUT WALL STREET.

One thing is certain: that the use of the word "gambling" to apply to the purchase of stocks is inaccurate. A definition of gambling is the process of placing money on an event which is artificial,—which serves no

economic purpose,—and which yields a gain to the winners always equal to the loss of the losers.

But a share of stock is an evidence of interest in a corporation that is real,—that is playing its part in the transportation, manufacturing, or trade of the country. And a rise in value of said share of stock does not at all necessarily involve the loss of the man who last sold it, although it does bring a gain to the holder.

Is it not better to stick to the exact terms, and discuss margin *trading*? The matter becomes much clearer.

It is deemed contrary to public policy for people to engage in many kinds of trade unless they observe proper safeguards. The man who trades in dynamite, for instance, has got to keep his factory at a distance from dwelling houses, and he has got to mark his product so that proper care may be observed in its transportation.

As remarked in this magazine, nearly a year ago, and by *Everybody's* last month, it may be best similarly to surround the trader in stocks with the safeguards that he and the public need.

And the personal warning is just as strong. The man who drops into a broker's office a few minutes every day and trades in stocks might just as well drop into a dynamite factory and casually handle dynamite. In either case, the lack of special knowledge and constant care can be relied on to produce disaster,—sooner or later.

VALUING THE RAILWAYS.

EXTRACTS from the *Railroad Age Gazette* of February 5 show the immense importance to stockholders of the valuation of railways in Minnesota recently made by the State Railroad and Warehouse Commission. It may be that such estimates will soon be used to fix railroad rates, profits, and consequently dividends.

The Minnesota test is said to be the most exhaustive of the sort ever made. Nineteen companies submitted, several of which offer stocks, bonds, and notes that are held by scores of thousands of investors.

The roads are, moreover, representative. The Great Northern has over 2000 miles in Minnesota; the St. Paul, 1202; the Northern Pacific, 967; the Northwestern, 650, and there are good stretches of the Rock Island,

Great Western, the "Soo," the "Omaha," and other roads widely known to investors, besides bits of standard lines like the Burlington and the Illinois Central.

The stockholder's first sentiment is undoubtedly reassurance. For the commission's estimates state that the nineteen railway carriers of Minnesota have a "present value" of \$45,799 per mile, and would cost to reproduce, new, as much as \$52,430 per mile. Yet the capitalization of the portion of these roads lying within the State is only \$44,206 per mile.

"The Minnesota Commission," the *Gazette* says, "has meant to be fair, but it has borne the reputation,—justly, we think,—of being rather hostile to the railways. It certainly is not unduly friendly to them." The

above estimate therefore is "of unusual significance."

The gap was enormous between the estimate "A" which the commission made according to the prices which a railroad would actually have to pay for the land in question, and its estimates "B," which figured the land at the price some one not a railroad company would have paid for it (in Minnesota, about one-third as much). For the nineteen carrying roads of the State, valuation "A" amounted to \$411,725,195; "B" to only \$360,951,548. (The railroads' own estimate was \$500,675,781.)

Naturally, the investor wants to know if the courts will decide that profits are "reasonable" on the basis of estimate "A." On this disputatious point, the *Railroad Age Gazette's* defense of the railway is interesting:

Let us see how the commission's theory would work in practice. Suppose a new company wishes to build a line, or that an existing road wishes to build a new branch. It will have to pay, say, from two to four times as much for the necessary land as the same land would cost for other purposes. If the so-called "true or market value" of the land is \$100 an acre, the railway will have to pay from \$200 to \$400 an acre.

We will assume that the commission thinks 6 per cent. is a fair return on the physical valuation of a railway. On its theory, the correct valuation of the land, after it was acquired by the railways, would be \$100 per acre. But if the railway were allowed to earn only 6 per cent. on a \$100 valuation, its return on its cash investment of \$200 to \$400 would be only 1½ to 3 per cent. Does the commission think such a return would encourage further railway building in Minnesota?

Further reasoning possibly forecasts the arguments that will soon be made before the courts of Minnesota and, perhaps of the United States, in approaching attempts at railroad rate regulation:

The commission perhaps would answer that it would be only fair to let a new road earn a return on its actual investment of \$200 to \$400 an acre, but that it is not fair to let an old road, which paid much less for its land, earn a return on \$200 to \$400 an acre merely because it would cost that much to get the land now.

But is not the equivalent of this done in other businesses? There are "early settlers" in Minnesota who bought their land for \$1.25 an acre. There are other farmers,—just across the road, perhaps,—who came to the State later and paid \$25, \$50, or \$100 per acre. Is it unfair, because the former bought their land earlier and cheaper, that they should get as much per bushel or

per acre for their crops as the later arrivals and that their land should be held to be equally valuable?

The commission may reply that a public service corporation has not the same right as a farmer to enjoy the benefit of the increment in value of land. But if it has not, how does the commission propose to adjust rates on old and new competing roads so as to withhold from the old roads the benefit of the increment in value of their land, and at the same time secure to the new roads a fair return upon the higher price that they pay for land?

No human ingenuity can do that as long as competitive rates on old and new roads must be the same; and they must be the same as long as shippers selfishly prefer to ship by the road that makes the lowest rates.

WHAT THE FIGURES SHOWED.

If the railroad owners do win their point and the "A" kind of estimate is taken as evidence, the following extracts from the Minnesota report will have point to stockholders in the roads mentioned. (It must be explained that the column entitled "Present Value '07" attempts to indicate the depreciation due to wear and tear on rails, wheels, etc.):

Railways.	Railways' estimate cost 1906.	A. Cost reproduction, 1907.	A. Present value, 1907.
Great Western..	\$17,639,880	\$7,709,914	\$6,714,147
St. Paul.....	54,888,175	54,591,393	47,459,752
Northwestern...	20,914,139	21,214,978	17,463,934
Great Northern..	134,823,938	107,074,102	94,413,343
Noo	20,992,511	21,990,682	19,575,254
Northern Pacific.	86,817,468	69,397,955	61,099,563

The figures are eloquent. The overcapitalization of the Chicago Great Western has been a frequent theme of financial writers, as has been on the other hand the conservative financial policy of roads like the St. Paul and the Northwestern. The discrepancies between the point of view of railway company and commission in the case of the Hill roads,—the Great Northwestern and Northern Pacific,—will cause more surprise.

The commission's estimates "B" of the 1907 cost of reproduction and actual value are much below those in "A,"—about 10 per cent. on the average.

The above is only one, although so far the most important of the attempts to value American railways. Nine years ago a valuation was undertaken in behalf of the State of Michigan by Prof. Henry C. Adams, statistician of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Something has been done since in Texas, Virginia, Oregon, Washington, and particularly in Wisconsin.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHY.

The Story of My Life. By Ellen Terry. Doubleday, Page & Co. 407 pp., ill. \$3.50.

There is a certain chatty and familiar, yet dignified, charm about Miss Ellen Terry's literary style which makes her an excellent chronicler, particularly of things she has herself seen. This volume of "recollections and reflections"



ELLEN TERRY.

(From drawing by Albert Sterner,—frontispiece of "The Story of My Life.")

is written with a certain simplicity and directness that is delightful. Miss Terry, as she says, gave herself only one instruction when she started to write the book, and that was to "begin at the beginning." It has been a rich, full, varied life that is sympathetically set forth before one in this volume. Ellen Terry has literally been a child of the stage. From her actual infancy she was born to the boards, and few actresses of the past and present generations have successfully played so many roles,—successfully from an artistic standpoint, from the point of view of the box office, and without losing the human sympathy which is one of Miss Terry's most eminent characteristics. The illustrations to this volume show Miss Terry in all her principal roles. They also picture the late Sir Henry Irving in his varied characters on the stage. The book is, moreover, fairly crammed with incident and anecdote and bits

of familiar description of great and well-known stage personalities.

HISTORY AND POLITICS.

Cambridge Modern History, Vol. XI. Macmillan. 1044 pp. \$4.

This particular volume in the monumental, scholarly set of what is really a history of the world, is devoted to "The Growth of Nationalities," and considers that highly important period in human history from 1845 to 1871. It treats of the great revolutionary period, which was continent-wide 1845-'48, and of the political and social changes throughout Europe which culminated in the Franco-Prussian war of forty years ago. We have had occasion more than once before in these pages to express the appreciation of the laymen and the editor for these scholarly and exhaustive historical works. The series, it will be remembered, was originally planned by Lord Acton, regius professor of modern history at Cambridge University, and the editing is now being done under the active supervision of Dr. A. W. Ward and C. W. Prothero, and Mr. Stanley Leathes.

A History of the United States and Its People, Vol. V. By Elroy M. Avery. Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Company. 432 pp., ill. \$6.25.

The fifth volume of Dr. Avery's history is, in some respects, particularly in the matter of typography and illustrations, the best of the series that has thus far appeared. It will be remembered that the fourth volume covered the period of the war between France and England. The present volume covers the interval from the Peace of Paris to the outbreak of the Revolution and narrates the events of the war for independence down to the Declaration of 1776. In all this narrative Dr. Avery has made good use of contemporary sources of information, both for text and illustration. He has studied not only the American authorities but the British as well.

The United States as a World Power. By Archibald Carey Coolidge. Macmillan. 385 pp. \$2.

This book was originally prepared in the form of lectures, which were delivered in the winter of 1906-'07 at the Sorbonne, in Paris, as the Harvard lectures on the Hyde Foundation. Professor Coolidge (Harvard) has a direct and lucid style, and has made a very useful and illuminating monograph on our foreign relations.

The American Executive and Executive Methods. By John H. Finley and John F. Sander-son. Century Company. 344 pp. \$1.25.

The growing importance of our State govern-ors in the American governmental scheme, now

very generally recognized by students of politics, may have given rise to the suggestion that a book should be written on the American executive. At all events, the volume prepared by President Finley and Mr. Sanderson answers many questions that would naturally arise in any discussion of executive power. Although a large part of the book is naturally and properly devoted to the State executives, there are chapters on the President, the Cabinet, the Civil Service, the executive departments, and the powers of the federal Government in relation to war and foreign relations.

The Passing of the Tariff. By Raymond L. Bridgman. Boston: Sherman, French & Co. 272 pp. \$1.20.

Mr. Bridgman seems to be thoroughly convinced that the tariff has not come to stay, but to "pass." Perhaps our readers should be reminded that the "passing of the tariff," as employed by Mr. Bridgman, refers not to any legislation by Congress but to the actual disappearance of tariffs from the economic world. He makes no effort, therefore, to reargue the old question, but writes for the purpose of encouraging a general onslaught on tariff schedules all along the line and to reiterate the battle cry "Carthage must be destroyed!" Several of the chapters of Mr. Bridgman's present volume appeared first as magazine articles.

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

From Ruwenzori to the Congo. By A. F. R. Wollaston. Dutton, 315 pp., ill. \$5.

This entertainingly written volume is the story of the expedition sent out by the British Museum in 1905, under the leadership of Mr.



A PADDLER OF THE AFRICAN LAKE REGION IN WHICH MR. ROOSEVELT WILL DO HIS HUNTING.
(Illustration from Wollaston's "From Ruwenzori to the Congo.")

W. R. Ogilvie-Grant, to explore and investigate from the standpoint of the naturalist the region of the Mountains of the Moon, now known as Ruwenzori. To Mr. Wollaston was intrusted the task of writing the story of the expedition. Starting from Mombassa the naturalists proceeded by the Uganda Railroad to Lake Victoria Nyanza, and then by slow stages (a large part of the way on foot) through Uganda province into the Congo Free State, and, reaching the Congo River, down that mighty stream in canoes to the sea. The main part of the book, however, is taken up with a description of the experiences and observations of the trip from Ruwenzori to the Congo River. The author is full of enthusiasm for his subject. Africa, he says in his preface, quoting one of Dickens' characters, may be "a beast," but, he adds, "she is a beast of many and varied moods, often disagreeable and sometimes even dangerous to body and soul, and yet with an attraction which can hardly be resisted." Mr. Wollaston is enthusiastic over the economic progress of the continent. Even when he wrote (four years ago), the Uganda Railroad had "completely changed the face of a great part of equatorial Africa,"—a statement which receives confirmation in the article by Mr. Adams which we print on another page this month. It is interesting to note the fact that this expedition, in the first stage of its trip, proceeded over much the same route as that which will be taken by President Roosevelt and his party within a few weeks from the time this copy of the REVIEW reaches its readers.

Aerial Warfare. By R. P. Hearne. New York: John Lane Company. 237 pp., ill. \$2.50.

The writer of this careful and impressive volume believes that in the next great European war,—which he fears is not many years off,—airships and flying-machines will play a conspicuous part. With this view Sir Hiram Maxim, who writes the introductory chapter, is in full accord. Sir Hiram warns the British Government that it should be ready for what is inevitable. Incidentally, he highly commends the flying-machines of the Wright Brothers. He declares that they are "infinitely superior" to any of the French machines.

REFERENCE BOOKS.

Who's Who 1909. Macmillan. 2112 pp. \$2.50.

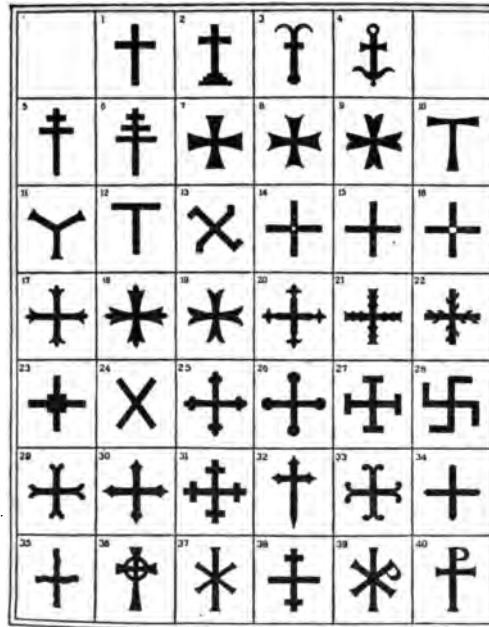
Who's Who in New York. New York: L. R. Hammersly & Co. 1414 pp. \$5.

The English "Who's Who," the original of all the increasing series of biographical handbooks appearing under this name or a variation of it, continues to maintain its high reputation and to sustain its high level of accuracy, thoroughness, and accessibility. The volume for 1909 is the sixty-first edition. It is one of those reference books without which, it may be said with truth, no library is complete or even useful. "Who's Who in New York" was first issued in 1900, the present being the fourth biennial edition. It is edited by John W. Leonard.

The Standard Bible Dictionary. Edited by M. W. Jacobus. Funk & Wagnalls Company. 920 pp., ill. \$6.

This reference work enters a new field in being strictly a dictionary of the Bible and not of

any speculations about or comments on the Bible. It is, moreover, in one volume, excellently printed, with typographical arrangement that makes it very easy of reference. The publishers claim that it has been prepared "from the standpoint of reverent criticism and evangelical faith," and that it aims to present "in convenient form the facts found in the Scriptures, including a treatment of history contemporary with Israel." The editors claim, moreover, that matters in which the interpretation of Scripture is involved and which are subjects of critical controversy are "treated with a serious and impartial scholarship." Even a cursory examination of the pages of this book by a layman would seem to bear out these modest claims of the publishers and editors. The typographical arrangement and the scheme of illustration is, we think, especially to be commended. The editor-in-chief, Dr. M. W. Jacobus, is dean of Harvard Theological Seminary. In the preparation of this work he has been assisted by Dr. Edward E. Nourse, of Harvard Theological Seminary, and Dr. Andrew C. Zenos, professor of ecclesiastical history in McCormick Theological Seminary, Chicago. The sub-title of the volume announces that it is designed as a "comprehensive guide to the Scriptures, embracing their languages, history, biography, manners and customs, and their theology."



The Catholic Encyclopedia, Vol. IV. Edited by Dr. Charles G. Herbermann. New York: Robert Appleton & Co. 799 pp., ill. \$6.

We have had occasion in former notices of volumes already issued of this scholarly work to commend the thorough scholarship and judicial fairness of the treatment accorded subjects coming under the editors' consideration. The present volume contains subjects in alphabetical order, from "Clandestinity" to "Diocesan Chancery." There are a number of excellent maps and full-page illustrations. The editors attempt, they tell us in their prospectus,—and we admit that they succeed in so doing,—to "set forth in a lucid, comprehensive, fair, and interesting style facts about the constitution, doctrine, discipline, and history of the Catholic Church as necessary to the layman as to the crudition of the scholar."

A FEW RECENT NOVELS.

54-40 or Fight. By Emerson Hough. Bobbs-Merrill. 402 pp., ill. \$1.50.

A rapidly moving story, full of action and stirring the blood like the call of a trumpet, this tale of the days of Calhoun and Polk, of the days before the war with Mexico, and of the early American treks across the plains to Oregon, is well worth reading. It is crowded with incident and historical allusion, somewhat too crowded in places, and rather loosely constructed from the standpoint of the mechanics of novel-writing. There is, however, a very live, vital, and attractive woman in it, who for the love of a man already betrothed to another helps that sad, mysterious, and little-known character in American history, John C. Calhoun, to "best" Lord Pakenham, the British ambassador, and save Oregon for the Union. There are good, fascinating, virile men in the story, but it is the power, charm, versatility, and

SOME FORMS OF THE CROSS IN CHRISTIAN ART.

1, Latin; 2, Calvary; 3 and 4, Anchor; 5, Patriarchal; 6, Papal; 7, Patée; 8, Maltese; 9 and 19, Moline; 10, 11, and 12, Tau; 13 and 28, Fylfot (28, Crux Gammata or Swastika); 14, Quarter Pierced; 15, Greek; 16, Quarterly Pierced; 17, Fleurle; 18, Patonce; 20, Fleurette; 21, Engrailed; 22, Ragulée; 23, Quadrate; 24, Saltire (Crux Decussata); 25, Botonnée; 26, Pommée; 27, Potent; 28, Crux Gammata or Swastika; 29, Fourchée; 30, Urdée; 31, Crosslet; 32, Fitchée; 33, Recercelée; 34, Pointed; 35, Wavy; 36, Cross of Iona; 37 and 38, from the Catacombs; 39 and 40, from the Catacombs (monograms of Christ).—From the "Catholic Encyclopedia," Vol. IV.

"omnipotent beauty" of woman which dominates every one of Mr. Hough's 400 pages. The illustrations are by Arthur I. Keller, and the volume is dedicated to President Roosevelt.

Redemption. By René Bazin. Scribners. 296 pp. \$1.25.

This novel, like all others by the same author, is extremely simple in construction and commonplace in incident, but it is nevertheless a fine delineation of the "glory of consecration" exemplified in the life of a young girl of the common people in France. The author hangs his story on a rather slender plot, but he is deft and convincing in his delineation of the character of the young girl who is the heroine, and it is in the development of this character that the book impresses one as a masterpiece of its kind. Henriette Madiot is a young French milliner's apprentice who embodies all the charming qualities of the French feminine type and develops a saint-like character without a trace of maudlin sentimentality,—which is a very fine thing in modern novel writing. The translation, by Dr. A. S. Rappoport, while in

the main well done, does not flow as smoothly as might be wished. The title of the book in the original is "De Toute Son Ame."

The Riverman. By Stuart Edward White. Doubleday, Page & Co. 368 pp. \$1.50.

This is a fine, vigorous, virile story of logging on a Michigan river. The hero, a river boss, is induced to join in a company to handle all the logs produced in a section of northern Michigan. His adventures in miniature trust-making and in getting his "goods" to market are described with strength. There is a good deal of local color and atmosphere, and, of course, at least one charming woman. It must be admitted that Mr. White's literary style leaves something to be desired, but he almost atones for this lack by its virility and movement.

The Firing Line. By Robert W. Chambers. Appletons. 450 pp., ill. \$1.50.

This story, in the traditional Chambers style, is set at Palm Beach. It is a love drama interspersed with description of bits of tropical scenery. There is considerable humor and lively dialogue, but those who admired Mr. Chambers' former novel, "The Fighting Chance," will not find this later one a better, story or more finished piece of writing.

Maurice Guest. By Henry Handel Richardson. Duffield & Co. 562 pp. \$1.50.

This novel deals with the trials and temptations in the life of musical students in Germany. Maurice Guest, the hero, is a young Englishman who is studying in Leipsic. His experiences and adventures are presumably typical of those which are likely to fall to the lot of the average young foreigner who goes to the German musical center to study, providing he has, as will no doubt be the case, a sentimental mind and an ambitious nature.

Interplay. By Beatrice Harraden. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company. 384 pp. \$1.50.

The central idea of this story is rather a fresh one. An unhappily married woman elopes with a lover, but her husband refuses to divorce her until the lover's death. There is a good deal of moralizing and much sprightly wit embroidered around the general theme, which is that of equal morality for men and women. There is discussion of all the "woman questions," including the suffrage right.

The Gates of Life. By Bram Stoker. New York: Cupples & Leon Company. 332 pp. 75 cents.

This is the life story of a young woman who tries the working value of the theory "that the wrecking of many lives may be avoided by a woman's taking the initiative in the momentous question of marriage proposals." The construction and style are melodramatic, and it is safe

to say that in his novels Mr. Stoker has generally done better than this.

Tono-Bungay. By H. G. Wells. Duffield & Co. 460 pp. \$1.50.

Readers of the romances, essays, and scientific studies from the pen of that prolific English writer, Mr. H. G. Wells, would hardly expect him to write a novel centered in the fortunes of an up-to-date patent medicine promoter. Yet this is what Mr. Wells has done, and he seems to wish to have the work regarded as his most serious attempt at novel writing. His publishers state that the book was begun some years ago and that its composition has occupied all of the intervening time not given up to other work,—which, if one may judge from the long list of Mr. Wells' recent publications, may not after all have been very much in the aggregate. Those who take up "Tono-Bungay" will be quite likely to read it through and they will find it a vivacious English novel of the familiar type, dealing with the life of to-day.

The Money-Changers. By Upton Sinclair. New York: B. W. Dodge & Co. 316 pp. \$1.50.

The history of the panic of 1907 has been many times related and no two of the historians seem to agree in assigning the precise cause of that financial disturbance. The mere matter of non-agreement, however, does not make the experts any the less sure of their ground. Mr. Upton Sinclair, who actually saw the panic "manufactured" by Wall Street, explains the *modus operandi* in his story "The Money-Changers." Mr. Sinclair has spared no pains to assist the wayfaring reader, however dull of comprehension, in identifying the leading figures in his story with the financial magnates of the metropolis. So many familiar details culled from the yellow journals crowd Mr. Sinclair's pages that almost any New York newsboy would be able to designate the particular men of "the Street" whom Mr. Sinclair singles out as the chief conspirators in the machinations that brought about our last panic. Indeed, one sometimes fails to see why it is necessary to cast this material in novel form at all, since it has already been exploited so extensively by the daily press.

The Well in the Desert. By Adeline Knapp. Century Company. 329 pp. \$1.50.

This is a story of the far Southwest, and the best part of it is a description of the desert,—the real American desert that is known only by the persistent seekers of mining claims and certain other adventurous spirits, few of whom have had the literary skill to make known their discoveries to the world. This Sahara of our Southwest has its oases and its interesting animal life. Among the strange four-footed beasts that figure in Miss Knapp's story is one of the famous camels that were shipped to Arizona while Jeff Davis was Secretary of War.

THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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and that he has found such a man in Mr. Wickersham, of New York, is beyond all question. Mr. Meyer, who is reappointed from the former cabinet and goes from the Post Office Department to that of the Navy, brings to his new place the qualities of a systematic and highly trained mind, with experience and skill in public administration, and



HON. FRANKLIN M'VEAGH.
(New Secretary of the Treasury.)

a general knowledge of the problems with which he will have to deal. Mr. Meyer has the habit of exceeding expectations in everything he undertakes, without making any fuss about it.

*Hitchcock,
Ballinger,
Nagel, Wilson.* Mr. Hitchcock, as Postmaster-General, has the advantage of knowing the Department from recent service as Assistant Postmaster-General, and he has the further advantage of knowing men and conditions in all parts of the country, so that he will deal efficiently and rapidly with a great variety of matters that force themselves upon the attention of

the chief of a department whose activities pervade every county and township of the United States. Mr. Ballinger, who is the new Secretary of the Interior, and whose home is at Seattle, was for a time commissioner of the General Land Office under President Roosevelt, and has earned a great reputation as judge, as mayor of Seattle, as author of law books, and as public-spirited citizen. Mr. Nagel, of St. Louis, in like manner, is the typical lawyer of high professional and civic standing, identified with educational progress, and eminently fitted for the position so ably filled by Mr. Straus in the last cabinet. It is evident that the country has been pleased with the retention by President Taft of the veteran Secretary of Agriculture. Mr. Wilson has filled his position for some twelve years, and he seems destined to enjoy the distinction of having served in a cabinet position for a longer period than any other man in our history.

*Some
Retiring
Officials.*

The further careers of the cabinet officers who retire from public life will be noted with kindly interest. It has been rumored that sooner or later Mr. Straus and Mr. Bacon may be sent by Mr. Taft to represent us in foreign countries. Mr. Cortelyou is expected to take the head of a large quasi-public corporation in New York. Mr. Bonaparte, whether in office or out of it, is always a factor in political reform movements and an ornament to his city and State. Gen. Luke Wright leaves the War Department after a career so useful and distinguished that his State of Tennessee may well account him its foremost citizen. The youngest member of the recent cabinet was Mr. Garfield, and few men in our current public life have rendered service more effective or memorable. He came to Washington from practicing law at Cleveland, Ohio, to take a place on the Civil Service Commission, and he became head of the Bureau of Corporations when the new Department of Commerce and Labor was established. President Roosevelt, a few days before his retirement from office, singled out Mr. Garfield as in the highest sense representing "the type of what a good public servant should be," and referred to him as one of the most capable Secretaries of the Interior who had ever filled that office. It is one of the fortunate things about the conditions of our American life that men like these who leave office with Mr. Roosevelt all have before them ample spheres of usefulness



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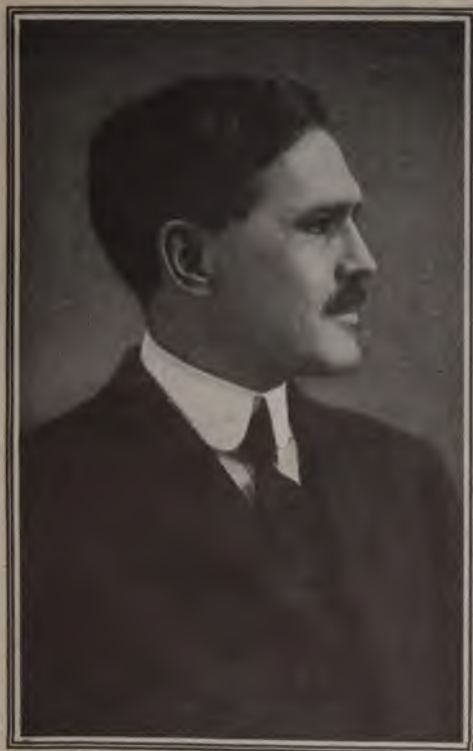
MR. TAFT AND HIS CABINET AT THE EXECUTIVE OFFICE.

(At the President's left are Messrs. MacVeagh, Wickersham, Meyer, Wilson, and Nagel; on his right are Messrs. Knox, Dickinson, Hitchcock, and Ballinger.)

as citizens, and that capable men in this country may pass freely from public to private life and vice versa with easy adaptability, without their being too much missed from the ranks of officialdom, or impairment of the success and happiness of their personal careers.

New Standards in Federal Office. In Mr. Roosevelt's period, a remarkably large number of men of high character and exceptional attainments have been brought into subordinate public positions. Naturally some of these, particularly those holding the rank of assistant secretaries, will have made place for new men. But the standard of efficiency and zeal that has been fixed will undoubtedly be maintained, and the remarkable development of the scientific services of the Government, under scholars and experts, will find in Mr. Taft the same support and encouragement that it has had in Mr. Roosevelt. The Agricultural Department, for example, is full of brilliant scientific experts who have made the work of that department the wonder and

the envy of the whole world. A similar evolution has been brought about in other departments and branches of government work; and, for the most part, the efficient scientific personnel of these public services will not be changed with the incoming of a new President. The President and the cabinet chiefs alike must depend for the most part upon the experienced and brilliant workers in subordinate places for the results that will reflect lasting credit upon the new men at the top. In some bureaus and branches of the Government service, the process of modernization is as yet far from complete, and thus Mr. Ballinger and others will be under the painful necessity of trying to introduce new men and new ways where old men and old ways obstruct the public business. If the Government had arranged a system of pensions or retiring allowances for public servants who have outlived their usefulness, the process of putting efficiency into every detail of the public business would not involve so many disagreeable incidents.



HON. JAMES R. GARFIELD.

(Who has made a great record in three important Federal offices.)

Inauguration Weather.

The spectacular features of inauguration day are of more importance to the citizens of Washington than to people elsewhere. The weather of early March is precarious in all parts of the United States, and inauguration day is a bad time for street pageants and out-of-door celebrations. Last month Washington was visited with the worst storm of the season on the very day when good weather was of all things most desired. Mr. Taft was obliged to depart from traditional custom and to deliver his inaugural address in the Senate chamber rather than on the temporary platform erected at the east entrance to the Capitol. Scores of trains carrying inauguration visitors were stalled on their way to Washington, and the hardship, disappointment, and loss due to the severity of the storm were very great. The old-time arguments for a change in the date have been revived, and there is much advocacy of the adoption of April 30 as the time for beginning administrations and marking the terms of Congress. It should be remembered, however, that the only reason for this agitation

lies in the fact that March 4 is an unsuitable date for a street pageant. On the other hand, it is proper to raise the question whether inauguration day is a good time for the sort of celebration that has gradually come into vogue at Washington. The Federal City lacks accommodations for the crowds that are impelled to attend inaugurations, and nothing happens, even in good weather, that sufficiently rewards most of the strangers who are deluded into supposing that the occasion has something of rare interest or value to offer them. Street parades in the United States are not often picturesque, and for most inauguration visitors, even in the best of weather, there is nothing to see but a large number of men marching down Pennsylvania Avenue. The really interesting things are those that in the nature of the case can be witnessed only by the favored few. Washington has become so beautiful a city, and it is so well worthy of a visit by all patriotic Americans, that it ought to cease to do itself injustice by trying to lure unmanageable crowds to an experience of discomfort and disappointment on inauguration day. There was a large military parade on March 4, in spite of the suffering entailed by snow, sleet, rain, slush, and harsh winds; but henceforth these efforts at pageantry should be on a much more restricted scale. So many



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MR. TAFT GREETES THE CROWD.

(At the east of the Capitol, after having completed the ceremonies inside.)



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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AND THE PRESIDENT-ELECT ENTERING THEIR CARRIAGE AT THE WHITE HOUSE
IN A SNOWSTORM ON MARCH 4, TO GO TO THE CAPITOL.



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THE INAUGURAL PARADE UNDER WEATHER DIFFICULTIES.

things in law and custom have become adjusted to the 4th of March as the date for beginning Presidential and Congressional terms, that there is only the remotest likelihood of any change for a long time to come.

*Mr. Taft's
Excellent
Address.*

Mr. Taft's inaugural address was a wise, temperate, and adequate State paper, fully meeting all reasonable expectations. For example, those who felt that Mr. Taft should recognize and maintain the policies of Mr. Roosevelt, found in the very opening paragraphs of the inaugural address a frank and straightforward announcement in the following language:

The office of an inaugural address is to give a summary outline of the main policies of the new Administration, so far as they can be anticipated. I have had the honor to be one of the advisers of my distinguished predecessor and as such to hold up his hands in the reforms he has initiated. I should be untrue to myself, to my promises, and to the declarations of the party platform upon which I was elected to office if I did not make the maintenance and enforcement of those reforms a most important feature of my administration. They were directed to the suppression of the lawlessness and abuses of power of the great combinations of capital invested in railroads and in industrial enterprises carrying on interstate commerce. The steps which my predecessor took and the legislation passed on his recommendation have accomplished much, have caused a general halt in the vicious policies which created popular alarm, and have brought about in the business affected a much higher regard for existing law.

To render the reforms lasting, however, and to secure at the same time freedom from alarm on the part of those pursuing proper and progressive business methods further legislative and executive action is needed. Relief of the railroads from certain restrictions of the anti-trust law has been urged by my predecessor and will be urged by me. On the other hand, the Administration is pledged to legislation looking to a proper Federal supervision and restriction to prevent excessive issues of bonds and stocks by companies owning and operating interstate commerce railroads.

*As to
Control of
Corporations.*

We are promised Mr. Taft's definite suggestions in his regular message next December on changes in the anti-trust and interstate commerce laws,—including some plans for rearranging the work of the Department of Justice, the Bureau of Corporations, and the Interstate Commerce Commission. The need of such changes has become fully recognized, and Mr. Taft and his strong legal advisers are especially well qualified to work out these desired reforms. Mr. Taft expresses the hope that these proposed amendments of the law and rearrangement of the machinery of

administration will insure business stability by making it clear what things may be done and what things may not be done by corporations engaged in interstate commerce. He puts it as follows:

The work of formulating into practical shape such changes is creative work of the highest order, and requires all the deliberation possible in the interval. I believe that the amendments to be proposed are just as necessary in the protection of legitimate business as in the clinching of the reforms which properly bear the name of my predecessor.

*Scope and
Cost of
Government.*

The next part of the address deals with the tariff question, and we shall refer to it in a later paragraph. Suffice it to say that Mr. Taft declares that the prime motive in the making of a tariff bill is taxation and the securing thereby of a revenue, and he proceeds to justify the enlargement of public income on the ground that "the scope of a modern government in what it can and ought to accomplish for its people has been widened far beyond the principles laid down by the old *laissez faire* school of political writers." As examples of such a widening of scope, Mr. Taft notes (1) the use of scientific experiments and the spread of popular information by the Department of Agriculture; (2) the supervision of railways and industrial combinations; (3) the enforcement of such laws for conservation of resources as those relating to forests, waterway improvement, reclaiming of arid lands, and the like. A permanent improvement like the Panama Canal, Mr. Taft adds, should be paid for by the proceeds of bonds, and he intimates that it may prove best to deal with the larger system of river improvement in the same way.

*On
the National
Defenses.*

Another expenditure of government regarded by Mr. Taft as necessary, is to meet "the cost of maintaining a proper army, a proper navy, and suitable fortifications upon the mainland of the United States and in its dependencies." The new President's views upon the size and organization of the army and the relation of the militia to national defense, were fully matured during his service as Secretary of War. It is highly important to know what Mr. Taft thinks about the navy, and it is well to quote his own language:

What has been said of the army may be affirmed in even a more emphatic way of the navy. A modern navy cannot be improvised. It must be built and in existence when the emergency arises which calls for its use and operation. My distinguished predecessor has in many



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PRESIDENT AND MRS. TAFT RIDING FROM THE CAPITOL TO THE WHITE HOUSE ON MARCH 4.

speeches and messages set out with great force and striking language the necessity for maintaining a strong navy commensurate with the coast line, the Governmental resources, and the foreign trade of our nation; and I wish to reiterate all the reasons which he has presented in favor of the policy of maintaining a strong navy as the best conservator of our peace with other nations and the best means of securing respect for the assertion of our rights, the defense of our interests, and the exercise of our influence in international matters.

For an Adequate Navy. In sentences as firm and unequivocal as any that have ever been written on the subject, Mr. Taft proceeds to argue that whereas our whole aim and object is to promote the reign of peace, law, and harmony in the world, we shall help forward the cause of peace and arbitration much more effectively by having a navy commensurate with our position among the leading nations. Having stated the grounds upon which he bases his views, he sums up as follows:

For these reasons the expenses of the army and navy and of coast defenses should always be considered as something which the Government must pay for, and they should not be cut off through mere consideration of economy. Our Government is able to afford a suitable army and a suitable navy. It may maintain them without the slightest danger to the Repub-

lic or the cause of free institutions, and fear of additional taxation ought not to change a proper policy in this regard.

Enforcement of Treaty Obligations.

Upon the subject of Asiatic immigration, the President clearly states that we ought to minimize in every way the evils arising from the bringing here of an alien population that cannot be assimilated; and it is to be inferred that he fully grasps the broad and sound reasons why the Pacific Coast does not wish to change the nature of its civilization by permitting a large influx of Asiatic laborers. But Mr. Taft holds that we should accomplish our objects with the least possible offense to the governments of Japan and China, and deplores local outrages upon Japanese or Chinese immigrants. As a much-needed remedy, Mr. Taft asks Congress to pass a law conferring full jurisdiction upon the federal courts in all cases involving the violation of treaties between the United States and foreign governments. "It puts our Government in a pusillanimous position," says Mr. Taft, "to make definite engagements to protect aliens, and then to excuse the failure to perform those engagements by an explanation that the duty to keep them is in States or cities not within our control."

*Monetary
and Banking
Reforms.*

Mr. Taft remarks that one of the reforms to be carried out during his administration is a change in our monetary and banking laws. He confidently expects that the report and recommendations of the monetary commission will lead to a satisfactory solution of a problem that has many intricate and difficult phases. It is gratifying to find that Mr. Taft also asks the incoming Congress to "promptly fulfill the promise of the Republican platform and pass a proper postal savings bank bill." He sums up the reasons for this in four or five sentences that state the case convincingly.

*Expansion
of Our
Commerce.*

In the closing hours of the Sixtieth Congress a hopeful attempt was made to pass the bill granting mail subsidies to ocean lines, with a view to bringing about direct commercial relations between our country and South America and the Asiatic countries. The bill was defeated by only three votes. Mr. Taft, two days after this test, declared strongly in his address in favor of the development of our trade relations through the establishment of direct steamship lines, and called attention to other means by which our foreign trade could be safeguarded and enlarged. Upon the Panama Canal, the address restates Mr. Taft's well-known views as referred to in these pages last month on his return from his recent trip to the Isthmus. He stands by the situation as it is, with confidence and deliberate emphasis. He promises to put the whole energy of the administration behind the rapid completion of the work. It may be worth while incidentally to refer our readers to an article written for us by Mr. Forbes Lindsay, to be found in this number of the REVIEW, which explains with great clearness and some detail just what the present canal plans are and why they are preferable to those of the advocates of the so-called sea-level canal.

*The South
and Its
Problems.*

The most elaborate section of Mr. Taft's inaugural address is devoted to a statement of his views upon the political and racial situation in the South. For years past, Republican platforms have threatened the South with a reduction of representation in Congress on the ground of negro disfranchisement. We have frequently in these pages pointed out the insincerity of such platform demands and threats, in view of the fact that Republican

congresses do not pay the smallest attention to those who would proceed against the South on such lines. Mr. Taft's discussion of the situation is eminently just and sensible. He does not disapprove of Southern laws which take the franchise away from the ignorant or the vicious. He declares, however, that such laws should have just and equal enforcement, so that the competent negro may, at least in the near future, feel that the Fifteenth Amendment is fully respected.

*Negroes
and
Office-Holding.*

As to appointing negroes to office, Mr. Taft says: "Any recognition of their distinguished men, any appointment to office from among their number is properly taken as an encouragement and appreciation of their progress and this just policy shall be pursued." Upon the policy, however, of appointing negroes to offices in the South, Mr. Taft proceeds in the following language:

But it may well admit of doubt whether in the case of any race an appointment of one of their number to a local office in a community in which the race feeling is so widespread and acute as to interfere with the ease and facility with which the local government business can be done by the appointee is of sufficient benefit by way of encouragement to the race to outweigh the recurrence and increase of race feeling which such an appointment is likely to engender. Therefore, the Executive in recognizing the negro race by appointments must exercise a careful discretion not thereby to do it more harm than good. On the other hand, we must be careful not to encourage the mere pretence of race feeling manufactured in the interest of individual political ambition.

Personally I have not the slightest race prejudice or feeling, and recognition of its existence only awakens in my heart a deeper sympathy for those who have to bear it or suffer from it, and I question the wisdom of a policy which is likely to increase it.

*No Differences
in Race
Policy.*

It is a mistake to suppose that Mr. Taft is less considerate of the negro race than was his predecessor. Nor is it true, on the other hand, that Mr. Taft is more considerate of Southern white sentiment than was Mr. Roosevelt from the beginning to the end of his administration. The race feeling is easily played upon, and when it is aroused, it knows no restraint and will listen to no reason. Mr. Roosevelt began by appointing Southern Democrats to office against the protest of Mr. Hanna and the Republican organization. A little later on, two or three incidents, purely accidental and involving no question of policy, aroused Southern white sentiment against

Mr. Roosevelt, and gave him a corresponding popularity with the colored race. But still later on the Brownsville affair, which came up to the President by way of army routine as a matter of military discipline pure and simple, was exploited as a race affair, and it seems to have turned almost every negro in the country against Mr. Roosevelt. The appointment of Dr. Crum as collector of the port at Charleston was involved in much misunderstanding on both sides. South Carolina had made Dr. Crum head of the negro department in the Charleston Exposition, and Mr. Roosevelt, in appointing him collector, believed that he was doing what the South would understand and approve of. The differences that arose about this appointment were regrettable. Mr. Roosevelt made fewer appointments of negroes to office than did Mr. Cleveland. Mr. Taft understands the situation thoroughly; he wishes to promote the best interests of both races in the South; he is playing no game of politics in that section, and it will be exceedingly well for both races and for the country at large if his fairness and large-mindedness are wholly recognized. His appointment of a white successor to Dr. Crum is for the best interest of both races.

Labor and Injunctions. In a concluding section of his address, Mr. Taft reviews the substantial gains for workingmen made through the administration of his predecessor, as respects employers' liability, child labor, and so on, and declares his purpose to promote the welfare of wage-workers in every way in his power. He does not believe, however, that to remove from the courts the discretion to grant injunctions in labor disputes would benefit either labor or industrial society in general, nor does he believe in legalizing the secondary boycott. Upon all these questions Mr. Taft's opinions have been thoroughly matured; and that he is both just and disinterested in his sympathies is the belief of almost every intelligent man in the country.

Taft as His Party's Exponent. Taking Mr. Taft's inaugural address as a whole, it is not only a lucid and practical manifesto of his working views as a contemporary statesman, but it also expresses remarkably well the constructive views and policies that characterize the Republican party in its aims and plans as the party now in power. If the Sixty-first Congress lives up to Mr. Taft's program in good faith, it will merely meet its

obligations, in view of its strong Republican majorities in both Houses. If it thwarts Mr. Taft, and falls far short of the last Republican platform and of Mr. Taft's inaugural program, the country will probably elect a Democratic house next year.

Will the Leaders Co-operate? It is quite obvious that this desired co-operation between the President and the new Congress must depend upon a very small number of men, as the Houses are now organized. In the Senate, the large Republican majority is managed by Mr. Aldrich, of Rhode Island. If his views should coincide with those of Mr. Taft, and he should work toward the same public ends, there could be no successful obstruction in the Senate. For example, Mr. Taft favors a large navy, while Senator Hale, chairman of the Naval Committee, opposes the administration's policy. But Mr. Hale's power is wholly derived from such countenance as he may obtain from Mr. Aldrich. Mr. Taft at the present moment is strongly committed to a tariff revision that shall be more than nominal. As the Senate is organized, it can be counted upon to pass the tariff bill in any form that Mr. Taft may favor, provided only that this has the full support of Mr. Aldrich. Mr. Taft is the last man to suppose that either House of Congress is under obligation to take orders from the Executive. But if there is any such thing as harmony in the Republican party, it is obvious enough that it would be fortunate for the party and the country if the President, who best represents Republican sentiment and policy, should find himself cordially supported by Congress leaders whose co-operation could give prompt effect to all that the party has pledged itself to perform for the country.

The House and Its Methods. We publish elsewhere in this number an article criticizing the present method of doing business in the House of Representatives, and another defending that method. The attack is by Governor Swanson, of Virginia, who had, until his election as Governor, been serving for a good many years as a member of Congress. The article in defense of the system is by Mr. Stevens, who has for more than a dozen years represented the St. Paul, Minnesota, District at Washington. The upshot of the whole matter is that without a rather drastic set of rules and a somewhat arbitrary power vested in the Speaker, it would be

hard to get business done in so large a body as the House of Representatives. On the other hand, it is clear that any restrictive system has a tendency to become ruthless, and any lodgment of arbitrary power has a like tendency toward arrogance and star-chamber methods. Mr. Cannon, as there was every reason to expect, was promptly re-elected as Speaker, when the new Congress met in spe-



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HON. CHAMP CLARK, OF MISSOURI.

(Leader of the Democrats in the House.)

cial session on March 15. The attack upon the rules was, however, partially successful.

Fighting For New Rules. Republican members made no fight against Mr. Cannon's re-election, but when Mr. Dalzell moved that the new Congress be governed by the previously existing rules, thirty-one Republican members joined with the Democrats and defeated the motion. Mr. Champ Clark, the Democratic leader, then made a motion embodying in a general way the views of the Democrats and the Republican insurgents. His motion provided for adopting the rules of the last Congress for use in the present special session, with certain exceptions. The most important of these exceptions called for the direct election by the

House of its own committee on rules, to consist of fifteen members. Besides acting as a committee on rules for current purposes, the committee was to report to the House next December upon the whole subject of rules revision. Mr. Clark's motion further authorized the Speaker to appoint at once the Ways and Means Committee, and the committees on printing, accounts, and enrolled bills,—requiring, however, that the Speaker should appoint no other committees except as further instructed by resolution of the House.

The Fitzgerald Amendments. If Mr. Clark's motion had prevailed, the whole battle of the insurgents against the present system would have been won. It will be observed that Mr. Clark's motion did not undertake directly to change the rules, but rather to diminish the power of the Speaker and to provide a method which would almost certainly insure many ultimate changes. The defeat of Mr. Clark's proposal led to the offering of a compromise motion by Mr. Fitzgerald, a Democrat from New York. Mr. Fitzgerald's amendments of the rules were carried, and thus the situation stands for the present. Under the old rules, when a bill was reported favorably by a committee, it took its place on the calendar. But consideration of the bill by the House could only be obtained by unanimous consent. No member who rose in his place to ask unanimous consent for the consideration of a bill could secure recognition or be permitted to offer his motion unless he had previously explained the matter to the Speaker and obtained a promise of recognition for that purpose. Mr. Fitzgerald's successful amendment does away with the need of asking the Speaker's previous consent. Another Fitzgerald amendment gives effect to what is called "Calendar Wednesday," a plan under which bills on the calendar can be taken up rapidly each Wednesday in their regular order. Under the system that has prevailed, it has been the custom to stop debate on a measure by ordering what is known as the "previous question," which, if successful, brings the pending bill to a final vote. A third Fitzgerald amendment renders it permissible to order a bill sent back to its committee after the previous question has been moved. The advantages claimed for this change are that the recommitment of a bill may secure for it certain changes which would render it more acceptable to those who could vote for it if it were somewhat amended. The Speaker and



Photograph by Harris & Ewing.

SCENE IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES WHEN MR. FITZGERALD WAS PRESENTING HIS MOTION AMENDING THE RULES.

his friends declare themselves entirely satisfied with the Fitzgerald amendments.

The Rules and the Tariff Bill. The chief practical bearing of the whole business just now has to do with the consideration of the tariff bill. Mr. Fitzgerald and other Democrats who joined him in breaking away from Mr. Champ Clark and the regular Democratic position, were supposed to be influenced in their attitude by interests favorable in a general way to the Republican view of tariff revision. Thus the fight on House rules could not come up squarely upon its own merits at the present time, and it must be deferred until the regular session next December, unless, as is probable, it should await the assembling of the Sixty-second Congress in 1911. It does not seem likely that the modification of the rules will affect in any way the Speaker's control of the House for the purpose of bringing the Payne tariff bill to an early vote. Too much relaxing of the House rules would open the way for an in-

terminable tariff discussion, with local interests of all kinds fighting and log-rolling, and with a tendency to obscure the larger issues involved in making a tariff for the country as a whole. The perception of this fact has had a good deal to do with moderating the zeal of many who would have been glad otherwise to see Mr. Cannon and his system radically defeated. Mr. Taft's brief, general message on tariff revision followed the rules fight.

Mr. Payne's Important Measure.

It may be said for the new tariff bill introduced by Mr. Payne as chairman of the Ways and Means Committee on March 17, that it does not strike the country as a partisan measure, and that the prevailing discussion of it in the newspapers and by public men is neither political nor doctrinaire. The discussion is to some extent sectional, and as to many details it is strictly local. Many industries and special interests are affected, and they show no timidity in expressing their wishes. The bill

as a whole has been favorably received by those best entitled to pass judgment upon it. It has not been framed carelessly, but has been prepared with long-continued labor and with more expert assistance than any previous American tariff bill. It involves an almost countless number of compromises, as was necessary under the circumstances. Its prevailing tendency is to reduce the rates of duty, especially upon some important lines of manufactures, while also recognizing the demand for removal or reduction of duties upon raw materials. Thus iron ore is placed upon the free list, which will promote the steel industry on the seaboard somewhat at the expense of the vast development of steel manufacture beyond the Alleghanies. The duties on iron and steel manufactures are reduced about one-half, but the remaining protection is ample. Hides are placed upon the free list, which will benefit the New England shoe industry; while the considerable reduction of duty on shoes and other manufactures of leather will not subject this line of manufacture to any real danger of foreign competition.

Various Provisions of the Bill.

The tariff on sugar remains about as it is, chiefly for the benefit of the American beet sugar producers. The admission free of duty of a certain amount of sugar from the Philippines will not affect the general situation. The continued protection of sugar naturally commits Louisiana to the support of the new bill, while Florida is made friendly by the arrangements that favor American fruit-growing. It was expected in many quarters that ordinary lumber would be placed upon the free list, but as a compromise, the committee has reduced the tariff from \$2 to \$1 per 1000 feet. Wood pulp is placed on the free list for the benefit of newspapers, and there is some reduction in duties on the kinds of white paper that newspapers use. Certain articles of a luxurious character are taxed at higher rates than in the Dingley bill. A tax of eight cents a pound is imposed upon tea, and a duty is also provided on cocoa, but coffee remains upon the free list. The tea duty is, of course, purely for revenue. The bill does not make many changes in the internal revenue situation, but the tax upon cigarettes is increased. It had been thought that there might be an increase in the internal revenue tax upon beer, but no change is made. The brewers are the recipients of a marked favor in that the bill largely reduces the tariff on

barley. This will enable the American brewers to buy the Canadian crop at much better advantage than at present.

A Tax on Inheritances.

At the time of the Spanish war one of the temporary forms of taxation adopted to meet increased expenditures was that of a tax on inheritances. It was repealed when the need of extraordinary revenue had ceased. Meanwhile this form of tax has become a favorite in the several States, nearly forty of which have adopted it. Mr. Taft had recommended the inheritance tax as desirable, and accordingly it appears in the new Payne bill. The provision as it now stands is for a tax on direct inheritances of 1 per cent. on amounts between \$10,000 and \$100,000; 2 per cent. on those from \$100,000 to \$500,000; and 3 per cent. on those over \$500,000. It also embraces a tax of 5 per cent. on collateral inheritances and legacies to strangers. It is estimated that this inheritance tax will produce a revenue of \$20,000,000. The chief criticism urged against it holds that the States should be left in exclusive employment of a form of taxation already adopted by them. It might possibly be better if the federal tax should ignore the small estates; but there is much to be said in favor of a federal tax upon those large accumulations of wealth that as a rule have been due to national rather than to local conditions of transportation, trade, and industry.

The Pending Debate.

Among desirable features of the new tariff bill is one which removes the duty from works of art that are at least twenty years old. There are complicated topics in tariff-making, like the perennial struggle between wool growers and wool manufacturers, which tariff framers always have to face, and which invariably result in almost countless technical compromises. The Payne bill is full of such instances of an endeavor to find some sort of *modus vivendi* as between the contentions of the manufacturers and the producers of material. At many points the present bill seems to have met these difficulties more successfully than its predecessors. It does not follow that the Payne Tariff law of three months hence will be altogether like the Payne Tariff bill as introduced last month. The Senate finance committee will have its own ideas, and these at many points will be greatly different from those of the Ways and Means Committee of the House. In a rough way we may assign



Photograph by Waldon Fawcett.

THE NEW SENATE OFFICE BUILDING ON CAPITOL HILL, WASHINGTON.

April to the House discussion of the Payne bill, May to the Senate's development of its own measure, and June to the work of the conference committees of the two Houses which will perfect the bill that is destined to become law under Mr. Payne's name. A month hence, the subject will have shaped itself in such a way that its bearings will be better understood by everybody concerned. Meanwhile business men in many lines of industry and trade feel that they know the worst, and are inclined to push ahead with their undertakings, on the assumption that there will be nothing more unfavorable to their interests in the final bill than appears in the measure as introduced. The one prevailing desire is for quick work, the adoption of a bill, and the adjournment of Congress as early in the summer as possible.

*Some Work
of the
Last Congress.*

Public interest in the change of administration and in the prospects of tariff revision in a special session of the new Congress somewhat overshadowed the work of the Sixtieth Congress as rounded out in the busy days that preceded its final adjournment on March 4. The important treaty providing for the arbi-

tration of all outstanding questions between the United States and Canada was finally ratified with an accompanying memorandum expressing the views of Senator Smith and others touching certain boundary questions. The Brownsville controversy was finally settled by the enactment of a law permitting the re-enlistment of those of the discharged soldiers who can establish their innocence. The naval debate ended in the authorization of two 26,000-ton battleships, completing, practically, the program that Mr. Roosevelt had advocated for the Sixtieth Congress. For reasons developed in the recent experience of the navy, the marines had been relieved of sea duty on the ships in ordinary times. The great naval experts of the Senate think the marines ought to go to sea, and they have so ordered it in the appropriation bill. But since the Constitution makes the commander-in-chief responsible for the handling and movement of the armies and navies of the United States, it would seem to devolve upon President Taft and not Senator Hale to say whether marines shall serve on land or on water. Some important changes in copyright law were duly enacted, and these will be more fully explained in a future num-

ber of the REVIEW. The extended discussion of the President's salary resulted in an increase from \$50,000 to \$75,000 a year. A valuable and useful piece of legislative work was the completion and adoption of the revised penal code. The penal laws of the United States were first revised in a codified form in 1878. A variety of legislative changes made a new revision desirable, and this was authorized by Congress in 1897. The commissioners then set at work, took nine laws in which to exhaust the patience of Congress, and in 1907 Congressional committees a select committee of members of the

lic spirit will vouch for a thorough and high-grade investigation; Mr. W. Morgan Schuster, formerly collector of customs for the Philippines, who has had large experience in dealing with tropical and backward peoples, and Mr. Emmett J. Scott, private secretary to Booker T. Washington. The commission, after studying the State Department records bearing on Liberia, will at once proceed to Monrovia, its capital. In these pages last month the backward condition of Liberia was described and reference made to the relations of the republic with the surrounding British and French colonies.



MR. ROBERT C. OGDEN, COMMISSIONER TO LIBERIA.

two Houses took direct charge of the work, which has now been satisfactorily completed.

To Investigate Liberia. Congress took timely action early in March concerning the crisis in Liberia. It confirmed the appointment of President Taft's commission of three to make an investigating tour of the black republic for the purpose of suggesting ways and means to rehabilitate its government and general financial and economic condition. The commissioners are Mr. Robert C. Ogden, of New York, whose high standing in the community and well-known pub-

Direct Nominations in New York. The long-awaited bill for reforming the nominating system in New York State was not ready for introduction in the legislature until March 19. The completed measure as presented on that day differs radically from the primary legislation of other States. Indeed, the nominating machinery that it seeks to install has little in common with the direct primary of the Middle West. Under the New York plan nominations will be made by party committees, but they must be ratified by the enrolled voters of the party, and if unworthy may be replaced by other nominations made by petition. Members of the committees are themselves named by petition. Moreover, the nominations by committee are to be announced seven weeks before the general primary is held, and ample opportunity will be given to concentrate opposition in case of a notoriously unfit candidacy. Publicity is required for all the doings of the committees, which are accountable to the general body of voters. The operation of such a law should tend to increase the responsibility of the party organization. Every nomination that is made by committees will have to be defended, not before a small group of delegates in a perfunctory convention, but before all the voters enrolled under the party name.

New York City Affairs. Next to direct nominations the most important matter to be dealt with by the New York Legislature during the current session is the revision of the New York City charter. A commission headed by Mr. William M. Ivins has reported to the Legislature the results of two years' work on this revision. It was the purpose of the commission to simplify rather than to elaborate. Only the fundamental provisions of city government were to be retained in the organic law. The process of conden-

sation and elimination resulted in a document of 75,000 words, as contrasted with the old charter of 500,000. The changes in the governmental structure were all in the direction of concentrating responsibility, reducing the number of elective officials, and consolidating administrative boards. The most conspicuous failure of the old charter,—the provision for borough presidents,—is radically amended in the new. The borough presidents are shorn of their administrative powers and retained as members of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, which is to be the real directorate of the municipal corporation. The Board of Aldermen is to be replaced by a council of thirty-nine members, serving without pay. Problems of city development and congestion of population will be dealt with by a special bureau of the Board of Estimate. The Public Service Commission is about to take up the consideration of an offer by the Interborough Company to build important extensions of the subway system in New York. The company proposes to expend \$50,000,000 on these extensions. Meanwhile the Hudson & Manhattan Railroad Company proposes to build extensions of its underground lines in the city, and a plan has been worked out for a new transit system around the city's water fronts.

*Voting
Out the
Saloon.*

The growth of anti-saloon sentiment throughout the country is registered in the acts of legislatures and even more emphatically by the direct expressions of voters at the polls. On the first day of January last State-wide prohibitory laws went into effect in North Carolina, Mississippi, and Alabama. Such a law was already in force in Georgia and the Tennessee Legislature has decreed that after the first day of January, 1910, the manufacture and sale of liquor in that State shall be forbidden. Texas and Arkansas are likely to be the next Southern States to declare for prohibition, but scores of counties in Kentucky, Virginia, and South Carolina are to be reckoned as "dry" territory because of local-option votes. North of the Ohio River, the county-option movement in Ohio and Indiana is far more formidable to the liquor interests than any campaign for State prohibition that has ever taken place in those commonwealths. About two-thirds of the counties have voted against the saloon. In the State of Indiana only one county has voted "wet." In Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota many municipalities have gone "dry."

In three-fourths of the State of Oregon the liquor traffic is prohibited; in California local option has banished the saloon from 180 cities and towns; the elections of the past year have made forty-two Colorado communities "dry." These are only a few of the outward and visible results of an exceptionally vigorous, resourceful, and apparently tireless campaign against the liquor traffic.

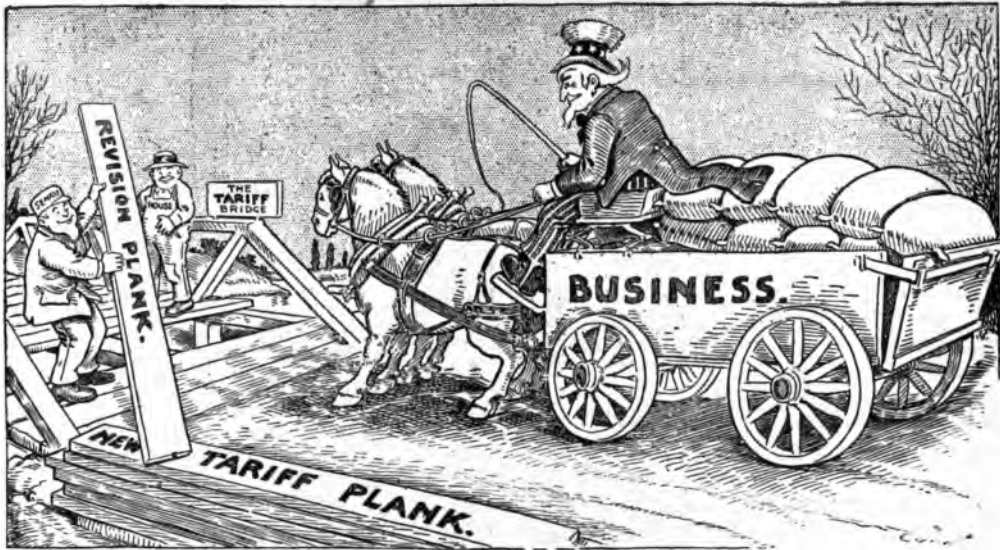
*The
Anthracite Coal
Conferences.* By the time this REVIEW is in the hands of its readers it is hoped that a satisfactory agreement will have been arrived at in the differences between the operators and the mine workers in the anthracite coal industry. A convention had been called by the United Mine Workers, to be held at Scranton on March 23, to consider the refusal of the operators to accede to any of the demands of the workers. These demands were in brief for a "closed shop," the collection of the union members' dues by the company, an increase in wages, a shorter working day, the recognition of the union by the operators, and the reduction in the time limit of the working agreement from three years to one year. On the subject of recognition, on which President Lewis had placed particular emphasis, the operators said that they declined to recognize the United Mine Workers of America, chiefly on the ground that it was controlled by bituminous mine workers, and they met Mr. Lewis and his committee merely as representatives of the mine workers and not as officers of the union. As to granting an increase in wages, the operators declared this to be out of the question, inasmuch as any increase in the cost of production would necessitate an advance in the price of coal, and such advance they declared impracticable. The wages in the anthracite mining industry were already at a high level and could not be increased. On the question of an eight-hour day the operators held that a change from nine hours would reduce the output and increase the cost of production by leaving expensive machinery idle for an additional hour each day. The operators stated that they stood, as in the past, for the "open shop"; that they will treat union and non-union men alike, and would exercise no discrimination in favor of or against any worker on account of his membership or non-membership in a union. The operators offered the mine workers the same agreement which has been in operation for the past three years, and which expires on March 31 of this year.

The Standard Oil Fine Case. The final upshot of the famous \$29,000,000 fine assessed against the Standard Oil Company by Judge Landis has been the entire escape of the company from all punishment by virtue of acquittal on the second trial. Our readers will remember that the decision of Judge Landis was appealed to the United States Circuit Court, where it was reversed in an opinion rendered by Judge Grosscup. The case was not appealable to the Supreme Court at Washington, and so a new trial had to be held under the limitations of Grosscup's decision. This new trial was before Judge Anderson, who instructed the jury to bring in a verdict of not guilty. The case has been involved in so much technicality, both as to the law and as to the evidence, that no review of it could be valuable unless very extended. If the law is not sufficient to punish rebates, it must be amended. This is the lesson of the decision.

The Buck's Stove Company Injunction Sustained. The Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia, on March 11, sustained the decree of Justice Gould of the Supreme Court of the District granting an injunction restraining Samuel Gompers, John Mitchell, and Frank Morrison, officers of the American Federation of Labor, from prosecuting a boycott against the Buck's Stove & Range Company, of St. Louis, and from publishing it in the *Federationist*, the organ of the American Federation of Labor, under the heading "We Don't Patronize." The decree of the lower court is modified, however, on the ground that it went too far when it enjoined the publication of the *Federationist* containing any reference whatever to the complainant, and that such prohibition should apply only to matter published "in furtherance of the boycott." These latter words should be added, in the opinion of the court, "for when the conspiracy is at an end the Federation will have the same right that any association or individual now has to comment upon the relations of the complainant with its employees." In a dissenting opinion, Chief Justice Shephard stated that whatever the purpose of matter published in the "We Don't Patronize" column of the *Federationist*, any restraint of such publication was in conflict with the amendment to the Constitution forbidding the abridgment of the freedom of the press, and that the only remedy open to the Stove Company lay in a civil action for damages and criminal prosecution.

Railroad Earnings and Extensions. The completed returns of the operations of the railroads during the year 1908 make a remarkable showing. The United States normally shows large yearly increases in the gross earnings of its railroads, as is natural in a country steadily growing in population, wealth, and railroad mileage. There were only three of the twenty years preceding 1908 when the railroads did not show increases; in 1893 there was a decrease of \$16,000,000, in 1894 another of \$119,000,000, and 1896 fell behind by the scarcely appreciable sum of \$1,300,000. But in 1908 we find the enormous decrease of \$345,000,000 from the preceding year, more than twice as much as the aggregate of all previous decreases in twenty years. This is the most illuminating and striking single piece of evidence of the setback to industry resulting from the financial upheaval of 1907. In net earnings the figures do not look so large, as by dint of strict economy, and in many cases even dangerous economy, the railroads reduced the loss to about \$60,000,000. But the largest previous decrease of net earnings in the twenty-year period, which came in 1904, was less than two-thirds of this sum. That our railroad captains are not dismayed by this astonishing drop in business is clear from their constructive activities. Although there were reports in the latter part of March that Mr. Harriman was about to retire in ill-health, these were promptly denied, and it seems obvious that he is getting deeper into responsibilities rather than ridding himself of them. For instance, he is building an entire new system in Mexico, some 1800 miles of road leading to the west coast and Central America, and constituting an important extension of the Southern Pacific. Thousands of miles away in the Northwest Mr. Harriman is vying with Mr. Hill for the rapidly developing traffic of the State of Washington. A new road with construction of the Harriman quality is being built parallel to the Northern Pacific into Portland. Still farther north Mr. Hill is planning and working and struggling with physical, economic, and political obstacles to amplify his extensions of the Great Northern.

Steel in the Panic Year. The report of the United States Steel Corporation for the year 1908 was published on March 18 and makes a very suggestive picture of the state of industry in the United States during the year following the crisis. The total sales



UNCLE SAM: "All right, boys, hurry up and finish the job now, so I can be on my way."
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

of the corporation for the year were 6,206,932 tons of steel, the smallest reported in any year of its history; in 1907 the sales were 10,564,537 tons. The gross receipts were \$482,000,000, as against \$757,000,000 in the year previous. The company earned 4.03 per cent. on the common stock, as against 15.6 per cent. in 1907. The total of net earnings was \$91,847,710; in 1907 it was \$160,964,673. When the panic came in the autumn of 1907 the Steel Corporation was midway in gigantic projects of new construction, chief among them the new plant at Gary, Ind. This work could not, of course, be stopped without loss in interest, depreciation, and economy of building, and to continue it during a period of such radically and suddenly decreased earnings the company was forced to encroach heavily on its net working capital. This resulted in a reduction of its "quick" current assets of nearly \$33,000,000 from the high water mark of over \$221,000,000 at the end of 1907. While the Steel Corporation has not made any formal reduction in the wages of its skilled workmen during this period of depression, the smaller wages of unskilled workmen and the automatic operation of the bonus system, so extensively employed in this company, brought the average yearly earnings per man to \$728 in 1908 from \$765 in the year preceding. Also the average number of employees in 1908 fell to 165,211 from 210,180 in 1907, and the total wages and salaries

were \$120,510,829, as against \$160,825,822 in 1907. This falling off in sales and earnings was astonishing enough to come so suddenly in a field of such magnitude and a country of such diversified needs. And yet with the history of the steel business before us, with that commodity appearing successively as "prince or pauper," the wonder is rather that this vast manufacturing business after only a few years of existence should have been able to pass through a period of acute and world-wide depression, find its gross turnover suddenly cut full 40 per cent., and yet earn net on its half a billion issue of common stock a higher rate than the railroads, as a whole, have ever distributed to their bondholders and shareholders.

*Lower Prices
and Wages
in Steel.*

The great steel industry has been forced to bow to the law of supply and demand and lower its prices on practically all products except steel rails. The mills as a whole are operating on a scale of scarcely more than 50 per cent. of their capacity, and within the first few weeks after the reduction in prices there does not seem to have been any very considerable stimulus to business resulting from that move. It is generally believed that this failure on the part of consumers to respond to the lower prices is due to tariff uncertainties. With a radical cutting of the steel schedules,—from the manufacturers' point of view, the proposed 50 per cent. reduction

would be such,—consumers believe that still lower prices will be open to them. Such a condition would undoubtedly mean lower wages in the steel industry, and, indeed, reductions of 10 per cent. in wages have already gone into effect with several important concerns, such as the Lackawanna and Pennsylvania steel companies, and it is said that an additional wage cut in these companies will be in order if the tariff bill now in Congress is passed without a change in the new steel schedules. The Steel Corporation has been criticised in many quarters for holding the prices of its products so long to the level of the exceptionally prosperous years preceding the panic. The apologists for this proceeding seem to have reason in their argument that the powerful corporation maintained prices on an even level in the wild prosperity of 1905-7, when it might have successfully demanded much more for its steel, and that therefore it was justified in maintaining the level as long as possible. One of the promises of the friends of the Steel Corporation at the time of its organization was that it would do this thing,—steady the price of the basic commodity; that economic upheavals have prevented it from achieving an absolute success does not seem to be a complete condemnation of the effort. It is pretty nearly certain that without the concentration of control in the steel industry which came with the new century, we should have seen in 1903 much lower prices than actually obtained; that in the following three or four years there would have been decidedly higher prices than actually obtained, and that now, again, the pendulum would have swung lower than we find it in the present depression. This rapid change of prices would scarcely have been a good thing for either producers or consumers.

*Copper
at
Low Ebb.*

Iron and steel are not alone among the metals in showing now for the first time the full results of the inactivity in new construction and in trade generally. The price of copper fell in the latter part of March practically to twelve cents a pound, the lowest figure for several years. A number of mines that have been active cannot produce the metal profitably at this price. The cost of production, for instance, even in the Amalgamated Copper Company's mines, is supposed to be over ten cents. And yet the total supply of copper waiting to be sold is not enough to last more than a few weeks when consumption is nor-

mal. The fluctuations in the price of this metal are so many, so rapid, and so considerable, that there is, especially in Europe, heavy speculation in the commodity when it reaches very low prices. In fact, it is said that certain European capitalists always buy the metal when quotations fall below twelve cents a pound, and take so much of it out of the market until the price has had its inevitable rebound. Such purchases have been much in evidence during the past month.

*The
National
Treasury.*

Alarmist reports have been published that the United States Government would soon be forced to sell bonds to meet expenditures, that the year's deficit would be \$150,000,000, and that many millions of claims are already being held up for lack of cash. The latest developments show, on the contrary, that present conditions and future prospects are decidedly reassuring. While it is true that in January the national expenditures exceeded receipts about \$500,000 per day, and that the fiscal year showed in the middle of March an excess of expenditures of nearly \$88,000,000, it is also true that the tide has already turned. For the first fifteen days in March the average excess of outgo over income averaged only \$100,000 a day, and Assistant Secretary Coolidge expects the deficit for the operations of the entire fiscal year to come within Mr. Cortelyou's original estimate of \$114,000,000. It is true that the Government revenues have suffered from the growth of the prohibition movement as well as from the decrease in imports due to trade depression. But there is ample cash on hand, all bills are being promptly paid, and as a matter of fact the Treasury's general fund is at just about the same figure as on March 15, 1905, at the beginning of the recent administration. The revenues of the past few months have shown a decided turn for the better, and there is a comfortable working Treasury balance of \$60,000,000. As yet it has not even been necessary to call in the reserves in the national depositories. There will be another issue of Panama bonds, as the work on the Isthmus has called for a much larger outlay than was anticipated, and there may also be, if the deficit continues to grow, a recourse to the issue of 3 per cent. Treasury notes, such as were used in the panic of 1907. The framers of the new tariff bill presented to Congress estimate that it would produce some \$10,000,000 more revenue from import duties than the old sched-

ule, the increased duties on articles and commodities classed as luxuries promising to exceed by the amount the loss in revenue resulting in the heavy reductions on steel, lumber, hides, and other items broadly classed as necessities. In 1907 the revenue of the Government from customs duties had reached much the largest figure in the history of the country, over \$333,000,000, but the receipts from the internal revenue for that year, \$270,000,000, were less by \$37,000,000 than those of the year 1901. In 1908 import duties brought only \$287,000,000 and internal revenues fell to \$250,000,000.

The All-American Interest in Conservation. Gratifying success marked the sessions of the North American Conservation Conference, which held a week's session in Washington ending February 26. There were present delegates from Canada, Mexico, and the United States, assembled upon the invitation of President Roosevelt to discuss problems of common interest and consider how the three countries might co-operate for continental good. The United States delegates were Hon. Gifford Pinchot, Chief Forester; Secretary of State Robert Bacon, and Secretary of the Interior James R. Garfield. Canada was represented by the Hon. Sydney Fisher, Minister of Agriculture; the Hon. Clifford Sifton, ex-Minister of the Interior, and Dr. Henri S. Bland, M.P., while Mexico sent to represent her the Hon. Romolo Escobar, former Secretary of Agriculture and Commissioner of Forestry; the Hon. Miguel de Quevedo, present Commissioner of Forestry and engineer of the Sanitary Commission, and the Hon. Carlos Sellerier, Secretary of Agriculture and Inspector of Mines. The declaration of principles adopted made recommendations for the conservation of the natural resources of the three countries, suggested the establishment of a permanent commission, and urged the calling of a world conservation congress. In accordance with this last-named suggestion President Roosevelt immediately issued invitations to the world powers to appoint delegates to meet at The Hague to discuss matters relating to the conservation of natural resources in all the lands of the globe.

Fall of the Newfoundland Ministry. Late in February the news dispatches from Newfoundland told of the fall of the Bond government. With the resignation of Sir Robert Bond, premier of the colony, came the end

of the first chapter of a political crisis which has lasted for some years in this island colony of Great Britain. Questions of governmental policy as to public works and the attitude of the colony with regard to the fisheries dispute with the United States have for nearly a decade divided the Newfoundlanders into two nearly equal parties, headed respectively by Sir Robert Bond, the premier, and his one-time lieutenant, Sir Edward Morris. For the past year the Bond ministry has had only the most precarious hold upon power, its supporters in the legislature numbering eighteen to an equal number of the opposition. The colonial legislature began its sessions on March 4 and entered at once upon a consideration of the budget regardless of party lines, the Governor, Sir William MacGregor, hoping to get along without a premier until the general elections, which will be held next fall.

Arbitrating the Fisheries Dispute.

Meanwhile, gratifying progress has been made toward an actual definite settlement of the fisheries dispute between the colony and the United States. Last month the State Department at Washington made public the personnel of the court of arbitration which will finally adjust the entire controversy. All of the judges are members of the permanent court at The Hague. They are Dr. Heinrich Lammasch, of Austria, who will act as president and cast the deciding vote; Dr. Luis M. Drago, of Argentina; Dr. A. F. de Savorin Lohman, of Holland; the Hon. George



CANADA AND MEXICO CONDOLE WITH UNCLE SAM OVER THE DESTRUCTION OF HIS FORESTS.
From the *Herald* (Washington).

Gray, of Delaware, Judge of the United States Circuit Court; and Sir Charles Fitzpatrick, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the Dominion. The counsel of the United States will include Chandler P. Anderson, of New York; George Turner, of Spokane; Samuel J. Elder, of Boston; Charles B. Warren, of Detroit; Robert Lansing, of Watertown, N. Y.; and Dr. James B. Scott, solicitor of the State Department. The general waterways treaty between the Dominion of Canada and the United States was ratified by the Senate during the closing hours of the regular session of Congress.

*Politics
in
Cuba.*

The end of the first month in the life of the restored Cuban Republic saw the breaking out of an insurrection, which for a time seemed likely to assume serious proportions, among the rural guards in Santa Clara province, in almost the same sections where the revolution broke out against President Palma in August, 1906. Dissatisfaction over the reorganization of the army under Gen. Pino Guerra is alleged to have been the cause of the dissatisfaction. By the middle of March it was reported that the revolt had been put down. Aside from this incident it may be said that the Cubans of all political factions are working in harmony, as much, perhaps to avoid another American intervention as from higher patriotic motives. A number of measures long discussed by Cuban political leaders became law during the past few weeks, including an amnesty bill, signed by President Gomez on March 6, applying to all actual prisoners not convicted of "unnatural crimes"; and a bill suspending at the discretion of the President the export duty on tobacco, sugar, and liquors, imposed by President Palma to insure the payment of the interest on the \$35,000,000 army-pay loan. The much-discussed bill forbidding the further purchase of lands in Cuba by aliens was defeated, as was also a measure which in substance called for the recognition of negroes in appointment to offices to the extent of 30 per cent. of the entire number appointed. Congress then adjourned until the 4th of the present month. Late in February it was announced that the cost of the second American intervention had been slightly over \$6,000,000. It should be noted also in passing that early last month the Cuban Senate confirmed the appointment of Carlos Garcia Velez as Cuban minister to the United States to succeed Gonzalo Quesada.

*Porto
Rican
Affairs.*

The adjournment on March 11 of the regular session of the Porto Rican House of Delegates, without agreement on a budget for the coming fiscal year, precipitated a real legislative problem in our West Indian Island possession. For a year there has been a disagreement between the House of Delegates, which is elected by the people and the upper house, the Executive Council, dominated by the American heads of departments, over the appointment of municipal judges. The failure of the legislature at both its regular session and at the extra session called immediately afterwards by Governor Post to pass the appropriation bill, necessitated the closing of the night schools, the insular library, and some other public institutions, besides interfering with the progress of several of the more important public works. Commissions appointed by both the House of Delegates and the Executive Council left San Juan for the United States on March 17 to endeavor to secure amendments to the organic act, in order to avoid a recurrence of the present deadlock. The total commerce of Porto Rico for the calendar year 1908, it is officially announced, amounted to a little less than \$54,000,000, the exports exceeding the imports by approximately \$3,000,000. According to the Chamber of Commerce of San Juan, what Porto Rico needs most just now is American citizenship for its people and an American market for its coffee.

*What
Does Zelaya
Want?*

When, in December, 1907, the restless republics of Central America came together in a conference of peace and amity and with the moral co-operation of Mexico and the United States solemnly bound themselves by treaty and proclamation to dwell together in harmony and to submit virtually every possible cause of disagreement to a court of arbitration, it was believed by the American people and the world in general that the day of violence and revolution for Central America had passed forever. The agreement upon the perpetual neutrality and integrity of Honduras, across whose territory the hostile armies of almost any warlike combination would have to march before they could meet in battle, was believed to have been another guarantee of peace. It seems, however, that the rival ambitions of President Zelaya, of Nicaragua, and President Cabrera, of Guatemala, cannot be satisfied with anything less than the domination of the five republics.

The news from Central America for the past few weeks has seemed to indicate that a test of strength was about to be witnessed between these two strong men. The overt acts were begun by Zelaya, in the massing of troops on the Honduran border and the dispatching of an armed force to Cartago (Costa Rica), where the international court of arbitration sits, for the evident purpose of intimidating the judges into a decision favorable to himself in cases now under consideration.

The Mexican and American Attitudes. On March 17 Secretary of State Knox sent to Señor Espinosa, the Nicaraguan Minister at Washington, a vigorous note expressing the demand of the United States Government for the arbitration of the claim of several American citizens against Nicaragua. At the same time three United States cruisers were reported in the vicinity of the Nicaraguan coast and a Mexican gunboat appeared in Nicaraguan waters. There is a strong feeling in Mexico in favor of armed intervention and of some decided vigorous action on the part of the Mexican and United States Governments which shall thoroughly overawe the ambitious Central American statesmen, who apparently have no regard for their international obligations or their treaty promises.

The Naval "Scare" in England. To a people already wrought almost to a fever heat of apprehension over the possibility of a foreign invasion, as the English have been by the electrifying effect of Du Maurier's play "An Englishman's Home," it could not fail to be highly disconcerting to hear Mr. Reginald McKenna, First Lord of the Admiralty and executive head of the British navy, declare solemnly in the House of Commons (as he did on March 16):

Our chief difficulty is that we do not know at what rate Germany is building nor when her program will be finished, but we know the Germans have a law which, when all the ships provided under it are completed, will give them a navy more powerful than any other in existence.

Insisting that he referred to Germany "for arithmetical purposes only and without expressing any personal feeling except admiration for her professional and administrative efficiency," Mr. McKenna pointed out that the German Empire's production of ships, guns, and armaments had developed to such an extent that "it would tax the resources of British firms to retain superiority in construc-



JOSÉ SANTOS ZELAYA, PRESIDENT OF THE NICARAGUAN REPUBLIC.

tion." No matter at what cost, he concluded, "the safety of the country must be assured and the limits of the navy must be fixed by the progress of foreign powers."

Is Britain in Danger? Mr. Balfour, the opposition leader, followed with a sensational speech, in which he declared that for the first time in relatively modern history Great Britain is face to face with a naval situation "so new and dangerous that it is difficult to realize all it imports." The program of the government, said Mr. Balfour, is utterly insufficient. Britain should use to the utmost her enormous resources "to restore, not a two-power standard (which seems now difficult to attain), but a one-power standard in the matter of ships of first-class power." Premier Asquith, gravely disavowing any friction with or ill-feeling toward Germany, insisted that "as the whole national life and security of Great Britain depend upon her security at sea, the government cannot afford to get behind or slacken their efforts." Mr. McKenna presented figures to show that by the end of the year 1912, at the present rate of building in both countries, Germany would have more ships of the *Dreadnought* type than Great Britain.

*Profound
Effect on the
Nation.*

The debate was before a crowded house and made a profound impression upon the country. Even the most pronounced opponents of increased armaments in Britain have apparently been won over by the sensational announcements in Parliament. The effect was shown in its vote upon the estimates called for in the budget, in which the government won by a large majority. The estimates for 1909 show an increase of more than \$14,000,000 over the estimate of last year, the total expenditure authorized being \$175,000,000 and the building program as finally adopted providing for four *Dreadnoughts*, six protected cruisers, besides torpedo destroyers and submarines. In the course of the debate already referred to Mr. Asquith announced that the British Government had more than once suggested to Germany a mutual reduction in naval expenditures, but had always been assured that German naval expenditures were governed solely with reference to Germany's needs and did not depend upon Britain's naval program. England, however, the Premier insisted, for her very life's sake must maintain a naval force up to the two-power standard.

*England
vs.
Germany.*

The unusual reference to and comparison with Germany in open parliamentary debate, it has been explained by several leaders in the Commons, was necessitated by the fact that it is



ADMIRAL SIR WILLIAM HENRY MAY.

(Active commander-in-chief of the British navy.)



"AN ENGLISHMAN'S HOME."

(In this way the cartoonist of the *Chicago Daily Tribune* pictures the British Premier absorbed in questions of external defense, while the militant suffragettes are storming Parliament. It should be said here that this REVIEW, in company with a number of other American periodicals, last month was misled by foreign press reports into making the statement that the Swedish Parliament had extended the right of suffrage to women. This was an error. Sweden has simply adopted universal manhood suffrage and proportional representation.)

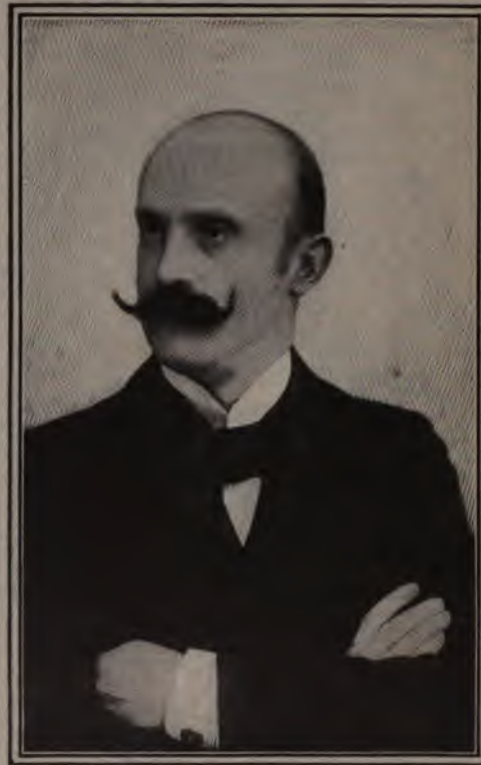
against the German battleship program that England must build. She is reasonably sure of her alliance with France, "a war with the United States is unthinkable," Russia is no longer a naval power, and the compact with Japan provides safety in Asiatic waters. There remains only Germany, and, although in a debate in the Reichstag on the day following Mr. McKenna's sensational remarks, Admiral von Tirpitz, German minister of the navy, stated that the imperial naval program would not result in the strength set forth in Mr. McKenna's figures at any time during the next decade, it is apparently a settled conviction in official quarters and among the populace generally in both countries that Britain and Germany are building against each other and that the situation has resolved itself into a contest of purses. Which nation can hold out the longer? During early February that division of Britain's naval strength known as the Channel Fleet was abolished, the ships being absorbed into the general formation. Admiral Sir Charles Beresford has been retired at the age limit, and all ships in commission in British waters are now placed under command of Sir William Henry May.

*The Strike
Situation
in France.*

The power of organized labor in France has perhaps never been more conclusively and dramatically demonstrated than by the general strike of post office, telegraph, and telephone operators which for more than a week last month upset most of the business of the country, virtually isolated Paris from the rest of the world, and almost completely paralyzed the government's public activities. The immediate cause of the trouble was the attempt of the union of postal-telegraph employees to force the government to withdraw its recently proclaimed regulation providing for a merit system of promotion instead of the old traditional system based solely on seniority. The application of the new rule was entrusted to M. Julien Simyan, under-secretary of posts and telegraphs, an official very unpopular with male employees of the post office for his alleged favoritism, and with the women employed in the telephone service (also under government control) for alleged systematic and insulting disparagement of their services. Sympathetic strikes of other male and female employees connected with the postal and telephone services, not only in the capital but throughout the provinces, involving in all more than 50,000 individuals, caused a tremendous congestion of mail matter at the Paris offices, prevented the receipt of news by telephone and telegraph all over the world, thus causing many newspapers to suspend publication and embarrassing the government in dealing with the Balkan situation.

*Danger
to the
State.*

The striking government employees, though organized, are not members of trade unions, French law prohibiting this. The labor organizations of the republic are regarded by the government as tyrannical, and the general confederation of labor is itself almost an avowed revolutionary organization. Indeed, the government several times in the last two years has dismissed State servants who have agitated in favor of affiliating with this organization. The situation thus resolved itself last month into a contest between the government and the unions of government employees, the latter demanding the dismissal of the offending Minister Simyan. Premier Clemenceau displayed his usual vigor in handling the situation, employing troops to deliver the mail, and holding the strikers severely in hand. By the middle of the month the strike had assumed almost the proportions of a rebellion.



JOSEPH CAILLAUX, FRENCH MINISTER OF FINANCE.
(Who has formulated and engineered through the Chamber of Deputies a scientific income-tax bill.)

*The Income
Tax
in France.*

While the German Empire is facing a grave internal political crisis over the government's proposed revenue measures, as set forth in these pages last month, its republican neighbor, France, is concerned by a problem equally grave and perhaps more difficult of solution. When the French budget for the current year was adopted (on December 22 last), carrying appropriations amounting to more than four milliards of francs (\$800,000,000), the largest budget ever prepared by a French ministry, Premier Clemenceau and his minister of finance, M. Caillaux, jointly announced to parliament that the financial problem would be solved by the revenues accruing from the new tariff law and the income tax bill then under discussion in the Chamber of Deputies. A detailed description of the French tariff law is given by Mr. Ogg on page 427 this month, in his excellent article on the general tariff situation in Europe. As for the income tax, the measure embodying this policy, known as the Caillaux bill, which has been two years making



GIOVANNI GIOLITTI, PRIME MINISTER OF ITALY.

its slow way through the Chamber of Deputies, was finally adopted by that body on March 9 by a very large majority vote. This measure, which in the opinion of French political leaders will be rejected by the Conservative Senate, would recast the entire fiscal system of the republic. The French tax system at present is really not a system but a complex patchwork of imposts. There are taxes on windows and doors, on horses and carriages, on bicycles, and on many other objects and operations of popular life in France. The new law abolishes many of these imposts and substitutes a rather complexly graduated tax on incomes and house rents.

How the Proposed Law Would Work.

The bases of taxation under the new measure would be the source of the income (those earned being taxed less than those derived from inherited or invested fortunes) and the nationality of the taxpayers (aliens paying more than French subjects). The law, of course, would affect in no way the existing customs duties or the indirect taxation through state monopolies in tobacco, matches, and other commodities, or the taxes upon sugar, salt, and liquors. Minister Caillaux in his speech in the Chamber, which had the unusual honor of being printed and placarded throughout the republic, defended his scheme in detail, claiming that it would reduce taxation on

land, agriculture, and commerce, and that the burden would be lifted from the very poor classes and adjusted with more fairness to the shoulders of the rich. The government estimates that the revenue from the new taxes will aggregate 694,000,000 francs annually (\$138,800,000). It is not thought possible that this or any modified income tax bill can become a law, so slow is the French method of legislative procedure, before two years from date. In the meantime a large annual deficit is inevitable. This the ministry proposes to meet by a bond issue, an increase in the inheritance tax, and a special impost on all places where absinthe is sold. One of the effects of France's present financial embarrassment of concern to Americans is the refusal of the government at Paris to assent to the proposal for a two-cent rate of postage between the two countries. As yet, Minister Caillaux is reported to have declared, France cannot afford to agree to this proposal.

The General Election in Italy.

On the first and second Sundays in March were held the Italian general elections for members of Parliament. The result was decidedly favorable to the government, which will have the support of 350 members in the Chamber of Deputies against 158 of the united opposition. This is a substantial increase in the ministerial strength. It is significant, however, of the future of Italian parliamentary conditions that the Radicals and Socialists gained no less than thirty seats, chiefly at the expense of the minor parties, while the Clericals will hold fourteen seats as against seven in the present parliament. The Clericals participated in full force in last month's elections for the first time since 1870, Pope Pius having released from the observance of the *non-expedit* the voters of the seventy-two constituencies, including the three in Rome, which comprised the old States of the Church. Despite this action on the part of the Church, however, Anti-Clerical deputies were elected from these three Roman constituencies, testifying to the strength of this party which, it will be remembered, last year won a big municipal triumph under Signor Nathan, now mayor of the Eternal City. Premier Giolitti has been returned by increased majorities from his own district, which includes the earthquake-devastated region of Calabria. He remains evidently arbiter of the foreign policy of the kingdom. This will still center around the maintenance

of the Triple Alliance and the cultivation of friendship with Great Britain and France.

International Regulation of Immigration. A parcels-post convention with Italy and the promise made to King Victor Emmanuel by Signor Marconi that within the next twelve months there would be direct wireless communication between the two countries, were features of the news of the past month gratifying to Americans generally. Of threatening import, however, and calling for grave concern on the part of both Italian and American governmental authorities, was the sinister demonstration of the power held by those secret societies dominating the life of Italy's poor criminal population (the Mafia, the Black Hand, the Camorra, and other less known societies) which last month were responsible for the assassination of Lieut. Joseph Petrosino, of the New York police force. This official was in Italy on a mission, sanctioned by the Italian Government, connected with the policing of New York's Italian immigrant contingent. It would seem to be high time for some international agreement as to not only the extradition of criminals, but providing for international co-operation in the suppression of criminal organizations and activities involving more than one country. Steps in this direction have indeed been taken. By direction of our State department, Ambassador Griscom, at Rome, has made representations to the Italian Foreign Office, urging that the greatest energy be used toward the discovery and punishment of Petrosino's murderers. Italy, moreover, has formally expressed its desire to join the United States in a plan to end the spread of crime traceable to members of these secret societies that have gained such solid footing on Italian soil and in this country.

The Austro-Serbian Crisis. February and March were two very uneasy and uncertain months in European international politics. During this period the entire continent has been fearing the actual outbreak of hostilities over the interminable Balkan tangle. The relations between Austria and Serbia, becoming acute almost to the point of actual rupture, have been the center of the crisis. As has been pointed out more than once in these pages, the Servian Government and people regard the Austrian absorption of Bosnia and Herzegovina as but a preliminary step to the Teutonic conquest of their own land. The Austrianization of these provinces

and the isolation of Servia and Montenegro, surrounded as they are by Austrian and Turkish territory, a Servian statesman is reported to have said last month, means eventual suffocation for his people. A series of diplomatic notes passed between Vienna and Belgrade during the past few weeks, couched in the usual equivocal diplomatic language, the correspondence really amounting to a diplomatic duel between the Austrian Foreign Minister, Baron von Aerenthal, and the Servian Foreign Minister, Dr. Milovanovich. Austria, relying upon the implied support of Germany and the assumed impotence of Russia to interfere, has evidently been trying to put Servia technically in the position of intending to violate the general peace, while the Belgrade Government has endeavored to get before the world the Servian view of the case. In the background may be seen the intrigue and play of the forces of the great powers for their own diplomatic advantage.

Europe "Advises" Servia to Yield. By the middle of last month Servia had apparently yielded to the Austrian demand that she recognize the Austrian annexation of the two provinces and claim no territorial compensation. In return, it was intimated that the Vienna government would consent to certain economic concessions in the matter of the tariff relations between the two countries. The Servian formal surrender is generally believed to have been due to pressure brought to bear upon the Belgrade government by the combined influence of the European great powers. It now seems all but certain that



EUROPE "ADVISES" SERVIA.

(In this way *Fischietto*, of Turin, expresses the Italian view of Servia's "surrender" to Austria.)

an international conference will actually be held to discuss the Balkan situation. A definite program submitted by the Italian foreign office on March 18 has, it was reported last month, received the approval of all the great powers, including Austria and possibly even Russia. It comprises four points: —

(1) A formal registration of the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. (2) A formal registration of Bulgaria's agreement to pay an indemnity to Turkey. (3) A modification of Article 29 of the Berlin treaty affecting the relations of Austria and Montenegro. (4) An acknowledgment that Serbia raises no claims, according to her own declaration.

The commercial concessions to Serbia would be arranged for by direct negotiations between the two powers directly concerned.

The General Situation. On March 16 Russia and Turkey signed the agreement, outlined in these pages last month, regarding Bulgaria's payment for recognition of her independence. A fortnight before a protocol signed between Austria and Turkey definitely disposed of the difficulties between these two powers. Therefore, despite the war preparations which Serbia continues to make, and despite the bellicose assertions in the Austrian press as to the necessity for an Austro-Hungarian occupation of Belgrade, it may be assumed that combined Europe will not permit the peace to be broken. It is a foregone conclusion that the Austrian action in annexing the two provinces will be legalized by the conference. It is also true beyond a doubt that Russia is not ready to champion at the point of the sword the cause of the Slav races in the Balkans. These two facts, barring always some hot-headed act on the part of the Servians themselves, would seem to assure a continuance of peace.

Russian Finances. Leading and over-shadowing all other topics of interest and concern to the Russian people, and indeed to the rest of the world in its relation to Russia, last month were the sensational developments, so far-reaching in their influence, of the now famous Azeff case. The significance of the revelations in this case to Russia present and future is set forth on another page this month (463). Disclosures of such social, political, and moral degeneracy as these are of vastly more serious import to a nation's future than could possibly be the favorable condition of Russian finance as set forth by Minister Kokovtsev. During a debate on the budget in the Duma early

last month the Finance Minister referred to Russia's immense gold reserve (approximately \$600,000,000), which, he declared, gave foreign investors confidence in the country's resources and in the patriotism and good sense of its governing classes. The debate, however, brought out some keen criticism of the budget, which, it was pointed out, is founded almost entirely on indirect taxes imposing hardships on the great mass of the population while the wealthier classes escape taxation almost entirely.

Other News from Russia. Of course, the Russian people are still vitally interested in the Balkan situation, and it may be (as is claimed in the European press generally) that the St. Petersburg government still holds the key to the question of war and peace. Other items of interest from Russia during the past few weeks have been the announcement by the imperial department of the interior that the activity of courts-martial would hereafter be limited; the proposal of the ministry of education to build many new primary schools throughout the empire during the present year; the dissolution of the Finnish Diet, new elections being ordered for May 1; the abolition, by imperial order, of the use of drums in the army in time of war; and the progress of Russia's disagreement with China over the municipal administration of the city of Harbin in Manchuria. This matter is discussed at greater length in a subsequent paragraph.

China, Korea, and Japan. One of the first communications received by President Taft from foreign governments was the private letter which came last month from the Chinese regent, Prince Chun, reviewing the Manchurian situation and explaining the attitude taken by the regency in regard to China's foreign policy generally. Lasting peace in the East, declares the Regent, depends upon the return of the Japanese to their own country, not only from Manchuria, but also from Korea. China "sees difficulties in the way of a Japanese withdrawal from Korea in the immediate future," but is convinced that ultimately Japan will retire wholly from her occupation of territory on the Asiatic mainland. Shortly after the news dispatches had recorded the reception of this letter it was announced in a newspaper of Seoul, Korea, and the announcement copied generally throughout the journals of the Far East and Europe, that Japan had finally de-

terminated to "annex" Korea. The announcement included a statement that Prince Ito, the Japanese Resident-General of Korea, who has been on an "extended absence" in Japan, would not return to Seoul, but would be succeeded by General Terauchi, Minister of War in the Tokio cabinet. Just the method to be pursued in bringing about the annexation so as not to violate the letter of treaty rights and international agreements it was not stated. Public statements, however, by Japanese officials in Korea, emphasizing the need of the Hermit Kingdom for Japanese protection, have been more frequent during recent months.

*What Japan
Is Doing in
Korea.*

An elaborately prepared report for the year 1907 of the "Reforms and Progress in Korea" initiated and now being carried on by the Japanese administration, has just been issued in English, which makes an excellent showing. In the building of highways and railroads particularly the administration of Japan has made gratifying progress, as is evident from the accompanying map which we reproduce from the report in question. The commerce of Korea, according to the latest available figures, now approximates \$35,000,000 annually. Of this amount Japan controls about 75 per cent., China 6 or 7 per cent., and England and the United States about 5 per cent. each. The American trade, however, may be considered a larger proportion of the total than would be indicated by this percentage, since a considerable amount of American goods are sold in Korea by the Japanese merchants.

*The
International
Conference
on Opium.* China's plans for internal reforms continue to occupy the time and tax all the resources of the new administration. Several problems in her foreign relations, however, have also been vexing her recently. The anti-opium campaign is both foreign and domestic in its significance, while the Russian aggressions at Harbin, in Manchuria, are of perhaps purely foreign import. The net results of the recent international anti-opium conference, held at Shanghai from February 1 to 26, were embodied in a series of resolutions, urging upon all governments of the world the necessity for drastic measures to control the manufacture, sale, and distribution of morphia and other harmful manufactured products of opium; an international scientific investigation of the so-called opium reme-

dies; the adoption by all maritime countries of measures to prevent the shipment of opium to any country prohibiting its entry; laws to suppress opium smoking; and a rigid application of the pharmacy laws of all countries of the world to the subjects of these countries in consular districts, concessions, and settlements in China. The difficulties between Russia and China centering about the municipal administration of the city of Harbin arise from the fact that according to its contract the railroad company has a right to participate in the administration of the city while the administration of the railroad is conducted by the Russian minister of finance, and the Chinese still claim the exclusive municipal authority. Protests have already been made by the government of China and the consular representatives of the United States against the recent action of General Horvath, Russian administrator and acting-



MAP TO ILLUSTRATE JAPANESE ROAD-MAKING IN KOREA.



Photograph by Fash Bros., N. Y.

REAR-ADMIRAL SEATON SCHROEDER.

(July last month succeeded Rear-Admiral Sperry in active command of the battleship fleet which has just returned from its round-the-world trip.)

consul, in expelling from the city Chinese merchants who refuse to pay taxes to Russia, China's firm attitude in this question has done much to restore her prestige with the Manchurian population, which since the Russo-Japanese war, has been subjected to the harsh, uncertain military rule of both Russia and Japan. In an early issue of the REVIEW we are planning to publish from the pen of a writer on the spot an outline of the administrative problems of Manchuria and the agricultural possibilities of that vast region.

The decisions of the International Conference, in session in London from December 4 to February 26, amount to a definite agreement upon a code of naval warfare. In brief, the decisions have to do with what is contraband of war, when a neutral ship containing contraband may be sunk, and the question of compensation therefor. Ten maritime nations were represented, the American delegates being Rear-Admiral Charles H. Stockton and Prof. George Gratton Wilson, of Brown University. Every point debated by the con-

ference was settled except that regarding the conversion of merchant ships into ships of war by belligerents. On that point the delegates found it impossible to agree. The result of the deliberations is in effect a radical modification of the Declaration of Paris, most of the sixty-nine articles of the code agreed upon, however, being highly technical in character and phraseology. The event of significance to the organization of the United States Navy itself during recent weeks was the hauling down of the flag of Rear-Admiral Sperry, who had commanded the battleship fleet on its homeward voyage. He has been succeeded by Rear-Admiral Seaton Schroeder, formerly in command of the third division of the fleet. Admiral Sperry retires from active service in September. Admiral Schroeder is still two years from the age limit.

World Aspects
of Tariff
Problems.

Changes in the tariff policies and schedules of more than one of the European and American nations have attracted a great deal of the world's attention during the past months, and the people of the United States will find useful and interesting an analysis of the tariff policies and conditions in European countries to-day. On another page this month (427) appears an analysis of these policies and conditions which is well worth studying by a close student of international economic relations. It should not be forgotten that tariff differences not only influence business conditions, but frequently endanger political relations. Servia's enmity against Austria-Hungary is largely due to the severe tariff restrictions the Vienna government has put upon Austro-Servian trade. The internal relations of the Dual Monarchy are always complicated by the tariff disagreements of Hungary and Austria proper, while Russia and Germany have more than once been close to a very bitter state of affairs over matters of tariff. Late in February, after an exciting debate of two days, Mr. Austen Chamberlain's "tariff reform" (in England this expression means "protection") amendment to the address in reply to King Edward's speech from the throne, was defeated in the House of Commons by a large majority. It should be said in passing also that early in March the Russian Government made Vladivostok, Siberia, hitherto free, a closed port of entry, this action affecting a large traffic in American goods. Russia herself is preparing for a readjustment of her tariff system.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From February 18 to March 19, 1909.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

February 18.—The Senate passes the Post-Office appropriation bill (\$232,000,000) and ratifies the agreement between the United States and Great Britain providing for the submission to the Hague court of the Newfoundland fishery dispute....The House passes the bill amending the Penal Code.

February 19.—The Senate passes the Army and Pension appropriation bills....The House passes the Fortifications bill.

February 20.—The Senate passes the Indian appropriation bill....The House passes the Diplomatic, Military Academy, Public Buildings, and Rivers and Harbors appropriation bills.

February 22.—The Senate adopts a resolution continuing the present committees to the next session....The House debates the Sundry Civil appropriation bill.

February 23.—The Senate passes the bill introduced by Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.) providing for a commission to consider cases of discharged negro soldiers; the Fortifications bill and the Diplomatic and Consular bill are also passed....The House considers the Sundry Civil appropriation bill.

February 24.—The Senate discusses the Agricultural appropriation bill....The House rejects Senate amendments to the Legislative appropriation bill increasing the salaries of the President, Vice-President, the Speaker of the House, and other officials, and creating an Under Secretary and Fourth Assistant Secretary of State.

February 25.—The Senate considers the forestry provision of the Agricultural appropriation bill....The House adopts the amendment to the Sundry Civil appropriation bill restricting the Secret Service.

February 26.—The Senate passes the Agricultural appropriation bill....The House passes the Sundry Civil appropriation bill, refusing an appropriation for the prosecution of the United States Steel Corporation for absorbing the Tennessee Coal & Iron Company.

February 27.—The Senate passes the Rivers and Harbors appropriation bill....The House passes the General Deficiency appropriation bill and the Senate bill providing an opportunity for negro soldiers of the Twenty-fifth Infantry to make themselves eligible for reinstatement.

March 1.—The Senate passes the Sundry Civil appropriation bill (\$139,000,000)....The House passes the Forest Reserve bill and agrees to the final conference report on the Army, Navy, and Fortifications bills.

March 2.—The Senate passes the General Deficiency appropriation bill....The House, by a vote of 172 to 175, defeats the Postal Subvention bill and agrees to conference reports on the Agricultural, Rivers and Harbors, and Public Buildings bills.



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HON. GEORGE V. L. MEYER.

(Who goes from the Post-office Department in the Roosevelt Cabinet to that of the Navy under Mr. Taft, and who holds the views of both Presidents regarding the need of a strong and up-to-date naval armament.)

March 3.—Both branches agree to the conference report on the Legislative appropriation bill increasing the President's salary by \$25,000....The Senate passes the Penal Code amendments....The House passes the Copyright Amendment bill and agrees to conference reports on the remaining appropriations bills.

March 4.—The Senate ratifies the Canadian Boundary Waters treaty and adjourns without date; the Senate of the Sixty-first Congress is called to order by Vice-President Sherman and new members are sworn in....The House completes unfinished business and adjourns without day.

March 15.—The Sixty-first Congress meets in special session....Mr. Cannon (Rep., Ill.) is re-elected Speaker of the House and a resolution amending the rules is adopted.

March 16.—President Taft transmits a message pointing out the necessity for revision of the tariff....Speaker Cannon announces the personnel of the Rules and Ways and Means Committees of the House.

March 17.—In the House, Mr. Payne (Rep., N. Y.), chairman of the Ways and Means Com-

mittee, introduces the tariff bill, which is referred back to the committee.

March 18.—The House passes the bill providing for the taking of the thirteenth census; the tariff bill is reported by the Ways and Means Committee.

March 19.—The Senate receives the census bill from the House.... A new ship-subsidy bill is introduced in the House.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

February 18.—Herbert Knox Smith, Commissioner of Corporations, transmits to the President a report on the organization of the tobacco combination.

February 20.—Governor Hughes, of New York, presents his views on direct primaries at the Brooklyn Young Republican Club.

March 1.—Dr. W. D. Crum, the negro collector of the port of Charleston, S. C., sends his resignation to President Roosevelt.... The majority of the legislative committee appointed to



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CAR USED IN NEW SUBWAY FROM THE CAPITOL TO THE SENATE OFFICE BUILDING AT WASHINGTON.

investigate New York City's finances recommends the defeat of the measure to increase the debt limit, while the minority supports the bill.

March 2.—According to a decision of the Massachusetts Supreme Court, the New York, New Haven & Hartford Railroad Company must dispose of all its trolley holdings in Massachusetts before July 1.

March 4.—William Howard Taft is inaugurated President of the United States and James Schoolcraft Sherman Vice-President.... Senator Isaac Stephenson (Rep.) of Wisconsin, is re-elected to the United States Senate by the Wisconsin Legislature on the twenty-third ballot, receiving 63 out of 125 votes cast.

March 5.—President Taft makes the following cabinet nominations, which are immediately confirmed by the Senate: Secretary of State, Philander C. Knox, of Pennsylvania; Secretary of the Treasury, Franklin MacVeagh, of Illinois; Secretary of War, Jacob McGavock Dickinson, of Tennessee; Secretary of the Navy, George von L. Meyer, of Massachusetts; Secretary of Agriculture, James Wilson, of Iowa; Secretary of the Interior, Richard A. Ballinger, of Washington; Secretary of Commerce and Labor, Charles Nagel, of Missouri; Attorney-General,

George W. Wickersham, of New York; master-General, Frank H. Hitchcock, of Massachusetts.

March 6.—President Taft issues a call for a special session of Congress to convene on March 15.

March 8.—The New York City Charter Commission makes its report to the Legislature.

March 9.—William Loeb, Jr., assumes duties of Collector of the Port of New York.

March 13.—Police chiefs in our large cities are asked to arrest persons suspected to be members of the Black Hand.

March 15.—Bills amending the Public Commission laws are introduced in the New York Legislature.

March 16.—George T. Oliver (Rep.) is elected by the Pennsylvania Legislature to succeed Philander C. Knox in the United States.

March 18.—Robert C. Ogden, W. M. Schuster, and Emmett J. Scott are named as members of the commission to investigate conditions in Liberia.

March 19.—A direct-nominations bill is introduced in the New York Legislature.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

February 18.—Twenty-eight woman suffragists are arrested in Downing Street and Parliament Square, London.

February 19.—Ten of the English suffragists are sent to jail for terms of from one month to six weeks.... A royal commission is appointed to inquire into university education in London.

February 22.—The Finnish Diet is dissolved by order of the Czar of Russia.

February 23.—An order is issued in France that no passports be issued to men who make them available for military service. The French tariff commission adopts an amendment restoring the old minimum and maximum rates on all oils except cotton-seed, which pay a duty of twenty-five francs on each kiloliter.

February 24.—Nearly thirty English suffragists are arrested in Parliament Square, London, for trying to force an entrance into the houses of Parliament.

February 25.—The Newfoundland government of Sir Robert Bond resigns.

February 28.—A Russian military court in Kiev sentences three men to death, twenty to penal servitude, and ten to imprisonment for revolutionary activity.

March 2.—Scott Dickson, Unionist tariff reformer, defeats Gibson Bowles, Liberal trader, in a contest for a Glasgow seat in the British Parliament.

March 6.—President Gomez, of Cuba, issues the general amnesty bill.... Members of the Russian Duma sharply attack the government system of suppressing revolutionary agitation.... President Gomez, of Venezuela, forbids President Castro to enter the country.

March 7.—The Giolitti ministry is victorious in the Italian elections.... The police of Washington arrest 178 students at a university meeting.

March 9.—The French Chamber of Deputies



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WILLIAM HAYWARD.
(Post Office.)

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BEEKMAN WINTHROP.
(Navy.)

FRANK B. WIBORG.
(Commerce and Labor.)

THREE OF THE ASSISTANT HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS RECENTLY APPOINTED AT WASHINGTON.

by vote of 407 to 156, passes the income-tax bill. . . . Lieutenant Arnold, of the Belgian army, is sentenced to twelve years' imprisonment for atrocities in the Congo.

March 12.—The British naval estimates show an increase of \$14,116,000 over those of last year. . . . France faces a large deficit in revenues.

March 13.—The French ministers of marine and finance reach an agreement on naval appropriation measures. . . . A general strike of telegraphers is begun in Paris.

March 15.—A general strike of postal and telegraph employees in Paris is called; numbers of telephone employees and railway mail clerks vote to support the movement.

March 17.—The strike of the French state employees in the telegraph, telephone, and mail services spreads rapidly; the country is practically isolated; the government refuses to make concessions.

March 19.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 368 to 211, sustains the government's refusal to treat with the striking telegraph and telephone employees.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

February 18.—An extraordinary council of ministers is held in St. Petersburg to consider the situation in the Balkans.

February 19.—The scheme of the Russian Bank to give financial aid to the Shah of Persia is vetoed by the Russian finance minister. . . . All the powers represented at the International Naval Conference, with the exception of America, agree on the final terms of the code. . . . Bulgaria again asks the powers to recognize her independence. . . . Two bills which prohibit Japanese from fishing in Hawaiian waters are introduced in the Hawaiian legislature. . . . Presi-

dent Roosevelt formulates a call for an international conference to consider the conservation of natural resources.

February 20.—Baron Moncheur, Belgian minister to the United States, is transferred to Constantinople; he will be succeeded at Washington by Count de Buisseret Steenbecque, recently Belgian minister to Morocco.

February 21.—The powers, replying to a note of protest from the Porte, say that Bulgarian independence will not be recognized until an agreement with Turkey has been reached.

February 22.—The United States Government asks the delegates to the International Naval Conference to make a declaration that the prize court at The Hague be regarded as one of arbitration and not of appeal.

February 23.—A patent agreement between the United States and Germany is signed at Washington.

February 24.—The Russian Government takes steps to prevent railway officials on the line west of Harbin from using violence toward Chinese who have refused to pay taxes.

February 25.—The delegates to the International Naval Conference in London agree on a new code for naval warfare. . . . The International Opium Commission at Shanghai finishes its labors. . . . The declaration of policy by the new premier of Servia is peaceful. . . . The regency of China sends a private letter to President-elect Taft, stating China's policy with regard to the United States and other nations. . . . Russia expresses a desire to meet the wishes of the United States in reaching a settlement with China regarding Harbin and Manchuria.

February 26.—Austria and Turkey sign a protocol settling the question of compensation for the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina;

the powers accept the offer of France as mediator in the Austro-Servian dispute....The delegates to the International Naval Conference in London sign and seal their findings....The North American Conservation Conference recommends joint and co-operative action by the United States, Canada, and Mexico.

March 12.—The American-Panaman-Colombian treaty is reported favorably in the national assembly at Bogota....Diplomatic intercourse between the United States and Nicaragua is broken off.

March 15.—Advices from St. Petersburg give details of atrocities by Persian Government troops on the frontier....It is announced in Washington that the United States and Great Britain have reached an agreement on the personnel of The Hague tribunal which is to consider the Newfoundland fisheries dispute.

March 16.—Conference between Chinese and Russian officials to settle the Harbin dispute begin at Peking....Senor Rojas is appointed Venezuelan minister to the United States.

March 18.—Great Britain, France and Russia call on Servia to enter upon peaceable negotiations with Austria-Hungary; a conference of the powers to ratify the agreement between Austria-Hungary and Turkey concerning Bosnia and Herzegovina seems likely....The Italian Government proposes to the United States a conference on Italian immigration.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

February 18.—Fifty villages (estimated) are wiped out by an earthquake in Persia....The North American Conservation Conference meets at the White House, Washington.

February 19.—Chairman Gary, of the United States Steel Corporation, announces that all cuts in prices will be met.

February 21.—Many persons perish in snowstorms in southwestern Russia; all traffic is blocked....Heavy earthquake shocks are felt in the district of Elche, Spain....The American battleship fleet, returning from its voyage around the world, comes to anchor on the Southern Drill Grounds off Hampton Roads.... A mob in South Omaha, Neb., wrecks thirty houses occupied by Greeks in an effort to drive the Greeks from the city.

February 22.—The American battleship fleet is reviewed by President Roosevelt in Hampton Roads....The wage rate of the Welsh miners is reduced 5 per cent. by the South Wales Coal Conciliation Board.

February 23.—The aerodome *Silver Dart* covers half a mile at a height of thirty feet at Baddeck, N. S....The United States Supreme Court affirms the verdict of the Circuit Court imposing a fine of \$108,000 on the New York Central Railroad Company for granting sugar rebates.

February 26.—A national interdenominational brotherhood of Protestant laymen, representing organizations with a membership of over 1,000,000, is formed at Pittsburg....The trustees of Wesleyan University at Middletown, Conn., decide to discontinue the coeducational system.

February 27.—Important reductions in trans-continental freight rates are announced in Chicago.

March 2.—The steamship *Mauretania* established an eastbound record of 4 days, 20 hours and 2 minutes, her average speed being 25 knots.

March 3.—Heavy snow hampers traffic in the streets of Berlin, Germany.

March 4.—Severe weather conditions cut telegraphic communication with Washington, D. C., and delay many trains carrying passengers to the inauguration of President Taft.

March 6.—Ten persons are reported killed by avalanches in Austria.

March 8.—The aerodome *Silver Dart* covers eight miles in 11 minutes and 15 seconds at Baddeck, N. S.

March 9.—The Supreme Court of Missouri affirms the decree ousting the Standard Oil Company from the State, but suspends the ruling in the case of the Waters-Pierce Company.

March 10.—A jury in the federal court at Chicago returns a verdict of not guilty in the Government's prosecution of the Standard Oil Company of Indiana for accepting rebates from the Chicago & Alton Railroad.

March 11.—The anthracite coal operators, at a conference in Philadelphia, refuse all the demands of the mine workers and make a counter proposition that the present agreement be continued for another three years....The Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia affirms with modifications the decree of the lower court enjoining the American Federation of Labor from interfering with the business of the Buel Stove & Range Company.

March 13.—Detective Petrosino, of the New York City police force, is murdered at Palermo, Sicily, by agents of the Black Hand.

March 14.—The German ship *Margretha* is sunk in a collision with the Norwegian steamer *Mascot*; twenty men of the former vessel are drowned.

March 17.—A \$300,000 Naval Young Men's Christian Association building, the gift of John D. Rockefeller, is dedicated at Norfolk, Va.

OBITUARY.

February 18.—Sir Frederick Will, organizer of the Imperial Tobacco Company of Great Britain and Ireland, 70....Dr. Thomas Lancaster, of Philadelphia, a specialist in climatology, 76.

February 19.—Rear-Admiral Charles S. Cotton, U. S. N., retired, 66....The Countess de Chabrilan, a well-known French author and actress, 85.

February 20.—Carroll D. Wright, president of Clark College, Worcester, Mass., 69....Dr. Frederick Irving Knight, for many years an instructor and clinical professor in Harvard University, 68.

February 22.—Dr. William Tillinghast Bull, the well-known surgeon, of New York City, 60.

February 24.—Rear-Admiral Samuel R. Franklin, U. S. N., retired, 84.

February 25.—Sir John Watts Reid, K.C.B., 86....Cardinal Sanchez y Hervas, Archbishop of Toledo, 71....John Boyd Thacher, twice Mayor of Albany, N. Y., 61....John H. Put-

terill, general secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association of London, England, 55.

February 26.—Emmanuel Poire, known as Caran d'Ache, the famous French cartoonist, 51 (see page 496)....Portus Baxter Weare, one of the first exploiters of the Klondike, 67....Edwin Goodall, former president of the Oregon Railroad & Navigation Company, 65....Rev. Theodore L. Cuyler, D.D., of Brooklyn, N. Y., 87.

February 27.—J. O. Carter, for many years a prominent figure in the business and political life of Hawaii, 73....Dr. Robert A. Murray, president of the New York Society of Medical Jurisprudence, 57.

February 28.—William M. McKelvy, the Pittsburg oil man and president of the Portland Cement Company, 70....Prof. James W. Moore, of Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., 65....Albert Midlane, a noted authority on hymnology, 84.

March 1.—Judge John Kelvey Richards, of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, 53....Dr. Daniel R. Brower, of the Rush Medical College, Chicago, 70....Elias Jackson ("Lucky") Baldwin, the California pioneer and racing man, 81.

March 2.—Baron Guenzberg, representative of the Jews before the Russian Government, 76....Wesley Hunt Tilford, vice-president of the Standard Oil Company, 59.

March 3.—Rev. William Wilberforce Rand, D.D., of the American Tract Society, 93.

March 4.—Judge Hosea Townsend, former Member of Congress from Colorado, 69....Prof. Joseph W. Carr, of the University of Maine, 38....Alexandre Charpentier, the French sculptor.

March 5.—Col. Elijah E. Myers, architect and designer of public buildings, 77....Dr. Martin H. Boye, a chemist of note, 97.

March 6.—Joseph W. Blythe, general solicitor of the Burlington railroad system, 59.

March 7.—Mrs. Sara King Wiley Drummond, poet and descriptive writer, 37....Rev. James William Richard, D.D., of the Lutheran Theological Seminary of Gettysburg College, 65.

March 8.—Brig.-Gen. William Adams Olmstead, a veteran of the Civil War, 75....Ex-Congressman Washington F. Willcox, of Connecticut, 75.

March 9.—Hinton Rowan Helper, author of "The Impending Crisis in the South," 80....A. D. Remington, pioneer in the wood-pulp industry of northern New York, 82....John Butterfield, a pioneer of transcontinental transportation, 82.

March 10.—Major Edmond Louis Gray Zaliniski, U. S. A., retired, inventor of the dynamite gun, 60....Prof. Mark Vernon Slingerland, of Cornell University, 45....Patrick H. Lawlor, a well-known arboriculturist, 70....Col. Charles H. Weygant, a veteran of the Civil War, 70.

March 11.—Dr. Thaddeus A. Reamey, of Cincinnati, an authority on gynæcology, 80.

March 12.—Hugh Oakley Arnold-Forster, for-



REV. THEODORE L. CUYLER, D.D.

(Last of a famous group of Brooklyn, N. Y., clergymen.)

merly British Secretary of State for War, 54.... Gen. Henry B. Osgood, U. S. A., retired, 65.

March 13.—Gen. William J. Palmer, of Colorado Springs, railroad builder and philanthropist, 72.

March 14.—Archbishop Yznik Abahony, head of the Armenian church in North America, 66.

March 15.—Mrs. Elinor MacCartney Lane, the novelist, 45....Augustus Toedteberg, a well-known bibliophile, 85.

March 16.—George Thorndike Angell, known as "the friend of dumb animals," 86.

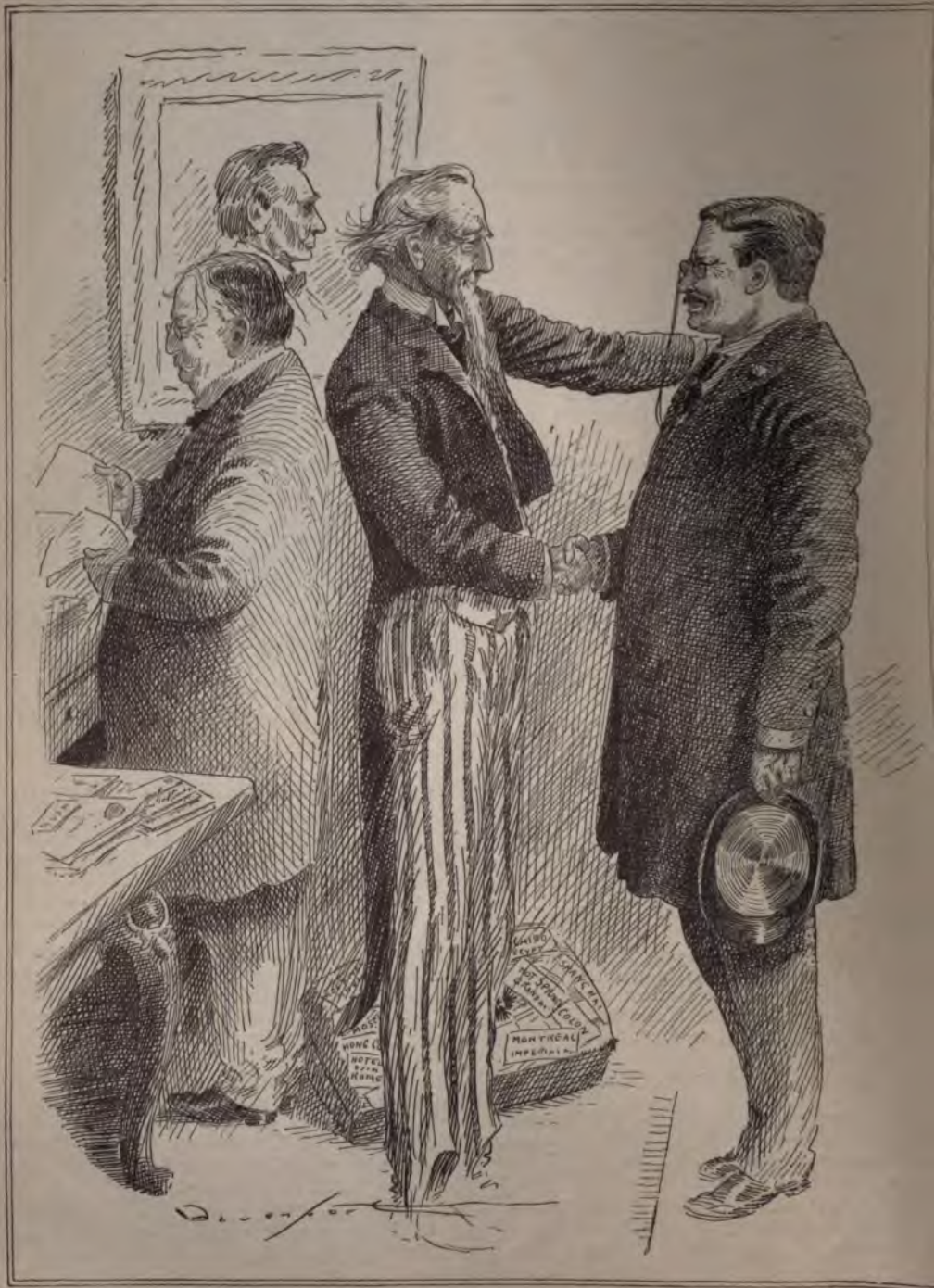
March 17.—William Wirt Howell, of New Orleans, lawyer and author, 76....Ex-President William W. Birdsall, of Swarthmore College, 65....Dr. John William Jones, known as the historian of the Confederacy, 73.

March 18.—Rear-Admiral Edward Trask Strong, U. S. N., retired, 69.

March 19.—Bishop George De N. Gillespie, of the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of western Michigan, 90.



CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



WELL BEGUN AND WELL DONE.
From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



TROUBLES BEGIN.

There will be the dickens to pay in the Fourth Estate before long. From the Sun (Baltimore).



A NEW RIDER.

From the North American (Philadelphia).



AS SPEAKER CANNON LOOKS TO THE INSURGENTS, AND AS HE WOULD LOOK IF THEY HAD THEIR WAY.
From the *Post* (Cincinnati).



SEEKING THE BUBBLE REPUTATION EVEN AT THE CANNON'S MOUTH.
From the *American* (New York).



UNCLE JOE WOULD BE INCOMPLETE WITHOUT IT.
From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle).



"THE PEOPLE? TOMMYROT!"



THE BARTENDER'S TREAT.

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



CONDUCTORS: "Which way, madame, up or down?"
From the *Globe Democrat* (St. Louis).



NO "PASSING SHOWER."
THE TARIFF: "I don't think this will blow over; it looks like the real thing."
From the *Brooklyn Daily Eagle* (New York).

The revision of the tariff has been a favorite topic with the cartoonists during the past month, and, from the multitude of cartoons published in the daily press, we have had space for only six which we present on this and the following page. Each of the cartoons presents a different phase of the controversy. Mr. Johnson, of the *Philadelphia Press*, pictures tariff revision as an early caller at the door of the White House. This urgency is certainly in harmony with the well-known wishes of the dis-

tinguished occupant. In Mr. Donnell's cartoon, from the *St. Louis Globe-Democrat*, Madame Tariff astonishes the revision elevator boys by calmly announcing that she desires to go, not simply up or down, but "both ways." Those citizens who have long believed that our infant industries have outgrown the neces-



AN EARLY CALLER.
From the *Press* (Philadelphia).



"CONFOUND THESE JIG-SAW PUZZLES!"
From the *Press* (New York).

ING THE BUBBLE REVOLUTION...
CANNON'S MOUTH.
From the *American* (New York).

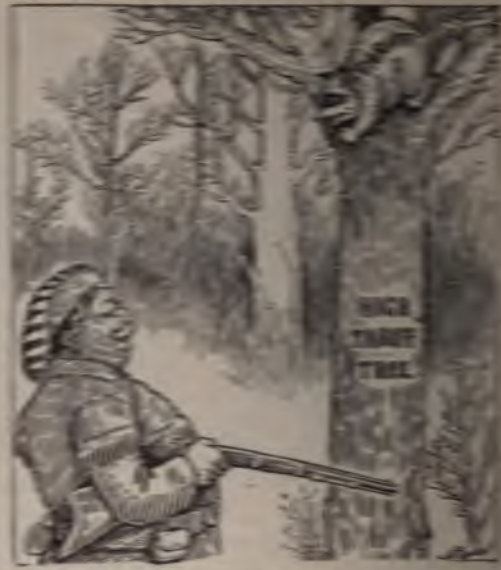


THEAT.



PLANTS OF BOLLARD.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



THE TARIFF: "Don't shoot, Bill, I'll come down!"

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

step for protection will find their view amusingly expressed in the cartoon by Mr. Harding, of the *Keokuk Eagle*. In the *Philadelphia Inquirer* car-

toon, Mr. Morgan implies that doubtless many of the provisions of the proposed tariff schedule will be modified or "thrown overboard" altogether by Speaker Cannon and Chairman Payne before the Congressional ballroom will carry it safely through its passage. Mr. Bartholomew, of the *Minneapolis Journal*, evidently believes that the tariff men will come down willingly from its elevated position, and that it will not be necessary for the hunter (President Taft) to resort to a gun,—or a "big stick."



NO CHANCE FOR LOW-BROWED POLITICIANS.

From the *Traveller* (Boston).



HAVE THE LOCK TYPE OF CANAL, TO BE SURE.

UNCLE SAM: "This is where I play even on that \$180,000 it cost me to take my fleet through the Suez."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



THE RETURN OF OUR SQUADRON FROM ITS GIRDLING OF THE GLOBE.
Uncle Sam greets jolly Jack Tar, with his gifts and mascots, and compliments him on his achievements.
From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).



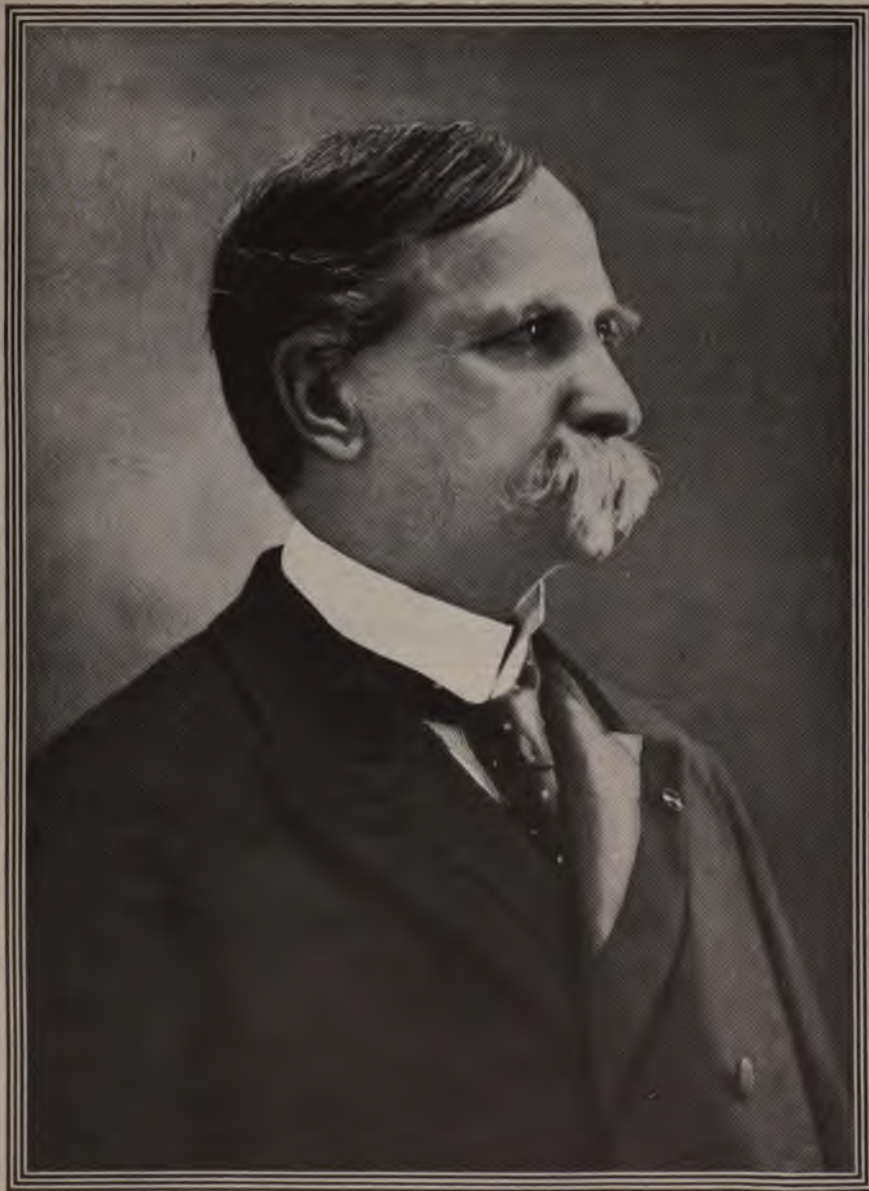
THE NEW BATTERY!
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



UNCLE SAM FOOLED AGAIN,—\$29,000,000.
From the *American* (New York).



LETTERS FROM THE PEOPLE.
From the *Daily Tribune* (Chicago).



THE LATE CARROLL D. WRIGHT.

[Col. Carroll D. Wright, who died recently at the age of 69, is to be ranked with Gen. Francis A. Walker as one of the pioneer American statisticians and economists. Colonel Wright's early service as chief of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor led to his appointment as United States Commissioner of Labor, and his twenty years' service in that office marked the development of serious statistical work at Washington, which is now conducted with notable efficiency by the Department of Commerce and Labor. Colonel Wright was also in charge of the completion of the Eleventh Census, and served as a member of the Anthracite Strike Commission in 1902. He was the author of various important works on economic topics, and at the time of his death was president of Clark College, Worcester, Mass. The French Government bestowed upon Colonel Wright the cross of the Legion of Honor for his efforts in bettering industrial conditions throughout the world.]

EUROPE'S TARIFF LAWS AND POLICIES.

BY FREDERIC AUSTIN OGG.

IT so happens that the crisis of tariff reform has been reached in the United States at a time when closely related issues are occupying the foreground of public interest and, in some instances, of legislative discussion, in not fewer than half a dozen of the principal nations of three continents. The coincidence may be fortunate or otherwise, but it is at least no accident. It offers simply one further illustration of the essential solidarity of the twentieth-century economic world, and its bearings upon our own immediate tariff problems are obvious.

In the first place, the pressure for revision which is responsible for the present special session at Washington arose in no small degree out of tariff difficulties with Germany, France, Great Britain, and European nations generally, encountered by the Government in recent years in behalf of American manufacturing interests, and out of the conviction of the manufacturers themselves that a readjustment is necessary to overcome or evade the restrictions imposed abroad on the importation of American goods.

In the second place, sweeping changes in tariff policy, pending or in more remote prospect, on the part of the European powers will profoundly affect the practical workings of whatever schedules shall eventually be adopted in the special session. If, for example, there is really setting in, as there seems good reason for believing, a world-wide revival of protectionism, the conditions under which American foreign trade will have to be carried on during the ensuing decade may very well be such as effectually to undermine any or all of the triumphs in behalf of low tariff to be realized during the next few weeks at Washington.

Of the three European nations with which the trade relations of the United States are closest, two,—France and Germany,—have long been strongly protectionist, and one,—Great Britain,—has maintained steadfastly for over half a century the policy of free trade. But in all of them tariff is to-day a very live issue, and although the three do not, of course, comprise strictly for the United States the Europe of commerce, no one can doubt that so far as our tariff sys-

tem is to be affected by European influences at all it will be the measures of these three powers that will weigh most heavily.

FRENCH MANUFACTURERS MAKE DEMANDS.

Of the three, France has lately been grappling somewhat more directly with the tariff problem than the other two. The tariff law which is at present in effect in France was enacted in 1892, and is therefore five years older than our own Dingley law. Seventeen years is a long period in the life of a tariff, and the demand for revision, growing steadily for upward of a decade, has come to be well-nigh irresistible.

The French tariff of 1892 was framed primarily in the interest of the agricultural classes, and the protective system which it embraced is generally credited with having brought to French agriculture the high measure of prosperity it to-day enjoys. French manufacturers have in recent years been doing only moderately well and, rather naturally, the manufacturing interests have arrived at the conclusion that it is now their turn to become the beneficiaries of protection. It is from the manufacturers almost exclusively that pressure for "tariff reform" has recently emanated, and if the present session of the French Parliament shall prove productive of tariff legislation it will be very clearly because the industrial interests have won their case.

WORK OF THE FRENCH TARIFF COMMISSION.

In response to the appeals which these interests have long been making, the Chamber of Deputies adopted unanimously, July 2, 1906, a resolution creating a Customs Commission which should investigate the entire subject of tariff revision, with special reference to the desirability of incorporating in the present schedules a wide variety of articles produced in new and shifting industries. It was admitted on all sides that there was need at least of systematic inquiry and of a certain amount of revision. That a tariff which knows not the automobile, but only the velocipede (not to mention other anomalies of the sort), stands in need of overhauling, there were few to deny.

A commission of seventeen members was accordingly created, with M. Klotz as president, M. J. Thierry as vice-president, and M. Jean Morel as secretary. The investigation which ensued was conducted on lines familiar enough in such undertakings in the United States. The commissioners, in addition to being deluged with memorials, petitions, and documentary evidence, traveled singly and collectively up and down the country, conducting hearings at which appeared representatives of all the important industries and interests of the republic. After approximately a twelve-month of work they were ready, near the beginning of the present year, to report to the Chamber.

A PROTECTIONIST REPORT.

Considering the circumstances under which the inquiry was ordered and the personnel of the commission, it was to be expected that the report would be a pretty strongly protectionist document. There can be no question that the investigation was carefully conducted, as there can be none concerning the essential honesty and good intent of the men who planned and executed it. But the tone of the report was unfortunate. The glorification of protectionism which it contained,—arising in large part, it would appear, from the enthusiasm of M. Morel,—was so extravagant as to alienate at once the free trader and to offend the sense of propriety of even the open-minded observer. The consequence was that the conflict precipitated in governmental and legislative circles has been rather needlessly severe. Appended to the body of the report was an extremely lengthy and complicated program of tariff changes which became the basis of the formidable tariff bill forthwith presented for parliamentary consideration.

CONTINUATION OF THE DUAL SYSTEM.

The underlying purpose of this bill is very frankly to meet the demand of the producing interests, especially industrial, for a larger measure of protection. The few instances in which reductions from the present schedules are recommended are concerned almost exclusively with raw or partially manufactured materials needed in French industries, as, for example, elastic tissues in the piece. The system of dual tariffs, *i. e.*, the general, or maximum, and the special, or minimum, which was adopted by France in the act of 1892 is pronounced a success, and is to be continued. The maximum rates,

even as they stand to-day, are intentionally nearly prohibitive. They are planned to compel foreign countries which do not extend to France the most-favored-nation privilege to negotiate to obtain admission to the list of those enjoying the lower scale. They are at present enforced in their entirety against only Portugal, but they are enforced against Canada and the United States except in so far as particular articles of commerce have become the subject of special negotiation and arrangement.

CANADA'S ADVANTAGE.

Under the commercial agreement signed by Secretary Root and M. Jusserand in 1907 and in effect since February 1, 1908, a variety of products of the United States (coffee, cacao, chocolate, vanilla, and mineral oils) are admitted under the minimum rates, in addition to the canned meats, table fruits, lumber, paving blocks, and other commodities provided for in the agreements of May, 1898, and August, 1902. But under the Franco-Canadian reciprocity treaty signed September 19, 1907, the minimum privilege is extended to numerous products of our northern neighbor which, if imported from the United States, would be subject to the higher rates. By reason of this fact the French agriculturist pays \$3.86 less for a Canadian mower than for a machine manufactured in the United States, \$4.82 less for a reaper, and \$8.20 less for a binder. Such disparity of import duties obviously gives Canadian manufactures an advantage over those of the United States which, combined with the greater cost of steel, wood, and labor in the latter country, may, if prolonged, result in the transplanting of some of our manufactures of agricultural machinery to Canadian soil.

This is but a single illustration of the seriousness for the United States of the pending French tariff bill, the most notable feature of which is the general increase which it proposes in the maximum schedule. It has been calculated by M. Julien Hayem, an influential Parisian merchant, that in the Commission's maximum tariff there are 407 new specifications, forty-eight new rates of duty, and 163 new items; and that while the rates on 195 articles continue unchanged, those on 866 are increased, and those on only seven are reduced. In the special or minimum schedule there are 389 new specifications, with eighty-six increases and twelve reductions.

OPPOSITION OF FRENCH INTERESTS.

The fate of the Commission's project remains in doubt. The situation is complicated by a number of considerations. In the first place, there are powerful interests arrayed against some or all of the features of the bill. The exporters are up in arms and protesting deputations have been besieging the Ministry of Commerce. The Parisian merchants profess to foresee, if the bill shall pass, the ruin of the French market for women's attire, of which Paris is the center. The tulle manufacturers of Calais oppose the increase on fine cotton yarns, which is equal to 60 per cent. of their value. The soap and oil manufacturers of Marseilles are appealing to the government against the imposition of a duty on nuts, oil, and oil-seeds, and the Minister of Commerce has given the Commission clearly to understand that the government will oppose such a measure. The Chambers of Commerce of Bordeaux, Havre, Limoges, Nice, and scores of other towns, representing the manufacturers of gloves, lace, perfumes, glassware, and porcelains, and fearing the imposition of retaliatory duties by the United States, are adding their voice of protest. And the political economy societies are campaigning against the measure in the interest of the general consumer, who is crying out against the continually increasing cost of living.

In the second place, the problem is complicated by the apprehension in many quarters that the proposed revision of the tariff would plunge the country's foreign trade into chaos, precipitate ruinous tariff wars, and perhaps give serious offense to Great Britain, Germany, and others of the leading powers.

The third perplexing factor in the situation is the embarrassing financial position in which the French Republic to-day finds itself. The government is face to face with an enormous deficit. The budget of 1909 necessitated an issue of \$12,000,000 in treasury bonds, and the regular estimates for 1910 show a shortage of \$45,600,000, besides the \$37,800,000 involved by the proposed workmen's old age and state railroad employees' pensions. The Income Tax measure which passed the Chamber on March 9 will, if it runs the gantlet of the Senate, radically readjust the republic's fiscal system and should add materially to the resources of the treasury; but the importance of the customs receipts gives no promise of being diminished, and questions of tariff will still be inextricably

cably intertwined with the whole financial administration of the state. The pending tariff measure may or may not become law, but it is a pretty safe assertion that if any radical change is to be made in the French tariff schedules this year, or at any time in the reasonably near future, such change will involve the raising rather than the lowering of the prevailing rates of duty; which is equivalent to saying that France is still at heart a thoroughly protectionist country and promises to maintain that character indefinitely.

DIRECT VERSUS INDIRECT TAXATION IN GERMANY.

The second of the principal European countries in which the question of tariff policy has lately been receiving widespread attention is Germany, though here the tariff has come under discussion in a less direct fashion than in France, and the results are likely to be proportionally inconclusive. Germany is another of the great powers confronted by financial embarrassment. The rise of the imperial budget from the \$75,000,000 of the early seventies to the \$600,000,000 of the present year has involved the Empire heavily in debt, and has rendered the existing sources of revenue absolutely inadequate. It has been increasingly evident for years that a fiscal crisis was impending. During the past few weeks that crisis has come, taking for the present the form principally of a titanic clash between the forces of the government and the realigned forces of the opposition in the Reichstag. The immediate question at issue has been the adoption or rejection of the government's program for the raising of an additional annual revenue of \$125,000,000 from taxes on gas and electricity and on newspaper and poster advertisements, a partial government monopoly of the manufacture and sale of spirits, an increase of the excise on tobacco, beer, and still-wine, and finally the imposition of a tax upon direct inheritances (the "death duties").

As will be noted, there is nothing in the imperial program which affects directly the tariff question one way or the other. But in the debates with which the chamber of the Reichstag has resounded, and in the agitation which has overspread the Empire, the tariff problem has been repeatedly discussed. For the real issue is between the adherents of direct taxation and those of indirect. The government, supported on the whole (though not on particular issues) by the Conservatives, most of the Clericals, and many of the

Radicals, favors indirect taxation, which means the continued reliance for funds principally upon customs and the excise. The Social Democrats and the majority of the Radicals, however, with the moderately protectionist National Liberals and a few of the Clericals, pin their faith to taxes that are direct. They argue that the prevailing system of excises and protective duties ought gradually to be replaced by income, capital, inheritance, and poll taxes which, in their estimation, would constitute a more equitable distribution of the burden of public expenditure.

With occasional brief interruptions, however, protectionism has been the century-long tradition of the German people, and there is as yet absolutely no reason to believe that it will soon be abandoned or materially impaired. It may or may not be true that Germany owes her remarkable industrial prosperity to-day to the operation of protection, but the preponderance of public sentiment is decisively in favor of the continuance of that economic policy. For yet a good while to come tariff controversies in the Empire are apt to center primarily about the proportioning of duties on agricultural and manufactured products rather than upon the immediate issue of protection *vs.* free trade.

The government is very well satisfied with things as they are, and is in no wise likely to precipitate any sort of tariff agitation, unless it shall be driven to it by the failure of every other practicable fiscal expedient. The dual tariff now in effect is the product of what may unreservedly be termed expert legislation. A commission of twenty judicious investigators* spent five years in framing the schedules, extending ample consideration to every commercial, industrial, and agricultural interest, and in the Reichstag the whole measure was whipped out through many months of debate (1902). In the end the Agrarians got out of it a somewhat unfair advantage, but the law stands easily to-day among the monumental pieces of European legislation in the past three decades.

ENGLAND'S PROTECTIONIST MOVEMENT.

In glancing over the tariff situation throughout the world the feature that is likely to challenge one's attention most forcibly is the desperate assault that is being made upon the system of free trade in its traditional stronghold, Great Britain. The

present-day fight for "tariff reform," which in Great Britain means, of course, a reversion to a protective policy, has been under way scarcely more than half a decade. It dates from October 6, 1903, when Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, freed from the responsibilities of office by his resignation from the cabinet, opened his campaign at Glasgow. The program advocated then and in successive speeches by the ex-Secretary for the Colonies embraced the imposition of a duty of two shillings per quarter upon imports of foreign corn and flour, 5 per cent. upon meat and dairy produce, and 10 per cent. upon manufactured goods; the remission of three-fourths of the tea duty and one-half of that on sugar, coffee, and cocoa; and, finally, the extension to the British colonies of a preference by exempting their products from the new imposition.

THE ENGLISH COMMISSION.

The proposals of Mr. Chamberlain were followed up by the establishment, at the beginning of 1904, of a tariff commission of fifty-two members to investigate the program that had been brought forward and to report as to its probable effect on present conditions, suggesting desirable changes and methods of reconciling conflicting interests. In the five years during which the Commission has been at work written statements have been gathered from approximately 15,000 manufacturers and industrial organizations in every part of the United Kingdom, oral testimony has been obtained from about 400 witnesses, representative of the leading trades of the country, and a special committee on agricultural interests has heard 147 witnesses and received statements from 2103 practical farmers and agricultural associations.

Besides numerous memoranda on the commerce and tariff systems of foreign countries, the Commission has thus far published reports dealing with not fewer than twelve principal industries. The latest to appear is concerned with manufactures of machinery. It demonstrates that whereas fifteen years ago exports of machinery from Great Britain exceeded by £5,000,000 the aggregate from six leading foreign competitors, they fall under that aggregate to-day by £17,000,000, and that the United States has usurped the British home market in the case of some commodities, as binding harvesters, to the extent of 95 per cent. The formulation of the conclusions arising from the whole investigation, to be published in the Commission's

* See "How the Germans Revised Their Tariff," by N. I. Stone, in *REVIEW OF REVIEWS* for December, 1905 (p. 719).

final report, is already well under way, and the document is one whose appearance will be awaited in all countries with the highest degree of interest. It is expected to take very advanced ground in behalf of Mr. Chamberlain's protectionist program.

Meanwhile it is the opinion of many competent observers that the social and economic depression which is everywhere so apparent at present throughout the United Kingdom, together with the fiscal difficulties with which the government is called upon more and more to wrestle, is driving the nation inevitably back to the repudiated protective system. Lord Cromer some weeks ago put the issue squarely when he declared, "What Mr. Lloyd George has to show is how he can meet the heavy liabilities he has incurred and yet preserve intact the system of free trade." In Great Britain, as in Germany, France, and the United States, the gap between revenue and expenditure is steadily widening, and in the Speech from the Throne at the convening of Parliament, February 16, it was made very plain that financial questions must have the right of way throughout the forthcoming session. The fiscal year ending March 31 will show a deficit of £20,000,000 and the ensuing year will bring an increased outlay of at least £15,000,000 for old age pensions, the increase of the civil service, the relief of unemployment, and other inevitable demands.

What the free traders fear, and what not a few of the tariff reformers confidently expect, is that the growing burden of expenditure, aggravated by loss of markets, decline of industries, and the menace of unemployment, will eventually become so intolerable that in sheer desperation the doors will be flung wide open for protectionism. It can hardly be maintained that Great Britain is in such a very bad way as all of that, but there can be no doubt that the trend is at present rather distinctly in the direction above indicated.

RUSSIA'S PROTECTIONISM.

If one turns to inquire into the tariff attitudes of other European nations with which the United States maintains commercial relations more or less close, the fact that impresses itself most forcibly is that practically every one of them is firmly "standing pat."

The most uninterruptedly and irretrievably protectionist nation in all Europe is the Russian Empire. Untouched by the wave of commercial liberalism which swept over west-

ern Europe about the middle of the past century, Russia steadfastly maintained her tariff barriers and from time to time augmented them, until within the past two decades, when changed conditions, arising largely from German industrial preponderance, forced her into certain modifications, if not of purpose, at least of method. In 1893 Russia abandoned her single tariff schedule and arranged a maximum and minimum system on the plan of the French tariff of the previous year. There ensued between Russia and Germany one of the notable tariff wars of recent times, Russia enforcing her maximum rates as against Germany and Germany retaliating by an increase by 50 per cent. of her rates as against Russia.

On February 10, 1894, peace was concluded, on terms which were satisfactory enough to German manufacturers, though not to the Agrarians because of the opportunity left open for the importation of Russian rye into the Kaiser's dominions. Russia was extended most-favored-nation treatment by Germany, while the latter secured a reduction of the Russian minimum duties on 135 items, including iron, cutlery, machinery, paper, and textiles. In the German tariff of 1903, however, the Agrarians gained their point by securing the insertion of a clause which forbids the government, in bargaining with Russia, to reduce the duty on Russian rye below five marks per 100 kilograms. This arrangement ties the government's hands, and may at any time lead to a tariff dispute between the two powers. To provide for contingencies Russia, as early as 1904, forged a weapon for use against Germany in arranging a system of differentials in the duty rates upon imports by sea (preponderantly from Great Britain and the United States) and upon those by land, *i.e.*, across the German frontier, so that the land rate would be from a fifth to a fourth higher than that by sea. Russia would appear for a good while to come absolutely committed to protectionism, and to the policy of wholesale retaliation, upon occasion.

THE CONTEST IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Like Russia, Austria-Hungary is by tradition strongly protectionist, though somewhat less continuously so, for there was a time, in the seventies, when the Dual Monarchy maintained a system of nearly absolute free trade. Beginning, however, with the tariff of 1878, which imposed increased duties on cottons, woolens, and silks,

the nation passed quickly and unreservedly to a protectionist régime. Free trade had been accepted in the first instance in the interest of the Hungarian exporters, but by 1880 even Hungary went over to the policy of protectionism in behalf of her growing agricultural classes and in response to their demand for a home market for foodstuffs and raw materials. There was also, more particularly in Austria, something of the desire to develop infant industries. The tariff of 1882 raised the rates, and that of 1887 pushed them still higher.

Since that time the tariff situation in the Dual Monarchy has been complicated by just one principal factor, *i.e.*, the friction between the Austrian manufacturers, who want high rates on industrial products and low ones on agricultural, and the Hungarian farmers who would have the arrangement precisely the reverse. It is the same conflict of interest that appears so prominently in Germany. At bottom most of the controversy which has disturbed the Empire in recent years has sprung from this divergence of tariff policy; but the compromise on financial matters which was put in effect between the component states on January 1, 1908, consolidating the commercial treaties of the two until 1917, may be expected to effect something of a reconciliation. The Dual Monarchy has never been extravagantly protectionist, as has Russia, but it stands to-day solidly committed against any sort of tariff that would be low enough to be worthy of the name of free trade.

ITALY'S RIGIDLY PROTECTIVE POLICY.

The triumph of protectionism in Italy has been very nearly synchronous with that in Austria-Hungary. From the creation of the Italian Kingdom to about 1875, as is indicated by the general tariff of 1861 and by the commercial treaties of the period, Italy was tending rather distinctly toward freedom of trade. Public expenditure, however, enormously increased, revenues were meager, and customs receipts afforded a temptation not to be resisted. Agriculture, furthermore, was much depressed, and there was fear, as in Hungary, of Russian and American competition. In 1877, in the course of a general revision of duties, an increase ranging from 20 to 100 per cent. was imposed on a variety of principal articles of import. Depression, and likewise deficits, continued, and, following the strongly protectionist recommendations of a commission appointed to investigate the sub-

ject, a new tariff was enacted in 1887 which marked the high tide of the movement and involved an average duty of over 60 per cent.

The most immediate result was a tariff war with France which occasioned a loss of trade to the two countries estimated at more than \$600,000,000. A reaction set in and the agriculturists of the South repented at leisure the step which they had urged upon the government. But the best that could be done was to negotiate, in 1892, a series of commercial treaties with Germany, Austria, and Switzerland, in the course of which the severer features of the Italian tariff were somewhat mitigated. A new treaty came into force between Italy and France in 1899, but, although mutually conceding the most-favored-nation clause (except for silk and silk goods), it has not been followed by the expansion of Franco-Italian commerce that was expected. That the protective policy has been instrumental in keeping alive Italian industry is pretty generally admitted. But whether it has been, on the whole, justified by its fruits, is a hotly debated question. It may be said, however, to be at present indispensable to the treasury.

TARIFF POLICIES OF THE LESSER NATIONS.

Among the minor European states protectionism seems likewise to be asserting itself with renewed force. Spain,—the first nation, by the way, to make use of the maximum and minimum system which the United States seems on the point of adopting,—has been thoroughly protectionist since 1877. Portugal has recently authorized her diplomatic agents to make reductions of 10 to 30 per cent. from her present tariff rates in the negotiation of commercial treaties, but remains essentially protectionist. Sweden and Norway have been since 1888 protectionist, and Switzerland mildly so since 1887-1891.

Holland and Belgium are still pretty loyally attached to the free-trade policy which they embraced half a century ago, though even they (especially Belgium) have been obliged to give way in part. The new Danish tariff which went into effect with the beginning of the present year, however, provides for an average reduction of from 15 to 20 per cent. from the rates hitherto prevailing; yet even in this case the reduction takes place principally upon raw materials and goods for further manufacture and so is hardly to be regarded as a triumph of free trade for its own sake.



THE BLUE HILL METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATORY, MILTON, MASS.
(The building on the left contains power plant and windlass for winding in the kites.)

PLOTTING THE UPPER AIR.

BY PAUL P. FOSTER.

WHEN the cautious "air-skipper" of the future prepares to start on his transcontinental voyage by aeroplane from New York to San Francisco, he will consult not only the regular weather-maps of the United States, to learn where storms are disturbing the surface of the continent, but he will also carefully examine the international charts of the upper air, by means of which he may guide his airship to the most favorable atmospheric strata and there be aided by the air-currents in his meteoric flight.

All over the world men of science are engaged in probing the air-blanket which surrounds the globe, and already results have been obtained which are being carefully analyzed and will soon be employed for the benefit of mankind. It must be confessed at once that these researches are not primarily in the interest of aviation, the future of which seems yet so uncertain, but they promise to be of immediate and practical value in increasing our knowledge of the secrets of the higher regions of the air. In other words, they are advancing the science of what most of us refer to as "the weather," and what scientists term meteorology.

Magnificent as have been the achievements of our Weather Bureau, the remarkably

accurate forecasts of which are estimated to save over fifty million dollars to agriculture and commerce annually, and for the maintenance of which our Government gladly spends more than all the European governments combined, for similar service, it is nevertheless generally agreed that observations at the ground level, which have hitherto constituted the basis of forecasts, are insufficient and untrustworthy. The small layer of atmosphere at the earth's surface is affected by every object rising in its path, but the great ocean of air, miles high above us, is influenced but little by the strata at the very bottom level, where our forecasters occupy somewhat the position of shellfish groping about the ocean floor.

MOUNTAIN-TOP OBSERVATIONS.

Such experiments as have been conducted in the United States and in Europe show that climatic conditions depend largely on the circulation of the whole bulk of the atmosphere, and that changes in the weather always make themselves known in the upper strata of air, long before we on the earth below are aware of them. For this reason meteorological observatories were established on mountain tops, the first of the kind in



ONE OF THE BLUE HILL OBSERVATORY KITES.

the world being that on Mt. Washington, New Hampshire, in 1871. France followed in 1876, with the observatory on the Puy de Dome, and the number of mountain observatories grows from year to year. Within the past few months new buildings have been inaugurated on the Col d'Olen, Monte Rosa. Numerous foreign governments, including the United States, contributed to the cost of this institution, which is situated nearly ten thousand feet above the sea. Nevertheless the loftiest observatory in the world is still the Misti Observatory, near Arequipa, in Peru, which stands at a level of 19,200 feet above the sea. Even on these lofty elevations conditions are too greatly influenced by the proximity of the earth, and maintenance is difficult and expensive. Men of science, therefore, have not been slow to discover new and ingenious methods of lifting instruments to great heights, that temperatures, wind velocity, and direction might be recorded under more favorable conditions.

THE USE OF KITES AND BALLOONS.

Mr. A. Lawrence Rotch, at the Blue Hill Observatory, near Boston, in 1894, was the first to employ kites, attached to steel wires, to lift self-recording instruments and so obtain records of the various conditions in the atmosphere. Since that year they have been used extensively in this country, in Europe, and from the decks of steamships, frequently ascending three and four miles into the air. About the same time the small *ballons-*

sondes, or sounding balloons, were perfected in France, and began to be employed to carry instruments far higher, some reaching the extraordinary height of fifteen miles.

These discoveries and improved methods of research led to the organization of an international commission for scientific aeronautics, under the auspices of which measurements are made simultaneously at an increasing number of stations throughout the world. Started as a private enterprise, the work is now an international undertaking, and balloons and kites have been employed monthly for some years at many stations in Europe, and within very recent years at one or two stations in the United States.

OBSERVATIONS FROM SHIPS.

At the Milan meeting of the International Commission for Scientific Aeronautics in 1906, it was decided to concentrate the work of exploring the air upon four grand series of ascensions, in addition to the usual ascensions on the first Thursday of each month. The former last several days, and observations are obtained not only by balloons and kites but also by special observations of cloud drift and upon mountain summits. The first of these quarterly ascensions was appointed for the week beginning July 22, 1907, and was notable for the great number



CATCHING A METEOROGRAPH IN ITS DESCENT.

of maritime expeditions, in which several nations co-operated, lending special ships from which observations in equatorial and arctic regions were taken.

The laws which govern meteorological conditions over the land in the northern hemisphere have been known for a considerable time, but it is only very lately that any concerted attempt has been made to investigate the upper atmosphere above the seas. Through the efforts of the International Commission for Scientific Aeronautics nearly all of the great nations have combined to investigate these regions of the upper air in the vast marine territory yet to be explored. Although attended with many difficulties, and necessarily expensive, such expeditions promise far more tangible results than have rewarded, or are likely to reward, the more spectacular quests of the pole, upon which millions have been and are being expended.

The methods of penetrating the upper strata of the air on board a vessel equipped with the latest devices for meteorological observations include kites, sounding balloons, captive balloons, and pilot or free balloons. With the exception of the free balloons, all these vehicles are equipped with a wonderful instrument called a meteorograph, which makes an automatic record of the conditions of the air. In spite of its complicated mechanism the meteorograph weighs but two pounds. It contains a cylinder, revolved by clock-work, around which is wound a sheet of paper, and upon this sheet four different meteorological conditions are recorded: humidity, pressure or altitude, temperature, and wind velocity. The humidity record is traced by a pen actuated by a strand of human hairs, which lengthen when exposed to moist air and shorten in dry air. The meteorograph is enclosed within a light aluminum case and attached to kite or balloon, oftentimes in a wicker basket or other protector, to prevent damage by contact with the earth.

To attain a lofty elevation a number of kites are fixed one above another and attached by lines of fine steel wire. To the top kite, which has sometimes flown as high as 20,000 feet at sea, is attached the meteorograph. A kite operation consumes almost the whole day, and the ship, which proceeds at full speed when the wind fails, sometimes covers a distance of fifty or sixty miles during the operation. Far higher flights are made by means of the *ballons-*



MR. A. LAWRENCE ROTCH, OF THE BLUE HILL OBSERVATORY.

(One of the foremost promoters of meteorology in the United States.)

sondes, or sounding balloons. These balloons are about six feet in diameter and are flown in tandem. One of them is inflated to such a tension that it bursts at a predetermined elevation, when the other balloon, to which is attached the meteorograph, slowly sinks to the surface of the sea, where it is picked up by the attendant ship.

The captive balloons are used in cloudy weather, when it would be impossible to follow the sounding balloons with a glass and note the place where they fall. A

sounding balloon is attached to the end of the very light kite wire and allowed to rise as far as its buoyancy permits, when a second balloon is allowed to slip up the wire, followed by a third and fourth,—the combined buoyancy of the group carrying the meteorograph until the weight of the wire prevents a further ascent.

HOW PILOT BALLOONS ARE EMPLOYED.

Pilot balloons carry no instruments, and have no connection with the earth or ship. They rise to immense heights and are lost in the high air. Their usefulness lies in the information which they afford of the direction and violence of the winds of the upper regions of the atmosphere. The Prince of Monaco, who has done so much in recent years to further meteorological investigation, has thus de-



WEATHER INVESTIGATIONS AT PETERSFIELD, ENG.

(The two balloons are being sent up inflated with hydrogen. In the tinfoil bag shown on the left is some very delicate apparatus for recording the condition of the atmosphere at high altitudes. The balloons rise until the pressure of the atmosphere is too weak to counterbalance the pressure of the hydrogen; the balloons then burst and the apparatus falls to the ground. Directions are attached asking the finder to return the instruments to the experimental station.)

scribed the manner of the employment of pilot balloons on his yacht, the *Princess Alice*:

The weather being clear and otherwise favorable, three observers,—forming a triple alliance,—land on the shore of a continent or of an island. They take with them a small balloon inflated to a diameter of not more than one meter, and a theodolite, the telescope of which is especially powerful.

The theodolite permits the observer to follow the balloon without losing sight of it, while his two assistants read and note, every half-minute, the angles furnished.

Our best results have been realized with pilot balloons. These instruments, which are small enough to be embraced by the arms of a man, have been followed with a special theodolite to the extraordinary altitude of 97,700 feet, or at the very least, to an altitude of 82,000 feet. Further, the one which attained this height was, at the moment of its disappearance, at a distance of forty-nine and one-half miles from the observers. So remarkable a result is explained by the transparency of the atmosphere in the Arctic regions, a transparency which, under other circumstances, permitted us to follow distinctly, on the snow of a glacier, at a distance of twenty-four miles, the movements of a party of four persons whom I had sent on a mission of exploration in the interior of Spitzbergen.

The information furnished by the pilot balloons, which carry no instrument because they are sacrificed, concerns questions of capital importance for meteorology,—the direction and velocity of the upper currents. Our pilot bal-

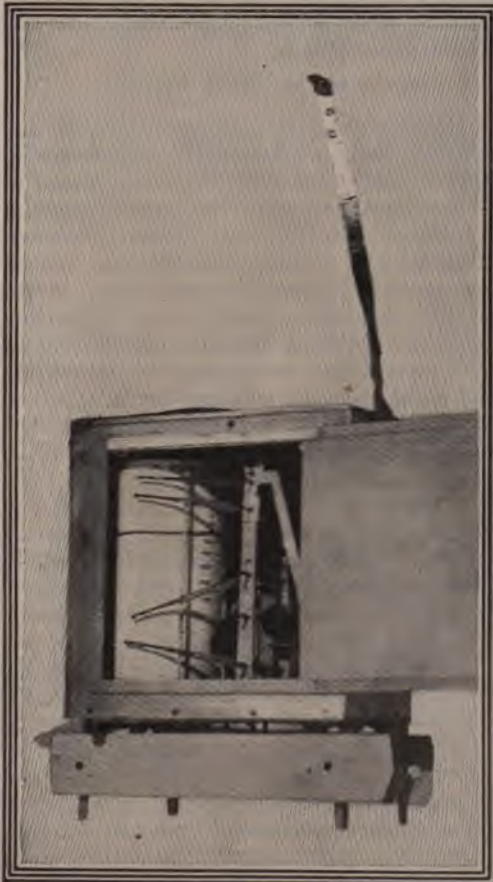


RELEASING A WEATHER BALLOON ON SHIPBOARD.

loons have taught us that there exists in the Arctic regions, in the neighborhood of the 80th parallel, at a height of about 44,000 feet, certain winds of 132 miles per hour, a force for which we have no equivalent at the surface of the globe. Their direction was S. 68° W.

A LAYER OF WARM AIR DISCOVERED.

The results of the meteorological investigations which have been so actively pursued in the last few years have already caused a complete reversal of the ideas which have been entertained so long regarding the atmosphere. Instead of being a structureless blanket, the density of which diminishes rapidly with increase of height, it has been proved that the atmosphere possesses a definite form and is arranged in certain layers or strata, which have a close relation to the general circulation of the air. It has long been known that the air grows colder as the elevation above the earth increases.



METEOROGRAPH WITH DOOR OPEN.

(Showing four automatic pens which record on the revolving cylinder.)



LIBERATING THE WEATHER BALLOON.

(As soon as this balloon bursts, the apparatus, which weighs over one pound, drops to the earth.)

The average change is about one degree Fahrenheit for every 300 feet. But the recent ascents of sounding balloons all around the globe show the existence of a warm stratum of air at an altitude of about six miles in northern latitudes, far higher near the equator. Above this layer the temperature of the air is often much higher than below, and no measurements have yet determined its upper limit.

This peculiar inversion of temperature was first discovered by M. Teisserenc de Bort with the sounding balloons sent up from his observatory at Trappes, near Paris, in 1901, and immediately afterward by Professor Assmann in Germany. Teisserenc de Bort proved that its height above the earth, to the extent of 8,000 feet, varied directly with the barometric pressure at the ground. At the Arctic circle the stratum has been found at much lower elevations, varying from 23,000 to 36,000 feet. During the past three years Mr. A. Lawrence Rotch, one of the most active meteorologists in the United States, has sent up seventy-seven sounding-balloons from St. Louis, those



AN ABANDONED RIVER FARM ON THE ROANOKE RIVER, WEST VIRGINIA.
(Sand-bars deposited by soil eroded from hillsides.)

THE WASTE FROM SOIL EROSION IN THE SOUTH.

BY W. W. ASHE.

(Forester of the North Carolina Geological and Economic Survey.)

A YEARLY loss of many million dollars which need never take place; a loss, not of one year, like that occasioned by a great fire, but one which has occurred year after year without interruption for decades; which in its aggregate, since the Civil War, nearly equals the national debt,—this is the toll yearly exacted by erosion from the farm soils of the upland South.

The profits of the farmer noiselessly flow from his sloping fields in muddy streams. In spite of the large amount of the loss the tiller almost ignores it; he is, in fact, frequently ignorant of it. Yet this immense loss to the farmer represents only a portion of the actual damage; other industries suffer directly and indirectly from the same cause. On account of it there are in the dissected upland regions of the South more than 5,000,000 acres of land at one time cultivated and now idle. Many reasons have been assigned: the reduced fertility of the soils; the lure of the newer, more level, and more easily tilled lands of the West; eco-

nomical changes which followed the Civil War; lack of labor and home markets. These have been secondary factors. Soil exhaustion and erosion are the fundamental causes. The exhausted "old fields," eroded, gullied, raw with deep wounds, and red as though stained with carnage, need only the touch of knowledge to become revived.

HOW SOUTHERN UPLANDS HAVE SUFFERED.

The causes which produced the old fields still operate to the ruin of much of the farming land. The decrease in the productivity of the farms of the eastern United States has been general. Nowhere has it been so evident as in the upland region of the South, where the loss is certainly not less than 30 per cent. of the yield when the lands were fresh and new. Erosion is the basal problem which underlies soil exhaustion in this region, and so prevalent and so disastrous is it that it has become not only a serious local agricultural problem, but an important national problem as well, seriously

which rose higher than 43,000 feet entering the inverted stratum of temperature. The expedition conducted by Mr. Rotch and M. Teisserenc de Bort on M. de Bort's steam yacht *Otaria* in the summer of 1906 was unable to locate the warm stratum above the equator at a height of 50,000 feet. Their investigations showed that in summer it is colder above the equator than it is in winter at the same height in north temperate regions, thus confirming the previous opinion of scientists that the warm upper layer of air is found at lower and lower altitudes, as one proceeds toward the poles.

REGULAR VARIATION OF PRESSURE.

A second result of the concerted international investigations is the discovery by Hann, the celebrated Austrian meteorologist, of a regular variation of atmospheric pressure, occurring twice daily, about 10 a.m. and 10 p.m. This was detected by a mathematical analysis of a long series of barometric observations in all parts of the world. The variation is most marked in the tropics, and diminishes toward the poles in both hemispheres, but takes place at the same time along every meridian. If this change in pressure is due to changes in the height of the atmosphere, the air, instead of forming a spherical shell around the earth, must be an ellipsoid, pointing always thirty degrees west of the sun. This indicates that the phenomenon depends in some way upon solar influence, possibly upon some relation to the sun's magnetic attraction.

J. S. Dines, another student of the subject, traces the influence of this pressure change, taking place twice daily, upon the winds of the world, and connects it with a similar variation in the southeast trade wind, the most persistent atmospheric current in the world, which has been called the "pulse of the atmospheric circulation."

SOLAR INFLUENCES.

Still another discovery may have great influence in determining the causes of atmospheric changes. This is the announcement by Professor Zeeman that sun-spots are strong magnetic fields. His opinion is based upon the observation by Professor George E. Hale, at the Mount Wilson Solar Observatory in California, of the double lines in the solar spectra. The sun-spot lines

photographed by Professor Hale are identical in character with the lines emitted in the laboratory by a source of light placed in a magnetic field. Professor Zeeman considers this discovery of the highest importance, "affording a *vera causa* for the perturbations of the electrical and magnetic equilibrium of our earth and its atmosphere." The coincident occurrence of no fewer than five typhoons in Asiatic waters during July, August, and September, while tremendous disturbances of the same character raged in the West Indies on almost identical dates, may have had some relation to solar influences. At any rate it is curious that hurricanes should develop almost simultaneously in such widely separated quarters of the globe, and the study of a sufficient number of such coincidences may throw light on the causes of tropical hurricanes, and confirm the belief of many meteorologists that the electric impulses attending the formation of great sun-spots have a direct relation to terrestrial disturbances.

FOUR MILES ABOVE THE SEA.

The United States Weather Bureau has not been slow to realize the importance of studying and analyzing these new phases of meteorology, and with the establishment of a research observatory at Mount Weather, Virginia, this country possesses one of the best equipped plants for the work in the world. Soon after its opening, in October, 1907, the world's record for high flights with aeroplanes was exceeded. On that day eight kites, in tandem, carried the meteorograph to an altitude of 23,111 feet above sea-level. Daily observations of upper-air conditions have continued since the opening of the observatory, and have been of great assistance in the making of forecasts for the Middle Atlantic and New England States and for the elucidation of many problems of the upper air that hitherto it has been impossible to study.

Every sign indicates that we are on the threshold of great advances in our knowledge of the laws that govern the winds and weather. Already it is predicted that the upper air currents will soon be mapped out as accurately and scientifically as the great ocean routes are charted, and that forecasts of general climatic conditions will be made months in advance.



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(Sand-bars deposited by soil eroded from hillsides.)

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nomical changes which followed the Civil War; lack of labor and home markets. These have been secondary factors. Soil exhaustion and erosion are the fundamental causes. The exhausted "old fields," eroded, gullied, raw with deep wounds, and red as though stained with carnage, need only the touch of knowledge to become revived.

HOW SOUTHERN UPLANDS HAVE SUFFERED.

The causes which produced the old fields still operate to the ruin of much of the farming land. The decrease in the productivity of the farms of the eastern United States has been general. Nowhere has it been so evident as in the upland region of the South, where the loss is certainly not less than 30 per cent. of the yield when the lands were fresh and new. Erosion is the basal problem which underlies soil exhaustion in this region, and so prevalent and so disastrous is it that it has become not only a serious local agricultural problem, but an important national problem as well, seriously

affecting the value of many investments which have been made in the region. Its enormous extent has not been due entirely to poor cultural methods. The heavy rainfall, the physical characteristics of the region, the broken topography and the close-textured soils, and in some measure also the economic conditions have contributed to increase it. Where methods of cultivation suited to the local conditions have been used, not only has erosion decreased, but the yields have responded in a wonderful manner, indicating that the soils are not only not inferior to those of other sections, but that, on account of the ample rainfall and the long growing season, they have many distinct advantages over those of other humid parts of the country.

EFFECT OF HEAVY RAINFALL.

Erosion is merely the washing away of the soil in muddy streams of rainwater. If the rainfall is largely absorbed, as takes place in a very sandy or porous soil or on a level country, little water remains on the surface to run off, and consequently there is but slight erosion. The precipitation of the South amounts to from forty-five to seventy inches a year, compared with from thirty to forty-five inches in the northeastern States, and falls in concentrated showers, especially during the three summer months, when one-third of the total rainfall usually takes place. Fifteen inches has been recorded as falling in three days. The first heavy dash of rain compacts the surface of the soil, while the balance of the rainfall largely flows off. Uncultivated fields have been examined immediately after a summer shower in which more than an inch of rain fell, and the soil was found to have become wet by the rain less than two inches beneath the surface. In few places was it wet to a depth of four inches. Less than one-fourth of the water which fell had been absorbed. Had it all been uniformly absorbed the earth would have been dampened to a depth of more than six inches. This illustrates the compacting power of the heavy rains and the imperviousness of the heavy clays when devoid of humus and thoroughly sun-hardened. Moreover, the methods of farming which have been followed,—that is, the continuous production of corn, cotton, and tobacco,—all of these crops of clean culture,—with a minimum of small grain and the grasses, have added, by the depletion of the humus of the soils, to the natural tendency to erode. Since the eroding power of water increases sixty-four times by dou-

bling its velocity, it is easy to understand how a small stream, gathering volume and velocity as it flows down the slope, accomplishes such enormous destruction.

DESTRUCTION OF FARMS.

In the old fields as they are being slowly colonized by trees, there is no cultivation to cover the gullies as they are formed. They are deepened by each rain; each storm adds another. The heavy clays are eventually seamed into deep parallel channels, which spread out in the hollows with great fan-shaped ribs. This type characterizes the clay soils of Virginia, middle Carolina, and Georgia. The silt soils, less tenacious and crumbling more easily than the clays, are readily undermined by running water, and erode to form huge vertically walled bluffs. In portions of western North Carolina, in middle Mississippi, and in western Tennessee, soils of this character are most common, and their erosion when once well begun can be checked with difficulty. With every flood the cliff recedes, tons of earth are added to the burden of the nearest stream, and the total destruction of the soil proceeds. In Mississippi alone there are thousands of acres eroded into cliff and canyon which have been permanently destroyed for farming. For 200 miles to the south and southeast of Memphis the destruction is appalling.

It is the difficulty of measuring in any one field the extent of the actual monetary loss that accounts for this waste being so largely disregarded: the impossibility of being able to declare that a loss of so many dollars in the yield of a crop is to be attributed to it. The enormous aggregate is indicated only by the silt and the plant food annually borne from the hillside farms by the rivers of the Southeast. Every stream that flows through the fertile hill country of the South bears its rich burden of plant food, a golden argosy, on its way to the sea. The greater portion of the mineral constituent is clay and silt particles which are most easily attacked by the roots of the plants for their food; but much, and the most important part, is the organic matter, the humus or manural portion of the soil, which, on account of its lightness, is so easily washed away from the slope. From one-sixth to one-fourth of the material which produces the turbidity of the rivers is humus, and it comes almost entirely from the farming soils. It is the lightest portion of the soil, and the portion which is most easily

transported by the slowest moving water when the heavier silt and sand is left behind. It is absolutely necessary for the growth of crops, and it must be replaced by the addition of manure in some form to the soils. Ten million dollars a year will not replace it in the hillside soils whence it came and where it is so badly needed.

THE RICH BURDEN OF THE RIVERS.

The Roanoke yearly bears from the productive limestones of the Valley of Virginia and the red foothills of its mountains more than 4,000,000 tons of soil. It discolors the waters of the sound into which it empties to a distance of forty miles beyond its mouth. The burden of the Alabama River exceeds 3,000,000 tons. The Tennessee River swells the already naturally high turbidity of the Mississippi by the annual discharge of 11,000,000 tons, the scouring of the fertile farms of Alabama, Tennessee, and Kentucky. The Savannah, the Yadkin, the Santee, the Chattahoochee contribute as much; while it is estimated by the army engineers in charge of the river improvement work on the James that this river brings down, during a flood with a crest of ten feet, more than 200,000 cubic yards of earth every twenty-four hours, and it has been known to color the waters of the Atlantic Ocean far beyond the Capes.

An enormous total of not less than 50,000,000 tons of the most fertile soil of the farms of the upland South is the unwelcome gift of the hills to the rivers each year.

The Savannah and many of the other rivers of the South are reported to have been clear, except during floods, until the latter part of the eighteenth century, and there are many traditions current in northern Georgia that the Chattahoochee, now one of the muddiest of Southern rivers, was at one time usually pellucid and sparkling. Some erosion has always taken place. The deep gorges which ramify through the soft rocks of the Piedmont were carved by erosion, but it was a slow

process. The fertile soil which was borne in small amounts from the forested slopes was then deposited over the broad alluvials, constantly enriching them and gradually building them up. Now, however, few of even the smaller streams become clear except for short periods of low water.

With the excessive erosion which has followed the ruinous tillage and subsequent abandonment of the hillside farms, the enormous volume of earth which the flood-maddened waters carry away is no longer deposited for the enrichment of the valleys. A part of it fills up reservoirs and ponds or settles as shifting silt bars in the channels of navigable rivers and in harbors, while the coarser material is deposited in great beds over the once fertile alluvial bottoms; and from the ruin of the hillside follows the loss of the valleys.

The cultivation of thousands of acres of such land has been abandoned along the rivers of the Piedmont, notably along the Wataeree, the Broad, the Yadkin, the Catawba, and the Saluda rivers. The telegraphic dispatches of nearly every flood contain some item chronicling the burying of the valley farms beneath sand-beds.

FLOODS ON THE INCREASE.

There is no doubt also that the height of the river floods which have been so de-



CHARACTERISTIC EROSION OF CLAY SOIL IN VIRGINIA.

(This exhibits the slow appropriation of a cultivated field, the corn-field coming to the very edge of the deep gullies.)

destructive to property in the South during the past ten years has been materially increased through the failure of the sunbaked surface of the waste land to absorb its due proportion of the rainfall. Higher floods than formerly are now produced by the same amount of rainfall, indicating the greater rapidity of the run-off and the lessened absorption. The flood losses of the South for the past ten years aggregate more than \$25,000,000, and with the multiplication of factories and towns along the rivers, this loss must continue unless the soils perform their proper function. The recent losses at Augusta, Ga., Fayetteville, N. C., Cheraw, S. C., and elsewhere are only indications of what may be expected more frequently if the large areas of the unabsorptive, close-textured clays continue to shed so large a portion of their rainfall into the rivers, without absorbing what they would if in forest or under a rational system of cultivation. Simultaneously with the increase in the floods there is a corresponding decrease in the low-water flow, seriously interfering with navigation and the value of water-powers.

Industries dependent upon water-power are being disastrously affected in other ways as well. The engineer of one of the largest hydro-electric companies operating in the Carolinas publicly stated that within four years the storage capacity of reservoirs under his care had decreased 15 per cent, by filling in with earth eroded from the upper portion of the watershed. It is impossible for the power companies to check or lessen it, and there is no way to remove the deposit when once it has accumulated. The trouble lies far above the dams, and the owners must witness the slow annihilation of the storage of their reservoirs. It would undoubtedly be wise policy, however, for them, where they own land surrounding their reservoirs, to protect it themselves from erosion. In this particular, however, they are usually as careless as other landowners. Some of the worst-gullied lands in the Carolinas are owned by power and mill companies, and every pound of soil washed from their bare slopes goes directly into the reservoirs, affecting the storage value.

The finest particles of silt and clay pass beyond the lowest dams and settle in the slower moving portions of the rivers near the coast and in the harbors. The greater portion of the millions appropriated by the federal Government for the improvement, or rather the temporary opening, of the lower

reaches of Southern rivers, is expended for dredging; and the necessary expenditures to keep the channels clean of the rapidly forming and shifting silt and sand bars will in the future increase in direct proportion to the increased silt burden of these streams. In the event of the canalization of any of them, the sand deposits would continue a menace to channel depth, since the slowly moving canal water affords ideal conditions for settling.

TERRACING TO CHECK EROSION.

A very large portion of this loss and damage is avoidable. How thoroughly erosion can be checked and with what benefits to farming, as well as, of course, corresponding benefits to other industries which suffer, is shown by the results secured by deep plowing and *level terracing* in portions of the South. On one farm in South Carolina, with a very steep slope, a dozen terraces rise on the hill above the Congaree River to a total height of more than sixty feet. The terraces are so well leveled that there is no run-off of surface water; the entire rainfall is absorbed. Deep plowing is used as an adjunct, and plenty of humus is maintained to keep the surface soil loose, porous, and mellow, thus lessening the tendency of the heavy rains to compact the surface, and assuring the surface water good drainage through to the subsoil. On this farm the sorghum was eight feet high, while the cotton stood to the shoulder, indicating a double yield above that of the adjacent unterraced slopes where erosion yet had unrestricted action.

Such level terraces are developed by constructing embankments, such as are now extensively used on hillside ditches in the South, except that they are located on a level, and by the use in tillage of hillside and reversible disk plows which always turn the furrow down the slope. This hastens the leveling process. But erosion, the very agency they are being constructed to prevent, plays its important part, and the rapidity with which the terraces develop and leveling proceeds, indicates how rapidly erosion was taking place.

Terracing undoubtedly has its drawbacks in restricting cultivation, but there is with its use an enormous increase in the yield of the crops and a decrease in the cost of maintaining fertility. It is far superior in every way to the much-used hillside ditch which barely checks erosion sufficiently to make cultivation possible.

Such level terracing, breaking the field into steps, need be used only on the steeper slopes. On more gentle slopes other methods can be employed which permit unrestricted cultivation. Either broad dykes, eighteen to twenty feet wide, located on a level, or narrower dykes on a slight incline, but following the contours of the slopes, and two to four feet vertically apart, can be employed. The surface of these dykes is cultivated like the rest of the field, and while they do not entirely prevent erosion, they considerably reduce it. But above all, deeper plowing is necessary and more humus in the soil, made from manure or by plowing under green crops, to give mellowness and porosity; the general use of cover crops on land during the winter; and more small grain and the grasses. All hillside land in corn, cotton, tobacco, or other clean tilled crop should be laid by with a cover crop of some kind.

THE PROBLEM OF THE "OLD FIELDS."

This is for the lands which are now in cultivation; and where these methods have been used not only has erosion been largely reduced, but land values have rapidly risen. The idle and waste lands, the "old fields," represent a more serious problem. It will require the addition of a million workers to the population of the South to place these lands again in cultivation, more than that number if intensive cultivation is practiced. At the same time the movement of population in the South is still toward the towns, as it should be to establish and assure necessary home markets for farm products, and it will be many years before their profitable cultivation will be possible. The soils at bottom are good and strong, and some day the greater portion will undoubtedly be needed for the use of the South's increasing population. This land can in the meanwhile be made productive with but little labor by planting trees, assuring at once its reclamation by checking erosion and some returns from the investment by the profitable use of the land. Some areas are so steep and rough that they should be permanently maintained in forest.

ENCOURAGEMENT OF TREE-PLANTING.

There is already a strong feeling in some of these States that vigorous measures must



SECOND GROWTH PINE THIRTY-FIVE YEARS OLD.

(In eroded old field now cutting 12,000 feet of lumber to the acre, worth more than \$25, and leaving more than one hundred small trees to grow.)

be taken to reduce erosion, and that when profitable and permanent cultivation is not possible without its being excessive, the land to assure its permanent earning value must be regarded as forest land. This feeling will undoubtedly crystallize in a decisive policy with definite plans of action. Advisable lines of action by the States for the encouragement of planting by owners might be the furnishing of seedlings of trees at the cost of growing them, and furnishing advice on the ground as to the best methods to be adopted and kinds of trees to plant, and assistance in protecting plantations from fire.

There is no doubt that it would be possible to reduce the present erosion from farm lands one-half with an enormous saving to the nation. Each of the Southern States has its own peculiar problems of this kind which must be solved at home by the brains and energy of the commonwealth itself: the preservation of the soils; the use of idle lands; the protection of the earning value of its waterways.

SAVING AMERICA'S PLANT FOOD.

GOVERNMENT WITHDRAWAL OF THE GREAT PHOSPHATE BEDS OF THE WEST TO PREVENT EXPORTATION.

BY GUY ELLIOTT MITCHELL.

THE Roosevelt Administration very closely identified itself with the Carboniferous Age,—a period rich in its vast accumulations of natural supplies later to play their important world part when man should appear upon the earth,—coal, phosphates, and probably petroleum and natural gas, and it is with reference to regulating human use of these sources of energy and wealth that the Roosevelt régime has won the plaudits of some people and incurred the enmity of others. There is small doubt that the former are largely in the majority, and view with satisfaction the action of the Executive, several years ago, in his bold withdrawal of some 66,000,000 acres of public coal land in the great Western coal-field, then being largely acquired in a fraudulent manner as agricultural land, and for a mere song; in his instructions to the Government geologists to classify and value these lands, under the law as first so interpreted by him,—in some instances the valuation has been placed as high as \$75 per acre,—in his withdrawal of other lands containing petroleum and natural gas which were being likewise fraudulently acquired and held, unproductive, for mere speculative purposes; and lastly, on December 9, 1908, in the withdrawal of some 4,800,000 acres of public phosphate lands.

The startling feature in connection with this latest action lies in the proposal to restrict the development of these deposits to that which can be shown to be for the agricultural benefit of the United States; in other words, there must be no exportation of phosphates from these deposits on Government land. Possibly not since the saving of the Western coal-fields from monopolistic design has there been an executive action pregnant with such import to the nation. Phosphates, phosphorus, what of it? Useful for match-making! Should matches become too dear or impossible of production mankind could still keep warm and cook his food by simply reverting to the flint and

steel and the tinder box, and be only inconvenienced. But phosphorus has a more vital function, the production of growing crops, and for this large quantities are required. It is one of the three principal and absolutely essential foods for plant growth and therefore as necessary to the human race as the oxygen of the air. And it is the one such constituent of which the supply is alarmingly small. There is need here for conservation, for the greatest economy in use, for the stringent stoppage of waste.

THE PLANT'S BREAD AND MEAT.

Phosphorus, potash, and nitrogen are the three elements used as principal food by all plants, and in the absence of any of the three the plant cannot grow nor even live.

President James J. Hill in his enlightening address at the White House meeting of Governors last May invited attention to the fact that America's per acre crop-yields are steadily decreasing, due to the continual depletion of soil fertility. Two remedies which he mentioned for overcoming this evil, well known but too generally not practiced, were crop rotation and the use of fertilizers as soil tonics. In this connection an inquiry into the sources and supplies of fertilizer constituency brings out some important and not too reassuring facts. Fertilizer, or plant food, consists, as stated, of three elements. Naturally they occur to a greater or less extent in all soils, but with continual cropping and the shipment of the product from the farm, the soil, as Mr. Hill says, comes to need artificial replenishment.

Nitrogen salts exist in great deposits in Chile, which will supply the world for some time to come. We have in the United States no nitrate mines or similar mineral deposits of consequence, but neither the exhaustion of the Chilean mines nor the lack of our own, need trouble us or the world. Every farmer has in reality on his own farm an inexhaustible mine of nitrogen from which he can draw at will and as fast as he

uses it the mine will be replenished with more nitrogen.

A VAST NITROGEN RESERVOIR.

The atmosphere itself contains uncountable millions of tons of free nitrogen. It constitutes over three-fourths of the composition of the air and it has recently been discovered that a great group of plants has the wonderful faculty of absorbing, by reason of bacterial infestation of their roots, sufficient of this fertilizing element not only to maintain but to increase the fertility of soils so far as nitrogen is concerned. Plant a seed of clover or alfalfa or a cowpea or a soy bean, or any of the populous tribe of *Leguminosæ* in a pot of clean, sharp sand containing no plant nutrition, fertilize it with only potash and phosphorus, and it will grow luxuriantly, storing up in its leaves

and roots a large proportion of nitrogen from the air by means of small root nodules or excrescences formed by minute organisms; or pull up a clover plant and you will have the mystery displayed before you. The root will show a multitude of these small nodules,—the nitrogen-absorbing agents. The Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station found the nitrogen yield from an acre of cowpeas to be 139 pounds,—all drawn from the air. Plowed under, or fed to stock and then applied as manure, this would add to the soil more nitrogen than through the heaviest application of fertilizer made in farm practice.

In addition to this, a recent electrical discovery has made possible the condensation of the atmospheric nitrogen into the exact counterpart of the Chilean product. So that there will never be a serious shortage of this indispensable plant food.



ROOTS OF VETCH, SHOWING TUBERCLES.

BILLIONS OF TONS OF POTASH.

With the potash supply the situation is only slightly less assured. Our present supply for artificial fertilization comes mostly from the great potash mines of Germany, where the salts are found in highly concentrated form. But Prof. F. W. Clarke, in his "Data of Geochemistry," states that the original igneous rocks contain from 2.28 to 2.96 per cent. of potash on an average, while it is well known that there are inexhaustible mountains and mountain ranges of feldspar where the potash exists in proportions of from 7 to 9 per cent. In many of the feldspars the percentage is much higher. Cheap methods of extracting the potash have not yet been determined, but this will come later as needed, and the supply of material is unlimited.

Now as against this Professor Clarke states that the outer crust of the earth, rocks and soil, contains not more than .11 per cent. of phosphorus, or less than



MAP SHOWING WITHDRAWN PUBLIC LANDS IN WYOMING, UTAH, AND IDAHO, UNDERLAIN WITH HIGH-GRADE PHOSPHATE ROCK.

one-twentieth of the amount of potash supply, so that the subject of the phosphoric supplies becomes in reality the world's most important agricultural question. A study of the situation will show this to be not overstated.

For the replenishment of soils depleted of this necessary element through cropping, we must then first turn to the natural supplies of concentrated phosphorus. The greatest source of phosphorus is phosphate rock, the petrified remains of myriads of antediluvian animals, and the principal deposits of phosphate rock are found in the United States; again, the greatest of these have been but recently discovered in the public-land States of Wyoming, Utah, and Idaho. This field, therefore, embraces the largest area of known phosphate beds in the world. The United States produces more phosphate than all other countries together. The trouble is that, short-sighted as in most matters concerning natural resources, we are largely exporting phosphate, whereas we shall need every ton for our own soils.

RAPID EXHAUSTION OF PHOSPHORUS.

The loss of phosphorus in cropped soil is large. President Charles R. Van Hise, of the University of Wisconsin, has presented a paper to the National Conservation Commis-

sion in which he cites agricultural experiment station work in Illinois, Ohio, and Wisconsin, indicating the great depletion of this element through ordinary cropping and citing tests in his own State showing that cropping certain soils for a period of fifty-four years had robbed them of 36 per cent. of their original phosphoric acid, or 1064 pounds, an average of about 20 pounds a year per acre. To merely offset this rate of loss, and maintain the fertility of the 400,000,000 acres of cropped land in the United States, would require the use of 12,000,000 tons of phosphate rock annually.

As showing the deficiency of cropped soil in phosphorus as compared with nitrogen and potash, the Ohio Experiment Station in a long series of experiments with crops of corn, oats, wheat, clover, and timothy, has shown that every dollar invested in phosphorus paid back \$4.76, while neither nitrogen nor potash paid back their cost. The same station has found as the average of fifty-six tests in eleven years' work that when rock phosphate was applied in connection with manure every dollar invested in phosphate paid back \$5.68. These experiments do not indicate the absence of need in soil of nitrogen and potash; simply that phosphorus in these instances was the most deficient.

The figures submitted to the commission by the United States Geological Survey show that at the present rate of mining the known available supply of high-grade phosphate rock in the United States will last only about fifty years, and that at the same rate of increase in production that has obtained for the past decade,—117 per cent,—the supply will be exhausted in twenty-five years. This statement of conditions, coupled with the large and increasing exportation of phosphates and the recent organization of a so-called international fertilizer trust, which has acquired large holdings in the eastern phosphate lands, decided the President to act upon the recommendation of Director George Otis Smith, of the Geological Survey, and to withdraw immediately all the Western phosphate lands with a view to preventing the exportation of any of their product. This is an innovation entirely Rooseveltian. How is it to be done? The Constitution forbids the imposition of an export tax; the enactment of a law prohibiting the exportation of all phosphates would be immediately attacked as an infringement of vested rights. What then?

GOVERNMENT TO RETAIN PHOSPHATE LANDS.

The Geological Survey will, as soon as possible, examine, classify, and value them, and the Secretary of the Interior will submit a proposition to Congress to enact a law which shall provide for their permanent retention by the National Government and their development by a system of Government leasehold, a heretofore unheard of thing in American mining, but working well elsewhere, with a proviso in each lease that the product of the mine shall not be exported. If violated the Government may cancel the lease; the lessee must therefore protect himself by selling under special contract to the purchaser of his product.

The following tables, compiled from the figures of the Geological Survey and the Bureau of Statistics, show the production, exportation, and estimate of unmined high-grade phosphate rock, so far as the United States is concerned:

PRODUCTION AND EXPORTATION OF PHOSPHATE ROCK IN UNITED STATES.

(From the beginning of the industry to 1900 the production was 14,993,396 long tons; export figures covering this period are incomplete.)

Year.	Production. Exportation.	
	Long tons.	Long tons.
1900.....	1,491,216	776,220
1901.....	1,483,723	624,996
1902.....	1,490,314	747,672
1903.....	1,581,576	817,503
1904.....	1,874,428	849,130
1905.....	1,947,190	879,979
1906.....	2,080,957	964,241
1907.....	2,265,343	900,983

Total since 1900.....14,214,747 6,560,724

ESTIMATED TONNAGE OF HIGH-GRADE PHOSPHATE ROCK REMAINING IN UNITED STATES, BY U. S. GEOLOGICAL SURVEY.

	Long tons.
South Carolina.....	3,000,000
Florida.....	15,000,000
Tennessee.....	40,000,000
Western States.....	63,500,000
Total.....	121,500,000

PHOSPHATE MINING IN THE SOUTH.

Phosphate mining in the United States began in South Carolina in 1868, and as late as 1888 Professor Stockbridge speaks of these deposits as the greatest in the country. The State has since mined 12,000,000 tons and her supply is practically exhausted. In 1888, however, Florida came forward as a phosphate State, discoveries multiplied, and by 1904 her product surpassed that of South Carolina. She had produced, up to 1908, 12,359,731 long tons, and is now the greatest producing State. In 1907 her output was 1,357,365 tons. However, it will be noted that the end of her supply is easily in

sight, although her phosphate resources are yet often popularly referred to as "inexhaustible."

In 1892 phosphate was discovered in Tennessee, and this field became the greatest known area in existence. About 5,000,000 tons have thus far been produced, and the development of the field is yet in its infancy. But at the present rate of increase in production the Tennessee phosphates alone would be exhausted in eleven years.

THE WESTERN FIELDS.

In 1900 Arkansas entered the field as a phosphate producer, but the rock found in this State is of low grade and the output is small. The hope of the American farm lies in the Wyoming-Utah-Idaho field. The United States Geological Survey has made a reconnoissance of these deposits and estimates the tonnage at about 63,000,000 tons of high-grade phosphate rock. But it is greatly to be hoped, and it is believed by the writer and others that a detailed geologic investigation will show double if not several times this tonnage. The area underlain, more or less completely, by the deposits is 7500 square miles and the phosphate-bearing formation is from 70 to 120 feet thick, with one great layer of five or six feet thickness composed of solid, high-grade phosphate rock and with several thinner ones. The most pressing need, which if successfully met, will increase the possible production of this field to an enormous extent, is a process which will separate these thinner phosphatic layers from the associated limestone and shale and also concentrate the low-grade material.

The Western phosphate fields may be considered of further importance by reason of their proximity to the great smelting works of the West,—at Butte, Anaconda, Great Falls, and other points. These smelters give off poisonous gases, chiefly sulphurous, that are very injurious to vegetation, absolutely killing all green things for miles around. It is found, however, that they can be utilized to great advantage by conversion into sulphuric acid, which is the agent used in reducing rock phosphate to superphosphate fertilizer, or, as it is generally termed on the farm, acid phosphate. Thus not only would a substance injurious to vegetation be controlled, but it would be actually employed in fostering plant growth.

The Carboniferous Age, during which the phosphate deposits were laid down in this

Western field, was one of vast importance to the human race which was long afterward to appear upon the earth,—the Age of Coal and of associated useful minerals. This period was immediately preceded by one when the great peaks of the Sierra and the Rocky Mountain backbone of the continent were but beginning to push their way upward, and when a large portion of North America was covered by a shallow, tepid, brackish sea. These phosphate beds are believed to have been deposited by erosion on what was then a shallow ocean bottom. That was a time remarkable for the prevalence of gigantic ferns, palms, huge trees, lepidendrous and sigillarian vegetation, which in luxuriance and profuseness of growth have not been equaled in the history of the globe. This was the age in the world's history preceding that when the giant reptilia, the great dinosaurs and plesiosaurs, and other huge creatures existed, and its own animal life which contributed to these priceless deposits constituted a very low order.

NEED OF ADEQUATE LEGISLATION.

From the foregoing tables it will be noted that last year there were 2,265,000 tons of phosphate rock produced in the United States and over 900,000 tons, or about 40 per cent., exported, while the total exportation since the beginning of this century has been almost one-half the total production. The extent and the tonnage of the Eastern fields are seen to be extremely limited and there is apparently no way to prevent exportation from these areas, now largely controlled by foreign capital, however much of a national calamity such a course may be shown to be; but it is believed that a federal leasing system can be devised for the full development of the Western fields which will prevent exportation therefrom and save American phosphates for American farm lands. It is a question which directly affects the food production, the very bread-making capacity of the people, and when the situation is understood, Congress can of course be depended upon to enact appropriate measures. In the meantime the Administration has done the right thing at the right time, and there can

now be no gobbling of the phosphate lands by internationally financed corporations.

So long as we are a nation of exporters of agricultural products, we shall be, in any event, exporters of phosphoric acid as a portion of the wheat and corn and other products sent abroad, but we should quit exporting the absolutely primary, raw material to benefit foreign farm lands to the detriment of our own. It is a mistaken enough practice to ship away a ton of grain,—a comparatively raw material,—worth from \$20 to \$30, when it could be fed on the farm and turned into meat which would net a still greater export profit while at the same time returning practically the entire fertility to the soil; but how much worse practice it is to ship a ton of raw phosphate, worth \$5, when it contains sufficient phosphatic "soil tonic" for from ten to fifteen acres or for the production of from five to eight tons of wheat, worth from \$150 to \$250.

PENALTIES OF AMERICAN WASTEFULNESS.

It may readily be asked, "Is not this whole question a false alarm? Why should our lands become so soon deficient in phosphorus when the soils of older countries have been farmed for centuries without extensive phosphate applications?" The answer is that in addition to shipping abroad great quantities of raw farm products we waste. The older countries have learned to save and utilize their sewage and their various by-products, which we destroy. American farmers in the Northwest have burned up millions of tons of straw and cornstalks, containing large amounts of plant food. Dr. Van Hise estimates an annual waste through the sewage of the larger cities of the equivalent of 1,200,000 tons of phosphate rock. The total of the waste of phosphorus, potash, and nitrogen through exposure, seepage, and other loss in the careless and ignorant handling of farm manure has been estimated at between \$50,000,000 and \$100,000,000 annually. In these and many other things we are not as reckless as we once were, but until we learn to avoid waste to a much greater extent than present practice there will be need for much artificial fertilization.



CUTTING THE SOIL ELEVEN INCHES DEEP FOR DRY FARMING, TWENTY-FOUR PLOWS IN LINE.

THE TRUTH ABOUT DRY FARMING.

BY CHARLES MOREAU HARGER.

NOT for twenty years after the beginning of settlement on the Great Plains was it realized that more than one system of agriculture was needed there. When homesteaders by tens of thousands had left their claims, discouraged, and crop failures had brought immense financial loss, two new ideas were brought into prominence:

The products exploited in areas of low average rainfall must be different from those grown in areas of generous moisture.

Tillage must be adapted to the conditions of soil, elevation, and average precipitation.

The dry years preceding 1898 called attention to the first. Importations of kaffir corn, sorghum, and other crops that will give yield with a moderate amount of moisture were tested and proved the salvation of many homes in the high plains portion of the Middle West. Where wheat and corn had failed, these crops made both "roughness" and grain, enabling the farmer to gain a livelihood from a system of mixed farming that included cattle and cereals. While the range was free and abundant, this was easy, and a few tilled acres sufficed to earn for the farmer-ranchman a regular income.

When, with the increased demand for land, the range was diminished and the set-

tler was compelled to lease or to own all the land he utilized, another problem was before him and the second proposition came into prominence,—how to raise a general variety of grain and fruit without having the rainfall usually considered necessary.

This was the basis of interest in "dry farming," "soil culture," "scientific farming," "the Campbell system," and meaning the same thing,—tilling the land to secure results with small amount of moisture.

Into it blends the first problem, for both work together in the accomplishment of the best results. The settler must solve the whole in order to live beyond the line of twenty inches of well-distributed rainfall annually.

GROWTH OF DRY-FARMING SCIENCE.

At the beginning, the new idea was systematically worked out by one man, H. W. Campbell, who is known as the father of dry farming or soil culture as a definite undertaking. He experimented in Western Nebraska and Western Kansas; then received the encouragement and assistance of trans-continental railway companies, their managers shrewdly realizing that if it could be established and could accomplish what was claimed for it, the peopling of vast areas of

practically unoccupied prairie would follow. Model farms were established and attracted wide attention; experiments were extended until the farmers of surrounding counties, and finally over nearly all the semi-arid region, were interested.

Three years ago enough scope had been given the movement to warrant a meeting for discussion of ideas. The first Trans-Missouri Dry Farming Congress was held at Denver with 300 representatives of the sections affected present. The second at Salt Lake City, in 1908, had 650 delegates; and the third, held February 23, 24, 25, 1909, at Cheyenne, Wyoming, was attended by nearly one thousand, indicating the increase in the demand for more complete understanding of the system. These men were not all farmers; among the attendants were agricultural college professors, business men, railroad men, land agents,—in short, every constructive element in the upbuilding of the plains was represented. The addresses were instructive of results accomplished, of problems yet to be conquered, of criticisms dispelled. There was a vigorous protest against misrepresentation of actual possibilities, denunciation of the speculative land agent who induces immigration that soon departs because of disappointment. The task before the congress was taken to be the learning of exact conditions and the best method of winning a permanent income for the settler. The next session is to be held at Billings, Montana.

WHERE IS THE "SEMI-ARID REGION" ?

Somewhat indefinitely is located the "semi-arid region" to which dry farming appeals. It is not the same every year, for the line of the rain-belt swerves sometimes far up the foothills of the Rockies, again disappoints crop-raisers well to the east of its normal place. But if you draw a line a little west of the Sixth principal meridian, cutting the Dakotas, Nebraska, Kansas, and Oklahoma, to take off the western third of these States, so on down to include the Texas Panhandle,—then run it irregularly along the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains, over into Utah and Eastern Oregon, until it reaches the northern Montana line,—you will have embraced the territory where generally the normal rainfall is not sufficient for agriculture as regularly conducted. In this territory, in order to have permanency of income, the farmers must adopt special crops, must irrigate the land or must follow a par-

ticular method of tillage. To a vast portion of it the first and third plans constitute the only choice.

The obstacles are considerable. For instance, the section director of the weather bureau at Cheyenne says that, "from monthly reports compiled in the Cheyenne office from records kept at stations distributed over all sections of the State, it has been determined that the average rainfall for Wyoming annually for seventeen years has been 13.68 inches." This is too little for normal crop-raising, though there are portions of the State where the total rises to twenty inches, moderately well distributed through the growing season and allows a fair farming prospect.

Under these conditions tests of the practical workings of dry farming could be made intelligently. Three years ago the Department of Agriculture (United States) established farms at three stations in Wyoming and Colorado where experiments are being carried on to show what can be done. Side by side irrigation and dry farming are being put to test; the results are striking and the yields liberal. The manager says that scientific tillage and the introduction of drought-resistant crops are responsible for the success attained. Not so much is raised without irrigation as with it, but quality is higher.

WHAT "DRY FARMING" MEANS.

In all the discussion of the term "dry farming" much misunderstanding exists. At the recent congress there was an attempt to change the organization's name to "Arid Farming Congress." In simple phrase it means a method of farming that shall include deep plowing and frequent pulverizing of the top soil out of as well as during the growing season. It is based on the principle that the moisture falling in rain or snow may sink into the earth if the soil be loosened. Then that there shall be kept above that moistened bed a close, fine blanket of dust that shall prevent evaporation. If the furrows be turned at right angles to the prevailing winds of winter that the snow may be caught, and if the pulverizing harrow be sent over the field after every rain, the seed is certain to receive a maximum amount of sustenance. If it does not get enough in one season it may in two, and a crop every alternate year, if a good one, is ample return on cheap land. Of course there must be good soil as a basis,—only irrigation can conquer sand.

To accomplish all this, special machinery has come into use. Horses could not pull plows biting deep into the tough centuries-dried soil, so powerful engines that roll majestically along with two dozen plows *en train* are in their places. Press drills that plant the seed deep; pulverizing harrows that break the surface into powderlike fineness, and other appliances, are used. "First get your moisture, then raise a crop on it," is the formula adopted by one successful farmer. He told how he had plowed twelve inches deep, had harrowed and cultivated,—and then raised thirty-five bushels of wheat, fifty bushels of corn, and generous crops of rough feed on each acre, finally starting a profitable fruit orchard,—all this on a rainfall of less than fifteen inches annually. Year after year moisture-preservation has increased his supply and the soil-bed has constantly grown richer and deeper.

WHAT THE CRITICS SAY.

Like other new ideas this is assailed by critics. The early settler whose theory was to scratch the top of the earth as little as possible, sow as many acres as he could, then wait to see whether or not there would be plenty of rain, has been one of these. "Suppose you can raise a crop by all this work; it will cost more to produce it than the material is worth when it is harvested," has

been his plaint. But this has not held good. It might have been true if old implements and methods were used. The new plan has cheapened the cost. It is true that one man cannot tend so many acres under this system, but if his net return is greater, he is really the gainer.

"The period during which dry farming has come to the front has been one of excessive rainfall; when rain-deficit years come the dry farmers will be starved out," is another objection. To substantiate it a Government Weather Bureau manager is quoted: "By taking Miles City, Montana; Cheyenne, Wyoming; North Platte, Nebraska; Dodge City, Kansas, and Amarillo, Texas, as representative points in the semi-arid belt we find by consulting the Weather Bureau records that during the past five years the total rainfall has been from six to twenty-four inches above the normal in the dry-farmed district." While this has doubtless made it less difficult to secure results, the slight additions to the rainfall if not conserved would not have made successful farming under ordinary conditions. It took more than "tickling the soil" to bring rich harvests.

"Thousands of land-hungry settlers are being decoyed into the high plains country; when the drought comes they will have to move out, as did those of the latter '80's and early '90's," is frequently heard. The settler



HARVESTING DRY-FARM POTATOES, AT EXPERIMENTAL STATION, CHEYENNE, WYOMING.

(Forty to one hundred and twenty-five bushels of potatoes to the acre have been harvested on non-irrigated ground in Wyoming during the last two years. The field shown in picture yielded one hundred bushels to the acre.)



DRY FARMING SCENE ON THE HIGH PLAINS, TWENTY-SEVEN BUSHELS TO THE ACRE.

of to-day is a far different type from those of the first western immigration. He has usually sold some land farther east and brings with him capital; he has before him the results of experiments made by the Government experiment stations and by individuals as guides in his operations,—the old-time settler had neither of these advantages. He has little indebtedness except some of the time payment on his land,—and usually not even that; he keeps some cattle, puts up a windmill and dams the “draw” to form a reservoir,—in other words, makes farming a business and adapts his methods to the conditions.

It is true that years of excessive drought will test dry farming. So will they test any kind of farming. Enough has been learned of the possibilities to make certain that the dry farmer will best survive the trial. He will get from the soil all it can give, while the follower of old methods will not. It is the belief of those who have most closely studied the effect of proper soil culture that crops may yet be raised profitably on a ten-inch rainfall annually. It is true that many claim to be following the scientific method of conserving moisture who are doing nothing of the kind. Their crude efforts are elementary and incidental. Carried to its best fulfillment the plan is simple and easy, yet calls for intelligent and persistent following of well-

defined rules. Here, as elsewhere, half measures mean half results.

EFFECT ON WESTERN LAND PRICES.

Naturally the proposition to raise from \$12 to \$18 worth of crops per acre on land that had been selling at from \$1.50 to \$4 an acre had its effect on realty prices. In the office of the Union Pacific land department in Denver is a map of the lands held by the road in Kansas and Nebraska under the Government land grant. On it is marked every land sale, with the name and address of the buyer. “We have about closed out all our lands between the Missouri River and the mountains,” said C. E. Wantland, the manager. “The people have bought rapidly for two years and we have been surprised at the interest shown.” The names of buyers show that they are from every part of the West: Chicago, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Indiana, Missouri,—some names standing for hundreds of acres, some for thousands, some speculators, others settlers. It is a part of the general land movement in the West, but it is doubtless increased by the prominence given to better methods of farming in recent years. With the Government experiment stations, with State agricultural schools of a half-dozen commonwealths making serious study of the problems presented in the high plains

region, success for the settler must come if within the range of human endeavor. No such study of conditions and of how to meet them was ever undertaken in the Western States before. Land that was a drug on the market eight years ago at \$2 an acre sells for \$10 to \$25. New homes dot the landscape. Ranches have become farms. Homestead entries have run into thousands.

THE VALUE OF DRY FARMING.

After five years of progress dry farming has become established as standing for a certain method of agriculture adapted to the plains where rainfall is deficient. It is easy to raise crops in Iowa, Missouri, eastern Nebraska, and similar portions of the West, where sunshine, rich new soil and abundant moisture are found. It is quite another thing where weeks go by without a cloud. Scientific farming proposes so to utilize what water does fall that there shall be a reasonable crop production,—not uniformly equal to that of the well-moistened East, not approaching that of the irrigated valleys, but making it possible for the farmer to support his family in comfort on a moderate acreage and returning good interest on the investment. In the States of Idaho, Montana, Wyoming, Utah, in New Mexico and Arizona, in all the west-

ern portion of the Great Plains this idea has a foothold and is recognized as a business proposition,—not a miracle nor yet a fancy theory of the schools. It demands personal attention, definite effort, and understanding of the principles of agronomy,—but it is practical, profitable, and gives results that are surprising. Used intelligently, it brings fertility to what was in effect a desert,—and that fact alone means riches of great worth.

Probably no one thing connected with the movement is of more importance than the influence its literature and its advocacy have had in stimulating investigation as to the best means of caring for all the soil of the plains. Farmers talk of the reasons for certain results; they follow scientific methods that have been tested by experts. Dry farming appeals to them as a good thing for the semi-arid lands and not a bad thing for the man who has usually plenty of moisture. It is a modern adaptation of an old principle, and is so simple as to be within reach of all. When it becomes general it may do much toward making more generous and regular the rainfall of the plains. It is already teaching the dwellers on prairie farms how to secure utmost returns from the gifts Nature has bestowed, something the first generation of settlers never did.



TURKEY RED WHEAT, DRY GROWN, UNITED STATES EXPERIMENT STATION, NEWCASTLE, WYOMING.
(This field yielded above the average for the States.)

THE SITUATION AT PANAMA.

BY FORBES LINDSAY.

(Author of "Panama: The Isthmus and the Canal.")

WE are just about to enter upon the final stage of our Isthmian Canal undertaking. The several dam sites are prepared to receive their respective structures; the engineers are ready for the delivery of machinery and material to be used in the erection of locks; the excavation of the Culebra Cut has practically reached the summit level. The work done heretofore might have been turned to account in the construction of a sea-level canal, but from this time on it will be peculiarly applicable to the multi-lock waterway, and a change to the other type can only be made at a sacrifice of more or less time, money, and material. However, it is virtually certain that Congress will decide upon a continuance of our present course, and that its decision will be final. This would, therefore, appear to be a particularly appropriate time to review the plan and conditions under which the great enterprise will be carried to a termination.

ADVISABILITY OF A LOCK CANAL.

Standing in the way of a clear comprehension of the comparative merits of the two types of canal available to us is the popular misconception that the advocated sea-level channel is one affording unrestricted navigation, while the multi-lock canal is one in which the passage of ships is retarded and hampered by mechanical devices. The facts of the matter are precisely contrary to this idea. The most commodious waterway at the sea level that has been suggested as economically feasible includes a lock as a necessary means of counteracting the wide difference in the tidal oscillations of the two oceans. Its plan embraces a dam at Gamboa which would be subjected to twice the head of water that the Gatun Dam will be required to withstand. Its maximum depth at bottom, of 200 feet, would not permit of two large vessels passing each other, and the utmost speed at which such ships might traverse it would be five miles an hour. The line of the proposed sea-level waterway includes a number of undesirable curves, such as necessitated a large amount of costly reconstruction in the Suez Canal. Further-

more, its construction could not be completed short of fifteen years, nor at a cost much less than twice as great as that of the projected canal.

The French broke down in an attempt to construct a sea-level channel. After the failure of the original company, the receiver appointed an international board to examine the problem. The *Comité Technique*, composed of seven French members and an equal number of foreigners, was the most talented body that has ever investigated the subject. It devised a plan for a high-level canal with locks. The present project is an amplification of that plan, governed by the same principles and repeating many of its important features. Five separate bodies of eminently able engineers have passed upon it, and have given it their indorsement. The only adverse opinion of any considerable weight that has been expressed with regard to it was that of the majority of the Board of Consulting Engineers. But their chief objection was based on doubts as to the safety of the large locks proposed, which the best authorities of this country confidently assert can be built and operated without any danger of failure.

THE CHAGRES RIVER.

All the accepted canal lines run through the valley of the Chagres and cut the course of that river no fewer than twenty-three times in a stretch of as many miles. During the dry season a small and placid stream, the Chagres in the rains becomes a torrent with a volume of discharge increased one hundred fold. The control and disposition of this river is the crucial problem in all canal projects. The sea-level plan treats the Chagres as a permanent menace, to be guarded against by holding the bulk of its flood in a huge reservoir and receiving the spill through the sluices into the canal prism. The high-level plan converts the river into a valuable auxiliary, and disposes of its waters so that they shall afford the greater part of the means of transportation. The dread Chagres is made to form and feed a vast lake, over the surface of which ships will pass with speed and freedom. This lake is the chief feature of

the project, and its creation will be contrived by the erection of the Gatun Dam, closing the gap in the encircling hills through which the Chagres finds its way to the Atlantic Ocean.

GATUN DAM, KEY TO THE PROJECT.

The Gatun Dam will be an earth structure, one mile and a half in length along its face, or lake exposure, and one-half mile in depth from front to back. It will lie between parallel rock walls which, together with the flanking hills, will inclose it, as it were, in a box. The hydraulic sluice process is to be employed in the construction. Carefully selected sand and clay, mixed with water, will be pumped into the space thus shut in, and when the water drains off it will leave a compact mass, impervious to seepage. The crest of the dam will be 110 feet in elevation, or twenty-five feet above the normal surface of the lake. From this height it will slope down to sixty feet at the back. Near the center of the crest line a spillway with sluice gates will be placed to regulate the stand of water in the lake. On the extreme east flank of the dam, standing upon rock, will be the locks.

This huge mass will exert a pressure upon its foundation of one ton to the square foot for every twenty feet of its height. Its great weight will be an element of safety, provided the foundation is not susceptible to percolation. The Gatun Dam is the key to the plan, and its importance has made its site the center of the critical investigations to which the plan has been subjected continuously since its inception. Borings innumerable have been made during the past four years, and it is safe to say that our engineers are as familiar with the underlying strata as they are with the surface of the ground. The fund of applicable data has been enlarged by the construction of experimental dams, by soil analyses, by water tests, and by geological examinations. In short, the dam and lock sites at Gatun have been explored exhaustively, and from every possible point of contact. The results show conclusively: (1) That the foundations are suitable, and perfectly safe for the construction of a stable and watertight earth dam of such material as is available and near at hand. (2) That the concrete spillway and concrete locks

MAP OF THE CANAL ROUTE, SHOWING LOCATION OF IMPORTANT DAMS, LOCKS, AND CUTS.





Photograph by C. L. Chester.

THE MUCH-DISCUSSED "SLIDE" AT GATUN.

(The cross shows the slight depression made in the rock wall by the movement of the mass. This incident was greatly exaggerated in the daily press.)

will rest upon rock foundations of the most satisfactory description.

The recent occurrence at Gatun, which attracted public attention, was so trivial in character that it would not be worthy of mention but for the prominent misrepresentation given to it by the daily press. At the outset, it may be said that no mishap has overtaken the dam, if for no other reason, because it is not in existence. The slide was restricted to one of the rock "toes," which are parts of the dam only in the sense that a garden wall is part of the inclosure it surrounds. A section of the south toe, or rock wall, abutted upon the old French canal. During the heavy rains of last fall the Gatun flats became flooded, and a temporary lake was formed which exerted a strong pressure against the mound of rock in question. Under this pressure the mass moved in the direction of the least resistance, sliding a few feet into the soft bed of the abandoned channel, at the same time creating a slight depression on the crest of the rock ridge. This action somewhat expedited the work, that was already in progress, of removing the unstable material from the bottom of the French cut, which will ultimately underlie the dam. Slumps, similar to that which occurred, are looked upon as features inseparable from fills and are actually desired, for the more the superimposed mass settles the surer the foun-

dition it will find. More than one repetition of this incident may be expected in the course of the canal construction during the next few years.

COURSE OF THE PROJECTED CHANNEL.

The plan under which we are proceeding disposes of the attendant problems in the most practical manner possible. The artificial channel extends to deep water in either ocean, its extreme length being a fraction less than fifty miles. The inland canal is somewhat short of forty-two miles. A cut at sea-level, three miles long and 500 feet wide, leads from Mindi, on the Atlantic shore, to Gatun Lake, to which vessels will be lifted by a triple flight of locks. These locks, like all others in the construction, are in duplicate, and have a usable length of 1000 feet, a breadth of 110 feet, and depth, over the miter sills, of forty feet.

The lake, with surface at summit level of eighty-five feet, will permit of unrestricted navigation through the greater part of its twenty-three-mile course, but the channel narrows to 300 feet as it approaches the divide. The summit level is maintained through the nine-mile stretch of the Culebra Cut, in which the bottom width of 300 feet is sufficient to allow of large vessels passing one another.* At Pedro Miguel, the Pacific

* See map on preceding page.

terminus of the cut, a lock will lower the ship to a small lake at fifty-five feet elevation. At the end of a course, two miles in length, through this lake, a double flight of locks, located at Miraflores, gives upon a sea-level channel, four miles in length, running into the Pacific Ocean at La Boca.

In this canal the depth is everywhere at least forty-five feet, except in the locks and in Limon Bay. Of the entire length, fourteen miles of the channel are 1000 feet in width; four miles are 800 feet wide; twenty miles, 500 feet wide; and less than ten miles, 300 feet wide at bottom. Along this line are none of the objectionable curves which are present in the sea-level plan. All courses are straight, changes of direction being made at the intersection of tangents, where additional width is allowed. The currents which would prove obstructive in a tide-level channel are absent from the multi-lock canal. The passage of the latter will be effected by large vessels with a saving of three or four hours over the time that would be consumed in transit of the alternative waterway.

The operation is in the hands of men who are quite equal to the task and have the means for its accomplishment at command. All uncertainties have been removed, and provision has been made for dealing with every difficulty. The remainder of the work is a matter of exact calculation as to method, and almost so as to time and cost. The commission is confident of its ability, under entirely favorable circumstances, to complete the waterway before the end of June, in the year 1914. But its published estimate allows six months for the delays and obstructions that are reasonably to be expected in an operation of such magnitude.

THE LABOR SITUATION.

The labor question may be looked upon as settled, the supply, which consists of Spaniards, Italians, and West Indians, being now in excess of the requirements. Practically all the laborers,—called "silver employees," because their wages are based on the currency of the country,—come from foreign lands, and are recruited under arrangements with their respective governments, whose agents on the isthmus exercise close supervision of their welfare. Seventy-five per cent. of this labor is drawn from the West Indies, but, owing to the discouraging attitude of the Jamaican authorities, the drafts upon other islands of the group are constantly increasing. The favorable conditions of employ-

ment on the canal have become widely known, and thousands of negroes in excess of the number needed are now eager to be engaged. The "gold employees," whose remuneration is calculated in American money, are all secured from the United States. Physical tests, Civil Service examinations, certificates of character, etc., being prerequisites to their employment. They number about 5000, ten per cent. of whom are engaged in clerical capacities and the remainder in the engineering department and the auxiliary branches, such as sanitation and transportation.

Perhaps the most serious latent menace to the progress of the canal operation resides in the labor organizations. The majority of the skilled workmen, those running stationary and traction engines, fitters, moulders, and carpenters, are members of trade unions. The steam-shovel men or locomotive drivers have it in their power instantly to tie up the work. They are fully appreciative of the situation, as their occasional aggressive attitude testifies. There has been one strike and another may occur at any time with more serious consequences. Several of the labor leaders in the States are itching to strike at the Government, and they can hardly fail to see in the



Photograph by the Pictorial News Co.
EXCAVATING FOR THE CORE OF THE MIRAFLORES DAM.



Photograph by the Pictorial News Co.

IN CULEBRA CUT.

(Steam shovels, drills, and dirt trains at work on different levels.)

canal operation a peculiarly vulnerable spot.

All classes of employees are comfortably housed, under the most healthful conditions, and provided with all the necessaries of life at a minimum cost. During the last fiscal year the death-rate among an average white force of 12,058 was 15.34 per 1000; and among the 5000 American employees, 8.14 per 1000. In the force of blacks, averaging 31,000, the mortality was 19.48 per 1000. The last rate is less than half that which was experienced during the preceding twelve months. While improvement in sanitation has undoubtedly been a factor in this remarkable decrease, the chief cause of it, in the opinion of the local medical authorities, is the good and sufficient food which the negroes are compelled to take under the present ration regulations. Before the system was instituted many of the colored laborers ate irregularly and stinted themselves in quantity.

SANITATION OF THE CANAL ZONE.

If nothing else had interfered, disease must have prevented the French from completing a canal. The task is made possible to us by the sanitation of the Zone. The achieve-

ment in this direction is admirable beyond expression. It is nearly three years since a case of yellow fever developed in the territory. The conditions conducive to malaria have been reduced to a minimum, and the number of its victims is constantly decreasing. The general health of canal employees, both white and black, is better than that of the communities from which they are drawn.

While the present precautions prevail it is improbable that a serious epidemic of yellow fever will again be experienced, but it is likely to occur sporadically, in outbreaks that will be promptly extinguished. The Isthmus of Panama cannot be entirely exempt from this danger, any more than can our Southern States, as long as the disease is active in other parts of the continent. Self-interest should, therefore, prompt us to make an effort to extirpate it, but a further consideration makes it a positive duty to do so. The quicker and more extensive communication between the Americas and the Orient which will follow the opening of the Panama Canal must, otherwise, involve grave danger of the introduction of yellow fever among the teeming populations of Asia. The peculiar mosquito distinguished for its function of carrying yel-



A TYPICAL WORK TRAIN.

(Taking the men out to their day's work on the line.)

low fever is common in Eastern countries. Given the opportunity to infect itself, and the probable results would be appalling. The South American countries in which the disease is epidemic excuse their failure to stamp it out on the ground that their revenues are not equal to the burden of necessary expense. Assuming that such is the case, it would appear to be well worth our while to supply the money and men needed to effect the purpose.

DIGGING AND CONSTRUCTION REQUIRED.

Of the work remaining to be done, the principal items are the completion of the cut through the divide and the erection of the

locks. These will consume about the same length of time and may be depended upon to be finished in less than six years from the present. The latter task calls for an aggregate construction exceeding 5,000,000 cubic yards of concrete. This will be laid at the rate of 5000 cubic yards a day, involving a daily consumption of 8000 tons of material. The site of the channel through Gatun Lake lies almost entirely at an elevation of forty feet, or lower, so that no appreciable amount of excavation is required to establish it. The Culebra Cut must be brought down to elevation 40, which will place the bottom of the canal forty-five feet below the summit level. In order to fill this requirement,



HOUSES FOR CANAL EMPLOYEES IN THE VILLAGE OF GATUN.



Photograph by the Pictorial News Co.

TYPICAL COLORED LABORERS' QUARTERS.

8,000,000 cubic yards, of which about 5,000,000 are in earth and the remainder in rock, must be removed. At the present rate of excavation this represents fifty-five months' work, but as the bottom of the cut is approached progress will necessarily be retarded by the inability to apply as many shovels to the prism as are now employed. Considering all the conditions and allowing

for slides and other impediments, the engineers are confident of reaching the required level before the end of 1914. It is impossible to convey a definite idea of the present elevation, because the excavation is being made on a double slope, the apex of which is at about elevation 90, while the ends are at the ultimate depth.

In respect to physical magnitude, the transportation of spoil is the greatest feature of the work.

Every shovelful of material taken out of the prism has to be carried on an average ten miles and deposited in an out of the way place. In this task 300 miles of construction track and thousands of flat cars are employed. From 700 to 800 dirt trains, each composed of twenty-three cars, are kept constantly moving during the hours of daylight. The amount of spoil transposed during the



Photograph by C. L. Chester.

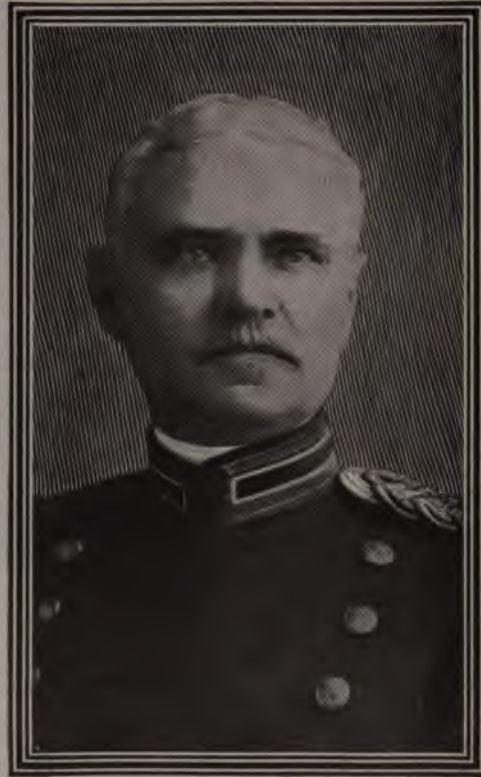
RAILROAD YARDS AT PARAIISO.

(One of several depots where hundreds of powerful American locomotives are assembled nightly.)

past twelve months aggregated the enormous total of 280,000,000 tons.

ORGANIZATION AND PERSONNEL.

The organization of the technical force is admirably adapted to the nature of the work. Centralization of authority and responsibility is the controlling principle of the system. Three departments of engineering correspond to three physical divisions of the line. Each is under one head, invested with full administrative power and complete control over his subordinates. The Atlantic Division, which embraces the Gatun Dam and Locks, is in the hands of Major Sibert, who is generally acknowledged to have no superior in the field of hydraulics. Major Gailard has charge of the Central Division, including the Culebra Cut. He has established a high record of excavation by taking out 1,290,885 cubic yards of material in a month of twenty-seven eight-hour days. The best achievement of the French in this direction was to excavate 502,350 cubic yards in a somewhat greater period. It must be remembered, however, that our facilities are very much greater than those enjoyed by our predecessors. One of our ninety-five-ton shovels will do five times as much work in a given period as the largest French excavator could perform. Our construction tracks, locomotives, flat cars; and, in short, our entire equipment is much superior to the best that the pioneer canal builders could command.



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COLONEL GEORGE W. GOETHALS.
(Chief engineer and chairman of the Isthmian Canal Commission.)

Civil Engineer Williamson is responsible for the Pacific Division within which fall two sets of locks, a large dam, and other important structures. The appointments of Mr. Williamson and Civil Engineer Saville, who occupies a prominent position at the Atlantic end of the line, are evidence that the military régime is not hampered by narrow prejudices, nor hide-bound restrictions.

Over all is Colonel Goethals, with supreme and unquestioned authority. He is the Czar of the Zone. His influence over the commission is dominant and complete. His word is law and final in all matters.



BACHELORS' QUARTERS.

(Typical of the buildings in which the Americans on the canal are housed.)

"The Colonel" is an autocrat. But it must not be inferred from this that he ignores the opinions of his colleagues. On the contrary, he often defers to their judgment, but the ultimate dictum always issues from him, and the effect is to maintain the impression of his dictatorship. That this condition makes for efficiency and discipline is beyond dispute. Subordinates never question the instructions of their superiors, as frequently happened under former administrations. The focal point of responsibility is always a matter of certainty. There is a reduction of bosses to the practical minimum.

The old-time disturbing suspicion of conflicting counsels crippling administrative action no longer haunts the employees. The work moves forward without hitch or hindrance, and every man on the line feels that a steady hand holds the reins with a constant and even pressure.



A STEAM SHOVEL AT WORK IN CULEBRA CUT.

(During an eight-hour day recently, seven shovels excavated 11,450 cubic yards of material, being an average of 1636 cubic yards per shovel. The machines were actually digging during only forty-eight shovel hours.)

It goes without saying that Colonel Goethals is a man of extraordinary parts. He has great technical ability and extensive experience, but his faculty for administration amounts to genius. He is a keen judge of character, and can weigh the capacity of a man to a hair.



UNLOADING A DIRT TRAIN AT THE TABERNILLA DUMPS.

A PHASE OF THE RUSSIAN SPY SYSTEM.

BY HERMAN ROSENTHAL.

THE peculiar character of the Russian revolutionary movement is in a fair way of being revealed in its true light by the Azeff case, which, for weeks, has almost monopolized the news despatches from Russia.

Yevgeni (Eugene) Azeff, an agent of the Russian secret police, was no less a person than the head of the fighting organization of the social revolutionists. Azeff, the agent of the Russian autocracy (one and the same person), was the leader of the executive committee of the terrorists.

Azeff, the all-powerful leader of the Russian bomb-throwing organization, was an *agent-provocateur* of the Russian Government. He entered the various secret committees and organizations of the revolutionists with the knowledge of the secret police, who paid part of the expenses of the plots laid by him against both sides, the government officials as well as the plotters, who in most cases acted as his tools. In this way the Russian Government, became itself one with the bomb-throwers and provoked the young Russian idealists to the crimes, for which they were then shot or hanged by court-martial or even without trial of any kind.

He journeyed through Russia and went abroad, organized secret societies in various places, superintended the preparations of explosives in the chemical laboratories of the revolutionists and the smuggling of weapons and explosives into Russia. He wrote and distributed revolutionary leaflets and pamphlets and successfully evaded the vigilance of customs officials. In short, he was indefatigable in promoting revolutionary activity, and the plots he organized usually ended with the arrest of most of the plotters.

Some time ago the Bureau of Information of the Russian Government declared:

Several foreign, and later also Russian, papers have announced that in the period 1902-1905 agents of the Russian police were concerned in some acts of terror that included the assassinations of the Grand Duke Serge Alexandrovich, the ministers of the interior, Sipyagin and Plehve, the Governor of Ufa, Bogdanovich, and of others, and in 1907 in the attempted assassination of the Czar. These statements are absolutely without foundation.

The six St. Petersburg dailies which quoted these announcements from the for-

eign press concerning some terrorist provocation were heavily fined. In spite of the strenuous efforts of the Russian Government to suppress the news, it became widely known, a few days later, that the engineer Yevno (Yevgeni) Azeff had been exposed by members of the revolutionary party, which announced:

The central committee of the social revolutionary party hereby notifies the comrades that the engineer Yevgeni Filipovich Azeff, 38 years of age, known in the party as "the stout one," "Ivan Nikolayevich," "Vallentin Kuzmich," a member of the social revolutionary party since its foundation, repeatedly elected as one of its leaders, a member of the "fighting organization" of the central union, has been exposed in his affiliations with the Russian secret police and is, therefore, declared to be an *agent-provocateur*. Azeff, who disappeared before the party had passed final judgment in his case, is now recognized as very dangerous for the party.

Azeff's association with the secret police was clearly established, thanks largely to the help of the ex-chief of police, Councilor of State Aleksei Alekseyevich Lopukhin, who was at the head of the Department of Police from 1902 to 1905.

Popular clamor forced the government to remit the fine of the six newspapers, and a mass of details concerning the Azeff case was soon published by the Russian press. It has become the most engrossing topic of the day in Russia. Two distinct interpellations concerning it were made in the Duma.

On January 31, Lopukhin was arrested and imprisoned on a charge of treason. His brother-in-law, Prince Urussov (author of the "Memoirs of a Russian Governor"), who happened to be in the house at the time, was subjected to bodily search, but was not taken into custody. Investigation revealed that Lopukhin really supplied to the revolutionary party information which exposed Azeff, and not only led to his exclusion from the party but prevented his supplying further information to the police concerning the plans of the revolutionists. The knowledge in question was gained by Lopukhin in his capacity of Chief of the Police Department, and was conveyed by him to Vladimir Burtzev, editor of the *Byloye* (The Past), a monthly magazine dealing with the history of the revolutionary movement.

As indicated by various editorials the arrest of Lopukhin was a political trick, intended to prevent undesirable disclosures.

It was on the eve of the interpellation in the Duma and the ministry of the interior felt that it was necessary to remove Lopukhin in order to get rid of a dangerous witness. The official report dealing with Lopukhin's arrest reveals the confusion of its authors and their unsuccessful attempt to hide incriminating evidence against themselves. The report deplors the loss of Azeff's valuable services in informing the police of the plans of the revolution.

The cynicism and stupidity of this confession reveals a condition of civic and political baseness and degeneracy not hitherto attained even in Russia.

As shown by the printed statements of the revolutionists and as admitted by the government, Azeff was a paid agent of the police.

Being one of the leaders of the terrorist groups he organized their activities and participated in a whole series of murders and assassinations. It is rather amusing, therefore, to read the naive statement of Premier Stolypin that the government is not responsible for the acts of Azeff, since he was only one of the agents of the secret police and not of the government itself. The mere fact that Azeff received very large sums of money, as much as 100,000 francs annually, according to the *Paris Matin*, would prove that he was more than a mere hireling of subordinate police officials. Besides, the arrest of Lopukhin for revealing state secrets is conclusive.

An extremely interesting article entitled "Agents-Provocateurs and Provocation," by M. E. Bakay, in a recent number of the *Byloye*, clearly reveals the methods employed by the Russian Government in the struggle with the revolutionary movement. The collection of data made public in this article must convince the most skeptical that the Russian autocracy and its officials, from the lowest to the highest, recognize the *agent-provocateur* as the most efficient weapon in the unceasing war on the radical groups of Russian society. Bakay tells us that nine-tenths of all police raids and arrests among revolutionists are made possible only by the information supplied by the *agent-provocateur*. The services of the latter have always been recognized as indispensable, and every endeavor made to make him more efficient.

After the killing of a considerable number of police officials by the revolutionists in Warsaw in 1906, the available force of the local gendarmerie became seriously depleted by desertion. Local police tradition requires all candidates for captaincies or lieutenantcies to pay the sum of 3000 to 5000 roubles, and the number of candidates is normally much greater than the num-

ber of vacancies. At the period referred to, however, the income from this source was reduced practically to nothing; no one cared to pay for the privilege of wearing the uniform.

But so far as the revolutionists themselves are concerned, the Azeff revelations are fully as deplorable. We are confronted here by a movement which is essentially inspired by noble motives. But the methods employed in order to attain religious and political freedom are marked by so much stupidity, by cruelty, by unnecessary sacrifice of human life and human happiness. Warned repeatedly by friends and foes alike, the revolutionists have often failed to exercise that sound judgment which is indispensable for the success of any movement. In the fall of 1907 the executive committee of the revolutionary party was informed of a threatened arrest, and its failure to act immediately resulted in the arrest of eighty-one people.

For the American public the Azeff case should prove deeply significant in more than one direction. It should remind us that the *agent-provocateur* of the Russian police does not limit his activities to Russian territory. He dogs the footsteps of the revolutionist and accompanies him wherever he may go. It is known to all who may care to ask that Pouren, the Russian youth whom the St. Petersburg government is straining every nerve to have extradited from New York, is a political refugee, yet the *agent-provocateur* would swear that he is a common criminal. Since, however, "'tis an ill wind that blows nobody any good," we may hope that the Pouren case and the Azeff revelations will aid in the readjustment of the extradition treaty between Russia and the United States.

Azeff's affiliations with the Russian police teach us still another lesson. They teach us that the Russian autocracy never had a real desire to grant constitutional or any other freedom to its subjects. Its organization of the "Black Hundreds," its affiliation with the *agent-provocateur*, its court-martials and its shootings and hangings by administrative order, have demoralized Russian society to the core. No man can trust his neighbor, and no man can feel certain that a word idly spoken may not be magnified into a grave political offense. Class hatred is fostered, property rights are disregarded, education is discouraged, and a premium is laid on official perversity, dishonesty, and dishonor. The disintegration which has crept into all phases of Russian life is reflected in the decadence of its literature. The dawn of Russian freedom seems far away now.

THE RULES OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES: A CRITICISM.

BY CLAUDE A. SWANSON, GOVERNOR OF VIRGINIA.

(For thirteen years a member of the House.)

THE House of Representatives was designed by the fathers of the Constitution to be the popular branch of our legislative system and as such responsive to the people's will and desires. The Senate was intended to be more conservative, to move more slowly, and to be a restraint upon the popular impulses of the House of Representatives. It was thought that as local and State interests would be largely represented in the House of Representatives and the Senate, the President should be made a part of the legislative system, in order that the more important national interests might not be made subordinate to the local or State interests. By this harmonious arrangement it was believed that a system of government had been devised in which all the varied interests of the federal system would be properly subserved. It was never contemplated or expected that either the Senate or the President would be as initiative in legislation as the House of Representatives. It was designed that the popular instincts and wishes should ever have full expression in the House of Representatives, which body it was thought would ever be the champion of the people's rights and liberties. The perfection of our legislative system is dangerously marred when the House of Representatives ceases to fulfill this wise purpose.

THE SPEAKER'S AUTOCRATIC POWER.

In recent years by skillful manipulation and the adoption of a code of rules the House has practically ceased to be a deliberate body and has been brought almost absolutely under the control of the Speaker. Louis XIV. of France could not with more truth say, "I am the state," than the Speaker of the House of Representatives, under the present rules, can say, "I am the House." It has been demonstrated that it is fruitless to attempt the passage of legislation antagonized by the Speaker. When legislation has his approval its passage through the House of Representatives proceeds with bewildering swiftness and smoothness. His objection to measures

cannot be overcome by a majority of the members. The Speaker is really the master and not the servant of the House.

We have witnessed his stern refusal to permit the House to consider measures petitioned for by a majority of its members. The subserviency of the House when its proposals are thus obstructed is amazing. Charles the First of England lost his head because he refused to obey the expressed wishes of a majority of the English Parliament. Yet the members of the House of Representatives tamely permit the Speaker, elevated to his position by their consent, to scorn to permit a majority of them even to consider the measures desired.

A RIVAL OF THE PRESIDENT.

The Speaker has almost ceased to be regarded either by himself or by the country as the agent or spokesman of the House. He now considers himself responsible to the country both for the conduct and legislation of the House. It seems that the system has now so grown that he regards himself as responsible to the country and the House as responsible to him. Instead of leaving to the Senate and the President the veto power upon the action of the House, as designed by the fathers of the Constitution, he arrogates to himself this power. He has become far more a restraining power upon the House than either the Senate or the President. We now witness a Speaker's policy, no longer a House policy. The Speaker believes his selection makes him the responsible leader of his party, and as such entitled to dominate its policies and control its legislation. Thus we frequently witness a rivalry between the Speaker and the President,—often a majority of the House in thorough accord with the President, but unable to give expression to their preference in legislation, on account of the power of the Speaker.

NOT ANALOGOUS TO THE BRITISH PREMIER.

It is a question that admits of discussion, whether it is preferable for the Speaker to be

the leader of the House or its servant. Some would have the Speaker, like the Prime Minister of Great Britain, responsible to the country for legislation, and hence favor the present rules and system which prevail in the House. But to a thoughtful person and to one who has carefully considered the perversion of the House of Representatives from its original purpose, this cannot seem permanently conducive of good, nor is the analogy to the Prime Minister of Great Britain pertinent. The Prime Minister of Great Britain naturally represents the entire nation; he is really the executive head of the government. While he may be a member of Parliament, yet he can only continue in office so long as his policy is in accord with a majority of the House of Commons. Not so with the Speaker of the House of Representatives of the United States. He is elected from one Congressional district; he must necessarily have a local environment and interests which must be potential with him, and which are frequently controlling with him. He is not compelled to resign when his views do not accord with those of a majority of the House. His re-election to the House is dependent upon his keeping in harmony with his local constituency, as the English custom of a person residing in one district and representing another does not prevail in America. Thus the local surroundings of the Speaker are frequently such as to preclude him from having as broad and national a view as the Prime Minister of Great Britain. As the Speaker is elected as the representative of a local constituency and necessarily continues as such, his elevation to national leadership and control greatly magnifies the local interests committed to him, frequently to the detriment of the local interests of other members and also of the national interests.

Besides, our system designs that in the House of Representatives the vast local interests of the country shall be fully represented. This design is destroyed when the Speaker becomes really the House, and its members are subject to his control and domination. The House to fulfill the purpose of its creation and give the country the best results should allow its members the freest debate and action consistent with the ability to enact legislation in an orderly manner and in reasonable time. Success in the House of Representatives should not be made dependent upon the favoritism of the Speaker or subserviency to his will or policies. The freer

and more independent the representatives are in the discharge of their duties, the better and wiser will be the legislation.

RULES MAINTAIN THE SPEAKER'S AUTHORITY.

The present cunningly devised rules were first prepared in order to enable a majority of the House to register its will, and when adopted it was not believed that they would be perverted in order to enable the Speaker and the Committee on Rules to control the House, regardless of its members. Conditions are becoming serious when reforms demanded by the country, but opposed by the Speaker, cannot be enacted into law under the present code of rules.

An examination of these rules readily discloses the vast extent of the Speaker's authority and power. Under the rules all the committees are appointed by the Speaker. All measures introduced in the House are referred to committees. No measure can be considered unless reported by a committee, except by unanimous consent. It is not permissible under these rules to move to discharge a committee from the consideration of a bill. In the Senate such a motion is allowed. Nearly all legislative bodies, except the House of Representatives, permit this. There the committees named by the Speaker have absolute control of legislation. The influence of members is measured by the committees to which they are assigned; this power of assignment belongs to the Speaker; thus the members are afraid to antagonize or displease him, as he has control of their usefulness and position in the House. The Speaker can easily pack a committee favorable or unfavorable to legislation. His policies can be made to prevail by his selection of the members of the committees. Thus fear, ambition, and hope make his influence most potential and almost irresistible.

Even if a committee should, contrary to his wishes, report a bill, he still has control of the matter when it comes to the House. The power of recognition under the rules is absolutely given to the Speaker. He can refuse, even when a bill has been reported by a committee, to recognize any one either for its consideration or its passage. Thus he continues master even of the committees named by him. If a member arises he does not recognize him, unless previous arrangements have been made, until he asks the member, "For what purpose does the gentleman arise?" If the member will not state his

purpose he is not recognized, and if he states his purpose and it is not in accord with the views of the Speaker he refuses to recognize him. Thus a member is powerless to procure the consideration of a bill without the consent of the Speaker.

Members are frequently recognized who are not present, previous arrangements having been made. The conditions in the House of Representatives are often like those in the Senate of a Western State. The presiding officer stated that he recognized a certain member, and said to the sergeant-at-arms, "I wish you would inform Mr. — that I have recognized him and he now has the floor; you will find him somewhere around the capitol." This method of procedure is adopted in order to prevent the Speaker from being subjected to any surprises and to prohibit the House from considering or voting upon any measure contrary to the Speaker's wishes; considering himself responsible for the action of the chamber as a whole he must thus exercise his fatherly restraint to prevent it from doing something foolish or unwise. It cannot be trusted. The proper course would be for the Speaker to recognize the member, permit him to submit his motion, if in order let the House dispose of it, if out of order so rule and declare the member out of order. Even this slight change would greatly increase the power of the House to control its proceedings.

TAKING AWAY THE PRIVILEGE OF AMENDMENT.

Thus the rules throw around the House every possible restraint. But this is not the full extent of the distrust entertained for the body or the limitation under the rules to its freedom of action. Some legislation must necessarily be passed in order to keep the Government in operation. There are measures which the Speaker and those in accord with him desire to have enacted. When these measures are before the House, members, if left free and untrammled, could offer amendments to the pending measures and thus have their will expressed. So it becomes necessary to devise some means to limit the right of amendment. The machinery for accomplishing this purpose was set in operation by the creation of the Committee on Rules, with almost unlimited power. The controlling majority of this committee consists of the Speaker and his three most trusted lieutenants. None of his party associates is placed on this committee except the "true

and tried." This committee has the power to sit during the sessions of the House, to report at any time, and for the modification of any rule or procedure. It is a flying-squadron, under the direct command of the Speaker. It can quickly and efficiently rush to any point of attack made against him or his policy. This committee has the power to report a measure for consideration, and to fix the terms of debate and the conditions upon which amendments can be offered, even though the measure is still pending before another committee and the adoption of its resolution would have the effect of discharging another committee from its consideration. Thus this committee is a kind of superior or appellate committee to all other committees of the House. Nearly all the important legislation is now conducted under special orders reported by this committee, which special orders are shrewdly devised to deprive the House of the power of amendment.

THE CASE OF THE DINGLEY TARIFF.

This can be illustrated by what occurred on the passage of the Dingley Tariff bill. This important measure, which affected all the various industries of this country and which collected millions of dollars in taxation, was enacted under a special order reported from the Committee on Rules. Under this special order the bill was considered in general debate from March 22 until 11 o'clock p.m., March 26, during which time no amendments could be offered, and from the 26th to the 31st it was provided that the bill should be read and considered under paragraphs for amendments, with the power of the committee to offer amendments at any time to all parts of the bill, and that at 3 o'clock on the 31st of March the bill, with the amendments recommended by the committee of the whole House, should be reported and the previous question should be considered as ordered on amendments, and on the bill to its engrossment, third reading, and final passage, and on the motion to reconsider and lay on the table. Under the operation of this special order the Dingley Tariff bill was not read by paragraphs further than a small portion of schedule "B," and thus no opportunity was given the members of the House to amend the unread portion,—nine-tenths of the bill. Members of the House representing districts seriously affected by the bill were ruthlessly deprived of the opportunity even to offer amendments. Most of the important schedules, concerning

which there existed a great difference of opinion among both Republicans and Democrats, were thus protected by this special order from amendment by members. When the vote came on the passage of this bill members were compelled to vote either to adopt or reject it as a whole. The House had been shamefully deprived of the right of amendment. Though the Republican majority in this House was large, many of the schedules would have been materially changed if the House had been given an opportunity to amend and to vote upon them separately. The special order was designed to deprive the members, Democrats and Republicans alike, of this privilege. Nearly all the special orders for the consideration of important matters are now of this character and deprive the members of an opportunity to alter or amend the proposed bills. The House by this method of procedure has become very much like the legislative assemblies of France under Napoleon when he was First Consul. These assemblies had the power to adopt or reject measures proposed by the government, but could not alter or amend them.

UNUSUAL POWERS OF THE COMMITTEE ON RULES.

The Committee on Rules alone has the power to propose special orders for the consideration of bills. It is not permissible to move in the House that any measure or bill be made the subject of a special order. All such resolutions must be referred to the Committee on Rules, and cannot be considered by the House unless reported from this committee. When the Committee on Rules reports a resolution for the consideration of a special bill or measure it is not permissible for the House to amend that resolution by substituting another bill or adding another bill or measure. Thus the House is absolutely dominated in this matter by the Committee on Rules. When it is considered that the power of the House to filibuster is almost as great as it ever was, except on measures considered under special orders reported by the Committee on Rules, it can easily be seen that vast power is possessed by this committee,—that it and the Speaker really constitute the House, and possess almost the only prompt and efficient method of legislation.

If the present rules of the House continue, the same method of procedure will no doubt be adopted in connection with the proposed new tariff bill as was adopted when the Dingley bill was passed. The Ways and Means

Committee will prepare a tariff bill satisfactory to the majority of the Republican members of that committee; this bill will be reported to the House; the Committee on Rules will report a special order for its consideration and passage; and no doubt this special order will be so framed as to prevent the bill from being considered in any way that will permit the House to offer amendments to its various schedules. The House will be compelled, as it was on the Dingley bill, to adopt or reject the proposed bill without being given an opportunity to amend or alter. This is a serious impairment of the rights of the members, and tends to bring the House of Representatives of the United States into disrepute. As soon as a bill has been reported and the special order from the Committee on Rules adopted for its consideration, those acquainted with the conditions in the House know that the measure will pass precisely as desired by the committee, and the members will be given no opportunity to make modifications; hence all interest in the proceedings and debates ceases. There might be much debate and much talk, but it can accomplish no good, for the special rule will preclude any opportunity for change.

The Senate rules are the reverse of this. Every Senator is given a full opportunity to offer amendments and to have the vote of the Senate upon their adoption or rejection. Democratic and Republican members deprived of this privilege in the House get their Senators to offer these amendments in the Senate. Thus in recent years the Senate amendments have been more uniformly enacted into law than those passed by the House. The rules of the House by every possible means minimize the importance and lessen the influence of its members, except the Speaker and those selected by him for positions of prominence and power. It is almost inconceivable that a representative body should deliberately fetter itself by such rules and restrictions, thereby evincing a distrust of itself. Of course the reason given for depriving the many of rights and power to bestow upon the few is the one usually assigned for despotism and arbitrary power:—"it is done for the good of those deprived."

THE REED RULES AGAINST FILIBUSTERING.

Some of these rules were first designed to prevent filibustering and have simply been perverted from the purpose for which they were intended to be used. Under the Constitution one-fifth of the members of the

House can call for the ayes and nays upon any question. A roll-call with the announcement of pairs, takes about forty-five minutes. Thus one-fifth of the members, by offering various amendments, submitting all kinds of motions to adjourn, to postpone, and so forth, could, by the consumption of time, almost prevent the enactment of legislation. Many years ago this was done, especially when there was no rule prohibiting dilatory motions. The House became almost unable to do business when one-fifth of its members desired to filibuster. Under the former rules a member, though present, could not be counted unless he answered on roll-call. Thus members could frequently break a quorum and still remain in the hall. To get rid of this difficulty, which prevented both deliberation and action, the House properly adopted the rule counting as present all persons in the hall, and also prohibiting the Speaker from entertaining dilatory motions.

These new rules were needed and have proved salutary. These two rules were known as the Reed rules, and were adopted by a Democratic caucus after Speaker Reed had demonstrated that the House was powerless to legislate without their adoption, if one-fifth of the members were disposed to filibuster. The declared purpose of adopting these rules was to give a majority of the House an opportunity to express its will. This purpose was commendable and in accordance with our system of government. They prevented one-fifth of the members from rendering four-fifths of the members powerless to legislate. While these two rules removed the difficulties in the way of the majority of the House controlling, the present rules enable a much smaller number, in the person of the Speaker and the Committee on Rules, to prevent a majority of the House from having its will and enacting legislation.

GETTING BILLS OUT OF COMMITTEE.

The old method which permitted one-fifth of the members by filibustering to control the House should not be renewed, but a method should be devised by which a majority of the House can control its deliberations and legislation promptly and efficiently. In the Senate this is done by giving each Senator the right to move at any time the discharge of a committee from the consideration of a bill which it has failed to report. This brings the measure promptly and directly before the Senate. This is very effective and

reserves to each Senator his right to have his measures fairly considered. But, if this method of procedure should be adopted in the House, with its large membership, it would no doubt be productive of much evil and could easily be used, by one-fifth of the members uniting in a filibuster, to retard and almost prevent legislation. If this should be a rule in the House any member who had introduced a bill could move to discharge the committee from its consideration, and if voted down and he was supported by one-fifth of the members of the House, could have a roll-call upon the matter, which would consume forty-five minutes. Another member could make the same motion upon another measure and consume equally as much time. With one-fifth of the members uniting under such a rule, this could be continued *ad infinitum* and the House be deprived almost of the power to legislate. No doubt this has been an important consideration in preventing the House from adopting such a rule.

It would seem that a rule adopted by the House providing that whenever a majority of the members of that body should petition the Speaker that unless a committee should report in a specified time a bill referred to it, then it should be in order at the end of that time to move in the House that the committee be discharged from the further consideration of the measure, and the House at once proceed with its consideration, would put the proceedings of the House absolutely under the control of the majority of its members. At any time when the Speaker or any committee was disposed to thwart the will of the majority of the members, this rule could be invoked and be made at once effective. In order to prevent a reckless signing of petitions for the consideration of measures, the rule should provide that the petition shall be printed in the proceedings of the House on the day it is presented to the Speaker, with the names of the members signing it. Thus without consuming the time of the House in a roll-call the benefits of the roll-call can be obtained just as effectively, for the signatures to the petition will indicate the position of the members on the matter. If any committee of the House refuses to report a bill which the House desires, this rule would render the committee powerless to thwart a majority of the House.

If a bill had been reported by a committee and was on the calendar and the Committee on Rules should refuse to bring in a special

order to consider it and give it a fair chance of passage, this rule could be invoked and made useful against the Committee on Rules. This rule could not be used at all for the purpose of filibustering, and it would be operative only by the express request of a majority of the House. The Speaker and all the committees, knowing that this rule could be invoked, would rarely suppress the wishes of the majority. This rule would put the majority of the House in control; enabling it to control the Speaker and the Committee on Rules when desired.

The objection that could be urged to this rule, that it would permit a minority of one political party to unite with the other and thus override a majority of the dominant party, should have little weight from party considerations. No political party is benefited by standing as a barrier against a popu-

lar movement or a desire of the majority of the people of the country, expressed through their representatives in Congress. Many a party has been wrecked by a few men arrogating to themselves leadership of the party and endeavoring to impress upon the country their individual views. Aside from party considerations, the dignity of the House of Representatives and the successful operation of our theory of government, demand that a majority of the members of the House of Representatives should be able to control promptly and efficiently its proceedings. The adoption of this rule would accomplish this result. It would not be a radical change of the rules, and its adoption would restore the privileges and power of the House. The existence of such a rule would of itself be so efficacious that the necessity for its exercise would rarely occur.

THE RULES OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES: A DEFENSE.

BY FREDERICK C. STEVENS.

(Member of Congress from the Fourth Minnesota District.)

AT one time, and perhaps not alone at one time, the debates of the English House of Commons on affairs of distant colonies were much vexed by certain members who had visited those regions, and assumed to conclude the question under discussion by their first-hand knowledge. Finally John Bright lost his patience and asked the House why they assumed that a man could, from a visit, have an infallible judgment about a distant place, when as to affairs in England, directly under the eyes of all, there was usually a radical difference of opinion.

Many men who are or have been in the House of Representatives write about the rules, and when they speak to the public, through great magazines, we must keep the wise observation of John Bright well in mind, or we shall assume that what they write is the whole doctrine as to the law of the House. Because they may have been active and influential members of the House it does not follow from this that they must necessarily know well the principles by which it is governed. Just as there are men of large affairs in every community who know

little about the laws of their municipalities, or of their States, so there are active and influential members of the House who never know much about the rules. As a citizen relies upon a lawyer to direct him in business involving the laws of the land, so do many leading members of the House rely on others to map out their course of action under the law of the House; while as to what is to be done under that law they may determine the course of action in matters of great national importance.

With these preliminary observations, the reader will be able to understand how it is possible for members of the House, even of long experience, to make errors that would otherwise be astounding.

RECOGNITION OF MEMBERS.

Recent discussions of the subject of recognition are, perhaps, the examples wherein this is best illustrated. Magazine writers and even members of the House soberly tell the reader that the Speaker has the absolute power to determine whom he will recognize, and that when there has been no previous

arrangement the Speaker inquires of a member seeking recognition: "For what purpose does the member rise?" Thus it is inferred that this question embodies the inquisitiveness of a tyrant. A brief explanation will show how little the import of this inquiry is comprehended. The rule of the House provides that when two members rise at once, the Speaker shall name the member who is to have the floor. This rule was adopted in 1789, in the old days of individualism in the House, when the volume of business was light, and came forward through the individuality of the member having it in charge. In accordance with this method of procedure there was an appeal to the House if the Speaker made an unsatisfactory decision as to which member had first arisen. In the process of time public business increased in bulk, and the House doubled and quadrupled, or became even more numerous in membership. The inevitable consequence of such increase has been to diminish the opportunity of the member acting as an individual, and substitute the action of the member as an agent, under fixed rules. Each member of the House of 391 members cannot be expected to have the opportunity for personal participation in its affairs upon the floor of the House, that he would have if the number were only ninety-two, as in the Senate, and if the mass of its business were much smaller, as in years past. The primary function of the House is properly to transact the legislative business of the American people, which the Constitution has imposed upon it. For that purpose, and in order to meet the tremendous changes which the years have brought, the House has evolved a rule of business by bringing forward bills in fixed order, with nicely adjusted arrangement, to give precedence to the most important matters.

About 30,000 bills come before the House during the lifetime of a Congress. A tenth of these get through the committees and upon the calendar (which is a list of bills reported by committees and awaiting action) for consideration by the House itself. There is not time for the House to consider even all of this tenth part of the bills, so it is necessary, as the consideration proceeds under the rules governing the order of business, to give precedence to certain classes of important or necessary legislation. Experience has gradually evolved eleven classes of business which may be interposed on motion of the members in charge, if the House consents. Thus, matters of the highest importance are always

assured of consideration, while matters of less consequence must wait their order of precedence. Under this rule the business passes through the House like the flowing of a stream. The rules and not the Speaker direct this stream. Now, it is manifestly necessary that, when a given bill appears in the order of business, the Speaker shall recognize for motion and debate the member who has reported the bill from the committee, since that member is considered as the best qualified to give intelligent direction to it. The Speaker is compelled by long usage to do this. So, if another member rises, the Speaker says: "For what purpose does the gentleman rise?" in order to ascertain whether or not the second member is in charge of some matter to which the rules give precedence over the matter first in sight.

So, far from this being the question of an inquisitive tyrant, it is, in reality, that of an honest administrator of the rules, anxious to do that which the rules and practice compel him to do, and which it is necessary to do in order to economize time and prevent confusion. This method has evolved from a hundred years of trying experiences. So far as careful examination shows, it is superior to the system of any other legislative body of the size (quorum considered) of the House of Representatives. Changes, so jauntily proposed, in this order of business, would be quite apt to diminish the volume or impair the quality of the legislation, at the very time when the people have been complaining that Congress has not had time to consider business of pressing importance. It is significant also that, as a general proposition, the legislative measures which the critics of the rules would have brought forward to replace those now privileged, are either of importance only to sections of the country and to ambitious individuals, or have not been thought out with sufficient care.

The Speaker of the House of Representatives, in the ordinary business of the House, has fewer opportunities for arbitrary recognition of members than the moderator of the smallest town meeting in New England. He has, since the days of Speaker Randall, exercised his own will as to recognition only as to motions to suspend the rules, which are made in order on two days a month, and as to requests to interrupt the regular order of business, to take up bills out of order. But unanimous consents are outside the rules, and this situation would not be changed under any system, unless the right to recognize for

them should be taken from the Speaker. Such a disposal of the question would be a great relief to the Speaker. It is now understood that the new rule, providing for a Calendar Day for Wednesday of each week, will care for most of the business formerly done under suspension of the rules and by unanimous consent; and to that extent will relieve the members from any possible embarrassment in bringing forward their bills; will give ample and certain notice of the business to be done, and take from the Speaker the odium of favoritism and obstruction as to measures and individuals.

COMMITTEE ON RULES.

Many of the current discussions, concerning the powers and usage of the Committee on Rules, are unfortunate in that they leave obscure the very fact which is of great importance. It is true that the Committee on Rules is a small body, with its majority dominated, not by the Speaker, but by the sentiment and wishes of the responsible majority party in the House. It is true that it reports special orders to give precedence and direction to important measures; but there is one further fact which the critics of the rules do not emphasize. No special order is valid until it has been indorsed by a majority of the House, voting in open House, with the power of ordering the yeas and nays by one-fifth of those present. The modest reticence as to this cardinal fact must not be permitted to diminish its importance.

The critics of the rules also err strangely when they declare that most of the business of the House is considered under orders from the Committee on Rules. At the last session of the Sixtieth Congress that Committee made but five reports: (1) on the emergency bill, to reduce the salary of the Secretary of State, so that Mr. Knox might be eligible to the Cabinet; (2) to enable the conferees on the Legislative bill to amend their report so as to reduce the appropriation for salary of Secretary of State, to which both Houses had agreed, and which the conferees might not change without special authority; (3) to enable the House to consider immediately the Senate bill to authorize the re-instatement of the Brownsville soldiers, a bill which in the regular routine would have failed; (4) a special rule to facilitate suspension of the rules during the closing days of the session, without which the forestry bill would have failed in the House; and (5) a new rule of the House to establish a calendar Wednes-

day, for which there had been a demand in the House and country.

And in the first session of that Congress there were only eight reports from the Committee on Rules. One of these was to admit the Philippine Commissioners, another a direction to a commission to investigate complaints of peonage in the South; a third, to create a special committee to investigate the charge of corruption in relation to appropriations for submarine naval vessels, another to appoint a committee to investigate the complaints of publishers as to the duty on paper, and the remainder to adopt special rules for dealing with a filibuster. In other words, in the whole first session of the Sixtieth Congress, six months in length, not a single legislative proposition was considered under an order from the Committee on Rules. It is fair to say, however, a prolonged filibuster by the minority made procedure at this session somewhat abnormal.

The functions of the Committee on Rules are associated intimately with the caucus of the majority party, the latter being corrective or supplementary. It is true that sometimes (and the Committee on Rules acts on relatively few bills) a special order cuts off amendments, which might, if permitted to be offered, be adopted by the minority party in the House reinforced by a small fraction of the majority party. The minority loudly insist that it is tyranny not to let this small portion break away and assist them. But the American people govern through responsible political parties. They have not time to deal with individuals; they wish to say to a party, "Do thus," and then have the duty done. In what position would a responsible party be, were it to go before the people in the next campaign and say: "You instructed us at the convention and at the polls to enact a proper tariff law, but a fraction of our members broke away and, joining with the minority, prevented the passage of such a bill"? The American people would not be satisfied with such an excuse for an instant.

It is only a moribund party, or a party doomed to defeat, that permits individual preferences to prevent its performance of a prescribed duty. It is the American practice that caucuses, and conventions, and majorities of responsible organizations shall lay down programs which individual members, if in representative positions, must support, or walk out of the party. The order of the Committee on Rules cutting off amendments is simply a polite method of applying the

rigid caucus rule. The very members who wish to join the minority, in voting for certain amendments, vote for the rule which ties their hands, realizing that if they do not a caucus will command them. Fifty members may call a caucus of the political party now in control of the House. If the Committee on Rules fails to read aright the party will, a caucus may be and frequently has been called to instruct them.

RULE ON TARIFF BILL.

It is possible that on the coming tariff bill a special order of consideration will prevent offering, on the floor, amendments which have not been examined and approved by the Committee on Ways and Means. This is complained of as tyranny. It is far different from that, inasmuch as it is a rule which the majority of the House will adopt to prevent considerations, local and personal, from interfering with a policy of national scope, prepared by that Committee of the House, best equipped for that duty.

It must not be forgotten that a tariff bill has this peculiarity, in respect to which it differs from nearly every other legislative proposition. While it is general and national in one sense, in another it is to a high degree local and personal. While on one side it touches the national revenue, on the other it affects vitally the interests of the constituency of every member. This dual nature has created difficulties in all legislative bodies, and, so far as observed, those difficulties have nowhere been met more successfully than in the later practice of the House of Representatives. Two things are wanted now by the American people,—speedy action on a tariff bill, and a bill in which local and personal interests shall not predominate. From this it is easy to understand why the House should adopt the rule and why the rule should be criticised in many places. Many years ago, when the country was smaller, and the membership less, and the interests of the country weaker, a Ways and Means Committee reported an excellent tariff bill. The House took it up without any restraining order and amended it freely. Members, spurred on and intimidated by local interests, adopted, by log-rolling processes, amendments so numerous and so injudicious that when the bill was finished the very men who had amended it saw it was impossible. Then John Sherman,—who relates the story in his *Memoirs*,—offered as a substitute the bill as originally reported by the Ways and Means

Committee, and the House adopted it. What the majority party will do in the present case is not settled yet. But the American people may rest assured that it will arrange, so far as possible, to have its tariff bill amended by intelligence and not by appetite.

POWERS OF THE SPEAKER.

Nearly all the critics, unduly impressed with the English analogies, complain that the Speaker is a very powerful officer, even rivaling the President. He is powerful because he is the chief officer of the only organ of the Government wherein the American people are represented on the basis of their numbers; and it will be a sad day for that people when the leader of their Representatives is not a powerful officer. He was powerful in Virginia as long ago as when Speaker Peyton Randolph led the Burgesses against the encroachments of British authority; he will continue to be powerful so long as there is vitality in American institutions. The powers and prerogatives of this Representative Assembly of the people can only be assured and maintained against the aggressions and encroachments of the Executive and the Senate, by means of a trusted leader, vigilant, capable, and powerful enough, whenever necessary, to marshal the forces of the House to preserve its own interests and dignity.

Weakness and incapacity, either in its leadership or in the use of its powers by a large, representative body, would necessarily tend to invite invasion by more virile and centralized co-ordinate branches of the Government, in order that the business of the country should be more speedily and perhaps acceptably done. In time, this might tend to deprive the direct representatives of the people of those prerogatives which have always been deemed precious in a popular Government, viz.: the power to originate bills to raise the revenues and provide appropriations for the support of the Government, and the power to hold high officials accountable by means of the power of impeachment.

This may not seem now in sight. But the weakness and incapacity caused by scattering and dissipating its powers by a large assembly will grow worse with time, and no one can foretell what consequences may ensue as to those functions which, so far, have been thought essential to the people's protection.

The power of the Speaker rests on two foundations: (1) The influence which his abilities, experience, and personality give

him among his associates, who know him well and understand the motives of his acts; and (2) on the power conferred upon him by the rules to appoint the standing committees, "unless otherwise ordered by the House." In other words, the House at the time of organization and under the rules, may take into its own hands the appointment of committees by the adoption of a resolution therefor. But for more than a hundred years the House has realized the necessity of centralizing and vitalizing its powers, and has always refused to do this. The Speaker is expected to make up the committees so that a majority of each shall represent the principles of the responsible majority party in the House, and to this extent he "packs" the committees. If he did not do this he would not be Speaker. But to pack them for a personal or nefarious end he has little opportunity, even supposing him to be a man bold enough and callous to brave the contempt of the House and the people's denunciations.

The important standing committees are large bodies, of from fifteen to twenty members each, of which one-third at least of the places are filled by members of the minority party who, in recent practice, have been designated by the minority leader. This leaves to the Speaker the appointment of only ten or fifteen of the committeemen. But by long usage, and to insure efficient service, a member once appointed on a committee remains there unless there exists a controlling public reason for his removal. Only in rare cases does the Speaker exercise the unpleasant duty of removing a member from a committee against his will; and rarely if ever has a Speaker performed this duty without the full approval of the House. It follows from this condition and from the fact that many members serve in the House year after year, that the Speaker does not have usually more than two or three vacancies to fill on any leading committee, and even then considerations as to sections and States have a large influence in the selection rather than his own wishes. This leaves him a very limited opportunity to "pack" any committee.

MOTIONS TO DISCHARGE COMMITTEE.

As to the desirability of permitting a motion to discharge a committee, when it refuses or neglects to report an important bill, there have already been set forth the insuperable objections to such a motion as is used in

the Senate. With 25,000 bills in committees the motion, if permitted, would take all the time of the House. Under the present system of the House a motion for this purpose is referred to the Committee on Rules, and when reported back may be adopted by a majority vote. As fifty members may call a caucus of the majority party, it is easy to see that it is possible to get out of any committee any bill that the responsible party wishes to consider or which is really desired or of importance to the country. It was in this way that the Currency bill was handled, and the bills to regulate the practice of issuing injunctions were refused consideration at the first session of the recent Congress.

Under the plan of admitting a motion to take a bill from committee, when a majority of members (irrespective of party lines) indorse the motion, it would sometimes be possible for the minority party, united with a fraction of the majority, to bring out a measure that would otherwise not be reported. Under this plan, in the Fifty-first Congress, it would probably have been possible to have got before the House and passed a bill for the free coinage of silver. As it was, the Silver-Republicans could not persuade the Committee on Rules or the Republican caucus to authorize such a motion, and they were not then ready to walk out of the Republican party. The scheme by petition now proposed would disintegrate and destroy the majority party, and enable a fraction, holding a balance of power, to trade with and dominate both parties. It would tend to force forward attractive but immature propositions and prevent that careful and considerate action necessary in so large a country upon matters of national importance.

The present rules are in every essential respect the "Reed rules," which were so roundly denounced in 1890, even in State conventions; and in language very like the language of present denunciations. But the leading critics in the House of Representatives in 1893 very precipitately adopted the principles of the "Reed rules," and they are generally commended in the abstract. But it is charged that they have been "perverted." As the perversion does not appear in the letter of them, perhaps after all they are the same old rules, going through again their cycle of experience with those who have not realized their hopes or ambitions from the processes of legislation.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE ENGLISH VIEW OF ROOSEVELT.

BRITISH comment on the Roosevelt epoch and the personality of the ex-President himself, while of course not affording any new light on the period or character, is interesting and perhaps profitable as the viewpoint of a people who, speaking the same language and from whom most of our political and social institutions have sprung, may be expected to regard such institutions with more intelligent sympathy, perhaps, than the peoples of continental Europe.

In general, British opinion as reflected in the monthlies, weeklies, and more deliberate of the daily newspapers is highly commendatory of Mr. Roosevelt's principles and ideas, but more or less strongly condemnatory of his methods. A long and discriminating editorial in the *London Times*, appearing on the morning of the day of Mr. Taft's inauguration, observed that while Mr. Roosevelt has "no doubt the defects of his qualities," there can be no disputing the fact that "he stands and has stood throughout his Presidency

for two things above all others,—for righteousness in public life and for the recognition of the greatness of the United States and of its legitimate influence in all that concerns the welfare of the civilized world, more especially in the promotion of peace and good-will among the nations.

The *London World*, a weekly of sober and sedate reputation, deprecates the tendency of many British journals to regard the Roosevelt administration only in the light of its achievements in politics or economics. Mr. Roosevelt's great accomplishment, says the *World* editorially, was the moral regeneration of the American people.

Thanks to Mr. Roosevelt, men do not do the things they did. They do not even think the thoughts of a decade ago. He has broadened the social conscience of the people. The relations between capital and labor, and such questions as employers' liability and the employment of women and children, are regarded from a vastly more enlightened and sensitive standpoint than when he first entered the White House. The tone of public life has been correspondingly raised. Young men of education and wealth no longer leave politics to the politicians. They have learned from Mr. Roosevelt a higher sense of civic duty.

Theodore Roosevelt, this journal concludes, has been, on the whole, the most brilliant, interesting, and effective figure on the world's political stage since Bismarck left it.

The *Daily Graphic* regrets "a tendency to bumptiousness," but insists that in his character, "which in its strenuousness, its simplicity, its downright honesty, and its high thinking" Mr. Roosevelt recalls the best traditions of the heirs of the Pilgrim Fathers, of whom all English-speaking men are proud; while the *South Wales News* (Cardiff) declares its belief that the man Theodore Roosevelt "will always remain the perfect symbol of all that is progressive in the public life of the United States," and the Birmingham *Daily Mail* maintains that "there is no personality in the whole history of America so full of inspiration for the ambitions of youth the world over as that of Theodore Roosevelt."

The *Morning Post* (London), while admitting that the ex-President "pressed forward with a vigor that was sometimes alarming," agrees with the Birmingham *Express* in being reconciled to Mr. Roosevelt's retirement only when "we realize that in his successor we have a man of such large experience, keen discernment, and right instinct."

The *Daily Chronicle* believes that the net result of the Roosevelt administration was to "elevate the whole tone of business management all over the world."

Most of the British journals note approvingly the "intelligently sympathetic" attitude Mr. Roosevelt maintained toward Great Britain. The Nottingham *Guardian* says on this point (voicing the general opinion):

Through his statesmanlike sympathy with the aspirations of King Edward the Peacemaker all sources of misunderstanding have been cleared away between the two great English-speaking Powers on either side of the Atlantic, and a mutual friendship established which both wish that time may only strengthen.

Besides the caustic editorial remarks of the *Saturday Review* and the *Spectator*, for which we have learned to look upon every possible occasion, we find a tendency in the conservative British press to grow a little

bitter over Mr. Roosevelt's alleged "bull in the china shop" proclivities. The *National Review* says:

What strikes us as most remarkable is the little that is essential that Mr. Roosevelt has himself contributed to heal the diseases of which he complains. It has been said before, it can be repeated without losing its force, that a man's fame must rest on substantive achievement, not on mere aspiration. The world needs its dreamers and owes them a vast debt of gratitude, but the debt is to the dreamers who have visualized their visions, who have brought to man inspiration or hope; it owes nothing to the dreamers of dreams who spend their waking hours in a maze chasing phantoms. If the world were purified by preaching, Mr. Roosevelt would have done much, for since the day of Whitefield, and Wesley, and Fox there has been no man who has had all the world for his pulpit, or has so delighted to indulge in homiletical discourse.

Mr. Roosevelt has no constructive genius. He has a vivid sense of generalization, but no capacity for details. His mind overleaps space. When a question is presented to him he grasps at once the conclusion, or rather, the conclusion as he would see it. He is like an architect who can conjure up the picture of the completed edifice,—harmonious, perfectly proportioned, admirably adapted for the purpose to which it is to be put, but who by temperament is unable patiently to labor over the details, to work out the calculations on which the safety of the struc-

ture rests. The result is that most of Mr. Roosevelt's grand buildings have never advanced beyond the sketch-plan stage, or those few that he has finished were found quite unsuitable for occupancy.

The *Birmingham Post* insists that Mr. Roosevelt has been a despot no Englishman, Frenchman, or German would tolerate.

It is reserved to-day for the freedom-loving citizens of the United States to submit to the directive genius of the enlightened despot with more complacency than any other people; for even in Germany the tendency of the day is to restrict the authority of the ruler. . . . To-day it is as hard to realize that he was ever a politician of comparative obscurity as it is to think that he will consent to drop back into the shade and watch other men control the policies he has inaugurated.

The *Aberdeen Free Press* blames Mr. Roosevelt for hunting gas leaks with a lighted candle. It also reproaches him for retiring from public gaze in the midst of a discussion of fighting Congress and shooting lions.

To be "a mighty hunter before the Lord" may in the case of Nimrod have been a pardonable enough ambition, but from a ruler of men and a leader of humanitarian causes we, in these days of enlightenment and sweeter manners, might reasonably expect something higher than a lapse into the ways of primitive barbarism.

JUGGLING WITH THE TARIFF.

THE difficulties that stand in the way of making a good tariff bill have seldom been more forcefully and clearly set forth than by Miss Ida M. Tarbell in the *American Magazine* for April. The man in the street assumes that it is Congress that makes a tariff bill; but, writes Miss Tarbell, "there is a body of citizens in the country who think differently. They are those in whose interests the bill is principally made." She cites several illustrative cases. The late Joseph Wharton, the iron master, steel master, and nickel king, said to Miss Tarbell herself: "I wrote the bill of 1870." In 1894 Mr. Havemeyer told Mr. David A. Wells: "Three men will make the next tariff bill, not one of them a member of Congress." And he was right. At a conference of New York merchants and importers, Mr. H. F. Lippitt, of Rhode Island, referring to a change in appraisement of certain cotton goods, said in substance: "When Congress adopted that paragraph it meant to put on these goods the duty which has been enforced until now. I know this to be so, for I wrote the paragraph. . . . Miss Tarbell

thinks it probable that" in spite of all the signs to the contrary, the representatives of wool and woolen, of iron and steel and sugar "will control the bill of 1909."

The great tariff agitations of the last half-century have demonstrated the fact that "nine-tenths of the people have stood only for such duties as would produce needed revenue and would give industries which were trying to prove their ability to exist in the United States protection through a limited period." The people, however, "have never had such duties, and on most articles they are farther from getting them than they were at the close of the Civil War." As an instance "the bewildering wool schedule" is cited.

Fifty years ago the cheaper grades of wool came in free and there was a uniform 24 per cent. duty on all kinds of manufactured goods. But to-day wool bears a duty of 11 cents a pound, while wools and worsteds, blankets and clothing bear duties graded down from 134.97 per cent. on the cheap worsted the poor man buys to 94.32 per cent. on the superior article of the rich man. Woolen blankets bear a duty of 165.42 per cent. on those of the poor; 71.3 on those of the rich.

Miss Tarbell denounces in scathing terms the bill of 1883, than which "there has not been a more hateful piece of legislation in our times." President Arthur appointed a commission of nine members, which included representatives of four highly organized and politically powerful industries,—wool, wool-manufactures, sugar, iron and steel.

The commission declared for a general 20 per cent. reduction. It looked at the opening of Congress as if this might be granted, but it was not, for no sooner was Congress at work on the bill than Washington became the center of one of the most amazing lobbies the country has ever seen. . . . The making and adopting of the schedules became a terrific scramble to get for constituents what each demanded. The result of the raid of business men on Congress in 1883 was probably the worst tariff bill ever made,—a conglomeration of unequal duties illustrating no principle but that of the manufacturers. "Get all you can." It showed conclusively that the business man, not the Congressman, was fixing duties.

Discussing the question "Who gets the duty?" Miss Tarbell quotes an extract from the evidence of Roger Q. Mills, chairman of the Ways and Means Committee in 1886. Mr. Mills said:

I find in this report one pair of five-pound blankets. The whole cost as stated by the manufacturer is \$2.51. The labor cost is 35 cents. The tariff is \$1.90. Now here is \$1.55 in this tariff over and above the entire labor cost of these blankets. . . . Here is one yard of flannel weighing four ounces; it cost 18 cents, of which the laborer got 3 cents; the tariff on it is 8 cents. How is it that the whole 8 cents did not get into the hands of the laborer? . . . None of these tariffs go to the laborer. They cannot pass the pockets of the manufacturers. This "great American system" that is intended to secure high wages for our laborers is so perverted that all its beneficence intended for the poor workingman stops in the pockets of his employer. . . .

High duties have had two serious results, of which one is the revenue.

Every one remembers the gigantic and alarming surplus which piled up in the 80's. Mr. Cleveland's chief argument for drastic downward revision was that we were collecting far greater taxation than we needed. It was entirely consistent with the jugglery that had gone on over facts and logic that purely quack remedies should be suggested for dealing with the evil. The most eminent because of its source was that of James G. Blaine. In his reply to Grover Cleveland's tariff message in 1886, Mr. Blaine said substantially: "Do not attempt to reduce the surplus; use the money to fortify the cities, and when the cities are all fortified divide it among the States to reduce taxation!" A flood of suggestions for disposing of the money followed. . . . The Chicago Convention of 1888 declared for free "whiskey." . . . "I am for free blankets," said Mr. Carlisle.

The other serious result of the high tariff has been the multiplication of trusts. Moody's "Truth About the Trusts" (1904) gave a list of eighty-six "lesser" industries working under trust agreements. Of these, sixty-nine were formed since the Dingley bill went into operation. In a large number the chief element of monopoly noted by Mr. Moody was the tariff advantage. Is it rational, asks Miss Tarbell,

to expect anything but barter, trickery, log-rolling, quackery, juggling with the definition of protection, shifting of argument, and evasion of facts so long as Congress makes its bills as it is doing now? Is the method employed anything but an invitation to these vicious practices? . . .

Mr. Taft is right. What is wanted in making the present bill is evidence,—evidence of the cost of production here and abroad, gathered not by the interested, but by the disinterested, not by clerks but by experts. When provision has been made for obtaining that, the first step toward putting an end to the present tariff juggling will have been taken.

FOREST TAXATION, AS IT IS AND AS IT OUGHT TO BE.

IT has been justly remarked that of all the country's natural resources the forests have been the most shamefully abused. It is estimated that during the past half-century nearly a million square miles of our forests have been cut away; and if the deforestation continues at the present rate a timber famine is one of the possibilities of the no distant future. Well might Mr. Roosevelt say, in his letter to the State governors and representative citizens inviting them to a meeting at the White House in May of last year:

There is no other question now before the

nation of equal gravity with the question of the conservation of our national resources, and it is the plain duty of us who, for the moment, are responsible . . . so to handle the great sources of our prosperity as not to destroy in advance all hope of the prosperity of our descendants.

Mr. Roosevelt's efforts in behalf of forestry are well known and should be gratefully remembered by the nation. The Government Forest Service, with Mr. Gifford Pinchot at its head, not only administers more than 160,000,000 acres of national forests, but co-operates with the owners of

private forest lands also. As it is on these lands that the greatest opportunities for waste occur, it is obvious that every inducement for their replenishment should be offered. According to Prof. Fred Rogers Fairchild, of the Department of Economics, Yale University, and expert in the United States Forest Service, it is safe to say "that we can never expect to see the general practice of forestry by private owners under our present system of taxation." Writing in the *Yale Review* he says:

The general property tax provides for the assessment of all wealth (barring certain exemptions) at its full market value, the tax being then determined as a certain fraction of the assessed valuation. As applied to timberlands, this means the annual taxation, at their actual market value, of land and trees. Strictly enforced, according to the plain letter of the law, such taxation cannot fail to put an excessive burden upon forest investments.

To illustrate how heavy this burden may be, Professor Fairchild presents the following table, based upon an example furnished by the New Hampshire Forestry Commission, the fiftieth year being the most profitable one for cutting timber:

	Case I. 50 yrs.	Case II. 50 yrs.	Case III. 50 yrs.	Case IV. 50 yrs.
Value of timber...	\$189.00	\$189.00	\$189.00	\$189.00
Original cost of planting	7.00	7.00	...	7.00
Cost of planting, with interest....	80.27	80.27	...	80.27
Net income.....	108.73	108.73	189.00	108.73
Expectation value..	10.36	10.36	18.00	10.36
Assessed value of land	10.00	5.00	18.00	10.00
Tax rate.....	1%	1%	1%	2%
Accrued taxes on land	\$20.04	\$10.47	\$37.09	\$41.88
Accrued taxes on trees (exempt 20 years)	21.46	21.46	21.46	42.92
Total taxes.....	42.40	31.93	59.15	84.80
Per cent. of taxes to net income...	39	29	31	78

It will be noticed that the amount of tax ranges from 29 per cent. to 78 per cent. of the net income. As a matter of fact, however, forests "are not taxed so heavily as this in the United States to-day." Nevertheless, it is

only because the general property tax has not been effectively administered that it has not yet been responsible for more serious results. It is only because the American lumbermen have so far had no particular desire to practice forestry that our tax system is not yet open to the charge of preventing the practice of forestry. So far we have been exploiting our forests with little regard for the future. But the present methods cannot last much longer. Before long we shall have to practice forestry. And whenever we are ready to seriously undertake it, we shall find our

methods of taxation a heavy handicap. . . . It has been shown that the general property tax, strictly enforced, is capable of taking away a large part of the income of the forest. It may be objected that in practice the general property tax is not strictly enforced. Forests are actually not taxed on their true value, and this fact should have been recognized in the examples given above. The answer is, first, that it has already been recognized by using a tax rate of 1 per cent., which is equivalent to the present rate on *true value*; and, second, that even if such excessive taxation as has been illustrated is not likely to occur in all, or even in the majority of cases, this does not relieve the situation very much. The mere chance that it may occur in any given case would be enough to frighten the investor.

Investment is more effectually discouraged by uncertainty as to future costs than by anything else; and if to the inevitable risks attendant upon forestry "we add uncertainty as to what the taxes are going to be, we cannot blame investors for hesitating to embark on an enterprise which may have to pay taxes fifty years before the returns begin to come in."

That timberlands should be granted some relief from the general property tax is tacitly admitted in the concessions given to such lands in twelve of our States, including all of the New England States, such concessions being in the shape of exemptions, rebates of part of the taxes, and bounties; but none of these schemes has, in the opinion of Professor Fairchild, touched the real problem of forest taxation.

These laws are based on no sound principles either of forestry or of finance. It is not to be inferred, however, that the failure of these laws to produce important results is wholly due to the defects just described. It is very doubtful whether any law of this character, no matter how scientifically drawn and administered, short of a complete exemption of growing timber, can have any great influence on forests and forestry.

Replying to the question, "What are the principles on which a scientific system of forest taxation should be based?" Professor Fairchild says:

It may be assumed, without much danger of controversy, that taxation should be apportioned according to ability as measured by income. In applying this principle, taxes may be levied either on the actual income when it accrues or on the capital value of the income. If the rates of the income tax and the capital tax bear the proper relation to each other, the results will be identical. For example, if the interest rate is 5 per cent., an income tax of 20 per cent. is equivalent to an annual capital tax of 1 per cent., provided the business is earning a regular annual income.

In the case of forests, we may have either an income tax on the yield whenever any timber is cut or a capital tax on the "expectation value" of the forest based upon all its future expected incomes and expenditures. . . . Obviously the tax on yield when cut may be applied to any forest, whatever the system of management, or even where no systematic management is employed. This method simply takes a certain part of the yield whenever any timber is cut. On the other hand, the tax on expectation value is more complicated. It requires the calculation of present value based on all future expected incomes and expenses. And in the case of the forest with irregular yield it is impossible to apply this method at all, for there is no way of calculating the expectation value.

Besides the question of the rate of interest to be adopted in the calculation of expectant value, there is the question of risk.

All forest investments are decidedly uncertain on account of the risk of fire and other losses. In the case of the tax on expectation value . . . this risk should be taken into

account in determining the rate of interest. But no one can accurately estimate the degree of risk, and even if this were possible, no allowance in the rate of interest would be able to prevent serious injustice being done in individual cases. A forest owner may have been paying taxes for fifty years, only to see the yield at last wiped out by fire.

The element of risk is eliminated in the tax on yield. Further, the tax on yield avoids the necessity of estimating future prices of timber. Then, again,

In certain cases the tax on expectation value might lead to premature cutting. If an owner became financially embarrassed, so that the payment of his annual tax became a matter of difficulty, he might be led to cut immature timber to get money to pay his taxes. The tax on yield would not have this influence.

Thus "both on theoretical and practical grounds the superiority of the tax on yield is established beyond question."

THE WEAK POINTS IN SOME EUROPEAN ARMIES.

EVER since the defeat of Russia's armies by the Generals of Japan there has been much heart-searching, on the part of European military critics, in the matter of European armies and their fitness for the stern test of real war. Particularly severe have been the strictures passed on the French and German military organizations by men of their own nationality.

The strictures made by General Lacroix, "director" of last autumn's great French army maneuvers, upon certain serious defects which they betrayed, has caused an anonymous senator and ex-military officer to enlarge upon the subject in the *Grande Revue* (Paris). How is it, he asks, that such grave lack of instruction exists in the army? Is it owing to the legal limitation of the period of service? No, he replies, for the French soldiers contrive to acquire some of the highest military qualities in their two years' period with the colors; they are well disciplined, enthusiastic, hardy, they drill correctly, and can always adapt themselves to any local or climatic conditions.

But they are not practically trained to fight because most frequently the scene of their exercises is the barrack square, because the varied ground that ought to be the rule is the exception. Our infantry is not up to the proper standard, for two reasons: (1) it does not dispose of enough instruction camps, and (2) it is not commanded with efficiency and assiduity. We have some generals, too happy after win-

ning their stars to care any more about field maneuvers,—if, indeed, they ever did care about them. We have others, more numerous, who could do good work with their troops, but who unfortunately are hindered by local or personal reasons, by the want of suitable territory near the garrison, by administrative details consuming much time, by all kinds of sundry duties that prevent them from getting all their troops together and making them practice as a unit. And then we have a certain number of tired generals, no longer physically fit to command troops in the face of an enemy, yet scandalously allowed to keep their posts through an unpardonable system of comradeship. Last year some members of Parliament who were ex-officers, myself included, publicly complained of the notorious incompetency of a few important chiefs, . . . the Superior Council of War, after an investigation from sentimental motives superannuating only one general out of the three. . . . Apart from grand maneuvers, how many brigade leaders have personally taken out their two regiments for a single day in the year? How many generals of division have ever commanded their division? How many heads of the army corps belonging to the reserve have even once seen all their men assembled under their orders?

What applies to the generals and their staffs also applies to regimental officers. The time of these is too much absorbed by office routine, accounts, and reports; they have too much writing to do, and, besides, they suffer from the aforesaid lack of opportunity to practice with their companies or battalions on such territory as would give them real preparation for war. And the same want of

experience runs through all the lower ranks, down to the private soldier himself.

To these unsatisfactory conditions must be added the slow promotion in the French army, meaning a correspondingly slow increase of pay.

Rigid Restriction of Personal Liberty.

According to a contribution to the *Journal des Sciences Militaires* (Paris), the French officer has further causes for being dissatisfied, since,

In a country where the law is supposed to be the same for all, there lives a large class of people despotically subjected to absurd traditions. At thirty, forty, fifty years of age, the military officer is nothing but a minor under tutelage. . . . He is a sort of select pariah, the prisoner of his dress. He has no private life. . . . He has no right to affirm, by voting, his political and religious convictions. He is not permitted to think aloud. I mean, to write for publication. He is denied the most sacred right of all,—that of marrying whom he chooses.

Briefly stated, when a French officer wishes to take unto himself a wife, he must get the consent of the military authorities. They examine the facts of the case, the woman's character, social standing, fortune, reputation, and decide whether the applicant may marry or not. Disobedience may entail penalties ranging from a reprimand or a month's arrest to stoppage of promotion, or expulsion from the army. Adverse decision is in many cases influenced by petty local gossip, devoid of foundation or by some prejudice, whim, or piece of stupidity even. A young officer wants to marry a seamstress, for instance, who has been earning an honorable living. But how shocking if the ladies of the garrison should have to associate with such a common person! Or an ardent lieutenant has fallen in love with a girl, been carried away by his emotions, and made her a mother; then, wishing to "regularize" her position and legitimize the child, he asks for sanction to marry this girl,—which audacious request is promptly refused in the name of decency and propriety. Thus, concludes this writer, the French officer not only has to forego the exercise of some ordinary civil rights, but is encouraged to gratify his passions in clandestine amours, which through their promiscuity and secrecy, if for no other reasons, must damage his moral value as a man.

Unenviable Status of the German Infantry Officer.

In Germany there seems to be a growing disinclination to serve as infantry officer, and upon this matter the Berlin weekly, the

Gegenwart, has recently published some informative comment. The chief objection to an infantry career is assumed to be in the fact that so many officers are pensioned off at an early age, statistics showing that the average time of retirement is at forty-seven or forty-eight, with the rank of major. The infantry officer receives less pay than either the cavalryman or the engineer, and the latter has the especial advantage over him that after superannuation he is equipped to go on earning a competence in civil life through the utilization of his technical knowledge. It has been set forth, with more or less correctness, that financially an infantry captain of the first-class is not so well off as a district judge. The captain, by the time he is seventy, and has received twenty-five years' active service pay and twenty-five years' pension, has earned professionally altogether about \$13,000 less than the district judge. All of which considerations taken together are scarcely calculated to form an allurements for service in the infantry branch of the German army.

Weak Points of the Turk as a Soldier.

In the *Rivista d'Italia* (Rome) a major-general writes on the Turkish army and its faults. We quote a significant paragraph from this article:

The bravery of the Turkish soldier is beyond dispute. In the latitude of Rome or Cairo the Turk remains a man of the north. Compared to the Chinese, Persians, Arabs, Greeks, all of them nations with keener and more productive minds, the Turks, with their silence and their stolidity,—betokening ignorance,—are however imbued by a sense of obedience, order, regularity, and hence of discipline, which makes them marvelous soldiers in the old acceptation of the word. The Turk's valor is derived from absolute unconsciousness of danger; in his blindness he resembles the lion, with its unbounded daring. Islamism has merely had the effect of strengthening his warlike spirit, impelling him to the boldest and fiercest demonstrations thereof in battles against the infidel, for death in one of those battles appears to him as the glory of martyrdom. But the Turk's intrepidity diminishes when he has to fight his Albanian or Arab coreligionists who may be revolting against the authority of the Sultan, which often happens. The remaining troops composing the army of the Ottoman Empire equal the Turks in point of military qualities; on the other hand, some of the non-Europeans are less loyal to the Sultan, while the Albanians, Kurds, and Circassians, if they do not exhibit the steadfastness and discipline of the Turks, are more intelligent and therefore more immediately responsive. On the whole, taking into account the preponderance of the Turkish element, the Ottoman army would represent an imposing force had it not been tainted with internal ills.

THE INTERESTING DAUGHTERS OF THE RUSSIAN CZAR.

A BRIGHT, chatty paper on the characters and accomplishments of the four princesses of the Russian imperial court appears in a recent issue of the *Girl's Own Paper*. It is by Miss Margaret Eagar, who, for some years, was governess to the quartette of grand-duchesses. Miss Eagar says that Olga is the most intellectual. When she was four years old she learned English and the multiplication table, before she learned Russian. To teach her the latter language, an aged Archbishop was engaged. He came to the governess exclaiming, "The dear child is inspired. I wanted to teach her the multiplication table, and judge my surprise when I found that she knew it already!" The governess explained the natural origin of her proficiency.

When five years old Princess Tatiana had a long illness and was ordered to take beef juice. This she declined to do. She asked who made it. The governess informed her it was the cook, and, learning that it would give the cook great pleasure if she would take the juice that he had made, the Princess had him sent for. He had to confess that it was one of the young cooks that had made this beef juice. He accordingly was summoned, and, "Little cook," she said, "you made me this juice. Well, stand there and see me drink it." She did so, and gave him the empty cup and let him go. The governess told her it was very naughty to give so much trouble. The child replied: "You said it would give him pleasure if I drank it."

Anastasia, the fourth, is said to be the cleverest of them all. At two years and eight months she frame-knitted two mufflers for the soldiers. She calculates results in a somewhat amusing way. Being forbidden to jump off the table on threat of punishment, she climbed on the table. The governess promptly took her off



THE CZAR'S CHILDREN.

(At the foot is the Czarvitch, and above him, in ascending order of age, are the Grand Duchesses Anastasia, Maria, Tatiana, and Olga.)

and tied her in a chair. She was very downcast, and said: "It's better to climb on the table and jump off and get a little slap, than not to climb and jump; but it's better not to climb and jump than to be tied in a chair." Princess Maria, says the

governess, was more remarkable for her goodness than anything else. She also learned very quickly. She has the Royal memory for faces. She has a great determination, and carries through whatever she begins. Of all the children she is the Emperor's favorite.

PERSIA IN EXTREMIS.

DR. E. J. DILLON, whose monthly summaries of foreign affairs in the *Contemporary Review* are always instructive as well as interesting, is no alarmist, nor is he given to pessimism. When, therefore, he speaks of "the general paralysis of Persia," as he does in the March issue of that magazine, one may be tolerably certain that things are in a bad way with the Iranians. From his description of them it would seem, indeed, that they could hardly be worse. He says:

The present state of Persia is well-nigh desperate. The unfortunate people have no government, the Ministers wield no power, the state commands no army, the Shah is devoid of subjects, the cities and towns are left without sufficient police, the soldiers lack ammunition and pay, law is continually disregarded, crime goes unpunished, the property and life of the individual are at the mercy of political adventurers or bloodthirsty bandits, and anarchy comes as near to realization as is compatible with the existence of a loosely jointed community formed of the members of a once highly civilized branch of the human race. Persia's independence and integrity are at the mercy of her neighbors, for she is powerless to protect her frontiers from foreign invasion or to defend her people from internal or external attack.

As a matter of fact, Persia is really not ready for parliamentary government. Mis-governed for thousands of years, as Persia has been, the much-needed change in her political institutions "ought to have been ushered in by a revolution in the social habits of the people."

But time pressed and the conditions could not be altered. And as things now stand parliamentary government seems out of the question, while a return to Absolutism would be fatal, and the elements are lacking which alone could establish a form adapted to Persian needs midway between the two. It may be objected that if parliamentary government be suited to the Turks and Russians it cannot be very harmful to the Persians. And as an abstract thesis this proposition may stand. But one is too apt to forget that in none of the decisive characteristics of a political community does the Persian people resemble the Russians or the Turks.

At the same time it is manifest to all that the

arbitrary sway of a short-sighted, unscrupulous swashbuckler like Mohammed Ali will no longer be brooked by his subjects. And at this no one will repine. Whatever else may happen, that ordeal must be spared them. But the only alternative to absolute monarchy is one in which the ruler's prerogatives are limited by law and the people's share in the government is bounded only by the power of the Crown. But to the proper working of this kind of state machinery certain qualities in the leaders of the nation are essential, such as zeal for the public weal, private integrity, political moderation, and steadfastness of purpose. And for signs of these in the men who are daily thrust in the forefront of Persian politics the bystander looks in vain.

The average foreigner is unable to realize what Persian life is like to-day. Dr. Dillon describes it as

a desert of misery, with a few green oases of prosperity scattered about, a hell into which a Lazarus drops refreshing water now and again. For the masses, who are solicitous about many things, but care nothing for politics, it is a long-drawn-out tragedy. The spectator cannot watch the solemn inanities of the ruling classes, their empty ceremonies and meaningless mummery, without feeling himself in a gallery at a masquerade.

Meanwhile the King 'of Kings' "keeps up all the traditions of the court with scrupulous care." At the reviews of his troops he appears in his pavilion and ascends his throne to the accompaniment of the boom of cannon. "He might have been Xerxes or Cambyses, so conscious did he seem of his power and glory." As for the troops, while

some few of the regiments, the Bakhtiariis for instance, the Luristanis and others, were well dressed, well equipped, and quite ready in appearance to go forth and do battle, the majority were bands of tatterdemalions. Many had their bare feet in worn-out slippers and could not march to the satisfaction of their officers; others were feeble old men, who could hardly hold a rifle, and were incapable of keeping order even at the market. The explanation given of the presence of these ancients among the young soldiers was that the young men, being strong, were sent to till the land while the old ones were dispatched by the village to serve the Shah!

According to the Persians themselves, there is no revolution, but only what they term



THE RUIN OF PERSIAN AGRICULTURE.

(Piles of grain in Urmiah, which cannot be disposed of till the tax rate,—frequently changed,—is known.)

Shoolook, "topsy-turvydom or chaos." While other nations have won their liberty at the risk of their lives and with the expenditure of much blood,

in Persia they do it at less cost; they get their pipes, enter a foreign legation or a holy mosque, and sit down in *Besst*, or sanctuary. There they are inviolable. They then draw up their demands and hand them to the foreign diplomatist to be sent to the Shah. Several thousands of them thus found sanctuary in the British Mission under the late Shah, Muzaffer-ed-Din, and "sat out" the Constitution.

Besst is an institution on the lines of the Biblical cities of refuge.

Debtors who cannot and debtors who will not pay are safe, they and their money, within the hospitable walls of sanctuary. At the present moment the ex-Deputy Speaker of the Medjliss, who is also said to be one of the wealthiest men in the country, Emin-Uss-Zarb, is safely enconced within the precincts of the Russian Mission. Emin is a prosperous merchant, who is alleged to owe, and to have the desire to go on owing, the Russian Bank about 4,000,000 roubles. It is said that *Besst* shields the debtor from all kinds of suits, civil and criminal, and enables him quietly to sell his land and houses, and finally to shake the dust of his fatherland

from his feet. The Constitution of Persia, which was obtained by *Besst* in the foreign mission, is now being fought for by foreigners, mainly Caucasians.

Much light is thrown on the method of action of the revolutionists by a telegram from Resht, dated 13th February, which Dr. Dillon prints:

A crowd of conspirators about 200 strong, consisting mainly of men from the Caucasus, entered Sirdar Khoomayoon's garden, where the Governor, suspecting nothing, was playing cards. They flung a bomb at him, killing him and his partners on the spot. After that the crowd went back to the city, where it demolished the Governor's house, the post office, the telegraph office, and the Courts of Justice by means of hand bombs. They also seized the Arsenal and the heavy guns. They promised the Russian consul, however, that they would respect the lives and belongings of Russian subjects, and also the peaceful natives.

These conspirators then promptly sought sanctuary in the Russian Mission!

And the Shah? His Majesty ordered measures to be taken to punish the revolutionists without delay; thereupon the War Minister dispatched to Resht two field guns on mules' backs!

On the subject of the Anglo-Russian reorganization scheme, Dr. Dillon remarks:

Russia has displayed praiseworthy self-control, and is sincerely desirous of doing the best she can for Persia with the least possible damage to her own interests. And more than this cannot fairly be demanded of her. Two principles underlie her present policy in Persia: non-intervention, carried to the uttermost confines of the possible, and hearty co-operation with Great Britain.

The reorganization scheme devised by M. Izvolsky will not run counter to these two fundamentals. It will presumably consist of a bitter pill for the Shah in the shape of a reform program, and of gilding, represented by a loan, which will be very distasteful to the revolutionists. For without money both parties are like men with their limbs paralyzed, and the revolutionists have the advantage of getting active combatants from abroad. In lieu of forcible intervention there will probably be earnest advice, and perhaps the loan of administrators to

carry it out to good purpose. What is absolutely certain is that neither in form nor in spirit will this or any other scheme be agreed to which is calculated to impair the integrity of the kingdom as that integrity was understood under Muzafered-Din. The greatest danger which these proposals appear to involve lies in the loan. If the Shah receives money from abroad, it is urged, his cause will triumph, and the Constitutionalists will be worsted. And, whatever Russia may do, Great Britain ought not to contribute to bring about the triumph of Absolutism. As a matter of fact, the money, if advanced,—and without money regeneration is inconceivable,—will be so given and spent as to produce the very opposite effect. Another difficulty is offered by the person of the Shah. On the one hand, his people cannot trust him; on the other hand, he can never be sure that behind the Constitutionalists there are not conspirators, consisting mainly of "men from the Caucasus," whose pockets bulge with bomblets. And between these two deadly enemies cordial collaboration is hardly possible.

DARWIN ACCORDING TO HIS SUCCESSORS.

AT the time of Darwin's death, and for nearly a generation afterward, it was generally held that he had "killed the faith of men in an all-ruling Creator."

That Darwin had really placed that faith on a far wider and firmer foundation than those sketched out by Moses, was then only apparent to a few. "That Darwinism made the miracle of Creation infinitely more miraculous, that the new Genesis differed from the old as a modern engineering works differs from a doll-maker's workshop, that his books tended to revive the faith of man in the immanence of a living God is now generally recognized." But it has never, perhaps, been more eloquently set forth, with such cheerful confidence, as it was preached by Alfred Russell Wallace when he addressed the members of the Royal Institution in London upon "The World of Life," on the occasion of the Darwin centenary. His address is published in the *Fortnightly Review*.

After insisting upon the enormous scale upon which Nature works, Dr. Wallace set forth a mass of facts.

Where we observe or experiment with tens or hundreds of individuals, Nature carries on her work with millions and thousands of millions; that, whereas our observations are only intermittent and for short periods, Nature acts perpetually and has so acted throughout all past geological time; and, lastly, that while we are concerned with one or two species at a time, and to a large extent ignorantly and blindly, she acts simultaneously on all living things,—plants as well as animals, that occupy the same area,—

and always in such a way as to preserve every advantageous variation, however slight, in all those which are destined to continue the race and to become, step by step, modified into new species in strict adaptation to the new conditions which are slowly being evolved. The exact adaptation of every species has been brought into existence through the unknown but supremely marvelous powers of Life in strict relation to the great law of Usefulness, which constitutes the fundamental principle of Darwinism.

"SOME DEEPER POWER AND CAUSE."

Having said all this, Dr. Wallace, "to avoid misconception," makes the following significant avowal:

Neither Darwinism nor any other theory in science or philosophy can give more than a secondary explanation of phenomena. Some deeper power or cause always has to be postulated. I have here claimed that the known facts, when fully examined and reasoned out, are adequate to explain the method of organic evolution; yet the underlying fundamental causes are, and will probably ever remain, not only unknown, but even inconceivable by us. The mysterious power we term life, which alone renders possible the production from a few of the chemical elements of such infinite diverse fabrics, will surely never be explained,—as many suppose it will be,—in terms of mere matter and motion. But beyond even these marvels is the yet greater marvel of that ever-present organizing and guiding power, which,—to take a single example,—builds up anew that most wonderful congeries of organs, the bird's covering of feathers.

Every attempt to explain these phenomena,—even Darwin's highly complex and difficult theory of Pangenesis,—utterly breaks down; so

that now, even the extreme monists, such as Haeckel, are driven to the supposition that every ultimate cell is a conscious, intelligent individual, that knows where to go and what to do, goes there and does it! These unavailing efforts to explain the inexplicable, whether in the details of any one living thing, or in the origin of life itself, seem to me to lead us to the irresistible conclusion that beyond and above all terrestrial agencies there is some great source of energy and guidance, which in unknown ways pervades every form of organized life, and of which we ourselves are the ultimate and fore-ordained outcome.

"The Incarnation of Benevolences."

An intimate sketch of Darwin's personality is contributed to the *Cornhill* by Leonard Huxley, son of the famous biologist. Mr. Huxley gives some interesting reminiscences concerning Darwin which are well worth quoting:

I can see in my mind's eye the tall figure muffled in long black cloak and slouch hat, stick in hand, even as portrayed in John Collier's picture in the National Portrait Gallery, tramping so many times, for his allotted exercise, round the "Sandwalk,"—a dry path about a bit of coppice in whose depths the children could play robbers or make picnic fires. I can see him still, silver of hair and big beard, the incarnation of Socratic benevolence, entering the room where the children were gathered round the table, and patting the curliest-headed youngster on the head with the smiling words, "Make yourself at home and take large mouthfuls." No wonder that this especial visit, when a whole family of seven invaded the tranquil, refreshing house, remains a memory distinct and clear beyond later memories of Down and summer days loud with the humming of bees in the flowering limes.

DARWIN'S GREATEST ACHIEVEMENT.

Of the biologist's actual achievement Mr. Huxley says:

Of all the services rendered to his own and future generations by Darwin none, I think, was greater than this: the battle for freedom of thought was fought and won over the "Origin of Species." Freedom of thought, once conceded in the corner of physical science which touched so closely on religious and moral questions, was exercised in other quarters. No longer was it anathema to range beyond an anthropocentric world, to deal as freely with comparative religion as with comparative anatomy, to seek the root and beginnings of the moral faculties among the brutes, to find the secret of original sin, not in the fall of the first man from an imaginary state of primitive innocence, but in the selfish impulses inherited from the ancestral struggle for existence under the cosmic process, and surviving inharmoniously in the altruistic communities founded by man. The progress already made and the reasonable hope of yet further betterment gave a new cast to the idea of human destiny.

Alfred Russell Wallace at Home.

The *Pall Mall Magazine* contains a sketch by Ernest H. Rann of Dr. Alfred Russell Wallace himself at home. Last July was the fiftieth anniversary of the meeting at which



DARWIN IN HIS PRIME.

(From a photograph published for the first time in the February number of the *Open Court*.)

the joint discovery of natural selection by Charles Darwin and Dr. Wallace was made.

The writer tells how fifty-one years ago, at the Island of Ternate, in the Malay Archipelago, Wallace was a young naturalist, stricken with fever, and as he lay on a sick-bed and pondered over the problem of life there flashed upon his mind that Malthus' idea of the checks to increase afforded by war, pestilence, and famine was a self-acting process that would improve the race,—that the weakest would go to the wall and the fittest would survive. He communicated this idea to Charles Darwin,—with results.

Mr. Rann visited the aged naturalist at his home at Broadstone, in Dorsetshire, and says that though the doctor is past his eightieth birthday, his springlike vigor and abounding vitality came with a good deal of surprise.

Despite his great age, his figure still bears traces of his commanding presence. The form

is tall and spare, the shoulders slightly bowed, the head poised with strength and dignity bears the heavy snows of eighty winters. From beneath bushy brows kindly blue eyes look out with alternate flashings of criticism and humor. The aged savant confesses that he was always at work. "As a rule, I manage two hours' work every morning. In the afternoon I take a quiet *doze*, or content myself with watching the

harbor. In the evening I am ready for another spell of writing or study."

Dr. Wallace reaffirmed his faith in Spiritualism. Scientific men are not so materialistic as they were half a century ago. He said, "They are only coming round to accept the possibility of what we know."

BRAZIL'S GREAT BOOM IN DIAMOND MINING.

THERE is good news for the wearers of diamonds. The remarkable output of the South African mines, approximating \$700,000,000 during the thirty-eight years that they have been worked; the marvelous size of some of the stones produced, culminating in the Cullinan, which weighed in the rough 3025¼ English carats, or more than 1 pound 6 ounces avoirdupois, and was presented by the Transvaal Government to King Edward; the romantic history of the Kimberley "diggings," with its inseparable glamor of fortunes made and of apparently limitless wealth awaiting discovery,—all this has diverted public attention from the fact that on the South American continent are to be found diamonds 50 per cent., on the average, purer than those of Africa, in equally great profusion, and at a less cost than in the fields of the Transvaal. Brazil held the supremacy in diamond production for one hundred and forty-three years, from 1728 to 1871, when the accidental discovery of the precious stone near the lower part of the Vaal River transferred the center of diamond-mining to South Africa. Now comes the intelligence that "Brazil will soon recover her former supremacy as the principal diamond producer of the world." This information is furnished by Consul-General Anderson of Rio de Janeiro and forms the subject of an article in the February issue of the *Bulletin* of the International Bureau of the American Republics. He reports

that great changes are already taking place in the diamond-mining of the Republic [Brazil], due especially to the fact that American capital has obtained possession of practically all of the diamond-bearing territory in the finest Brazilian region, known as the "Diamantina country." Modern dredging machinery has already been installed along the Jequitinhonha River, in the State of Minas Geraes, an innovation which, in Mr. Anderson's judgment, signifies that "a revolution in the mining industry of the diamond district of Brazil is practically effected, which will probably revolutionize the diamond markets of the world."

As regards the diamantiferous deposits, conditions in Brazil differ entirely from those in Africa.

The gravel, sand, and other material containing diamonds lie in or near the beds of streams and rivers, and have been washed down by erosion from high "chapadas" or plateaus, which are probably the original matrix in which Brazilian diamonds were formed. As is natural, gold and a variety of other substances, such as itacolumbite, olivine, limestone, hematite, granite, gneiss, and clay are associated with the diamonds. The diamond-bearing material of Brazil consists of a conglomerate, sometimes interbedded with hard yellow sandstone, which is washed down through erosion by rivers, or, in some cases, may be badly decomposed and rotten rock. Fossils are generally lacking. The deposits often consist of schists and schistose clay, diamond-bearing clays, reddish earth, granitic and gneissic formations, and pebbles of various sorts.

The Brazilian diamond-bearing deposits so far discovered are alluvial and surface, and they possess many natural advantages over the diamantiferous fields of South Africa, which are "dry diggings," requiring the most expensive processes and machinery and every device that human ingenuity can invent for the successful extraction of diamonds. In Brazil, on the other hand, the diamonds concealed can be easily extracted by means of hydraulic and dredging apparatus. A network of rivers and streams affords an unfailing and copious water supply and power. There is no deep mining to be done, as is the case in South Africa. Only a very small portion of the probable total Brazilian alluvium has been explored, and the river gravels, except in the reaches of only moderate depth, are untouched. Moreover, these gravels in many cases carry enough gold to pay for dredging, and even platinum may be found.

The Brazilian States which have hitherto yielded diamonds are Bahia, Goyaz, Matto Grosso, Minas Geraes, and Parana. Diamantina, famous for the rich diamond mines in its vicinity, is situated in Minas Geraes.

The city is well built, and lies at the headwaters of the Jequitinhonha, or Diamond, River, a stream 350 miles long, which empties into the Atlantic at Belmonte. . . . The mines are situated north of Rio de Janeiro, 497 miles. . . .



INTERIOR VIEW OF ONE OF THE DIAMOND-CUTTING ESTABLISHMENTS AT DIAMANTINA.

To reach Diamantina one has to take a mule train trip for three to four days or, by another route, a more troublesome journey "in rough stages and wagons."

The native mining methods are of two kinds.

The first of these somewhat resembles placer gold washing. The process consists primarily in digging out sand and gravel, which are put into small wooden bowls, each capable of holding ten or eight pounds. The native miners then proceed in Indian file with their loads to some convenient part of a river or stream, where they laboriously wash out their material, gradually getting rid of all lighter particles and debris, until the hidden diamonds reveal themselves through their weight and peculiar luster.

Where diamonds are imbedded in conglomerates, a small reservoir or, if necessary, two or three reservoirs, are built, rude dams are placed across the nearest available river, and with the increased water power thus obtained the conglomerates are washed down a ravine to the desired lower level, where the process of further diamond extraction may be continued.

Notwithstanding their primitiveness, these methods have yielded a total of twelve million carats, or two and a half metric tons, of diamonds. For 1906 the export value of diamonds from Brazil was conservatively placed at about \$5,000,000.

Not in facility of extraction only, but in the nature of the product also, does Brazil have the advantage over South Africa. As has been mentioned above, the quality of the ordinary diamond of the jewelers, found in Brazil, is purer in proportion than that of Kimberley. Among the larger Brazilian stones of this kind have been the "Regent of Portugal," weighing 215 carats, now among the French jewels in the Paris Museum; the "Star of the South," 254½ carats, bought by the ex-Gaikwar of Baroda in 1881 for \$400,000; and a stone, found in Dos Dourados in the spring of 1908, almost equal in weight to the Cullinan diamond, and of the first water. But besides the "white" diamond there is the black variety known as "carbonado" or "borts," and of this Brazil has "practically a monopoly of the world's supply." This is used solely for commercial and industrial purposes, and is one of the hardest substances known.

Carbonado was first successfully used by the French engineer Lehot in the drills for boring holes for blasting in the St. Gothard tunnel. At present it is largely employed in diamond drilling. . . . With its aid the most resistant and the hardest rocks may be pierced.

It is estimated that Bahia ships annually

about \$4,500,000 worth of "black" diamonds; and with the adoption of modern machinery and methods the output will be enormously increased. Some immense stones of this kind have been mined. To quote from the article again:

About twenty-five years ago a stone of 1100 carats was found, followed by one of 1700 carats; and in 1905 a gigantic stone of 3078 carats, or 615 grams, was discovered, which was purchased by a New York house for \$32,000, and broken up into pieces of suitable size for diamond drills. At present prices this stone

would be worth about \$262,000. . . . Between 1895 and the present, the market value of carbonado has fluctuated between \$25 and \$85 a carat.

The *Bulletin* predicts that, if equal "capital, ability, resourcefulness, energy, endurance, and perseverance are employed as have been steadily applied" in South Africa, the exportation of diamonds from Brazil will within ten years or less "far exceed all that Africa has been able to produce in more than a generation."

THE RAILWAY THROUGH THE ANDES.

A RIDE in well-appointed railway cars, instead of a voyage in indifferently fitted steamships; a journey of thirty-eight hours through some of the finest mountain scenery in the world, instead of a tedious passage of ten days by way of Cape Horn or through the Straits of Magellan,—this is what the citizens of Buenos Aires and Valparaiso are promised in March, 1911; and there is every reason to believe that their hopes will be realized. The completion of what is known as the Transandine Railway will not only mark the accomplishment of a remarkable feat of engineering, but, to quote from an article in the *Bulletin* of the International Bureau of the American Republics, it will be "an event of transcendent importance in the industrial and commercial evolution of the world."

The beginnings of this railway date back nearly half a century. In 1860 William Wainwright prepared for the Royal Geographical Society of London a scheme for a Transandine railroad from the Argentine port of Rosario, 189 miles above Buenos Aires, over the pass of San Francisco into Chile, with a Pacific terminus about 10 degrees above Valparaiso. It was not, however, till thirteen years later that any practical steps to connect Buenos Aires with Valparaiso by rail were taken. In 1873 two brothers, John and Matthew Clark, were granted by the Argentine Government a concession to build a railway from the first-named city across the Argentine Republic to the Argentine-Chilean frontier in the Cordillera of the Andes. There was much discussion as to the route to be chosen, but "the decision was finally reached that the principal goal to be attained was to establish railroad connection between Buenos

Aires and Valparaiso by the shortest route that should be found available."

These two great South American seaports lie almost on the same parallel of latitude. The line would therefore extend almost due west and traverse the level pampas or prairie region as far as the city of Mendoza, which lies at the foot of the eastern slope of the Argentine-Chilean Cordillera of the Andes. Here, starting with an elevation of 2359 feet, the 113 miles of the Transandine portion of the railroad would begin, and, following closely the old historic mountain trail of the "Camino de los Andes," would ascend the Cordillera toward the summit of the Cumbre Pass, which is 12,605 feet above sea-level. Here operations on the Argentine side would cease.

The government of Chile, it was expected, would co-operate in the construction of the railway by causing operations to be commenced at the town of Santa Rosa de los Andes, which is 2625 feet above sea-level, and carrying the rail up the western slope of the Cordillera, until the Chilean section of the culminating tunnel through the Cumbre Pass should be perforated and should connect with the Argentine section. This accomplished, the Transandine section of the transcontinental railway would be completed, and it would be an easy matter to connect at Los Andes with the existing Chilean railroad, 78 miles long, between that point and Valparaiso.

What the railway would mean to the inhabitants of the two republics may be gathered from the fact that even in the open season, from November to April inclusive,—the spring and summer in that region,—the journey over the 109 miles of the Cordillera has had to be undertaken on foot or on mule-back, and has been attended with much discomfort and difficulty. In midwinter,—August and September,—"it is almost impossible, owing to the terrific storms and to the blocking of the passes by tremendous snowdrifts and avalanches."

The *Bulletin* gives some interesting details



AN AVALANCHE SHED ON THE TRANSANDINE LINE.

of the work of construction. For the Andine and Cordillera region the gauge of 3.28 feet was adopted as being the most suitable; and for the portion of the road leading up to the summit of the Cumbre Pass the "Abt system" of cogs and racks must be used "for the safe running of the trains." The first link in the transcontinental line was built by the Argentine Government in 1880, from Villa Mercedes to Mendoza, a distance of 222 miles; in 1883 the Clark Brothers constructed the section from Buenos Aires to Villa Mercedes, 428 miles; by 1893 a British company, which had taken over the Clarks' rights, had completed the line to Punta de Vacas, a length of 98 miles. On the Chilean side the works were carried up to the Salto del Soldado, 17 miles from Los Andes, leaving 45 miles of the Transandine division to be built in 1903. In February, 1903, the Republic of Chile passed a law

authorizing the construction of the railway from Los Andes to the summit of the Cordillera, there to join the railway of the same gauge (1.09 yards) from Mendoza. As stated above, the completion of the line is promised for 1911, the contract for the Chilean work having been awarded in December, 1903, to the firm of W. R. Grace & Co., of New York. The closing section of the work now in progress is the most difficult, including as it does the boring of tunnels at the summit of the Cumbre Pass, 12,605 feet above sea-level. If completed in 1911, the entire line will have occupied thirty-seven years in construction.

The enterprise shown by the Chilean Government in regard to the new railway is in keeping with the spirit of progress exhibited by the capital city, Santiago, an account of which appears in the same number of the *Bulletin*. The citizen of Buenos Aires will

be able to proceed by rail to the Chilean capital with but a single change of cars, Valparaiso being already connected by rail with Santiago. The latter city was founded by Pedro de Valdivia, who named it after the patron saint of Spain. Since 1872 the improvement of Santiago has been continuous. Where fifty years ago were ill-kept thoroughfares are to-day broad avenues 350 feet wide and three miles long. The eminence of Santa Lucia, which rises out of the heart of the city and on which Pedro established

his stronghold, was for 400 years a mere unsightly rock. To-day it has been transformed into a beautiful park, the expense of transformation having been borne not alone by the government and municipality, but by private contribution also. Santiago has a municipal theater, "one of the best in America," an astronomical observatory, a national conservatory of music, schools of art and trade, and, to crown all, its university, whose school of medicine is celebrated throughout the Latin Americas.

EARTHQUAKES: PREDICTIONS AND SAFEGUARDS.

FALB'S theory,—an extension of that of Perrey,—that the sun and moon, exercising a joint influence on the atmosphere and on the molten material beneath the earth's surface, produced earthquakes, obtained widespread notice at one time. That theory, asserts a writer in the *Deutsche Revue*, is to-day well-nigh forgotten; and the "critical days" upon which Falb based his frequent prophecies of seismic disturbances are given scant attention, since seismology has taught us that earthquakes that are of volcanic origin are comparatively rare and insignificant, most of them being caused by displacements of portions of the earth's crust, and being, therefore, termed tectonic, or shocks of dislocation.

In Falb's day the question, in the case of any considerable convulsion, whether it coincided with the time of his prediction was closely investigated, and in regions subject to seismic upheavals his "critical days" were anxiously apprehended. From such baseless anxiety seismology has, it is true, freed us, but up to the present it has been unable to substitute anything better for Falb's theory; although the hope has not been abandoned by eminent seismologists that the further development of their science will lead to success in the field of forecasts, also.

The movements of the earth's crust are to-day followed by an international geodynamic corps, provided with numerous earthquake-observatories equipped with sensitive, self-registering apparatus. Greater "catastrophic" upheavals are recorded in the observatories of all countries. These diagrams indicate not only the original location of the outbreak but of its further spread, thus giving color to conclusions, which before were merely suppositions, as to the cup-

like shape and the denser consistency of the central mass of the earth's interior.

It is now hoped,—a hope recently expressed by Professor Belar, director of the Leibach Observatory,—that observatories, being provided with still more sensitive apparatus, will be enabled to issue warnings of impending earthquakes.

This hope is based upon the fact that great shocks are generally preceded by feebler tremors, which are not noted as a rule, or noted only by animals endowed with finer senses. Even from gray antiquity we have numerous accounts of many animals being sensible of earth-shocks sooner than man,—able, therefore, to serve as warning prophets. Before the destruction of Talcahuano by the Chilean earthquake of February 20, 1835, all the dogs fled the city, while the inhabitants of Concepción, which was likewise destroyed, noted with surprise, two hours before the catastrophe, that great flocks of sea-birds flew landward. The famous seismologist, John Milne, cites concurrent observations made in Japan regarding the horse,—the only possible explanation being that the animal is more sensitive than man to the slight tremor which generally precedes great convulsions. It is comprehensible, therefore, why,—according to H. E. Warner's account,—the people of Caracas, often visited by earthquakes, keep dogs and cats to warn them of danger.

It may be that the expectations of Professor Belar will be fulfilled; however, it is doubtful whether the geo-dynamic observatories will within a calculable time be enabled to issue "earthquake-warnings" as reliable as are the storm-warnings of the meteorological corps. As to basing predictions upon the alleged relation of seismic phenomena to terrestrial magnetism, the matter is still more doubtful.

J. Milne, who has made a searching investigation of the question, explains the fact that some places are more subject to the influence of

magnetism, others less, and still others, not at all, by the assumption of the existence of a layer of molten magnetic matter, at varying distances below the earth's surface, localities lying closest to such matter being those most influenced magnetically. Should the connection between earthquakes and magnetic disturbances be established, predictions based upon the latter would, even if only for certain regions, be made possible.

One familiar with the history of earthquakes in Lower Italy, particularly he who compares the accounts of the present catastrophe with those of 1783,—one almost as disastrous,—must, sad to say, conclude that now, likewise, the after-tremors will be of long duration, and sufficiently violent to cause havoc for weeks, nay months, to come.

What is to be particularly feared is that, as in 1783, the point of disturbance may be shifted to the earthquake zone on the slopes of the Tyrrhenian Sea, and ravage hitherto less afflicted spots.

The reconstruction of the localities destroyed on December 28 last offers a problem difficult of solution, despite the admirable spirit of willing sacrifice on the part of the Italian nation, and the praiseworthy succor of all the other civilized lands.

It were well if Professor Portis' suggestions in the Roman *Tribuna* would be duly followed. He extols the laudable rivalry in charity of the Italian towns, but believes that generosity alone avails nothing, if restricted to alms. In Calabria and Sicily good schools are the greatest necessity to wake the dawning mind to the fact that in regions visited by earthquakes buildings must be differently constructed from what they have hitherto been. The rich literature treating of the effects produced by proper architecture upon the action of earthquakes entirely bears out Professor Portis in his contention. The early Romans had regard, in building, to the earthquakes which frequently endangered certain parts of Italy. Unfortunately in the very section of lower Italy, most exposed to such visitations, no adequate attention has been given to the only effective means of protection against the dangers with which they are fraught.

In another land, Japan, still more exposed to shocks, buildings tremor-proof to a high degree have long since been erected. The Japanese "Earthquake Investigation Committee" recently constructed models of earthquake-proof wooden buildings, while artificial shocks of varying intensity were used to test the resisting power of brick walling. Japan is a country not only where observations and explanations of seismic phenomena have made the most rapid strides, but it is our master in the practical question of the erection of tremor-proof buildings as well.

The rule that holds for our European architecture, that buildings are endangered in proportion to their height, finds its contradiction in Japan. The tall, five-story pagodas, termed Gogunoto, have suffered so slightly from shocks that the people believe they are constructed according to some peculiar, mysterious method. The key of the puzzle, however, is simply that the various parts of the high structure are so firmly knit together that, in encountering a shock, it acts as a homogeneous body. Experiences of the same nature were had in the gigantic upheaval which ravaged San Francisco.

Dr. Hoernes had occasion to note how beneficial it is in a region subject to seismic disturbances to build in conformity with its needs. The wooden structures, often barrack-like and poverty-stricken buildings *à la Turca*, remained almost intact, while solidly built masonry *à la Franca*, was completely demolished. We may confidently expect that the Italian Government will, in the rebuilding of the devastated towns, see to it that heed be given to the oft-repeated warnings, and the buildings be made as earthquake-proof as possible.

It were desirable, concludes the German review writer, that other Mediterranean regions, also, which are but little more secure from earthquakes than lower Italy, should take the awful lesson to heart. Other portions, too, are extensions of their domain geologically young, created by submersions which still continue. The *Ægean* Sea, the northern part of the Adriatic, offers examples. Only in geologically recent times has Sicily, by such submersion, been separated from Africa; the Balearic Islands, from Spain. We might contemplate this gradual breaking up of a portion of the earth's crust with more steadfast courage if proper architectural precautions were taken in such localities, that earthquakes should not occasion the unutterable ruin that has recently befallen Sicily and Calabria.

The Future of the Earth, as Told by Seismology.

In an article on the future of the earth, in *L'Illustration* (Paris), the Abbé Moreux says, speaking of Europe in particular: "When the terrestrial crust has become too thick to fold over during the periodical oscillations of the earth, what will become of our globe?" Answering his own question, he continues:

When the pressures on the internal nucleus are felt perpetually, what will be the effect of the action of the gases compressed in the immense reservoir from which we are separated only by a thin surface of earth? This planet



RELIEF MAP OF EUROPE AS IT IS TO-DAY AND AS THE EARTHQUAKES OF THE FUTURE MAY CHANGE IT.

(These charts, constructed by the Abbé Moreux, indicate the condition of the European continent to-day and hypothetically what it will be when the almost certain seismological changes of the early future have taken place.)

will be subjected to appalling convulsions. The astronomer's glass shows the racked and distorted face of our dark satellite. It is probable that what we see on the moon,—the desolation, the chaotic and melancholy record of an unknown past in ruin,—is testimony to the fact of a mighty and destructive work done at the time when volcanic action through convulsions of awful agony put an end to all planetary life. Happily for man, that time is far away, as far as the planet is concerned. But there are other dangers, and they are near.

What has time in reserve for the fair land of France? asks this student.

Our writers assure the Parisians that they may rest in the assured stability of their boulevards; but I am far from sharing such an opinion. France lies close to a line of what we call the grand fracture; the volcanoes of Auvergne show that. The seismograph incessantly registers shocks from Belgium to Nice. It is evident that the plateau is not favorable to seisms, but of what importance is a plateau of six or seven hundred miles in the vast extent of the earth's surface? On the other hand, France is very near the Mediterranean depression, and the folds of the Alps,—which rest upon one of the crests of the terrestrial pyramid from Norway to Abyssinia,—do not date very far back. Is there on earth a geologist who would dare affirm that the folding-over process is complete? Who can say that it is not still going on? I have every reason for believing that the awakening of our volcanoes will be terrible. The contraction begun in the east of France cannot fail to be accentuated. When the time comes our Mediterranean coasts will be the first to sink; then from the Mediterranean to the English Channel there will be nothing but the wild, eternal sea. When our land is thus transformed the extinct volcanoes of the central plateau will, in their own way, warn men that the earth is stable only in name.

Of all the phenomena best agreeing with the periodical distribution of earthquakes,

says this writer, atmospherical electricity holds the first place.

Great electrical and magnetical manifestations are due to the sun, and they seem to be closely connected with seismic phenomena. The sun plays an important part in the periodicity of earthquakes and volcanic eruptions. The eruptions are most frequent when the sun is least active. We know that solar activity is at the minimum every eleventh year. Earthquakes follow another rule, or, rather, they are governed by a different law. Their cause is not the cause of volcanic eruptions. They are manifest oftenest when the solar activity changes, when it either increases or diminishes. Knowledge of this rule enabled us to predict the last earthquake. From this time onward the seismic manifestation will diminish gradually until 1911-1912, when it will progressively increase. Every one is familiar with the Leyden jar, but not every one knows that the volume of power varies in proportion to the charge. By charging the external armor or shield, represented by a sheet of zinc, the volume is increased; it diminishes as the charge is lessened. The earth's atmosphere represents the external armor. The internal shield is represented by the magma formed chiefly by liquid iron or by steam. The electric charge of the atmosphere is subject to three diurnal changes,—morning, noon, and afternoon. Earthquakes also have a diurnal variation. They are more frequent in the night and in the morning. If the electricity increases dilation immediately takes place. Generally the electric charge diminishes in winter and increases in summer. The two phenomena are closely connected.

It has been conclusively proven, concludes the French writer, that the earth quakes incessantly, indeed the seismograph registers approximately 30,000 shocks every year. The seismologist, therefore, has only to consider the significant or more important shocks in calculating the periodicity of earthquakes.

AN AMERICAN THEATER FOR OPERA IN ENGLISH.

READERS of the REVIEW will recollect that in our issue of December last we printed an article by Mr. Arthur Farwell, founder of the American Music Society, on "The National Movement for American Music," in which he mentioned the fact that the perusal of a work on "Indian Story and Song from North America" had led him to see that "here was an opportunity to start out afresh, unhampered by tradition and over-refinement, and do something which should be musically expressive of the United States of America." This was in 1899. In 1905, as the result of Mr. Farwell's efforts, the American Music Society was founded, of which he is the national president. Of the New York center of the Society Mr. David Bispham, the well-known vocalist, is the president; and in the March *Craftsman* he writes on "The American Idea in Music, and Some Other Ideas." Mr. Bispham believes "that in our midst there is about to spring forth a wonderful crop, not only of lovers and performers of music of the highest sort, but of producers of music of an advanced nature."

This, for want of a better way of expressing ourselves, must be called American music, by whomsoever composed upon these shores. While there may be no such thing as British art or American music in itself, at least these are among the varieties of art and of music known to the civilized world. We speak of Slavonic music, we speak of Italian music, we speak of music of various schools, and there is no reason why American music should not bear its name gracefully and without cavil.

The output of American music has so far been relatively small; and Mr. Bispham can not think

that with the many schools, colleges, and conservatories of music scattered up and down our land, that among the thousands of pupils who yearly enter and are graduated from such institutions, there are not far greater results than any one has as yet been aware of.

Is it possible for students to go abroad and work under the best masters year after year and return to our country barren of results? Is it possible to believe that of the thousands of educated and cultured persons of both sexes who are studying in this country, all their efforts have come to naught? Is it possible that the good done by the innumerable musical clubs up and down our land has resulted in nothing better than listening to well-known artists perform music by foreigners? I cannot believe it. It is, on the contrary, a fact that we have a keenly intelligent and enormous music-loving public, and from among these it is more than likely that hundreds of fine compositions have been written, produced only in private, submitted to



MR. ARTHUR FARWELL, COMPOSER, AND FOUNDER OF THE AMERICAN MUSIC SOCIETY.

publishers,—and rejected, to return to the dust of the study shelf. Operas, oratorios, chamber music, songs of a more extensive character and lofty thought, piano and violin compositions are known to exist, and I am assured that were they brought forward and placed before able executors the moment would be found to be opportune, the time propitious, and that many of such works would immediately find a hearing.

The encouragement of the American composer and "the discovery of fine music by natives of this country or those resident among us" is one of the objects of the American Music Society. Mr. Bispham finds that, while orchestral, chamber, and choral music are not being neglected by our composers, the ideas of the public "are more rapidly crystallizing about grand opera than about other musical forms" and that there is a widespread demand that many of these works should be presented in English instead of in foreign tongues. He therefore advocates the erection in New York of a building specifically devoted to such a purpose; and as to the scope of the productions to be given therein he writes as follows:

In this theater should be produced all operas upon English subjects, such as "Martha" and

Goldmark's "Cricket on the Hearth," with such operas as used to be heard here exclusively in the English language, "Mignon," "Lakmé," and others of a similar nature. I would have all operas which had English stories for their foundation well translated and sung in the vernacular, among them Verdi's "Otello" and "Falstaff," Nicolai's "Merry Wives of Windsor," Goetz's "Taming of the Shrew," Ambroise Thomas' "Hamlet," Gounod's "Romeo and Juliet," and to these Shakespearian texts I would add such a beautiful work as "Much Ado About Nothing," by the English composer, Villiers Stanford, whose charming light opera "Shamus O'Brien" and others from his pen should not be neglected. I would produce works by Cowen, Mackenzie, McCunn and MacLean, unknown as yet in this country, but heard in England and abroad. I would certainly produce Goring Thomas' romantic operas "Esmeralda" and "Nadeshda," and Sir Arthur Sullivan's grand opera "Ivanhoe," and lighter operas of the English school of the former generation, as "The Bohemian Girl," "Maritana," and "The Lily of Killarney." There are also many stories which have been set to music, such as "The Pied Piper of Hamelin," by Nessler, which I am confident would find its way quickly into the hearts of our music lovers if rendered in the vernacular. And I would produce that exquisite work "Oberon," by Weber, which, though it is not generally known, was originally written to an English libretto, for performance upon the stage of Covent Garden Theater. I would have freshly translated into English, in the light of such experience as we have had, all of Wagner's texts, in order that these superb works might be more fully intelligible than they have heretofore been. England has just again demonstrated the possibility of their success under the baton of no less a master than Hans Richter. . . . I would see operas of the older English school produced . . . all the best of Mozart's works, operas of the classic French repertoire . . . and a host of other delightful

works by Russian, English, and Italian composers unknown to this generation.

Last, but not least, I would encourage our own composers by producing such works as exist from American pens, foremost among them Professor Paine's "Azara," Walter Damrosch's "Scarlet Letter," and "Cyrano," the latter in manuscript for six years, ready, yet deliberately ignored by the powers that were and that be. . .

As to the talent requisite for the production of these and many other works that he enumerates, Mr. Bispham believes there would be no difficulty in securing it; for directly

the news went abroad that such a company was in formation there would be available no lack whatever of the very finest talent for beautiful presentations of everything that might be required.

At such cities as guaranteed the necessary support an orchestra and opera chorus would be established; and the parent body in New York would supply the requisite scenery and costumes for the performance of a limited number of favorite works; also there would be a rotation, from the metropolis to the various centers, of the principal singers required for the leading rôles.

In carrying out the scheme it is proposed to adopt the broadest policy. Thus

upon afternoons and evenings, in an auditorium provided for the purpose, there should be concerts of chamber music and miscellaneous concerts, along with performances on Sundays of orchestral works and oratorios, with the avowed object of producing as often as possible, in conjunction with masterpieces of other nations, the carefully selected works of our own most talented composers.

PITTSBURG'S ARMY OF WAGE-WORKERS.

GIGANTIC in its creation of wealth, titanic in its contests for the division of wealth, Pittsburg looms up as the mighty storm mountain of Capital and Labor. Here our modern world achieves its grandest triumph and faces its gravest problem.

In these words Prof. John R. Commons characterizes the "Iron City" in *Charities* for March 6. Professor Commons' article is one of the third and concluding series of the "Pittsburg Survey," undertaken by the Russell Sage Foundation; and the *Charities* Publication Committee, by whom the "Survey" is published, is to be congratulated, we think, on what they themselves justly describe as "the most careful and detailed study of life and labor ever made in this country."

Considering the whole of Allegheny County as "homogeneous in an economic sense, and corresponding roughly to what is termed the Pittsburg District, in 1907 this Greater Pittsburg had a population of about 1,000,000, of whom the wage-earners were approximately 250,000, employed in 3000 establishments. As fundamental to his investigation of existing labor conditions, the *Charities* writer propounds these two questions: "How do these wage-earners fare in the division of products derived from these magnificent resources?" and "What is their share and how do they get it?" Of this great tide of human toilers he says:

First, there is, everywhere, the great ocean of common labor,—unprivileged, competitive, equal-

ized. Above this expanse, here and there for a time, appear the waves and wavelets of those whom skill, physique, talent, trade-unionism, or municipal favoritism lifts above the fluid mass.

The first noteworthy discovery made is the unstability of this laboring mass. "Up, down, and on, like the ocean, so is the labor of Pittsburg." The managers of a large machine works stated that in the prosperous year 1906, to keep up a force of 10,000, they hired no fewer than 21,000 men and women. A mining superintendent asserted that, to maintain his force of 1000, he had found it necessary to hire 5000. "What are we to infer?" asks Mr. Commons.

Seemingly the economist's hypothesis of the immobility of labor compared with the mobility of capital is almost reversed within the Pittsburg district. The human stream from Europe and America whirls and eddies through the deep-cut valleys of the Monongahela, the Allegheny, the Ohio, like the converging rivers themselves. But the ponderous furnaces and mills remain fixed like the hills. Is it the climate, the fog, and the smoke? Is it the difficulty of finding homes and the cost of housing and living? Yes, answers my employment bureau, which has made a careful study of its own peculiarly ill situation. Is it the defeat and exclusion of trade-unionism, which in other places make for stability and the right of priority for the man who has longest held the job? No; neither the inflow nor outflow of organized mine-workers is appreciably less than that of unorganized machine-workers or steel-workers. Is it low wages and long hours? No, answer the mine-workers again. Is it specialization, speeding up to over-exertion? Yes, very largely. These are both cause and effect of excessive restlessness. By minute specialization of jobs, by army-like organization, by keeping together a staff of highly paid regulars at the top, the industries of Pittsburg are independent of the rank and file. Two-thirds of the steel-workers are unskilled, and thousands are dumb as horses in their ignorance of English, if we may judge by the kind of "Gee!" "Whoa!" and gestures that suffice for commands. Specialization, elimination of skill, payment by the piece or premium, speeding up, these are necessarily the aims and methods of Pittsburg business, that turns out tons of shapes for the skillful workers of other cities to put into finished products. . . . Enormous rewards for brains, overseers, managers, foremen, bosses, "pushers," and gang-leaders; remarkable pressure toward equality of wages among the restless, movable, competitive rank and file,—these are the results in distribution of Pittsburg's supremacy in the production of wealth.

It is impossible here to follow Mr. Commons through his exhaustive investigation of all the many trades in Pittsburg. What strikes one as the most notable feature of his reports is the lack of unanimity in the matter of organization. He found that "in the fac-



Photograph by Lewis W. Hine.

A PITTSBURG STEEL WORKER. (AMERICAN.)

ories and on the railways the Slav and the Italian fill the ranks of common labor; it is among the teamsters that the Negro finds his congenial job." His observations on the mine-workers and the steel-workers, representing the two industries employing the largest numbers of men in Allegheny County, are especially interesting. It appears that there are about 20,000 mine-workers and 70,000 steel-workers in the county, the proportion of skilled and unskilled in each of these totals being about the same. In the mines the men work eight hours a day without Sunday work; the steel-workers, twelve hours, with considerable Sunday labor. In the mines the common laborer receives \$2.36 per day of eight hours, while Slavs of a similar class in the mills are paid \$1.80 for twelve hours. The bar and guide mill rollers in the mills, to whose work there is no corresponding position in the mines, are paid \$10 to \$16 a day of twelve hours, and the plate and structural mill rollers earn \$7 to \$8 a day. These men, however, are practically foremen. Comparing the mine-workers with their fellows in the mills, Mr. Commons remarks:

In another respect the mine-worker's position is superior. The houses in which he lives, many of them belonging to the company, are

quite convenient, with open spaces, and the rentals about \$2 per room as against \$4 paid by the mill-worker. Taking everything into account . . . I should say that common laborers in the mines are fifty to ninety per cent. better off than the same grade of laborers in the mills and furnaces; the semi-skilled laborers employed at piece rates are forty to fifty per cent. better off in the mines; and that the highest paid laborers, the steel roller and the mine-worker are about on a footing.

In regard to unionism, the experience of the two industries has been totally different.

Prior to the Homestead strike of 1892, the steel industry was dominated by the Amalga-

mated Association of Iron, Steel, and Tin Workers. . . . The situation was such that . . . for the sake of both the manufacturer and the laborer, the union, which had overreached itself, and was headstrong in its power, had to be whipped and thrown out. Since that time the manufacturers have gone to as mad an extreme in bearing down on the employees as the employees had previously gone in throttling the employer.

Contrast this with the history of the mine-workers, a body of men of the same general intelligence as the steel-workers. With a national union able and willing to discipline its local unions, the leading coal operators assert that they can carry on their business to better advantage with the union than without.

CARAN D'ACHE, A PIONEER OF THE COMIC SUPPLEMENT.

NOT all truly modern Americans (meaning the great newspaper reading class) know that the late Caran d'Ache was one of the progenitors of the comic newspaper supplement. It is, nevertheless, true that this artist and caricaturist of French parentage, but Russian birth and training shares with the German Wilhelm Busch the honor of

originating the telling of a funny story in a succession of pictures with a minimum of text. The modern colored newspaper supplement, with its alleged funny stories, invariably presents the succession of pictures, but, alas, the fun is too often conspicuous by its absence. In Caran d'Ache's work the idea was always present. In an editorial on the human value of this artist's work, the *New York Nation* says:

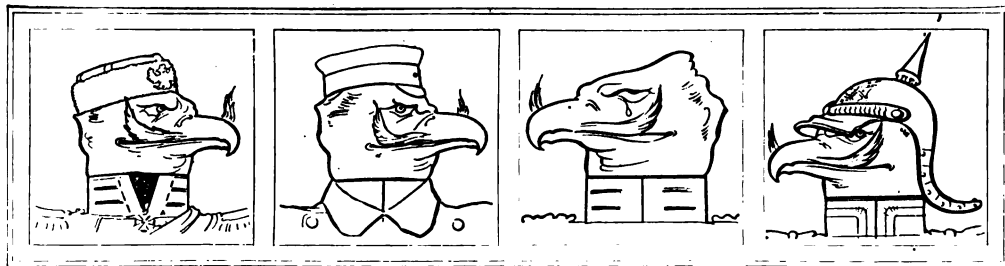
He developed his own conceptions of what the human figure ought to be in the hands of the caricaturist. There were the skeleton pictures in which a man, like an island, was a certain portion of white space bounded by a single line. There were the clear-cut marionette-like figures, in which the same sharpness of line was prominent. There were, finally, the mere circles and cylinders and sacks and flaccid puddings to which a dot here and a stroke there would give an amazingly human aspect. Of American cartoonists, the late F. M. Howarth, with his animated chubby little gingerbread figures, came nearest perhaps to this style of caricature.

But Caran d'Ache did some highly effective political satire as well as social satire and fine comedy. In his political cartoons there is a good deal of the same mannikin physiology that we find in his comic series. There is also a good deal more light-hearted fun than European artists are accustomed to put into their cartoons of statesmen and governments. Witness the two cartoons reproduced herewith.

A few examples would show that if Caran d'Ache is partly responsible for the comic supplement, he is not responsible for its blatant vulgarities, its emptiness of any real satiric content, and its infinite innocence of ideas. Says the editorial in the *Nation* already referred to:



CARAN D'ACHE, IN HIS STUDY.
(Showing the unique toys he originated.)



At a military review in Russia.

In undress infantry uniform.

Making a speech on his grandfather.

In the uniform of a cuirassier.

WILHELM II. AS THE GERMAN EAGLE, ACCORDING TO CARAN D'ACHE.
(From *Figaro*, Paris.)

There is no inherent viciousness in the comic series. It has the very best tradition behind it. Before Caran d'Ache and Wilhelm Busch is Daumier's Robert Macaire; and still further back is Hogarth, with his various Progresses. The evil comes when the series is carried for years and years until it is the delectation solely of that dull mind which finds amusement in the mere fact of familiarity. The pity appears all the greater when we consider how vast is the influence of the comic artist for weal or woe. When people speak of the power of the caricaturist, the habit is to think of the political cartoon. True, the political cartoon has long been an effective weapon of publicity. The history of modern Europe might be written from its cartoons. But it is still an open question whether the satire that deals with us as men

and women is not more permanently effective than the satire that appeals to the political animal primarily. A strong political cartoon may make an election or a ministry. The comic artist deals with the permanent traits of human nature and the common facts of life, and, in doing so, shapes our thought and standards of good or ill, subtly but enduringly.

Caran d'Ache,—the Russian for "Lead Pencil,"—was born Emmanuel Poiré, in Russia, of French parents. He served in the French army and, during his later years, made Paris his home. His caricatures, most of which appeared in *Figaro*, gave origin to a new fashion of mannikin toy for many years popular in Europe.



BISMARCK AND KAISER WILHELM II., AS SHOWN IN ONE OF CARAN D'ACHE'S MOST FAMOUS CARTOONS.

BISMARCK: "I left him a trained circus. He is making a menagerie of it."

(Soon after his accession, the present German Kaiser forced Bismarck's resignation from the imperial chancelorship. The Empire was really created by Prince Bismarck through his consolidation of the German states. The Iron Chancelor always resented his curt dismissal and always looked askance at the rule of the new master. This cartoon appeared in *Figaro*, Paris.)

OHIO'S NEW SENATOR—THEODORE E. BURTON.

"THE independent partisan" and "a quiet, mild-mannered man, with a decisive 'No' that convinces," are the characterizations that Mr. Thomas Hanly gives, in the *Van Norden*, of Mr. Foraker's successor in the Senate. He regards Mr. Burton as an "example of the man who succeeds in a political career by sheer force of intellect." The new Senator was born in Iowa, the son of a minister. He received his education in Oberlin College, and after studying law in Chicago went to Cleveland, O., in which city he "landed thirty years ago, with \$150 as his total capital." Today "he is the recognized political boss of Ohio," and that in spite of the fact that "he is not a politician in the ordinary acceptance of the term." He is "too big and too clean-cut to lower himself to the devices of the machine master. Also he is too independent for such a position; for what his reasoning tells him to be right he will support, no matter if every principle and every precedent of his party be against him." To quote Mr. Hanly further:

The beauty of this independence is that he can get away with it without harsh criticism in Congress or out. He no more feared the powerful Speaker or the opinion of his majority colleagues in the House than he did a page boy. That was because he is one of those rare combinations,—a great, clear, cameo-like mind, backed with an infinite capacity for plain, hard study, which has made him master of those great public questions in which he has interested himself. You did not hear him every day in the House, nor every week. You won't hear him very often in the Senate. He was not always jumping to his feet in the Committee of the Whole to use up ten minutes; but when he did get up the House listened, and it heard an incisive, unornamented exposition of some abstruse topic that left nothing to be desired. If he was interrupted with questions, the questioner got what he was after and perhaps a little more; and it was all from memory, a mathematical memory that had classified and digested every pertinent fact.

This ability to master his subject thoroughly was conspicuously demonstrated by Mr. Burton during his tenure of the chairmanship of the Committee on Rivers and Harbors. Indeed, it has been said of him that "he knows more about every river in the country, every lake, every bayou, every port, every harbor, every bay and gulf, to say nothing of watersheds, than any other man living." In illustration of this, Mr. Hanly gives an amusing account of the ex-

perience of a delegation that sought to obtain an appropriation for their local river improvements. Primed with statistics, prepared by boards of trade, chambers of commerce, and the Farmers' Alliance, the delegation, through the good offices of their Congressman, gained admittance to the sanctum of the chairman of the Rivers and Harbors Committee.

Once inside the room the delegation promptly deflated. It collapsed, so to speak, and a solitary man seated at a desk, signing his name to letters, was the cause of it all. His appearance did not lend encouragement to swelling importance or enthusiasm, or eloquence, to say nothing of demands. . . . He was glad to meet them, but not too glad. He would be happy to serve them, but he was not going crazy over it.

The chairman of the delegation began by rocking the little room with the fervor of the demands of the people of the Snake River district to be rescued from railroad thralldom, the heartless plutocracy of Wall Street, the octopus of wealth, and the crime of '73. Picturesque Snake River was set forth in words that should have brought forth tears. The helpless, hopeless condition of the strangled metropolises along its banks was portrayed in epic form, the possibilities were simply a succession of hyperbole,—until,—until,—the chairman out of the corner of his eye saw to his surprise that the man he was addressing was absolutely unmoved,—not only that, but he appeared bored. The speech began to halt, stumble, and finally fell lamentably. The speaker simply could not go on with such an audience.

"How much did you say was needed for this great work?" came the calm query.

"Twelve million dollars," was the answer. "Only a bare, paltry, picayune twelve million to rescue our community from the grasp of the railroad overlords. If you could only study the conditions—"

"I have studied them," was the equally calm answer, "and I regret to say that it will be impossible for us to burden an already large bill with this additional sum. Now as to Snake River—" then the quiet man began to talk about that winding little stream. . . . He told them in three minutes more than they had ever suspected about their water course. He began with it in the mountains and led it down to the Ohio, mentioning every tributary stream, every village, and almost every farm-house. He told how deep it was every ten feet, and where rocks were or the mud holes and fords. . . . Before he was through, the delegation was gasping for breath. . . . It all ended with "I am sorry, very sorry, gentlemen, but the money is not now available," and he returned to his writing.

Out in the hall the most resourceful of the delegation came to, and said: "I know the L. & N. heard we were coming and loaded him up." But the Congressman shook his head and replied with some spirit: "Wrong there; they

didn't need to,—that man knows more about the river than they do. . . . If you had come from Oregon, you couldn't have sprung any new water on Theodore E. Burton."

Senator Burton is a believer in co-ordination between the States and the Federal Government in rivers and harbors expenditures. When Philadelphia, having got Congress to dredge a thirty-foot channel for her, applied for one ten feet deeper, because she wanted ships just as big as New York, Burton answered:

"All right. The scheme will cost \$1,500,000. I will agree to approve a Federal appropriation of \$750,000, provided you get the balance. Divide it up between Pennsylvania and the city,

or any way you like." It was the first time that the very common form of philanthropy had been practiced in governmental affairs, and it caused an uproar. But they came to it . . . and Pennsylvania contributed its quarter share and Philadelphia the other quarter.

Other facts about Mr. Burton are that he is regarded as "one of the real authorities on finance in Congress; that in connection with the Panama undertaking he has been called "the father of the lock canal idea"; that in his heart he is a "no-battleship man," and he is a member of "all the world societies that are trying to bring about disarmament and peace." "What they think of him in Ohio," says Mr. Hanly, "was shown in the fight for the Senatorship."

OKLAHOMA'S BANK-DEPOSIT GUARANTY LAW.

THE plan of guaranteeing bank deposits was tried in three of our States three-quarters of a century ago,—in New York, Vermont, and Michigan. In each case it failed lamentably. In New York the banking law provided for a safety fund as a security for all of the banks' debts; but within ten years from the time the law went into operation eleven of the banks organized under the system failed, and the entire amount of the safety fund was insufficient to pay their debts. Mr. W. C. Webster, writing in the *Journal of Political Economy* for February, says "it would be difficult to find a single example of the successful operation of such a scheme in this or any other country." The new State of Oklahoma, in the first session of its legislature, placed on its statute-books a guaranty law of this kind, which has now been in operation since February 14, 1908. Its chief features are the following:

A guaranty fund is created and placed under the general management of the State Banking Board. . . . Each bank and trust company organized under the laws of the State is required to contribute 1 per cent. of its average daily deposits for the preceding year, less deposits of United States and State funds, properly secured. Annually thereafter each such bank and trust company shall report its average daily deposits and contribute 1 per cent. on whatever this amount may exceed the previous averages. If the fund is depleted from any cause, a special assessment is levied to keep up the fund to 1 per cent. of the total deposits. Any new bank or trust company, when organized, shall pay 3 per cent. of its capital stock into the guaranty fund. From the fund thus created the depositors of any insolvent bank or trust company complying with the provisions of the law are to be paid immediately, the State

then having a first lien upon the assets of the insolvent corporation.

One of the misconceptions concerning this law, and a wide-spread one, is that the State Government stands pledged to pay all bank losses. This is far from being the case.

The credit of the State is not in any way pledged to the payment of deposits in any bank. If the fund is lost in any way, it does not become a liability of the State, but would have to be replaced by another assessment. . . . Furthermore, this guaranty fund is not kept in cash in the State treasury, but is redeposited in the banks and kept loaned out by them. . . . If this fund holds out, losses will be paid; if it does not hold out, or if the loans made from it cannot be cashed promptly, the losses cannot be paid.

Admitting that the law has not yet been long enough in operation to admit of one's judging its ultimate effects adequately and fairly, Mr. Webster is of the opinion that its expediency may fairly be questioned, both negatively and positively. He sees certain signs of danger, which may be thus summarized:

The Oklahoma law has not "closed the door of hope against the reckless and incompetent banker," but has actually opened it much wider than it was before; so that the State to-day seems to be entering upon an era of wildcat banking, which, if it is not checked, will ultimately result in financial disaster. Between January 1 and October 31 forty-seven new State banks were organized in Oklahoma; and all but five of these were capitalized at only \$10,000. The mania for starting new banks is not confined to the towns: in the little village of Harrah, which has but about 150 inhabitants, two banks have been established, their total local deposits being less than \$15,000.

Men of indifferent character are allowed to organize banks. One of the new banks in Oklahoma was started by a man just released from the State penitentiary; another, by a man who had twice failed in business and had then organized a national bank. In this he obtained only \$27,000 deposits on a capital of \$25,000. On the first of last July he started a State bank under the new law, and by September 23 his deposits amounted to \$111,381.75. In another case a saloon-keeper, who had been forced out of business by the prohibition law, started a bank on a very small capital and soon had deposits to the amount of \$30,000 or \$40,000.

Reckless banking is in evidence. Under the new Oklahoma law bankers are found offering 5, 6, and even 8 per cent. interest. The false impression is created that the State's credit is pledged to pay all losses, some of the banks even printing on their checks statements to the effect that "Your Deposits in this Bank are Guaranteed by the State."

It is evident that the growth of reckless banking, stimulated by the new law, will undermine the underlying security of all the "guaranteed" banks in the State, and will ultimately increase bank failures to an alarming extent. To quote Mr. Webster further:

It may be predicted that, if this law is left on the statute-books of the State, Oklahoma will soon give the world some startling examples of "high finance" and eventually experience such a panic as few States of like wealth have ever witnessed. And when that panic comes, of what avail will be the present paltry guaranty fund? Will not a fund ten, or even twenty, times as large be required to reimburse all innocent depositors?

The advocates of the new law lay great stress on the fact that since it went into operation there have been but two failures. Commenting on this, Mr. Webster says:

As if that proved anything! . . . The greatest publicity has been given to one of these failures, that of the International State Bank of Coalgate, seemingly for political purposes. . . . A fair examination of the facts shows that the widely advertised Coalgate failure was a miserable fiasco, and would seem to justify the following statement made by its president: "I will never believe anything else but that my bank was closed by Bank Examiner Smock on telephone orders from Governor Haskell, for no other purpose than to make a demonstration of the depositors' guaranty law for the Democratic Convention at Denver."

The president of the bank, Dr. L. A. Connor, is, it should be mentioned, a Republican. The statements submitted to the grand jury showed that the bank was in a better financial condition when it was closed than when it was opened.

An important defect in the Oklahoma law is that it fails to discriminate between cash and credit deposits. On this point Mr. Webster remarks:

Most people overlook the fact that 85 to 90 per cent. of all bank deposits are really created by loans. The business man gives his note to the bank and gets in return the credit of the bank which is negotiable. The Oklahoma law, therefore, mainly protects creditors of banks. . . . It is manifestly unjust to compel the banker to pay cash into a guaranty fund to protect credit depositors, and in turn not to protect him against loss in his loan department.

After careful study of the Oklahoma statute in all its aspects, Mr. Webster arrives at the conclusion that "no such law can be permanently successful without the most drastic supervision, and that, if such supervision can be enforced, no assessment is necessary."

THE PRESENT ASPECTS AND PROSPECTS OF WAR.

WHAT are the present chances of war? All nations seem to vie with one another in perfecting deadly military engines and defensive works, but the dread possibilities of a conflict bid them pause. The *Deutsche Revue* gives a striking and detailed survey of what has been accomplished in the way of warlike preparation and strategy since, and owing to, the Franco-German struggle.

The Frankfort treaty, says the writer of this article, put only an apparent end to the conflict between Germany and France; "a latent war continued."

One side invented more effective arms; the other, in its anxiety to outdo the enemy, would

then reach an almost equal perfection of martial equipment. Each was intent upon repeating the situation of 1866 when one opponent entered the arena with the needle gun, the other, with the muzzle-loader. Moments there were when the explosive point seemed imminent, but confidence in a new weapon was neutralized by elements of doubt.

The various other powers could not gaze with indifference upon this rivalry.

The Franco-German contest has had the effect, in a few decades, of almost equalizing the weapons of the armies not alone of Europe, but of the Far East and West. Arms are light and handy, easily loaded and fired, carry far and sure. The new powder betrays neither gunner nor gun by smoke visible afar off. To attempt to excel present achievement seems useless,—

the conceivable has been attained. No serried ranks, no single elect individual, dare expose themselves to the deluge of shot. At Mars-la-Tour, with an imperfect weapon, now antiquated, a Prussian regiment advancing to attack in close columns, lost, in barely half an hour, 68 per cent. of its contingent. Three years ago, a Japanese brigade paid the penalty of its daring action in less time by a sacrifice of 90 per cent. of its men. Technic is splendidly triumphant, but easement in war, ascendancy over the enemy, for which Germany and France, as well as the other powers, have been striving, it has not attained. In distributing its gifts impartially to all, it has created the greatest difficulties for all. How the enemy might be destroyed by those effective arms could be readily determined; how to escape annihilation one's self was the difficult problem. . . . The natural striving to find shelter, and to bring as many of the effective weapons as possible into action, have given rise to the broad front of battle. The phenomenon in the Far-East, therefore, will doubtless be repeated in a European war. The battlefields of the future will, and must, consequently assume an entirely different aspect from those of the past.

After the war of 1870, France as well as Germany, this writer points out, constructed defenses on her new boundaries. The latter restricted herself to fortifying Metz and Strassburg; the former erected an almost continuous barrier to cover her eastern frontier between Switzerland and Belgium.

Germany could not quietly see France prepare for her invasion of revenge from her safe hiding-place. The best defense is attack. Instead of erecting a counter-chain of defenses, therefore, Germany sought to procure a new weapon of attack. A new explosive was invented which no walls could withstand. But the secret was not long maintained; like destructive engines were constructed on the other side. Belgium, fearing Germany's invasion of France through her territory, and Holland, in defense of herself as well as her neighbor, came to the aid of France; while the latter, fearing that Italy would take advantage of Germany's attack and seek to regain her lost provinces, fortified the intervening highlands between the two countries, a move Italy followed by counter-defenses.

If Germany, with her supposed passion for conquest, was debarred from marching upon Paris, she was "evidently compelled to pursue the road to Moscow."

Russia, too, therefore, felt forced to erect defenses against her. Naturally, like defensive measures were taken against Austria. Just as on the west so on the east a dividing line was formed between the *Dreibund* states and the rest of Europe. On the north, Denmark transformed Copenhagen into a great martial camp, and assumed control of the entries into the Baltic. England possesses a mighty floating fortress which she can erect in the North Sea at any moment. The construction of so many

frontier defenses acted so contagiously that, finally, the allies, Italy and Austria, have fortified themselves against each other. The iron girdle about Germany was left open only on the side of the Balkans. Even this gap has now been filled by Turkey, Servia, and Montenegro, while Bulgaria and Roumania were forced into the Austrian camp.

Such, in outline, is the military position of Europe, as the German reviewer would have us see it.

In the center stand Germany and Austria unprotected; round about them, behind wall and moat, the other powers. The political situation corresponds with the military one. Between the encircled and encircling states stand barriers of antagonism difficult to overcome. France has not renounced the revenge she swore in 1871. As this idea brought all Europe under arms, it is likewise the pivot of its entire political activity. Germany's mighty strides in industry and commerce have secured for her another implacable enemy; while Russia, with the inherited antipathy of the Slav against the German, has traditional sympathy with the Latins, as well as her financial needs, holds fast to its old ally. That these greeds and passions will be converted into violent action is questionable. Yet an earnest endeavor to lead all these powers against the center does exist. The danger appears gigantic. It is lessened somewhat on a closer examination.

England cannot destroy German commerce without badly injuring her own, asserts the writer, further.

Her well-understood advantage lies in allowing her abhorred competitor, who is at once her best customer, to live. Russia, when in her full vigor, resisted all her ally's enticements to join in an attack; with her present knowledge of modern warfare it is doubtful whether the temptation has been heightened. France is determined to enjoy her cooled revenge only in good company. All hesitate at the enormous cost the possible great losses, the red specter looming in the background. General conscription has dampened the lust for war. "The coalition is ready," is heard from the other side of the Channel. That it will proceed to warlike action is, nevertheless, exceedingly doubtful, and for the present such action is by no means necessary. The positions occupied by the Allied Powers are so favorable that their mere existence constitutes an abiding threat and naturally reacts upon the German nervous system, convulsed by its economic conflict and business crises.

The scene has, however, suddenly shifted.

The most recent events in the Balkan Peninsula force Austria to turn her attention thither for a long space. She demands aid from her ally, but can give none herself. Opposition tactics have succeeded in assigning to each a separate field of action, thus preventing united effort to conquer one, then another of their foes. Austria must turn her face to the south, Germany to the west. But even after these more favorable conditions, the enemy halts; though

separated, Austria and Germany are still too strong, despite the efforts being made to weaken them by inner dissensions as well.

An English Comment.

A highly significant comment on the article quoted from above appears in the *Fortnightly Review* (London) for February. We quote from this comment:

This anonymous and elaborate study is admitted to have been written by Count Schlieffen, formerly Chief of the General Staff, and for many years the Kaiser's most intimate military adviser and confidant. Now it is the Kaiser's custom to dine with his generals at the beginning of each year. It is the only occasion when

he gathers about him all the principal leaders of the German armies, including the highest officers of the Bavarian army, which in time of peace is not subject to imperial authority. At the dinner of January 2 the supreme War Lord read to his generals the military parts of Count Schlieffen's article, and declared that they duly represented his views. It is denied that he either read aloud or identified himself with the political passages. The distinction makes no difference whatever. . . . The very fact that the proceedings at the imperial dinner table ought not to have been published, and that the condemnation of the article in the *Deutsche Revue* was perfectly private, shows beyond question that Count Schlieffen's pages may be accepted as a priceless revelation of the state of the German military and naval mind.

PUBLIC RELIEF OF THE UNEMPLOYED IN SWITZERLAND.

EVEN in contented Switzerland the specter of unemployment has been raising its head during the past quarter century, and the chief towns of that well-governed little commonwealth now afford a measure of relief to persons out of work. Some facts and figures on "Public Provision for the Unemployed in Switzerland" appear in the *Stuttgart weekly*, the *Neue Zeit*, an organ of the German Social Democrats. To the comments made by the writer of this article upon the facts which he reports one can attribute no special value, for they are made in the spirit of the partisan, who sees no reason why all of his demands should not be unconditionally granted at once, without reference to expediency. The data he gives can, nevertheless, be accepted as correct, one may assume.

Independently of food-relief, instituted further back, the first systematic provision for the unemployed in the city of Berne was inaugurated in 1893 by the creation of an Insurance Fund Against Unemployment, which two years later became affiliated with the Municipal Labor Bureau, by reason of their closely related purposes. Since the Fund was initiated fifteen years ago, it has been subject to various changes of regulation, but there have remained unaltered the voluntary character of the insurance, the amount contributable by the city, and the limitation of this sort of relief to the winter months of December, January, and February. The committee of management is made up, in equal proportions, of representatives of capital and labor.

The monthly contribution of persons assured is 70 centimes,—that is, \$1.70 per annum,—this entitling the subscriber, when out of work, to a daily stipend of 2 francs, if

married, or 1½ francs, if single. The city contributes 12,000 francs a year,—a very small sum, to be sure, but one must consider the size of Berne, which numbers not more than 75,000 souls, and one must also take into account the moderate wage scale existing in Switzerland, as well as the low expense of living.

What Berne does for the unemployed is typical of Switzerland's other principal cities, like Basle, Geneva, Zürich, and Lausanne, and in some cases cantonal assistance is given in addition, but not federal, up to the present time. There are Labor Huts, where in Berne, in the course of a year, 1500 men were paid wages amounting to 10,500 francs for splitting wood, two-thirds of these being resident workmen and the others journeymen. At Berne's Writing Rooms, eighty people found employment during one year, and were paid 3000 francs, though the Geneva and Zürich establishments of this category have each paid seven times that sum during an equal period. Of Workmen's Colonies,—for temporary sojourn,—Switzerland has four; one of these, situated in the Canton of Berne, is affiliated with a penitentiary, and serves as a transitional abode for convicts who have finished their term. The building department of the city of Berne itself holds back such work as can be deferred until winter for members of the aforesaid association, or Insurance Fund, who may then need relief. That the federal government does not contribute any money to these objects arouses the ire of this social-democratic spokesman.

LEADING FINANCIAL ARTICLES.

MEXICO'S EXPERIMENTS IN FINANCE.

THE control of railroad companies and the regulation of bank-note issue form a couple of financial nuts that have so far been too tough for Uncle Sam to crack. The problems involve so many people,—not only the travelers and shippers over the railroads and the merchants who suffer from exaggerated interest rates, due to an obsolete currency system, but the workers in the whole dependent structure of industry. So the experiments of the smaller republic to the south are being keenly watched by our own lawmakers and citizens.

"The most intelligent effort at state or government control of railroads being made to-day is that recently in effect in Mexico." Thus begins a series of articles appearing in the New York *Evening Mail* last month from the pen of Charles F. Speare.

Next to railways, the financial question of the day in America is undoubtedly the currency. Here again an article in a March periodical shows that something is to be learned from the Mexican sample. In the *Bankers' Magazine*, Joaquin D. Casaus gives the results for the twelve years, during which the smaller republic has had just the sort of scientific currency for which our reformers are calling. It has been issued not with any arbitrary reference to government bonds, as is the case in the United States, where public and private credit are thus confused with unfortunate results,—but solely in accordance with the demand of the merchants and others who want to use the notes.

To treat the two articles in more detail: It is most striking, in Mr. Speare's description of the Mexican railway situation, to learn how little the government itself has ventured in cash. It has expended only about \$10,000,000 gold "for the privilege of placing its majority on the board of directors of a new system of railroad lines representing an original investment of \$325,000,000 and an annual earning capacity of approximately \$30,000,000."

Like individuals and syndicates who become promoters, the government kept the common stock of the new enterprise to itself now. Since there is a "remote possibility"

that this stock, \$75,000,000 in amount, may some day earn a dividend, here is another avenue of "clear profit to the Republic's treasury."

No wonder Mr. Speare concludes: "If the United States or any other nation can obtain authority over its transportation lines in the same way that Mexico has, it ought to do so."

It might be assumed that such a merger will work out well from the point of view of the Republic; that no government could long remain in power against shippers' and travelers' cry of high rates. So the worth of the merger had best be examined from the viewpoint of what it means to the government, and to the stock and bondholders.

WHERE THE GOVERNMENT STANDS.

To bind together the Inter-Oceanic road (running from the City of Mexico to the Gulf at Vera Cruz), the National Railroad (running to the American border), the International (also reaching the Rio Grande), and the Mexican Central (the largest line) into one balanced system of 7000 miles, the government invested two things: First of all, about \$10,000,000 worth of shares carrying control of the National and Inter-Oceanic; and, second, a guarantee to pay any interest not earned on the 4 per cent. mortgage bonds. Mr. Speare finds it evident from net results so far that the government will not have to pay out any cash on its guarantee this year. The issue is large,—\$186,000,000,—but the development of the country is rapid, and it may be that the government will get out without any farther cash outlay.

What a brilliant achievement this would be is shown by the fact that "none of the old security-holders had to part with stock or bonds at a loss," and that "many of them have already profited in the exchange."

THE SECURITY-HOLDERS' POSITION.

Over-capitalization has been a charge brought against the Mexican railway merger. The total amount of stocks and bonds per mile is \$92,200, about half as much again as that of the Southern Pacific, for instance.

But Mr. Speare points out that a great deal of this capitalization is in stock which the government issued to itself, and which is not expected to come in for dividends until years are passed; and that of the bonds, little more than one-third of the \$60,000 per mile authorized have actually been issued. Only \$21,000 per mile are now outstanding. The average physical valuation of the road might be around \$30,000 a mile.

The bondholder could only fear, therefore, that the management might issue new bonds too fast for the road's earning power. The only answer to such an objection would be a reference to Finance Minister Jose Yves Limantour's brilliant success so far from every point of view, and to the broad spirit which the government has shown throughout to all parties concerned.

BENEFITS OF A "FREE" CURRENCY.

How Mexico has prospered since its currency system became "free," is apparent from the eleven years' comparison furnished by Mr. Casaus in the article to which reference is made above.

In 1897, the present banking bill was passed. Since then the deposits in the banks of issue alone have increased from two million to nearly fifty million dollars; the notes issued from less than \$45,000,000 to more than \$92,000,000; and the credit accounts from less than \$53,000,000 to more than \$350,000,000.

A large number of these banks are allowed to issue notes payable at sight and to bearer.

Even throughout Mexico's vast territory, commercially new, this liberty has brought no catastrophes. "The banks of issue" are purposed by the law to "be only the auxiliaries of trade and industry and shall only carry on short-time operations strictly guaranteed, so that their funds, due to constant activity, may be realizable at a moment's notice or at any rate of easy realization."

"The law of competency" is Mr. Casaus' neat phrase for the principle under which the Mexican banks issue notes. The supply is regulated strictly by the demand of business men for currency enough to transact their business. In England, it will be remembered, these notes must bear a relation to the amount of the national debt toward the Bank of England, or the value of its bullion on hand; in France they are regulated by decree of the Legislature; in Germany, by cash on hand and short term loans; and in America, by the amount of Government bonds purchased by the bank.

The last plan is in many respects the worst. The banker's motive is not to supply customers with what money they need, but to buy Government bonds when they are cheapest. And thus there is less money when the country needs it more.

A sort of "commercial guarantee," then, is the only security behind Mexican bank notes. This has been made sufficient through a strict inspection, either intermittent or permanent, which puts upon the government the responsibility of making the banks conform to the proper limitations.

FRENCH AND AMERICAN SAVINGS.

AN American visitor to Paris tells of a sight one evening suggestive to financiers of every size, whether governments or day laborers. "I saw, after watching the streets cleaned, long files of people in various directions, each file some blocks long, standing in single file, men and women mixed. Many of the men wore blouses and carried dinner pails or buckets. I found many of these people had been standing all night in order to secure a chance to subscribe at the small booths open for that purpose for a new issue of Paris municipal bonds for the improvement of the streets."

These bonds were issued mostly in denominations of \$20 of our money, and these people were standing there with their money hoping to get

a chance to buy the bonds, it being a case of first come first served. The amount of this issue was \$10,000,000.

I heard the next morning that the amount tendered in subscriptions was \$250,000,000, although the bonds bore only 3 per cent. interest. Had all the money tendered been taken in, it would have been sufficient to have paid off the entire existing debt of Paris at that time.

This was a startling revelation to me of the enormous saving powers of the French people, and of their holding of actual cash, in which France has surpassed all other nations, and, indeed, I imagine if you could gather together all the money in France, not securities or bonds, you would find the reservoir of cash exceeding that of the entire world.

Being a dealer in municipal bonds, I naturally took great interest and looked into the public-debt of France and the city.

An actual eye impression like this does

more than a volley of statistics to fix in one's mind the facts, familiar to economists, of France's financial strength. Charles H. Coffin, who relates the above experience in the *Bankers' Monthly* for March, goes on to mention some of the striking results to the nation of its citizens' saving habits.

After the close of the war with Germany, in 1871, French credit was so low that the bonds sold to raise the vast billion-dollar indemnity had to be offered at the rate of 5 per cent. There was even much question as to whether the French people could raise such an enormous sum.

To-day those 5 per cent. "rentes," or government bonds, originally issued with no date of maturity, have been converted into the standard 3 per cents.

And not only are the "little savers" willing and able now to take all the bonds of their own nation offered to them at the rate of 3 per cent.,—but "they have absorbed an amount estimated at over \$6,000,000,000 of bonds of foreign countries. They practically own the debt of Spain, a large part of that of Italy, Turkey, and Egypt, and the smaller countries of Europe, and \$2,250,000,000 of Russian obligations, taken since Russia became their ally."

HELPING THE "LITTLE SAVER."

Not only the government in France, but the individual has benefited by the public policy of encouraging thrift. The seamstress, the milliner, the laborer, the clerk are encouraged to put their savings into bonds, and then to borrow upon these bonds in order to buy more. The average size of the loans made by the big credit companies with their thousand of branches is less than \$20 in our money.

Can any one doubt now that finance is another name for understanding of human nature? For normal people, the only way to save is to save,—to enter some ironclad contract obligating the signer to devote so much money at certain intervals to a purpose that is definite. The vague wish to be economical is not equal, humanly speaking, to the desire for any given particular comfort or pleasure.

The use of this trait of human nature to further United States national finance has been impossible since 1863, when Government bonds were made the basis of note issues by national banks. The demand for the bonds by the banks has since kept their price up to a point where they offer no attractions to the savings-bank investor. Most Govern-

ment bonds bring less than 2 per cent. at present prices.

WHAT IS DONE IN AMERICA.

From the viewpoint of the individual, therefore, America is a harder country than France in which to save money regularly. Yet there are means, some of which ought to be more widely recognized. Private enterprise, in the form of hundreds of sound savings banks, especially in the Eastern States and those bordering on the Great Lakes, offer safety and accommodation for small sums if they are without the compulsory contractual feature. Even the latter is offered by still other private enterprises, centering around some of the banking houses in financial centers which specialize not in flotations, but in private investments.

For serial payments as low as \$100, in some cases \$10 apiece, it is possible to buy perfectly sound bonds, for instance,—things like first mortgages on street railways, or first mortgages on city real estate. In the March and April issues of *Success Magazine* further details are given. There are not many bonds of \$100 denomination to be recommended to the average investor. There are not nearly enough in \$500 pieces. The problem therefore arises: How to buy a thousand dollar denomination of a standard bond when one has less than \$1000 immediately available?

One plan in successful operation is to pay down 10 per cent. of the par value of the bond. If it is a thousand-dollar bond this means a cash payment down of one hundred dollars. The bond is transferred to the buyer on this payment, but is held in the vaults of the investment house until the bond is paid for. The purchaser pays interest on the balance due at the current rates of interest.

Meanwhile, however, the bond is earning money, and, as its interest coupons come due, this interest is credited to the purchaser. This helps to offset the interest that is being paid on the balance. If the buyer happens to acquire any large sum of money before the balance is paid off, he can pay the amount due on the bond at once and thus become the owner.

It frequently happens that the bond bought on the installment plan appreciates in value during the progress of the payments. By means of this admirable plan, investment of the very highest kind is brought within the reach of nearly everybody.

The same plan has been turned to the uses of firms and corporations. Here it is called "business insurance." A certain per cent. of the pay-roll or some other fixed proportion of money is each week put into bonds, the kind that can be sold immediately.

"Some firms send the checks regularly each week to the investment banker. As soon as a sufficient sum is accumulated, bonds are purchased and put away in safety-vault boxes."

Buying bonds by mail would at first seem to be a rather risky procedure, but when the actual exchange of your money for securities can be carried on at your own bank, just as though you had purchased the bonds locally, by ordering your bonds sent to your bank for collection and

delivery to you, and having in this way a full opportunity to inspect the bonds before paying for them, you realize that the risk is almost eliminated.

Then again, bonds can be ordered sent by express C. O. D., with the privilege of a thorough inspection before paying for them; then again, Uncle Sam's registered mail system is used with insurance on the security at the banker's expense. A draft in such cases for the amount of the bond is sent in advance with the understanding that the money will be returned if the bond is not found to be satisfactory in every respect.

LEARNING WHEN TO INVEST.

"THE public buys at the top and sells at the bottom,"—a cynical old stock-market saying, and one that there is getting to be good reason to dispute.

To buy at the top is quite natural, psychologically speaking. When the newspapers are full of industrial and investment boom news, one's mind turns to stocks and bonds, just as it does to the latest novel or automobile or whatever else one's neighbors are cultivating at the moment.

Education, however, is changing all that for so many as become educated. Monthly, weekly, and daily periodicals are devoting more and more space to printing over and over again in different words the essential fact about investment,—that the time of "uncertainty," when wise heads are shaking over the currency, or the tariff, or crops, or strikes, is a better time to buy than when prosperity reigns.

Some news in this connection appeared on the 16th of last month, in the annual report made to the New York Legislature by Clark Williams, State Superintendent of Banks. He explained the large withdrawals from savings banks in the past year, and the decrease of \$31,000,000-odd in deposits, as "doubtless due" in the greater proportion "to lessened industrial activity for the year and the exceptional investment opportunities afforded by low prices for securities."

As types of "the public," savings banks' depositors may well be taken. Many of the New York banks limit deposits to a couple of thousand. The depositors are the wage-earning, money-saving class,—not the business men who patronize the State banks or trust companies.

A proof is offered by Frank Fayant in *Moody's Magazine* for March. To show that nowadays "the public invests at the bottom and sells at the top," he quotes from

"the records of the past four years, more especially of the past two":

In the great advance in prices from the spring of 1904 to the winter of 1906-7 the public sold many millions of dollars of securities to speculators in Wall Street, because investors found that stocks were selling so high that their income return was less than savings bank interest rates.

No great amount of mathematics was needed to decide the holder of Great Northern (a 7 per cent. stock) to sell when it rose above 200, and consequently returned him less than 3½ per cent. on his money. There were plenty who reasoned thus and turned a deaf ear to the busy "tips," as demonstrated by Mr. Fayant.

When the stock was selling at a fancy figure late in 1906, Great Northern had only 270 shareholders. The long decline in 1907 attracted 4000 new shareholders up to the week of the bank panic, and in the months of depressed prices following the panic 7500 more bargain-hunters came to Wall Street to buy "Jim" Hill's stock, with the result that Great Northern now has five times as many shareholders as it had two years ago.

Similarly, Reading, a 4 per cent. stock, which soared before the panic to such impossible income prices as 140, 150, and 160, was then held by only 1700 people. "During the bear market 1000 new investors bought the shares, and during the panic the list rose to 4300. When Wall Street began bulling Reading again last summer the shareholders took their profits, and early this winter, when Reading had doubled its panic price, the number of shareholders had declined to 3000."

For years the list of Pennsylvania Railroad shareholders has risen in bear markets and declined in bull markets. The company gained nearly 20,000 shareholders in the bear market of 1907, and since then the list has been gradually declining with the recovery in the price of the stock.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

BIOGRAPHY.

Bartholomew de Las Casas: His Life, His Apostolate, and His Writings. By Francis Augustus MacNutt. Putnam. 472 pp., ill. \$3.50.

Almost all we know of sixteenth century America is based upon the writings of the devoted missionary and defender of the Indians, Fray Bartholomew de Las Casas. His writings, however, have been the subject of a good deal of discussion. The present volume is the latest word of historical investigation on the career and writings of the distinguished Spanish historian. Dr. MacNutt is well known as the translator and editor of "The Letters of Cortez."

The Letters of Mrs. James G. Blaine, 2 vols. Edited by Harriet S. Blaine Beale. New York: Duffield & Co. 645 pp. \$4.

The letters of Mrs. Blaine touch on many matters of public importance, but they are chiefly interesting as a revelation of the charming home life of one of the most popular among American statesmen. From the year when Mr. Blaine became Speaker of the House of Representatives (1869) until his death in 1893 there were few quiet moments in his public life. His was truly a tempestuous career. There are hints of this in many of his wife's letters and in the account of the assassination of Garfield, when Blaine was Secretary of State, something of the intimacy that existed between the two men is made known. One thing the letters clearly show,—the decided change in the personnel of Washington officialdom since the 70's and 80's of the last century.

Why We Love Lincoln. By James Creelman. Outing Publishing Company. 170 pp., ill. \$1.25.

The Lincoln Tribute Book. Edited by Horatio Sheafe Krans. Putnams. 146 pp., ill. \$1.25.

Abraham Lincoln. By Brand Whitlock. Small, Maynard & Co. 205 pp., por. 50 cents.

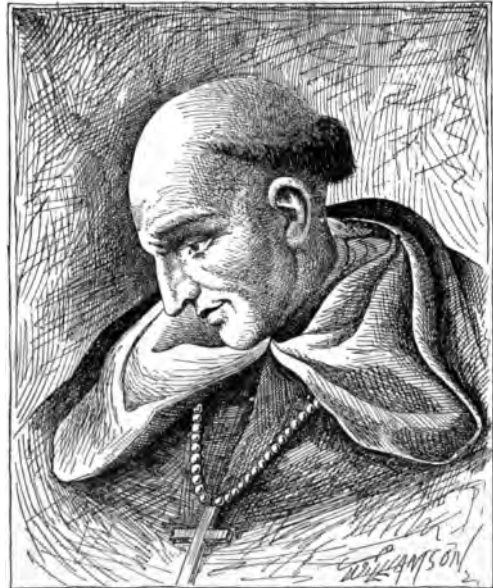
Mr. Creelman's book is an analysis of Lincoln's character written in vivid, suggestive style. The "Tribute Book" consists of a number of "appreciations" by statesmen, men of letters, and foreign and American poets. It includes a full-face Lincoln centenary medal from the second design made by Roiné. Mr. Whitlock's book is one of the series of Beacon Biographies.

Baldassare Castiglione, 2 vols. By Julia Cartwright. Dutton. 967 pp., ill. \$7.50.

Johannes Brahms. Edited by Max Kalbeck. Dutton. 425 pp., por. \$3.

Sir Walter Raleigh. By Frederick A. Ober. Harpers. 304 pp., ill. \$1.

Count Baldassare Castiglione, known to the



FATHER BARTHOLOMEW DE LAS CASAS.

(From an old print, frontispiece to the biography by Francis Augustus MacNutt.)

world of reading and letters as the author of "Il Cortegiano," which Dr. Johnson once characterized as "the best book that was ever written upon good breeding," has passed into the world's history as the perfect courtier. These two painstaking volumes give an account of his life and letters, which extended over the period from 1478 to 1529. The illustrations are excellent and portray many important but less-known figures of mediæval Italian history. The book on Brahms consists of a study of the so-called Herzogenberg correspondence between the composer and Heinrich and Elisabet von Herzogenberg (1876-1897), and really giving such a glimpse of Brahms' character as to amount to a biography. The translation is by Hanna Bryant. The Raleigh biography is one of the Harper series entitled "Heroes of American History." Mr. Ober, it will be remembered, has already written most of the volumes in this series.

RELIGION AND MEDICINE.

New Ideals in Healing. By Ray Stannard Baker. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company. 105 pp., ill. 85 cents.

This little book is a discussion, or rather a description, of the inception and progress of the Emmanuel movement. This movement, Mr. Baker declares in explaining the almost miraculous cures of such clergymen as Dr. Elwood

Worcester, is only one of the many new efforts or experiments of the church "to place itself in the full current of the new thought." Both the church and the medical profession, Mr. Baker significantly points out, are equally disturbed by their waning authority. The Emmanuel movement, however, is an indication that "the clergyman is discovering that the man has a body and the doctor that he has a soul." This little book is divided into two parts,—the first being an account of the Emmanuel movement in Boston as it grew out of the church work of Dr. Worcester and Dr. Samuel McComb, and second the new healing of the medical profession, being an account of the social service department at the Massachusetts General Hospital and the work of Dr. R. C. Cabot, Dr. J. H. Pratt, and others. In an early issue of the REVIEW we are planning to give our readers an authoritative, accurate account of what has actually been accomplished to date through the practical application of this new conception of religion and medicine working in alliance.

BOOKS ABOUT FOOD AND DRINK.

Parcimony in Nutrition. By Sir James Crichton-Browne. Funk & Wagnalls. 111 pp. 75 cents.

Human Foods. By Harry Snyder. Macmillan. 362 pp. \$1.25.

Sir James' contention in this vigorously written essay is that we have had sufficient,—even too much,—advice as to overfeeding. We should not forget that there is also a danger of not feeding enough. This writer, who is a fellow of the British Royal Society, in this little book opposes the theories of Horace Fletcher and Professor Chittenden, of Yale. Mr. Snyder, who is professor of agricultural chemistry at the University of Minnesota and chemist of the Minnesota Experiment Station, has given us a conveniently arranged, compact textbook on the nutritive value of foods.

Beverages Past and Present, 2 vols. By Edwin R. Emerson. Putnams. 1077 pp. \$5.

This thorough historical sketch of the development and variety of "drinks" patronized by the human family includes a description of their production and a study of the customs connected with their use. Indeed, much of the interest of these volumes is due to the sidelights they throw upon the social life, the manners, and the morals of many times and diverse peoples. Mr. Emerson is known as an authority on the subject, having written several other books on beverages, including "The Study of the Vine" and "A Lay Thesis on Bible Wines."

BOOKS OF POETRY.

The Poems of Richard Watson Gilder. Houghton Mifflin Company. 485 pp., por. \$1.50.

This volume contains all the principal poems written by Mr. Gilder during the forty years of his activity as a literary man. It contains almost all the verse previously published in the nine little volumes already to his credit. Since the deaths of Aldrich and Stedman Mr. Gilder has occupied a unique position in American letters. He is pre-eminently a poet's poet as well as a people's poet, and his many friends and

admirers will welcome this excellent collection, in which they will find such a large proportion of the really good magazine poetry of the past generation.

The Complete Poetical Works of Edmund Spenser. Houghton Mifflin Company. 852 pp., por. \$3.

This Cambridge edition of Spenser's complete works, edited by R. E. Neil Dodge, of the English department in the University of Wisconsin, contains all the poetical works known of Spenser, arranged as nearly as possible in chronological order.

Richard the Third. Edited by Horace H. Furness, Jr. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 641 pp., por. \$4.

A new volume of the Variorum Shakespeare has come to us. It contains the "Variorum" text of Richard the Third, and is enriched by foot-notes and appendices, with critical explanations, which have so distinguished preceding volumes of this edition.

The Story of Glencoe, and Other Poems. By George Taylor. New York: Caledonian Publishing Company. 163 pp. \$1.

The long poem, in ballad style, which gives the title to this collection of verses, deals in rather spirited fashion with the famous, or infamous, massacre of Glencoe in February, 1692, when almost the entire clan of Glencoe was exterminated by order of the "Master of Stair." The other poems are on miscellaneous subjects, with principal reference to Scottish history and landmarks.

LITERATURE.

The Cambridge History of English Literature, Vol. III. Edited by A. W. Ward, Litt.D. Putnams. 663 pp. \$2.50.

Some New Literary Valuations. By William Cleaver Wilkinson. Funk & Wagnalls. 411 pp. \$1.30.

The Great English Letter-Writers, 2 vols. By W. J. and C. W. Dawson. Revell. 587 pp. \$2.

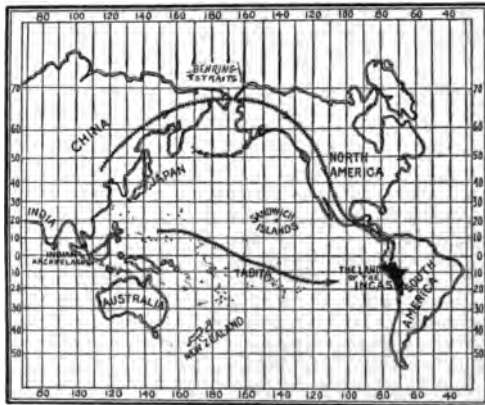
The Cambridge History of English Literature, which is to cover the entire course of English literature from the sources to the close of the Victorian Era, has now been completed through the end of Volume III., which treats of "Renaissance and Reformation." Each division is to be the work of a writer who is an authority on the subject, and the list includes American, English, and Continental scholars as contributors. Professor Wilkinson (of the chair of poetry and criticism in the University of Chicago), in the volume of "New Literary Valuations," discusses William Dean Howells, Matthew Arnold, Alfred Tennyson, Edmund Clarence Stedman, John Morley, and Leo Tolstoy. The letters of "Great English Letter-Writers" are presented for literary purposes, and the little volumes are made more useful by the addition of biographical details concerning the writers. The object, we are told, has been to show how "various men and women scattered through different ages

have borne themselves under the same crises of emotion and action."

HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION.

Peru: Its Story, People, and Religion. By Geraldine Guinness. Revell. 438 pp., ill. \$2.50.

The author of this volume made an extended tour through Peru. She evidently possesses a keen power of observation, a good deal of enthusiasm, and the faculty for writing a stirring, poetically worded account of an interesting people. The facts are well grouped and the Peruvian people are made to glow with life before the reader. There are forty-five illustrations,—



POSSIBLE ROUTES OF PREHISTORIC IMMIGRATION FROM ASIA TO AMERICA.

(Prepared by Geraldine Guinness, and appearing in her book on Peru.)

photographs, maps, and photogravures,—which illustrate the text exceedingly well. Particularly interesting and well told is Miss Guinness' story of the Inca empire and its destruction by Pizarro. She presents, also, quite a vivid picture of life in the larger cities of modern Peru, together with a vigorous, if somewhat partisan, description of the influence of the church in Peruvian history and life.

BOOKS ON RIVER NAVIGATION.

The Sloops of the Hudson. By William E. Verplanck and Moses W. Collyer. Putnam. 171 pp., ill. \$1.50.

What the steamboat was to the upper Mississippi in former times the packet and market sloops of the last century were to the Hudson River. The period of competition with steam extended to a much later date than on other navigable waters of the United States, and masters and sailors of the old-time sloops are still living, although this volume appears to be the first history of these vessels that has ever been attempted.

The Story of Robert Fulton. By Peyton F. Miller. Hudson, N. Y.: Published by the author. 113 pp., ill. \$1.

As this is the year of the Fulton celebration in New York several publications relating to Ful-



(Cover design (reduced) from "The Sloops of the Hudson.")

ton's services in developing steamboat navigation have made their appearance. One of the most useful of these is "The Story of Robert Fulton," by Mr. Peyton F. Miller. This writer has consulted the leading authorities on Fulton and his contemporaries and reproduces several interesting letters bearing Fulton's signature.

Old Times on the Upper Mississippi. By George B. Merrick. Cleveland: Arthur H. Clark Company. 323 pp., ill. \$3.50.

This is an interesting account of a long-past era in Mississippi River transportation. The steamboat was long ago displaced by the railroad train as a factor in Mississippi Valley development, but men and women are still living who can remember when the light-draft steamer of the upper river was the only means of communication with civilization for some of the most important settlements of Iowa, Minnesota, and Wisconsin. If Captain Merrick had not taken the pains to compile this record many of the facts bearing on the early settlement of those three States might have been lost to the historian.

REFERENCE BOOKS.

Catalogue of Books in the Children's Department of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburg. Pittsburg: Carnegie Library. 604 pp. \$1.

We believe this to be the best list of books for children's reading in the English language. A more voluminous catalogue might easily have been compiled, no doubt, but the special value of this one lies in the fact that each of the 2500 titles included was selected with care because of its particular suitability for children and as a result of ten years of study and observation of children's needs and wishes. But the Pittsburg

librarians, not relying solely on their own experience, consulted experts and specialists far afield. In this volume, therefore, we have the accumulated wisdom of many librarians who are familiar with the peculiar problems of children's reading. There is no reason why parents and teachers, as well as the children themselves, should not derive great benefit from this annotated catalogue.

Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books, 1908. By Alice B. Kroeger. Boston: American Library Association Publishing Board. 164 pp. \$1.50.

This excellent manual may be made of great practical service in libraries. One of its invaluable features is the index, which gives references on many topics not easily located by the average searcher for information. This new edition is a distinct improvement on the old. The scope of the work has been extended and much new material included.

The One-Volume Bible Commentary. Edited by Rev. J. R. Dummelow. Macmillan. 1091 pp. \$2.50.

The New Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge, Vol. II. Edited by Samuel Macauley Jackson, D.D. Funk & Wagnalls. 516 pp. \$5.

The American Jewish Yearbook, 1908-1909. Edited by Herbert Friedenwald. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society. 349 pp. 75 cents.

The particular value of Dr. Dummelow's work lies in the fact that it is complete in one volume. The latest results of critical and exegetical re-

search are embodied in the work, the text of which is supplemented by a number of maps and plans. This second volume of the revision of the original Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia treats of the titles, in alphabetical order, between "Basilica" and "Chambers." All the articles are signed by specialists. While the general point of view, the publishers admit, is Protestant, the purpose is to put into the hands of clerical and lay students of all degrees of learning the fruits of modern interpretation and research. The entire work will consist of twelve volumes. The present issue of the American Jewish Yearbook is devoted chiefly to a discussion of the Sunday laws of the United States. It contains, of course, the usual amount of historical and tabulated matter regarding the progress of Hebrews throughout the country.

MANUALS FOR GOVERNMENT OFFICIALS.

The Federal Civil Service as a Career. By Elsie Kean Foltz. Putnams. 325 pp. \$1.50.

It may be fairly questioned whether the American civil service has yet become a "career" in the sense in which the civil service of Great Britain is a career to which ambitious young Englishmen may legitimately aspire. Yet the operation of the federal civil service law of 1883 has undoubtedly worked a great change in the personnel of the departments at Washington, and is gradually altering the attitude of the public toward the office-holder. It is certainly true that a larger proportion of college graduates are entering official life from year to year, and the increase in opportunities for scientific work in the departments, particularly in the Department of Agriculture, has been very marked in recent years. To all who are seeking admission to the federal service this book will prove a useful manual. It states in a readable way the essential facts an applicant for any kind of Washington clerkship most needs to know, and even after the appointment is secured the appointee will find many of the chapters helpful in beginning his work. The author is an office-holder in the Treasury Department and writes from an actual knowledge of facts.

Our Foreign Service. By Frederick van Dyne. Rochester, N. Y.: Lawyers' Co-operative Publishing Company. 316 pp., ill.

Mr. van Dyne, who is American consul at Kingston, Jamaica, has written this volume, he informs us in his preface, as an outline of the A B C of American diplomacy. It is intended for the use of those preparing for our foreign service as well as to be informing and useful to the general reader. Some months ago, it will be remembered, we noticed in these pages Mr. van Dyne's work on naturalization.

TREATISES AND ESSAYS ON EDUCATION.

University Administration. By Charles W. Eliot. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 266 pp. \$1.50.

President Eliot's deliverances on educational subjects never fail of having large and attentive audiences, and just at this time, as he is retiring from the Harvard presidency, what he has to say on "University Administration" will be read with more than ordinary interest. The



FREDERICK VAN DYNE.

(Whose book, "Our Foreign Service," has just appeared.)

present volume of addresses, arranged under that title, deals broadly with most of the topics that concern American universities in their social relations. In President Eliot's long term of service there have been many notable changes in college and university methods in this country, in the making of which he has himself borne a conspicuous part. Members of university faculties will find much suggestive material in his addresses on the elective system and methods of instruction. His observations on these topics have an authoritative weight which none will dispute.

The Reorganization of Our Colleges. By Clarence F. Birdseye. New York: Baker & Taylor Company. 410 pp. \$1.75.

Mr. Birdseye, having made an inquiry into the present conditions of administrative and student-life departments of our universities and colleges, points out certain grave abuses which he has found to exist in many of the larger institutions, and proposes as a remedy a complete college reorganization, a scheme for which he has worked out with considerable care. Those parts of the book which are likely to receive first attention are the chapters describing college community life of the present day and the various evils that have gradually associated themselves with it. Mr. Birdseye's chapter on "The College Home and College Vices" contains statements which are likely to be challenged in most of our colleges. Yet Mr. Birdseye asserts that after the chapter had been submitted to many men prominent in and out of college no one of them denied that in the main his arraignment was justifiable and correct.

The Teacher. By George Herbert Palmer and Alice Freeman Palmer. Houghton Mifflin Company. 395 pp. \$1.50.

There are three groups of papers in this volume, the first dealing with questions of particular interest to teachers, the second with a number of topics most clearly associated with Harvard University, and the third a series of four essays on woman's education by Mrs. Palmer. Most of these essays have already had magazine publication, but are now brought together for the first time.

Studies in the History of Modern Education. By Charles O. Hoyt. Silver, Burdett & Co. 223 pp. \$1.50.

This book is different from many of its predecessors in the same field in that more attention is given to American education. There are chapters on "Horace Mann and School Administration" and "European Influences on Education in America." Early chapters in the work treat of Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Fröbel.

Recollections of a New England Educator. By William A. Mowry. Silver, Burdett & Co. 294 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Dr. Mowry disclaims autobiography as the motive of his book, declaring that its aim is pedagogical and historical. His reminiscences, while certainly not without biographical interest, really give the material for an extremely suggestive comparison between the educational



WILLIAM A. MOWRY.

(Who has just brought out his "Recollections of a New England Educator.")

conditions in this country fifty, sixty, and seventy years ago and those at the present time. Since Dr. Mowry's whole life has been devoted to educational affairs he is able from his own experience and observation to write the educational history of New England for the period in question.

Civics and Health. By William H. Allen. Ginn & Co. 411 pp. \$1.25.

This is a fresh presentation of the physical basis of citizenship. Dr. Allen discusses in this volume many topics that have long been under discussion among teachers in our public schools, but have been for most part incidental rather than fundamental to effective education. A reading of Dr. Allen's book is likely to give every teacher a new sense of proportion in dealing with matters of hygiene and sanitation. Furthermore, it is a thoroughly practical treatise, showing not only what can be done to promote the physical welfare of school-children, but what actually is done. It is full of suggestions to those communities that have not yet put themselves in the right relations to question of community health, and it records the achievements of the most advanced among our American cities.

The Century of the Child. By Ellen Key. Putnam's. 399 pp., por. \$1.50.

This work has already gone through more than twenty German editions, besides being published in other European languages. The present volume, however, is the first English translation. Ellen Key, who is perhaps the best known of Swedish women of the present day, is a writer of force and sincerity. Up to within a decade ago she was a prominent champion of the



ELLEN KEY.

(Author of "The Century of the Child.")

woman's emancipation movement in her country, but at the beginning of the century withdrew from the support of this movement to devote herself to the study of educational problems. Her contention in this volume is that the future of woman depends rather upon a nobler conception of her natural mission as wife and mother than upon any enlargement of her social or economic sphere. Some of the ideas advanced in this volume are very radical, but their originality and the ethical purpose manifest in them deserve wide attention. The present century, she contends, belongs to the child, because only now are educators beginning to realize the truth of the adage that "the child is father of the man."

English for Coming Americans. By Peter Roberts. New York: Young Men's Christian Association Press. 82 pp. 50 cents.

The teaching of English to adult foreigners in this country involves many difficulties, and up to the present time there have been few practical aids prepared for would-be teachers. The necessity of teaching classes organized in various cities by the Young Men's Christian Association has led to the preparation of this manual by Dr. Roberts, who found his basic idea in Francis Guion's book, "The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages." The oral method is the basis of the system followed, and the thirty lessons outlined in this book, together with card practice, are designed to give foreigners a prac-

tical knowledge of English for daily use in the home, at work, and in business.

PHILOSOPHY.

What Is Pragmatism? By James Bissett Pratt, Ph.D. Macmillan. 256 pp. \$1.25.

The Coming Science. By Hereward Carrington. Small, Maynard & Co. 393 pp. \$1.50.

Mind-Power. By William Walker Atkinson. Chicago: The Progress Company. 441 pp. \$1.50.

An increased number of volumes treat of the tendency of the present age, not so much to invent new philosophies as to formulate new attitudes of mind toward old and established systems of belief. Pragmatism is pre-eminently the most philosophic and significant of these tendencies. It is not, says Dr. Pratt (of the philosophy department in Williams College), in the volume referred to above, a distinct philosophy. "It is a temper of mind, an attitude. It is also a theory of the nature of ideas and truth." Mr. Carrington, who is author of a number of books on psycho-physical relations, maintains that the coming science, which will alter our attitude toward all material knowledge, is psychic research. Prof. James H. Hyslop has written an introduction to Mr. Carrington's book. Mr. Atkinson, who has already written a number of volumes on the processes of mentality, in the volume entitled "Mind-Power" contends that the greatest "dynamic mental principle" of the universe is "mind-power," which "pervades all space, is immanent in all things, and is manifested in an infinite variety of forms, degrees, and phases."

Les Premiers Interprètes de la Pensée Américaine. By A. Schalck de la Faverie. Paris: E. Sansot & Cie. 366 pp. 70 cents.

This study of "The First Interpreters of American Thought" is really an analytical essay on the history and literature of the evolution of puritanism in the United States. No matter how far from the original Anglo-Saxon physique the resultant American type may be, M. Schalck de la Faverie maintains that the impress of "puritanism" made by the influence of the early writers (he instances Irving, Longfellow, Hawthorne, and Emerson) will continue to mold American destinies.

Peace and Happiness. By Lord Avebury (Sir John Lubbock). Macmillan. 386 pp. \$1.50.

The seasoned, ripened wisdom of an old man of high order of intelligence who has observed with the eye of a scientist and an artist human progress during more than half a century cannot fail to be of help and interest to any reader. There is a certain human kindness and philosophic depth about everything that Lord Avebury writes, and he has given us some very thought-provoking paragraphs in this volume of brief essays.

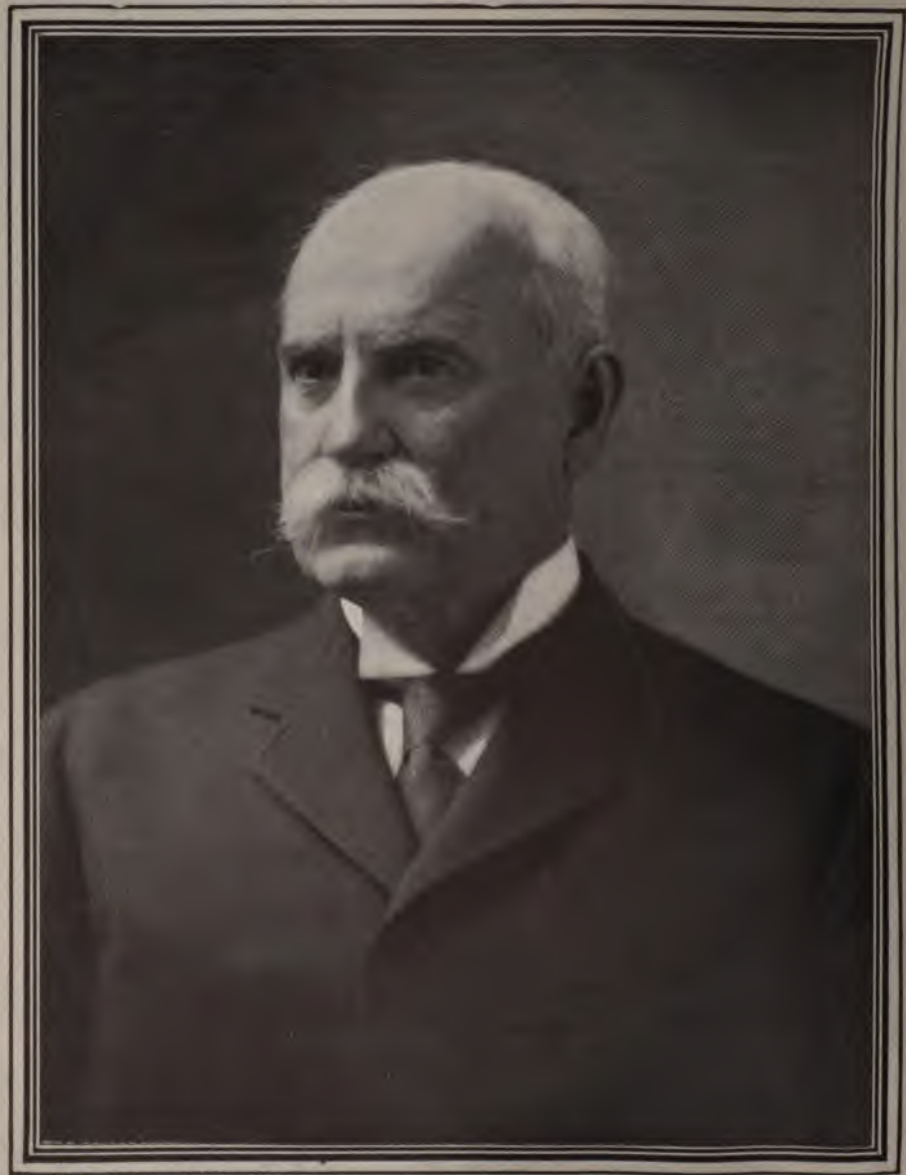
THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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HON. NELSON W. ALDRICH,

(Chairman of the Senate Finance Committee, who introduced a substitute for the Payne
- Tariff bill last month.)

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No. 5.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*Tariff
Revision
Progressing.* In the work of tariff revision, as it has thus far progressed at Washington, there is relatively more of human interest and less of political controversy than in any former shaping of a general tariff bill. The best-informed men at Washington were of opinion, by the middle of April, that it would be possible to secure an agreement of the two houses upon the points of difference between the Payne bill of the House of Representatives and the Aldrich bill of the Senate, in time for an adjournment by June 1. In March there were those who predicted that the colossal work of readjusting the many hundreds of duties upon different articles mentioned in the tariff schedules would hold the lawmakers at their task until August 1. But the situation cleared up rapidly when the Payne bill passed the House on April 9, and when it appeared that the Finance Committee of the Senate would be ready to report its substitute measure on April 12. The Democrats in the House, under the leadership of Mr. Champ Clark, had not seriously tried to prevent an early vote on the measure as a whole, and it seemed to be sufficiently clear that the Democrats in the Senate did not intend to take advantage of their privilege of unlimited debate to keep Congress at Washington far beyond the time fixed by the Republican leaders as a desirable date for completing the business of the extra session and adjourning for summer vacation.

*No Longer
a Party
Question.* Undoubtedly the Democrats in Congress, as well as the Republicans, had heard most emphatically from their constituents to the effect that the business interests of the country desired a swift completion of the new tariff enactment, in order that uncertainties might be removed and that business might go forward

with the rebuilt tariff wall as a fixed fact. Furthermore, the tariff is not this year in reality a party question, and it is likely to be still less a matter of party politics in the years to come. General conditions of development throughout the country are fast becoming equalized. The great States of the Middle West have now vast manufacturing interests, whereas they were once chiefly agricultural. The South, with its great supplies of raw material, and its unequalled distribution of water power, is fast developing many kinds of industrial activity, besides the spinning and weaving of its own cotton. A great Democratic leader said the other day in private that Southern Democratic statesmen would cease to make free trade speeches just as soon as there was the slightest danger that the country would take them seriously!

*The South
in the
Tariff Bill.* The fact is that the agricultural and industrial South is very well looked after in the tariff measure that is now approaching its final form. In compliance with party platforms and sectional and party traditions, to be sure, the Southern Democrats in Congress must seem to demand a generally lower tariff and a more rapid approximation toward the revenue principle as opposed to the protective theory. It is, nevertheless, true that these gentlemen are feeling quite complacent; and they are not going to antagonize the majority party at the present moment beyond the point required by a decent sort of consistency, and by a moderate amount of foresight as regards the Congressional elections of November, 1910. The sugar and rice of the Gulf States, as well as the oranges and lemons of Florida and the tobacco of other Southern States, are all handsomely protected in the pending measure, and so also are most of the other products, agricultural, mineral, and in-



TAXING THE POOR, NOT THE RICH.
From the *Evening Mail* (New York).

market for hides and leather, and wish to make Argentine and other foreign hides pay a considerable duty. There are phases of these tariff schedules that are very complicated and difficult, as is true of almost all other parts of a tariff bill. About nothing in the Payne bill was a greater outcry raised than the largely increased duties upon the cheaper kinds of women's and children's gloves. The Dingley bill of a dozen years ago greatly increased the rates upon gloves, with the result that the supply of leather gloves for men is now almost entirely of American manufacture. There has also been a great increase in the American manufacture of women's and children's gloves, but the importation is still large.

Gloves and Stockings as an Issue. It is obvious that the making of gloves for a prosperous nation of 80,000,000 people is no small affair. It happens that American glove-making has become so specialized and concentrated as to be located almost entirely in the vicinity of Gloversville, N. Y., and the industry is in the hands of a very small number of manufacturers. The proposal to increase the present rates on women's and children's gloves came from those same interests, and if finally adopted, would greatly enlarge the business of the manufacturers of the Gloversville dis-

trict. Whether or not the complete transfer to this country of the business of making the gloves that our people wear would in the end cheapen the price to the consumer, is a question in dispute. The glove importers face the fact that they would have to increase very much the price per dozen pairs at which they could sell European gloves to the American trade. It is assumed that the American glove-makers would take advantage of the tariff to hold their prices near the importing level. Women's clubs and organizations have taken the view that the increased rates for gloves and hosiery in the Payne bill would enormously increase the cost of these articles to women and children throughout the land. The cartoonists, who are very quick to catch the real drift of sentiment, have evidently adopted the view of the women. As against this outcry, the stocking-knitting factories of Pennsylvania endeavored to make a counter-demonstration by sending thousands of their young women employees to parade the streets of Washington with banners demanding high duties against European competition.

Plain Reasons for a Tariff Commission.

We have for two or three years past at different times found opportunity in these pages to show reasons why some kind of tariff commission or bureau at Washington ought to be organized on a permanent basis to deal thoroughly and carefully with perplexing problems and disputed facts relating to various schedules and industries, and also to aid in the problems that arise in the administration of the tariff and its application to particular countries. In February, as our readers may remember, there was held at Indianapolis a large conference called by the National Manufacturers' Association, to organize a movement on behalf of the idea of a permanent tariff commission. The committee appointed at that time under the chairmanship of Mr. H. E. Miles, of Racine, Wis., has been working quietly but diligently at Washington, and its efforts have met with growing encouragement from week to week as the difficulties of devising a tariff under the present methods have been brought to light in hundreds of concrete instances. It would be a great mistake to undervalue the intelligence of the committees of the two Houses of Congress. Mr. Payne and others of the Ways and Means Committee have an extraordinary knowledge of tariff facts. The same thing may be said of Mr. Aldrich and some members of the Senate Committee. But there are

many issues involved in the framing of a tariff that require a more prolonged and thorough inquiry than it has been possible for either of these Congressional committees to bestow. The experiences of Germany, France, and other countries in tariff-making, as set forth in this REVIEW last month, show that it has been found useful abroad to entrust the complexities of tariff-making to experts working patiently as a commission. Of course, no one proposes, whether here or in Europe, to give any authority to the findings of a tariff commission, until thoroughly discussed by the proper law-making bodies and enacted into statutes.

Maximum and Minimum.

It is expected that the bill as finally passed will provide for maximum and minimum rates. That is to say, there will be a regular and standard tariff which will be designated as the maximum. At an average level of perhaps 15 or 20 per cent. lower will be the so-called minimum rates. Authority will probably be conferred upon the President to extend the advantages of the minimum rates to those countries that make a like concession in our favor. A permanent tariff commission, or a tariff bureau connected with one of the executive departments, could be of use to the President in the application of these maximum and minimum rates. It could also help in devising means to prevent the evils

of undervaluation, and in other respects to make tariff administration more efficient. Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, has been the foremost advocate in the Senate of some plan of tariff commission. The idea is further urged as likely to help in taking the tariff out of the game of politics.

Mr. Aldrich's Presentation.

Senator Aldrich's speech on Monday, April 19, in elucidation of the bill which he had reported from the Finance Committee, several days before, was devoted mainly to an argument as respects the relation of the bill to the public revenue. Not only did Mr. Aldrich wholly neglect to discuss his bill from the standpoint of its protectionist character, but he made the notable statement that in so far as the Republican members of the Finance Committee were concerned there would be no discussion of the bill upon the broader grounds, and no allusion whatever to the timeworn controversies between protectionists and free-traders.

Where Are the Doctrinaires?

Perhaps the most remarkable thing, to the mind of the student of our political history, about the tariff-making of this year 1909, is the total disappearance of the man whose free-trade creed was his religion and who was probably the most detached and sublimated type of doctrinaire the world has ever produced. On the other hand, there is to be noted almost as complete a disappearance of that mystical and fanatical protectionist whose metaphysics was as recondite and baffling as the syllogisms of the free-traders were obvious and infantile. The kind of literature once circulated with zeal by the New York Free-Trade Club is as extinct as the dodo. On the other hand, the writings of some of the masters of the *à priori* school of protectionist visionaries nurtured in Pennsylvania, belong properly with the dissertations of the medieval schoolmen. Neither of these outputs of writing and speaking had any sane bearing upon statesmanship, and very little upon economics. The one was an exercise in logic and the other an exercise in metaphysics. In former tariff periods, the real fight was not carried on by these doctrinaires and dervishes and fanatics. This real fight was a very concrete affair, and it was carried on by the so-called "interests." The wool men then as now knew what they were after, and so did the iron and steel men. Cotton wanted to get to the European markets as easily as pos-



THE JUDGMENT OF PARIS PAYNE (In the competition of Importer, Manufacturer, and Consumer).
From the *American* (New York).

sible, and wanted to bring back commodities without paying duty. Louisiana wanted sugar protected, and cared for nothing else. Florida and California in due time became interested in looking after fruit. Men from Missouri arose and learned how to log-roll on behalf of lead and zinc,—and they are still at it. Messrs. Elkins and Scott knew what West Virginia wanted, and why; and Hale, of Maine, then as now, was first and longest at the trough. These practical people, who knew what they were after, never let their clear-minded selfishness come under the dimming cloud of doctrinaire illusions.

*Mr. Aldrich
on Public
Revenue.*

It is frequently said of Mr. Aldrich that he is no orator, and that he speaks in public very little. But Mr. Aldrich has the great advantage when he speaks of having something to say, and he has a clear and direct way of stating the case. Furthermore, he always speaks as one having authority, and with a certain quiet mastery of the situation. Thus his refusal to discuss the tariff bill as to its general character was impressive, and cleared the way for what he regarded as the thing needful for him to set forth. He believed the real question to be whether or not this bill, the object of which on its face is to provide an income for the Government, will meet that test. It will be remembered that the House bill, as passed, provided for a tax upon inheritances in order to make up for assumed lack of power in the duties levied at custom houses to provide enough revenue. As originally reported, also, the Payne bill placed a tax upon the importing of tea, and also, in effect, a tax upon coffee, through the device of a countervailing duty against the coffee of countries charging an export tax, this being aimed at Brazil. Since Brazil cannot for some years give up her tax levied upon the export of coffee, the effect of the Payne bill would have been to establish a corresponding import duty that would have taxed the poor man's breakfast table. These taxes on tea and coffee were abandoned by the Ways and Means Committee itself in the process of the House debate. And thus, when on April 9 the bill was passed and sent to the Senate, there was a good deal of doubt as to its ability to provide enough revenue. Senator Aldrich's bill, while also rejecting taxes on tea and coffee, goes further and omits the inheritance tax. Yet Senator Aldrich assures the country that his bill promises to afford ample revenue without resort

to new forms of taxation. He assumes that the Treasury will be reimbursed for its outlays upon the Panama Canal by its sale of bonds. When this is done, he finds that the Treasury will have practically \$100,000,000 of accumulated surplus over and above necessary reserves. He estimates the excess of expenditure over receipts for the fiscal year ending two months hence at a little short of \$70,000,000. For the following fiscal year, which would be the first under the new tariff, he predicts a deficit of \$45,000,000, and for the year following that, namely, the year ending with June, 1911, he estimates a surplus of \$30,000,000. Mr. Aldrich's speech contains a strong plea for a proper making-up of the United States budget. He proposes to go ahead with the existing internal revenue laws and the pending customs measure, and then to fit outgo to income.

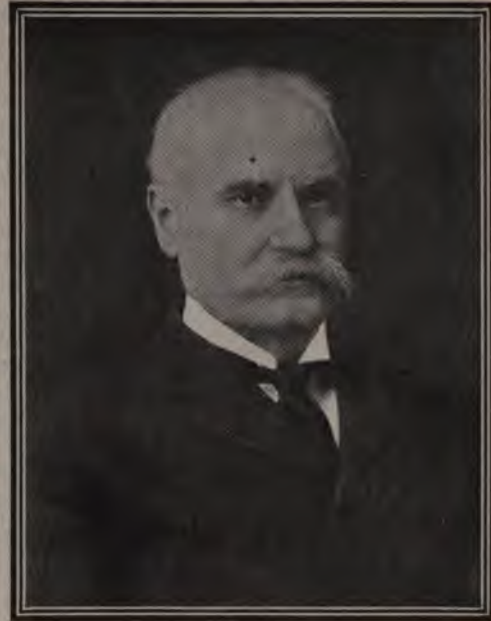
*A
Notable
Confession.*

It was a very bold thing for the head of the Finance Committee of the Senate to say that "the appropriations made last year could have been reduced at least \$50,000,000 without impairing the efficiency of the public service." It is not often that a great financial leader of the party in power has ever been known to arise in his place and make confession that he and his associates are practicing the grossest extravagance, and scattering the people's money to the winds. The last Democratic national platform made this kind of charge against the Republican party, but not half so strongly or so sweepingly as Mr. Aldrich himself makes it in the most conspicuous possible way as chief financial authority of the Senate and as the one man who could most easily have checked the very process which he describes. It seems to us that Mr. Aldrich has confessed too much, and that the waste has not been as deplorable as he suggests. Yet there has been great waste in directions other than those to which he has alluded, and he is to be highly praised for his frankness and courage in criticising the bad methods that have prevailed in distributing public income. When he speaks of the multiplication of needless bureaus, and the employment of officials beyond the public need, he has not put his finger upon the chief items of extravagance. There has, in fact, never been a time when the executive bureaus of the Government have been so free from the reproach of idleness and inefficiency as in the last eight years. Yet, of course, many of them could do their work with a smaller number of men, while

others need and deserve expansion. There has been great extravagance, on the other hand, through log-rolling methods, in the scattering of federal buildings throughout the country, in spending money upon needless river and harbor and navy-yard improvements, and in an over-rapid extension of the free rural delivery service.

*Aldrich's
Mastery of
Men.*

Mr. Aldrich expressed great confidence in the steady return of business prosperity and the corresponding enlargement of the national income through trade growth and population increase. Mr. Aldrich's position of leadership in the Senate has never been more generally acknowledged than in the present session, and it has never been so little criticized as a thing sinister or reprehensible. It rests chiefly upon a remarkable natural talent for managing things and for dealing with men through an understanding of human nature and of the motives that control individuals as well as groups. Mr. Aldrich is not an intellectual man in the sense that Mr. Root or Mr. Burton are men of intellect. But he is a consummate manager, and he has shown great tact and consideration, since the flood of recent criticism has been turned against the dominance of the Senate by the inner clique. In the rearrangement of the so-called "Steering Committee," he has amply recognized the ability of some of the younger and newer members. He has seen that distinguished new Senators, like Mr. Root, Mr. Burton, and Governor Cummins, are to be recognized for their attainments and influence. He has brought about a most important change in providing for a great committee upon expenditures in the executive departments, which is to coordinate all branches of expenditure and to map out the field in advance of the work of the particular appropriation committees. By conference with President Taft he has brought about a beneficial co-operation between the executive and the legislative branches of Government in this matter of adapting outgo to income. Thus the estimates of the executive departments, which have been prepared and sent to Congress separately heretofore,—and which have naturally asked for everything wished for, and have always suggested more than could be granted,—are now to be thoroughly digested by a cabinet committee, in order that the Executive group may act consistently as a unit in asking Congress to appropriate a



SENATOR NELSON W. ALDRICH, OF RHODE ISLAND.

specified sum total to be distributed for the particular objects set forth in estimates that are to be revised and scaled down before being sent to the lawmaking bodies. Great benefits ought to result at once from these improved budgetary methods.

*How the
Payne Bill
Was Finished.*

As a matter of record in these pages, it is well to revert to the Payne bill and its passage in the House as a remarkable achievement in quick tariff revision. It will be remembered that the special session of Congress began on the 15th of March. The Ways and Means Committee had its bill practically ready. The debate was begun on March 22 by the Hon. Sereno E. Payne, chairman of the committee, who had introduced the bill on March 17. Under the mastery of Speaker Cannon and his Committee on Rules, the processes of debate and amendment were limited to a period of barely three weeks. The House debate cannot be called a notable one, yet the conditions were such that little would have been gained by prolonging discussion for another month. The debate was long enough to allow public opinion to reveal itself upon various details, and the Ways and Means Committee of its own volition brought in a number of amendments. It was made easier, also, to secure an early vote upon the measure as a whole by allowing separate votes to be

taken upon several schedules. These separate votes showed the unwillingness of the House to grant any form of protection to the products of the Standard Oil Company. Tea and coffee, as we have already said, were made free by common consent. The attempt to secure free lumber failed by reason of the votes of 39 Southern Democrats who wished to have lumber protected. Under the leadership of Mr. Tawney, of Minnesota, the proposed duty on barley was increased from fifteen to twenty-four cents a bushel, and on barley malt from twenty-five to forty cents. Party lines also disappeared in the separate vote taken on the question of free hides. The Payne bill as reported put hides on the free list, and the vote was upon a motion to levy a duty of 10 per cent. This motion was lost by a vote of 147 to 225. The vote refusing to allow protection to petroleum and its products was 325 to 46. But now the smaller oil producers exclaim that the blow meant for the Standard Oil Company has struck them instead, and they ask for high protection in the final bill. The instance is instructive.

*The Formal
Democratic
Position.*

In order to go upon record and to seem consistent with the Democratic platform, Mr. Champ Clark, the Democratic leader, just before the final vote, moved to send the bill back to committee with instructions to amend it in a number of specified ways. These amendments included the levying of an income tax, the removal of duties upon foreign articles competing with American trusts, the reduction of rates where duties are prohibitive, a stamp tax on stock exchange transactions, the free admission of leather and shoes, the permission to buy ships abroad and give them American registration, free import of cotton bagging and ties, further reduction of the duty on refined sugar while keeping the duty on raw sugar, and various other items. This motion was lost by almost a strict party vote of 162 to 218. The adoption of the Payne bill, on the evening of April 9, was by a vote of 217 to 161. One Tennessee Republican voted against the bill, and four Louisiana Democrats voted in favor of it. The Aldrich bill, as the Senate will pass it, will differ in a great many respects from the Payne bill, yet there is nothing to show that there is likely to be bitterness or extreme stubbornness when the conference committees meet to reconcile these differences and give shape to the bill as it will be finally passed.

*Mr. Taft
at the
Helm of State.*

Mr. Taft has not appeared before the country in antagonism to the leaders of Congress on tariff problems. In recent controversies regarding questions of internal organization and control of the two Houses, Mr. Taft very properly declined to be involved in any way whatsoever. The House must make and unmake its own rules, and must accept or reject the sway of its own chosen Speaker, as it may for its own reasons decide. In like manner the Senate must be the judge of its own methods, and must attach as much importance as it will to its traditions of senatorial courtesy and of deference to the "elder statesmen." Newspapers and constituents may rightly discuss these matters; but the President cannot wisely intervene. Mr. Taft takes Congress as he finds it, deals with it as best he can, and seeks no controversy. If he had his own way he would reduce the tariff more sweepingly than either the Payne committee or the Aldrich committee. He hopes the final bill may be better than the two alternative measures now before Congress. He believes in the inheritance tax, because he thinks it appropriate that Government should levy upon large fortunes at the moment of their transmission from one generation to the next. If he had not, when he wrote his message, fully recognized the extent to which the States had adopted the inheritance tax, he still thinks, nevertheless, that this source of revenue is properly available for the National Government. Although he did not so recommend in his message, it is understood that he would not be averse to a small tax upon the dividends of corporations. He thinks it important that these sources of national income should be regarded as available for the Government in case of future need of money.

*Bothering
With
Appointments.*

He proposes, meanwhile, to give especial attention to the machinery for administering governmental finance, with a view to a more perfect efficiency. There has been some talk in the newspapers,—and very much more that has not been printed,—to the effect that Mr. Taft has "gone over to the reactionaries." It is true that Mr. Taft is co-operating with the leaders in both Houses, to the end of getting as good a tariff bill as possible passed with the least possible delay. It is also true that he is co-operating with Mr. Aldrich to the end of perfecting budgetary methods and financial machinery. Every President in the

first two or three months of his incumbency has to give an undue amount of time to questions of appointment, and is bothered beyond his patience and his strength by the claims of reward-seekers and the clamor of place-hunters. Everybody should be especially considerate of a new President in the opening weeks of his term. Mr. Taft has the recent chairman of the National Republican Committee in his cabinet, to help straighten out political tangles; and except for odds and ends of minor jobs in the State of Ohio, the new administration does not seem to have many embarrassing promises to redeem at the public expense. A few of Mr. Taft's appointments are not as good as he ought to have made. But most of the selections thus far announced are of a high order of excellence. We shall defer much comment upon the cabinet until it has begun to make its real record. But it may fairly be said that it now seems to be strong in its general unity of purpose, as well as in its individual capacities. It is further to be said that Mr. Taft has been making some admirable appointments of assistant secretaries and heads of bureaus and special services. We mention in another paragraph some of his diplomatic appointments, but will reserve comment upon his treatment of the diplomatic service as a whole until he has completed the changes he proposes to make.

*Good Judges
Are
Expected.* Along one line of appointment, the country has a right to expect great things from Mr. Taft, and will be justified in sharply criticising any sacrifice of ideals. We refer to the selection of federal judges. As our industrial and social life is now developing in this country, so much depends upon the high character and entire fitness of the judges that there can be no excuse for selections made from the standpoint of party politics, or for any merely personal, or local, or temporary considerations. Mr. Taft was himself a model federal judge. He will not serve the interests of the Republican party in the South, or anywhere else, by considering judgeships as party places. Since he was broad-minded enough to put a Tennessee Democrat like Judge Dickinson into his cabinet as Secretary of War, let us hope that he will not for a moment hesitate to put Southern Democratic lawyers of equally high character upon the federal bench whenever in his own judgment they are the best men to be had. When Republicans, whether in North Carolina or



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HON. HUNTINGTON WILSON.

(The accomplished new First Assistant Secretary of State.)

elsewhere, have personal and property rights at issue before the courts, they wish their causes to go before good judges, and do not care in the least how the man on the bench may vote in a political election.

*Is Taft
Becoming "Re-
actionary"?* Mr. Taft has entered upon his administration with wisdom and prudence, as every one had reason to expect. His character and methods as a public man are too well known for any sharp surprises. He is a good-natured man who loves peace, but he has a strong will. He outlined in his inaugural message the principles upon which he intended to proceed, the policies he favored, and the methods he wished to employ in the furtherance of those policies. By the time the present Congress completes its first regular session, which will probably be in June of next year, it will be possible to make a tentative comparison of Mr. Taft's Presidential record with the prospectus contained in his inaugural. If the country does not just now hear of fresh investigations and of newly-begun prosecutions of trusts and corporations, it



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Charles D. Norton
(Treasury).

Ormsby McHarg
(Commerce and Labor).

Charles D. Hillis
(Treasury).

THREE OF THE ASSISTANT HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS RECENTLY APPOINTED AT WASHINGTON.

does not in the least follow that the new administration is recreant to oaths of office or negligent in any sense. The Department of Justice, with Mr. Wickersham as Attorney-General; Mr. Bowers, of Chicago, as Solicitor-General; Mr. Wade Ellis as assistant to the Attorney-General, and other excellent lawyers, will not come short of reasonable public expectations. Mr. Knox, now the ranking member of the cabinet, was the Attorney-General who made the greatest record for actual enforcement of existing laws regulating interstate commerce. Mr. Taft himself, as a long-time member of the cabinet, was in almost daily consultation about these matters. It is above all things necessary that there should be some changes in the Sherman anti-trust law and in the laws for the regulation of railroads. It is also desirable that there should be changes in the executive machinery, in order that the Department of Justice, the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the Bureau of Corporations of the Department of Commerce, should all do their work better through a rearrangement of their functions. Mr. Taft has promised the country that he will be prepared to recommend these needed changes in the laws, and in the machinery for law-enforcement, when Congress meets next December. The time is ripe for these changes, and Mr. Taft and his cabinet of able lawyers are especially fitted to tell us all what

ought to be done. This kind of work grows of necessity out of the equally important work done by the preceding administration. The country knows that Mr. Taft is capable of great things, and expects from him solutions that are at once sound and progressive. Mr. Taft is not by nature an agitator, but he is still farther from being a reactionary. In his way of thinking he is a progressive to the point of boldness, because he has seen the world and has had broad experience.

*Government
Must
Control.*

Nothing could be farther from the truth than the supposition that the American people are disposed to give up the program of full and high Government control over railroads and great corporations. A distinguished railroad magnate was recently quoted as saying that Congress should give its attention to regulating the Government instead of the railroads. It is the business of Congress to do both. The best answer to this alleged remark of Mr. Harriman's is contained in the report of an informal speech made by Senator Newlands at a recent dinner in New York of the Rocky Mountain Club. Mr. Newlands said:

The people are determined, and the movement already inaugurated will not lag. We will not have in the future the turbulence and the outcry connected with progressive movements when they are in their initial and perhaps revolutionary stage; but there is no occasion for a reac-

tionary sentiment, and the movement for reform will be resistless and triumphant.

Senator Newlands reminds the railway managers that they are "public servants, charged with public functions, and subject to public control; and it is the highest duty of the legislative power, both national and State, to create tribunals for their supervision and regulation." The Senator advocates conferring upon the Interstate Commerce Commission the power to stay any increase of rates; believes the valuation of railroads a needful factor in determining rates, and demands approval by public authority of future stock and bond issues.

*How Railroads
Might Be
Built.*

In answer to the threat that railroad companies will not enter on new construction under such conditions, Mr. Newlands declares that the American people can do it for themselves. He holds that the engineering and constructive tasks involved in the great reclamation work of the Government and in the Panama Canal are more difficult than railroad building, and that the Government can more readily command money and quite as easily command the talent of constructing engineers as can the railroad companies. He adds this interesting remark: "Experience has demonstrated that the *esprit du corps* and integrity of the scientific bureaus of the Government engaged in construction is of the highest character." He does not advocate the public operation of railroads, but holds that it would be easy for the Government to build them as needed and lease them to operating companies. Senator Newlands does not, of course, expect that the railway companies will be so blind that they cannot see the handwriting on the wall. The American people are no more reactionary than is Senator Newlands, and the Taft administration is not likely to be any more reactionary than the American people.

*Resolving
Naval
Tangles.*

Among the practical problems of administration, those at the Navy Department just now require especial tact and foresight. Mr. Meyer's handling of the Post-Office Department evinced a peculiar talent for driving straight at the center of a situation, so that the essential things were always kept in mind. He is evidently taking to the naval department those methods and qualities that will help to smooth out tangles and promote efficiency. Since Congress has ordered the marines to



SENATOR NEWLANDS, OF NEVADA.

go to sea, the new Secretary of the Navy cheerfully complies; doubtless hoping, however, that Congress in future will have good sense enough to leave a question like that to the judgment of the President and the Navy Department. Quite apart from the possible future reorganization of the bureaus of the department, Mr. Meyer believes in utilizing in full all the talent that is to be found in all the bureaus, bringing the experts together in groups for discussion from time to time, in order that all may better understand what each is doing, and in order that every responsible official may the better grasp the naval situation in its entirety as well as in its factors.

*The Best
Way to
Learn.*

Each department chief in like manner is quietly assimilating knowledge of the affairs of his own portfolio. The Secretary of War, Mr. Dickinson, has gone to Panama, in order if possible to match Mr. Taft's personal knowledge of that part of the War Department's work. Mr. Nagel, the new Secretary of Commerce and Labor, has been personally studying the conditions of immigration at Ellis Island in New York Harbor. Mr.

Wickersham's legal and departmental activities have been incessant. Secretary Wilson keeps in personal contact with the practical field of agriculture. With our expanded interests in both hemispheres, the State Department has always its full quota of work to be done, and there has been no interregnum, so far as this work is concerned.

Mr. Knox and Latin America. Among the many excellent things accomplished by Mr. Root as Secretary of State, nothing perhaps will in the long run count for so much as what he did to improve relationships between the United States and the Latin-American republics. One of the principal agencies through which his policy expressed itself was the Bureau of American Republics, with Mr. John Barrett at its head. Mr. Barrett last month gave a great dinner in honor of Mr. Knox as the new chairman of the governing board of the Pan-American Bureau, and also in honor of the representatives at Washington of all the republics participating in that co-operative undertaking.



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HON. JOHN BARRETT.
(Director Bureau of American Republics.)

Twenty-one republics were present by their ambassadors and ministers and other members of their legations, and a large number of public men at Washington, including the Vice-President, Speaker Cannon, and Senator Root were among the guests. The chief importance of the occasion, apart from the international good-will which it fostered, lay in the splendid speech made by Mr. Knox, in which he placed himself and the administration upon record as fully continuing the Western Hemisphere policies of Mr. Root's period. The following sentences show the quality of Mr. Knox's sentiments and the felicity of his diction:

This bureau represents the aspirations of approximately one hundred and three score millions of American people to establish and maintain between themselves and their respective governments profitable intercourse, more cordial friendship, and an unbreakable peace.

The growth of a strong Pan-American public opinion, reflecting our common ideals and aspirations, frowning upon those who for selfish ends work against those ideals and aspirations, disdaining the suspicion of ulterior motives, and speaking in a clear voice words of sincerity, benevolence, and mutual confidence, and with that assurance which is based upon a clear conscience, will be the greatest factor in bringing about the general good of all America.

As the bond of cohesion between the American republics grows stronger the disturbing forces of disorder and selfish ambitions infesting any one of them grow weaker. The splendid advance of many of the American republics under just and stable governments has been an inspiration and example to all.

Pan-American Harmony. Near Mr. Knox, as he uttered these friendly words, were the tables at which sat the representatives of such hopefully developing republics as Mexico, Brazil, Argentina, and Chile. The chief response on behalf of Latin America was made by the eminent Brazilian Ambassador, Joaquim Nabuco, whose brief speech was in excellent spirit, as the following quotation shows:

We are glad to see in the hands of Secretary Knox the same ensign we saw in the hands of Secretary Root,—the ensign of Henry Clay. It is, indeed, impossible to add anything to the spirit in which, in his speech on the emancipation of South America, Clay, already in 1818, spoke of an American feeling and an American policy, in the wider sense of the word American, and made this prophecy about the new American nations: "They will obey the laws of the system of the New World, of which they will compose a part, in contradistinction to that of Europe."

As America is only the new Europe, when in course of time that American policy will reach its full growth, any political contradistinction between Europe and America will be effaced



Mr. Henry Clay Ide.

Mr. Charles H. Sherrill.

Mr. George H. Moses.

THREE NEWLY APPOINTED MEMBERS OF OUR DIPLOMATIC SERVICE.

and our different races, divided by the ocean, will unite all their branches in universal peace, freedom, and equality.

Vice-President Sherman, Speaker Cannon, Senator Root, and the Hon. Champ Clark spoke in the highest terms of cordiality regarding the growing intimacy between North and South America, as did two or three other representatives of the Latinic republics, and sincere tributes were paid to the great zeal and efficiency with which Mr. Barrett has developed the work of the Bureau. We have few men in public life who have shown greater energy or more single-hearted patriotism than Mr. Barrett has shown in every public task assigned since many years ago he first went as Minister to Siam. Among our trained diplomats and administrators, few have had his wide experience, and he has still the advantage of being a young man.

*Changes in the
Diplomatic
Service.*

The interest which is always aroused, upon the inauguration of a new President, in the probable changes in our diplomatic service abroad has for some weeks centered around the choice of a successor to the Honorable Whitelaw Reid, our Ambassador to the Court of St. James. A great deal of newspaper discussion during the month of March and in early April presented what was regarded as the special claim of Dr. Charles W. Eliot, president of Harvard Univer-

sity, to succeed Mr. Reid. Dr. Eliot is a gentleman of such eminence and personality that he would worthily represent us at any foreign court. In a public speech at Washington, late in March, Senator Root, evidently representing President Taft on this occasion, made remarks which shadowed an actual offer of the Embassy to Dr. Eliot. It was afterward reported that Dr. Eliot had definitely declined, but this was a mistake. Several appointments have been made to foreign posts during the past few weeks. Mr. John G. A. Leishman, of Pennsylvania, who has for the past three years been our Ambassador at Constantinople, has been transferred to Rome. It was announced last month that Judge Mayer Sulzberger, of Pennsylvania, had been offered the Embassy to Turkey to succeed Mr. Leishman, but had declined. Mr. Richard C. Kerens, a well-known Republican politician of Missouri, becomes our Ambassador to Austria-Hungary. Mr. Henry Clay Ide, of Vermont, who was formerly Commissioner-General of the Philippines, has been appointed Minister to Spain. Some new men will represent us at the capitals of Latin America. Mr. Charles H. Sherrill, of New York, goes to Argentina; Mr. Thomas C. Dawson, of Iowa, to Chile, and Mr. Harvey W. Scott, the distinguished editor and proprietor of the *Portland Oregonian*, has been chosen to succeed Mr. David Thompson as our Ambassadorial representative in

the City of Mexico. Our new Minister to Greece and Montenegro is Mr. George H. Moses, of New Hampshire. It was announced also last month that Mr. Charles H. Fulton, ex-United States Senator from Oregon, had been invited to succeed Mr. William W. Rockhill at Peking, that Mr. Charles Page Bryan would be transferred from Lisbon to Brussels, and that Mr. T. St. John Gaffney, now Consul-General at Dresden, would be appointed to succeed Mr. Bryan at the Portuguese capital. Late in April, Mr. H. Perceval Dodge, of Massachusetts, Minister to Salvador, was transferred to Morocco.

The New Foreign Representatives. There have also been some important changes in the representation of foreign governments at Washington. Perhaps the most distinguished and able diplomat in Mexico's foreign service succeeds Señor Enrique Creel at Washington. Señor Creel has represented Mexico for the past two years with singular ability and satisfaction to both countries; Señor de la Barra, it is confidently expected, will maintain the high traditions of the Mexican Embassy. General Carlos Garcia Velez, one of the best trained and most charming of Cuban diplomats, comes to Washington to represent his government as successor to the highly popular and efficient Dr. Gonzalo Quesada. Former relations are resumed with Venezuela upon the appointment of Señor Pedro Ezequiel Rojas, who last month arrived at Washington. The highly efficient and popular Belgian Minister also, Baron Moncheur, was succeeded in March by the Count de Buisseret.

In Convention Assembled. The summer migrations of the well-to-do American and his family grow yearly more extended. In the early '90s, when this magazine began to chronicle the meetings of scientific, educational, and professional bodies, religious conventions, and other gatherings of the spring and summer months, the meeting places were usually well within a thousand miles of the country's center of population. A convention at Denver or on the Pacific Coast was rare in those days. The delegates had not grown accustomed to transcontinental journeys. The increasing ease and speed of railroad travel have brought about a shifting to the westward of America's convention center. Moreover, the increasing tendency to cross the Atlantic in summer has

made possible the holding of well-attended gatherings of Americans in Europe. Thus, in the coming midsummer the World's Conference of the Young Men's Christian Association at Barmen-Elberfeld in Germany, the American representation will probably vie with England's in numbers. As a matter of interest to both the traveler and the stay-at-home, we invite attention to the tabulated list of conventions, celebrations, and expositions for the current year, which appears on pages 548 and 549. Considerable correspondence was required to obtain the information set forth in this table, and we consider the result well worth the trouble it cost. It gives a conspectus, as it were, of the topics that will engage the collective attention of certain serious-minded and influential groups in our population. (Beyond doubt the best-attended meeting in the list will be that of the National Education Association at Denver in July.) Furthermore, it reminds the globe-trotter that a half-dozen international expositions will open their gates this year, not the least of which will be the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific fair at Seattle.

Coming International Expositions. There will be much to interest and profit Americans from every section of our broad land at the Seattle fair, which will be open from June 1 to October 16. The primary purpose of this exhibition is, of course, to exploit in the United States and Dominion of Canada the resources of the Alaska and Yukon Territories, and to illustrate graphically to the public the vast importance of the trade of the Pacific Ocean and the countries bordering on it. It will, in addition, demonstrate the marvelous progress of our own Pacific Coast, and the States of the coast, as well as the United States Government, are preparing to participate on a large scale. In an early issue of this REVIEW we purpose publishing an article setting forth the main features and the scope of this highly important international fair. Besides the Ecuador Exhibition in Quito, to which we have given more extended mention in another paragraph, the present summer will see an international exhibition of Railways and Land Transport at Buenos Aires in Argentina. This South American Republic will next year hold a highly important international fair to celebrate the centenary of its existence as a nation. In all these gatherings of international significance, Americans are coming to have a real and profitable interest.

The New York Legislature. This year's session of the New York Legislature was notable for the things it did not do, and for little else. Within recent years much important legislation has been enacted at Albany, and the whole country had come to look in that direction every winter for progressive, if not radical, measures. This year the program outlined by Governor Hughes at the beginning of the session included primary and ballot reform, the extension of the powers of the Public Service Commission to embrace the telephone and telegraph services, the revision of the New York City charter, and the improvement of the transit situation in New York. The Legislature passed no bills on these subjects, nor on any other subject of general interest. All its enactments were of purely local character. It is not to be supposed for a moment that laws which are demanded by large and important groups of the State's population will be long postponed. The amendment of the Public Service Commission law is only a question of time. So, too, the passage of the new city charter for the metropolis, and other legislation affecting half the population of the State will not be very long delayed. As to the question of direct nominations, whether the particular measure advocated by Governor Hughes will ever meet with the favor of the lawmakers or not, there can be no doubt that some reform in this direction will be demanded of another Legislature if the Governor does not deem it advisable to call back the present one in extra session.

Wheat at Famine Prices. In the middle of April the price of wheat rose, after some weeks of spectacular advances, to war and famine figures. Millers actually in the Kansas wheat belt were forced to pay \$1.50 per bushel. The Liverpool market recorded the highest price in thirty years. The Chicago price of \$1.29 $\frac{1}{4}$ for wheat to be delivered in May has been exceeded only five times since the period of our depreciated currency. The exciting cause of the rocket advance was the speculation for the rise by Mr. James A. Patten, of Chicago, and his followers. Back of the manipulation by these daring speculators was a short crop in the Argentine Republic due to December frosts, which reduced the amount of wheat that could be exported to feed Europe, the large needs of Europe itself, her short acreage and, probably, the small supply of wheat on hand in the world, left over from last



MR. JAMES A. PATTEN, OF CHICAGO.

year's harvest, though there are conflicting theories on this last point. Getting a sense of this coming situation last fall, Mr. Patten bought during last winter and this spring some 20,000,000 bushels of wheat to be delivered in May, paying, probably, not much more than \$1 per bushel. At the same time opposing speculators, who had not a correct sense of the situation, were selling "short" wheat for May delivery, as the price successively rose to figures which seemed to them more and more unjustified. When the short sellers became frightened at the apparent correctness of Mr. Patten's theories, and attempted hastily to buy in enough wheat to carry out their sales, the pyrotechnics of April resulted the more rapidly because of the farmers' unwillingness to sell until the top of the rising prices was reached.

*The
Price of
Bread.*

With the price of wheat increased one-third, flour prices, of course, are immediately advanced. The bakers who supply bread to the millions of people in the great cities say that the new prices of flour, \$7 to \$7.20 per barrel for the best grades, are just about twice as much as they had to pay six years ago. Lard has also doubled in price in the same period, and milk has increased in price about one-third. Some bakers have been driven to failure by the impossibility of adjusting the price of their product to the increased cost with sufficient dispatch. All will have to curtail the size and weight of the loaf of bread or increase the price of the loaf, or do both. In New York City the bakers now sell a loaf averaging fourteen ounces for five cents. Unless the price of flour should move down it seems certain that two ounces will be taken from the present weight, or that the loaf will sell for seven cents instead of five.

*Protests
Against Wheat
Gambling.*

A number of commercial bodies besides the bakers' associations have been writing to their representatives in Congress condemning speculation in grain and asking that a federal law should be passed prohibiting such operations as Mr. Patten's buying of wheat "futures." Representative Scott, of Kansas, chairman of the Committee on Agriculture, has introduced a bill prohibiting any dealing in "futures" in grain, cotton, or other farm products. Mr. Scott hopes to reach the situation through the Interstate Commerce section of the Constitution, and announces his intention of pushing the bill vigorously at the session of Congress beginning next December. If Mr. Patten is right in his assumption that the supply of wheat is inadequate to meet the world's demand, it is obvious that federal prohibition of speculation would have no final effect on the size and price of the people's loaf of bread. And if Mr. Patten is wrong, the history of attempts to "corner" wheat markets suggests that he and his fellow speculators will certainly be overwhelmed by a flood of wheat coming from the farmers' stores to break the price which has been momentarily held at an artificially high level.

*A Bad Year
for the
Steamships.*

The year 1908 was a lean and hungry time for the transatlantic carriers. The number of passengers coming to America was 635,000, against 1,683,000 in 1907. The number

leaving America was 859,000, which was 89,000 more than the year before. That the outgoing tide should rise slightly higher while there was such a tremendous falling off of incoming travel, was due, of course, to the large emigration of foreign-born working people, who always flock back to the "old country" before and during a period of industrial depression. The earnings of the great Atlantic steamship companies bear eloquent witness to the effects of the slump in travel. The largest American company, the International Mercantile Marine, has never paid any dividend on either its preferred or common stocks; it shows for 1908 a sudden halt in its recent progress toward a surplus applicable for dividends. The German companies, the Hamburg-American and the North German Lloyd, have both passed their dividends, and finally the fourth system of great ships, England's proud Cunard company, has announced that there would this year be no return to its stockholders. But a movement has already set in toward better traffic. The last few weeks have shown unusually large arrivals of immigrants at New York, 10,000 coming in a single day, March 27, on seven ships. In these swarms of prospective Americans the Italians are still predominating, with Hungarians second in number, and Scandinavians third. Italy is now furnishing 29 per cent. of all the immigrants and Austria-Hungary 24 per cent. If no sudden drop comes in the stream of immigrants, the year 1908 will make a new record in the history of the country.

*Our
Colonial
Task.*

Ten years ago the American people were without experience in colonial administration. To-day, if not past masters of the art, they have at least served an apprenticeship. Thus far the material rewards for that form of service have not measured up to the outlay. The world was quite ready to believe in 1898 that America cared for dependencies only to exploit them. As a matter of history we have saved those dependencies from exploitation by others, but our own coffers have not gained by the transaction. Some things have been done, however, in those distant islands of which neither this nor any succeeding generations of Americans will ever be ashamed. The danger is that we in this busy home land, absorbed in our own enterprises, shall lose sight of the work that able and conscientious officials of our Government are doing across the seas to better

conditions of living and stimulate intellectual and moral progress among peoples who before the firing of Dewey's and Sampson's guns were races alien to our own in every sense. We sometimes forget that this huge task of colonial administration has claimed and is receiving month by month and year by year the zealous and patriotic service of a host of young Americans, many of whom are graduates of our leading universities and colleges,—a corps of civil servants of which any nation might be proud.

Helping the Brown Man On. Reviewing the first decade of the American occupation of the Philippines (and not glossing over its mistakes and its failures), we may well ask whether in all history there is an instance of one people doing so much for another people in so brief a time and doing it on the whole so efficiently, so wisely, and with so statesmanlike a view of the future. The work of these Philippine administrators has been anything but spectacular. It does not seem to have appealed very strongly to the imaginations even of our own people. The globe-circling cruise of our battleship fleet impressed the world far more powerfully than anything that we have done in the Philippines since Dewey sailed into Manila Bay; but the results of the past ten years of Philippine upbuilding will endure long after those great white ships shall have been replaced by the *Dreadnoughts* of the future. For America is not only bearing the white man's burden in the Philippines; she is training the brown man to bear his own burden, and this is a work the like of which even imperial Britain has never yet accomplished completely in any part of her vast domains.

Philippine Schools. Americans who would realize what America means in these modern days to millions of the once-remote Malay race should read with especial care the reports of the Department of Public Instruction at Manila. To have trained within ten years an army of 6000 Filipino teachers, competent to give instruction in the English language among a people to whom that tongue, prior to the American occupation, was as strange as was Tagalog to the population of Chicago, is in itself an achievement without a parallel; but the ability to administer with efficiency an up-to-date school system providing instruction from kindergarten to high school for half a million Filipino children, under such conditions as

have prevailed in the Archipelago since the work was undertaken, must command the admiration of educationists everywhere. Instruction is not confined to the "three R's"; there are well-equipped schools of manual training, domestic science, agriculture, and even fisheries. The whole system is administered by Dr. David P. Barrows, a graduate of the University of California and a discerning student of social and ethnological conditions in the islands for almost the entire period of the American occupation. Associated with him are about 700 American teachers, most of whom serve in a supervisory capacity. Nearly 200 of these American teachers are women. In short, this is a model school system of the American type, adapted to the conditions and exigencies of Malayan life.

Porto Rican Demands. Among the Porto Ricans dissatisfaction with the insular government has been expressed from time to time ever since the United States took up the task of administration. Last month attention at Washington was directed to the tangle in the affairs of the island caused by the legislative deadlock and the failure of the House of Delegates to pass the necessary appropriation bills. Representatives of the House of Delegates came to Washington to ask for a change in the form of government. The change desired would have the practical effect of depriving the insular officials, appointed at Washington, of any control of expenditures. It should be borne in mind that all the moneys raised in Porto Rico by taxation are expended in the island. The question is, whether representatives of the United States shall or shall not supervise the expenditure of funds collected by their authority, leaving the management of all local finance in the hands of the Porto Ricans themselves, as now. It has been pointed out repeatedly that Porto Rico has precisely as much autonomy in the matter of finance as any State of the American Union has. Federal taxation and expenditure, here as in Porto Rico, are in the hands of the federal Government. If the demands of the House of Delegates should be conceded, the Porto Ricans would enjoy a measure of exclusive fiscal power such as the citizens of New York and Massachusetts have not possessed since the formation of the Union in 1789. Meanwhile, it is a fact not to be gainsaid or ignored that Porto Rico under American administration has made remarkable progress.

Mr. Roosevelt
En Route
to Africa.

When the Cæsar of modern democracy goes a-hunting, the whole world pauses to see the cortege pass by. In these words a brilliant French journalist begins an account in *Figaro* (Paris) of ex-President Roosevelt's brief stops in Europe on his way to Africa. The interest in his progress fully justifies the comparison of the French writer. Mr. Roosevelt and his party left New York on the steamer *Hamburg* on March 23 and arrived at Gibraltar, the first stopping point, on April 2. A brief visit to Naples and Messina, during which Colonel Roosevelt met King Victor Emmanuel and Queen Helena and surveyed the scene of the earthquake, and the itinerary was resumed in the steamer *Admiral*, of the German East African line. The party was due at Mombasa on April 21 and the African expedition was fairly begun. The hearty cordiality with which the Roosevelt party was everywhere received was not only highly gratifying to the ex-President himself, but will be received as a national compliment by the great mass of Colonel Roosevelt's countrymen, who regard him as so typical and representative a product of our political and social civilization.

Pouren
Not
Extradited.

An important legal decision, involving one of the principles which lie at the very foundation of our national government, was handed down on March 31 by United States Commissioner Hitchcock in New York City. In the case of the Russian Government against the refugee Jan Janov Pouren, charged with burglary, arson, and attempted murder during the revolt in the Baltic provinces in August, 1906, Commissioner Hitchcock found the prisoner guilty as charged, but declared that none of the acts committed was in his judgment inspired by motives of personal gain. The Commissioner concluded from the testimony that Riga, the province in which Pouren's acts were committed, was still in a state of revolt in August, 1906, when the offenses occurred, and that, "however revolting these acts may have been, we must still consider that they were committed while the country was in a revolutionary state, and were, therefore, more or less justified." Pouren was then ordered released from custody. This was the second trial he had undergone,—the first one, in October, 1907, resulting in his conviction and an order of deportation. Through the efforts of many friends and public-spirited citizens, Secretary Root was

convinced that the case should be reopened, with the above-mentioned result. In refusing to permit the extradition of Pouren the United States Government in no way endorses or excuses his acts, nor does it in any way pass upon their alleged justification because of other criminal acts in the interest of a foreign government. It simply issues notice to the world that the United States will not hand back to a foreign government political refugees who have sought protection here.

The
World Against
Castro.

Only a few days after the High Federal Court of Venezuela had decided that Señor Cipriano Castro, having been proven guilty of attempting to bring about the assassination of acting-President Gomez, was, therefore, "constitutionally suspended from the presidency," Señor Castro boarded a steamer (March 26) at Bordeaux, France, bound for the West Indies. It was reported that he would remain at Trinidad (British possession), but that his wife, who accompanied him, would complete the journey to Caracas for the purpose of collecting the remains of her husband's fortune. Arriving at Trinidad, Señor Castro was informed by the British authorities that he would not be permitted to land. On April 10 the ship, with the Venezuelan ex-President on board, stopped at Fort de France, on the island of Martinique, and Señor Castro went on shore, only to be served at once with official notice by the French governor to the effect that he must leave within nine hours. Declining to do so except under force, and despite his protests, the Venezuelan statesman was carried on a stretcher by the gendarmes from his hotel to the French Line steamer *Versailles*, bound for France. Meanwhile official notice had been sent to the governor of the Danish West Indies, at St. Thomas, instructing him to bar Castro from Danish territory. At the same time Señora Castro and her party were not permitted to land at La Guayra nor to communicate with the shore. Despite Castro's vehement protests against what he terms outrageous treatment in expelling him from France's West Indian possession and his indignant assertion that politics were the farthest from his thoughts, it is believed by our State Department that Castro had plans laid for an effort to overthrow President Gomez and regain control of the country. There will be no opposition to the former Venezuelan president's landing in France or of remaining there, provided he lives peaceably.

The Progress of Peru. When the Panama Canal is completed the countries of the west coast of South America will be, speaking in terms of transportation, only one-third as far from our Atlantic and Gulf ports as at present. This shortening of distance and time will undoubtedly give a vast impetus to trade. The American people will, perhaps, then begin to realize the vast natural possibilities and economic potentialities of the South American continent. We call our readers' attention in this connection to Professor Rowe's article on another page (597) this month. During the present summer an exposition designed to bring together the nations of the two continents, with particular reference to Ecuadorean-American relations, will be held at Quito. At this exposition there will be an American building and an official exhibit. Ecuador's southern neighbor, Peru, has figured in the news dispatches recently because of the declared intention of its government to raise two internal loans, aggregating \$5,000,000, the proceeds of which are to be used to cancel the entire foreign indebtedness of the republic. Peru is far richer and more prosperous than most Americans realize. Her territory is nearly equal to one-third that of the United States (exclusive of Alaska), even without the two provinces of Tacna and Arica, which are still held by Chile since the war of 1883 between the two countries.

Her Dispute with Chile. The dispute over these two provinces has become acute during recent months because of much public discussion over the question of the plebiscit provided for in the treaty of Ancon. This vote was to decide whether Tacna and Arica, conquered and held by Chile, were to remain Chilean territory or to be restored to Peru. The problem is, who shall have the right to vote at this plebiscit? Seventeen years of diplomatic efforts, threatening at times to develop into actual war, have not succeeded in settling this question. The Peruvian Government has always maintained that the native and real inhabitants of the two "captive" provinces occupied by Chile since October 20, 1883, are the only ones entitled to vote according to the principles of municipal and international law. The government of Santiago, on the other hand, insists that the Chilean colonists, who have overrun these two provinces and established themselves there, should possess the same right to vote. Most of the original inhabi-

tants were Peruvians; the great majority of the newcomers are Chileans. It is the difficulty in deciding this question that has postponed the settlement of the ownership of the provinces. According to the treaty the plebiscit should have been held in 1894, but neither then nor ten years later were the two countries able to agree. South American statesmen fear that the question is insoluble except by a resort to the sword.

Roosevelt, Cervera, and Weyler. By a really remarkable coincidence the news dispatches from Spain during the short period of forty-eight hours last month revived memories of the American-Spanish war in a way to emphasize how far both countries have moved during the decade that has passed and how changed are their relations. On April 2 ex-President Roosevelt landed at Gibraltar for a brief visit while on his way to Africa. On the same day the Spanish cabinet, so the cable dispatches informed us, publicly announced its definite intention to reconstruct on modern lines the Spanish navy, which has been a negligible quantity since Cervera's defeat at Santiago. The next day Admiral Cervera himself, who bore such a gallant part in the conflict of eleven years ago and who earned the high respect of the American military and naval forces, passed away at the ripe age of seventy. The evening papers of the same day in Madrid announced that General Weyler had completed his memoirs, dealing chiefly with his campaign in Cuba. A week later, on April 11, came the expiration of Article IV. of the Treaty of Paris, which gave Spain equal commercial privileges with the United States in the Philippine Islands.

The New Spain. There are many signs that a really new Spain, politically and economically, is near at hand. Among the evidences of this advancement which have come to the world's notice during the past few weeks have been the introduction, on April 4 in the Cortes, by the Minister of Finance, of a bill authorizing the issue of a 4 per cent. loan of \$200,000,000, with the express statement that the funds so provided shall be devoted to public works, such as colonization, reforestation, irrigation, and the construction of canals, bridges, highways, and public buildings. The United States consul at Valencia also reports that an extensive and systematic effort is being put forth to revive the now decadent silk indus-



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SAROLLA, "PAINTER OF SUNSHINE."

(Señor Joaquin Sarolla, the Spanish painter whose canvases were recently exhibited in New York. He is now painting a portrait of President Taft.)

try in the Valencia region, once one of the most flourishing of Spanish industries. American-Spanish relations are constantly improving. The people of the United States are understanding Spanish life and character better. Witness the enthusiastic reception accorded in March by the New York public to the exhibition of paintings by the Spanish artist Sarolla. To the critics who saw Señor Sarolla's canvases in the gallery of the Hispanic Museum, in New York City, the debt of American art to Spanish masters is unmistakable. Sargent, Chase, and Whistler himself, according to these critics, obtained their inspiration from that "supreme impressionist master, Velasquez, whose modern successor is Sarolla."

*France
and Organized
Labor.*

By far the most serious and vexing problem facing the French people in these early years of the century has been not international relations, not disagreements over Morocco or the Balkans, not the revision of tax systems, not even the declining birth rate. The most grave problem is undoubtedly the interrela-

tions of socialism, organized labor, and the administration of the government of the republic. The main point at issue during the past decade, which has witnessed the enactment of so much legislation in favor of what is known as the laboring classes, has been the struggle of the organizations of government employees to affiliate with the Confederation Générale du Travail.—The General Federation of Labor,—under the Trade Union Act. French law at present forbids this, Premier Clemenceau contending that public servants are a privileged class and have no right to strike or join trade unions. The bureaucracy of the republic, however, which is already highly organized and which numbers, including both men and women, close to a million, is very powerful and radical in its views. The Federation of Labor is even more radical, and if we may believe the statements of MM. Jaurés and Guesde, Socialist leaders, and the chief officials of the Federation itself, including its secretary, Niel, its program is almost avowedly revolutionary in character. Almost every year of the past decade has witnessed serious strikes of the unionized laborers, who have generally had the "sympathy" of the government employees, many of whom have been expelled from the service for agitating in favor of affiliation with the General Federation.



ADMIRAL CERVERA.

(Who died last month in Madrid.)



Barthou, Minister of Public Works. Clemenceau, Prime Minister. Briand, Minister of Justice.
THE FRENCH PREMIER AND HIS MINISTERS WHO HAVE BEEN FACING THE UNIVERSAL STRIKE PROBLEM.

The Strikers Win. While apparently a compromise, and despite the fact that on March 26 the Clemenceau government obtained a large majority in a vote of confidence offered in the chambers, the net result of the series of strikes which took place during March was a decided victory for the men. The government officially declined to dismiss the offending Under-Secretary of Posts and Telegraphs, M. Julian Simyan, or to acknowledge the right of the government employees to form trade unions or affiliate with the General Confederation of Labor. It did, however, agree that there should be no dismissal of or discrimination against the men who had struck. It agreed further to withdraw the soldiers and police occupying the post-offices, and intimated that M. Simyan would be transferred to another department. Almost immediately after the meeting of the deputation of strikers with Minister of Public Works Barthou, at which the agreement was made to declare the strike off, men and women returned to work and Paris was again in communication with the outside world. That the strikers, the French people, and the world in general regard the outcome as a defeat for the Clemenceau government is shown by the fact that after the strikers had resumed work "sympathetic strikes" in eight other large cities of France were started among government employees in many different departments.

Extent of the Disaffection. The employees at the mint adopted resolutions of sympathy with the strikers, while the central committee of the Federated Union of State Workers, including those employed in the great state monopolies of tobacco and matches, voted to start a campaign in favor of a general strike if the government refused satisfaction to the postal employees. Representatives of the railroad unions furthermore passed a resolution congratulating the postal employees on their victory, while three or four hundred of the more daring employees of the postal service formed a new postal association, declaring that they would trans-



THE CHARIOT OF STATE IN FRANCE.
C. G. T. (Confederation Générale du Travail): "Clemenceau thinks he is driving me. Really, I am dragging him."
From *Figaro* (Paris).

form this into a trade union despite anything the government might say or do. Several days later a general strike was inaugurated at Meru among the workers in several of the large button factories in that town; during which there were several collisions with the troops and ugly cries of "Down with the Republic," "We Defy Parliament," "Hurrah for the General Strike," and "We Want Revolution," were heard. Later, at a large mass meeting attended by some 20,000 workmen, "King" Pataud, secretary of the electricians' union, made a violently revolutionary speech in the course of which he boasted that it was in his power at any time to leave Paris in darkness for any period that suited him, and

offered a resolution, which was adopted, that workmen in the employ of the government should strike in defiance of official rules and prohibitions. It is the open boast of M. Niel, the new secretary of the General Confederation of Labor, that the strike of postal employees and its threatened successors will be directed primarily and essentially against the government. The purpose, the leaders declare, is to make a strike committee supreme above the cabinet and to replace the Chamber of Deputies with a convention of trade unions.

Does It Mean Social Revolution? A fact only briefly recorded in the news dispatches, which, however, may have a very important influence upon the future of the relations between government and organized labor in France, was the defeat (on April 14) at the French Socialist Congress, in session at St. Etienne, of the policies advocated by M. Jean Jaurés and the appearance of M. Jules Guesde as the militant leader of the French Socialist party. Guesde is in favor of continuing the fight for the triumph of organized labor through the ballot-box, but his ultimate aim, he announced at this congress, is insurrection, on the ground that "it is im-



ENGLAND'S LATEST "DREADNOUGHT" TYPE.
(A view of the *Vanguard*, a mastless battleship, the latest addition to the British navy.)

possible to dethrone capitalism by legal means." The later phases of the activity of organized workers of the French republic have included a campaign on a large scale to organize the valets, footmen, coachmen, and domestic servants throughout the republic; and a still more audacious attempt to actually organize the entire body of French peasants for a "general and coherent attack on the robbery of property." What the outcome of all this will be is naturally a subject of apprehensive discussion and consideration with all thoughtful Frenchmen as "May Day" approaches. The fact that a general strike is being announced for that day may, perhaps, however, be accepted as a guarantee that none will take place. It takes a long time to organize a movement as vast as that which, according to its leaders, is actually contemplated by the Confederation Générale du Travail.

England to Build Still More Dreadnoughts. In his speech on the British naval program before the House of Commons on March 29, Sir Edward Grey, replying to the motion of the opposition to censure the government for "inadequate defense of the nation's honor," declared that an entirely new situation had

been created for Great Britain by the German naval program. When this program is carried out, Englishmen must frankly admit, Germany will be provided with thirty-three *Dreadnoughts* and altogether a fleet more powerful than any the world has ever seen. Despite the belief of the British Government and the British people in the sincerity and friendly feelings of the German Government and people, Sir Edward continued, "the situation lays a definite duty on England: The rebuilding of the British fleet so as to make it still more powerful." In closing, Sir Edward declared that all thinking men recognize the fact that the vastness of the expenditure on armaments is "a satire on modern civilization," and that if it continues it must lead Europe into bankruptcy. The opposition's motion to censure the government was then defeated by a majority of 218,—on a strictly party vote,—but Mr. Balfour, the opposition leader, succeeded in having the House of Commons go on record as insisting upon the building of eight instead of four *Dreadnoughts*. The way in which Britain's determination to maintain the two-power standard is made increasingly difficult for her by the growing military spirit on the continent is shown by the determination, announced last month, of Austria-Hungary to build four battleships of the *Dreadnought* type, to be completed before the close of 1911. These fighting units, in case of an actual conflict, would, of course, be counted in the German column.

*Germany's
Financial
Difficulties.*

While the Chancellor and other officials of the German Government continue to deny that the empire is expanding her armaments for the purpose of waging a maritime war against England, it would appear that the conviction is growing in Germany itself that there is some real basis for the English reproaches. More than one member of the Reichstag has, during the past few weeks, called the attention of the Chancellor to the undoubted fact that "a further continuance of the race in armament must eventually lead to war." Germans, however, are just now more interested in the financial crisis through which their country is passing. The government's fiscal measures are still "hung up" in the Parliament and every day of postponement (it has been reckoned by the semi-official *Norddeutsche Zeitung*) costs the nation a million and a half marks,—\$375,000. As has already been pointed out in these pages,

the great struggle is over the proposed "death duties" (inheritance tax), to which the great landowners of Prussia are stoutly opposed. The imperial budget for 1909 shows a total expenditure of slightly over \$626,000,000, an increase of some \$26,000,000 over the appropriations for last year. The revenues, meanwhile, have not increased and the deficit grows from day to day. The struggle to pass the financial measures has shaken Prince von Bülow's position as Chancellor and has dissolved the *bloc*, or combination of parties in the Reichstag, upon which the government has depended to carry its measures through. It is believed in many quarters that the Chancellor's fall is imminent.

*Servia
Yields to
Austria.*

As predicted in these pages last month, the Servian Government, on March 31, under pressure from the combined "advice" of the rest of the continent, formally yielded to the demands of Austria-Hungary with regard to the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The Servian note, which was delivered through the Servian Minister at Vienna, was to the following effect:

First—Servia declares that her rights have not been violated by the annexation by Austria-Hungary of Bosnia and Herzegovina, and accepts the Powers' decision to annul paragraph 25 of the Treaty of Berlin. Second—Servia will not protest against the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Third—Servia will maintain peaceful relations with Austria-Hungary. Fourth—Servia will return her military forces to normal conditions and will discharge the reservists and volunteers; she will not permit the formation of irregular troops or bands.

The phraseology of the note was that of the joint formula agreed upon between Austria and the other powers signatory to the treaty of Berlin, and the first draft was presented to the Servian Government by the British, French, Russian, German, and Italian ministers. At the same time as this note was approved by the Servian national assembly at Belgrade (the reading was received in painful silence, without a single word of comment), King Peter issued a ukase changing the names of his sons. Owing to popular disapproval of some of his personal failings, Crown Prince George on March 25 wrote to the cabinet and renounced all claims to the Servian throne. The royal ukase announcing the assumption by the second son, Alexander, of the rights to succession, declares that the heir shall assume the name George, which has always been the name of the head of the Servian royal family,

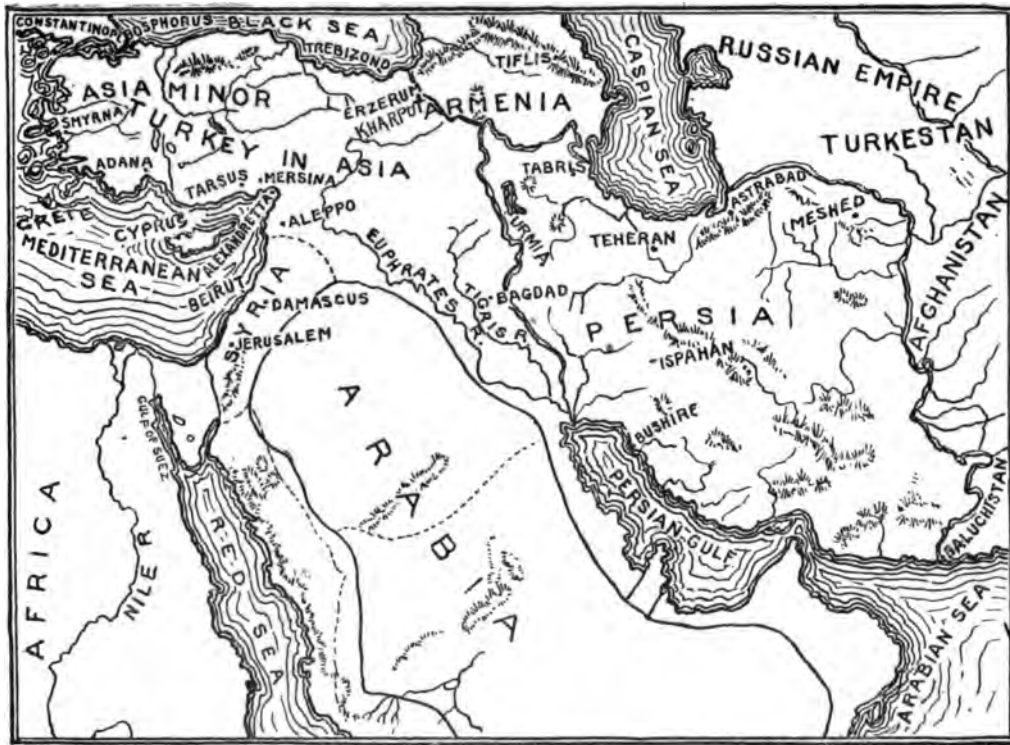
and that the deposed heir-apparent shall assume his brother's name of Alexander.

Austria's Gains and Losses. In acknowledging the Servian note, which was done immediately, the Austrian minister at Belgrade declared that his government was ready to negotiate a new commercial treaty. By the middle of April all the European powers had notified Vienna of their agreement to the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The concurrence of all the powers in the Austro-German program presumably makes highly improbable the convening of any international conference. While Austria's triumph is undoubtedly complete and it would seem that the Teutonic powers working together had almost changed the balance of power on the Continent, it cannot be forgotten, as the London *Spectator* points out, that there are many points on the debit side of the ledger for the Dual Monarchy. Austria, by coercing Italy, has virtually broken up the Triple Alliance, has cooled her relations with England and France, has made Servia and Russia bitterly hostile, has antagonized all the Slav peoples of the world, thus making possible trouble in her own parliament; has put herself under obligations to Germany, has paid a large sum of money for the two provinces, at the same time undergoing tremendous expense to maintain the military in those regions and suffering a very serious loss from Turkish boycott of the goods of her merchants.

The Checkmating of Russia. In the perspective of to-day it seems certain that the "residual victims" of the Balkan crisis of the past six months, the "net losers," are not Austria nor Turkey nor Bulgaria, the countries which figured most conspicuously in the first stages, but Servia and Russia. Austria, backed by Germany, is confirmed in her title to the two annexed provinces. Bulgaria has her independence in fact, and it is a matter of only a brief time before she will have it acknowledged in name. The signing of the Turko-Bulgarian protocol (on April 19) disposes of all questions between Bulgaria and Turkey that arose over the former's declaration of independence. Turkey has lost the shadowy title to something which she has not possessed for a generation, receiving in return large sums of much-needed money and the sympathy and good will of the western world. Servia is the chief victim, as pointed out in another paragraph. The

Muscovite empire, not yet recovered from the blows dealt her by Japan four years ago, and with her energies paralyzed by the war of the ruling classes on her own people, has been checkmated completely in the diplomatic game. That she realizes her impotence there can be no question. Some of the self-scourging speeches of her more thoughtful political leaders are quoted in a "Leading Article" which we print this month on page 619. All the Balkan Slavs look to Russia as their protector; indeed, Servia's attitude toward Austria-Hungary was maintained almost wholly by her belief that Russia would back her. But this latest Balkan crisis has proved beyond a doubt that Russia is as yet not much more than a negligible quantity in European councils.

The Austro-German Triumph. Whether or not, as is persistently reported in the French press, the German ambassador to St. Petersburg (Count Pourtalés) during early March actually demanded from Russia's foreign minister, Isvolski, immediate recognition of Austria's right and title to the annexed provinces without a conference and without consulting Great Britain and France, under penalty of "the occupation by German troops of strategic points in Poland," it is a fact that (on March 25) Minister Isvolski, without consulting the British and French foreign offices, did precipitately agree to the Austro-German proposal. Since this date it has been reported again and again that Isvolski had resigned and that ex-Premier Goremykin had been appointed his successor. A change in Russia's foreign office is certainly inevitable, and indications point to a more pro-German policy in the near future. The Austro-German triumph in the Balkan crisis leaves the combination of Teutonic powers in undisputed leadership of the European concert. Even without Russia's defection from the newly established triple *entente* (Great Britain, France, and Russia) the Central European powers had the advantage, since they were ready and willing to appeal to the sword, while the Western nations are by their very political and economic status bound to do anything for peace's sake. England realizes her unprepared state; of Russia's weakness the world, including herself, is well aware; while France, holding as she does more than 70 per cent. of the foreign interest-bearing securities of both Russia and Turkey, is bound to the peace at any-price idea.



ASIATIC TURKEY, THE SCENE OF THE RECENT MASSACRES OF NATIVE CHRISTIANS AND MISSIONARIES.

As we write these words (April 20) the military revolt which has already penetrated to every portion of the Turkish Empire has assumed proportions that may bring about radical changes throughout Turkey and her former vassal states much more far-reaching than anything which has taken place since the Austrian and Bulgarian coups in October last. It is now generally admitted that the alleged setback to the supremacy of the Young Turkish party, which, as we recorded in this magazine for March, resulted, early in February, in the passing of the aged Kiamil Pasha, who gave place to Hilmi Pasha, was, far from being a defeat for the Committee of Union and Progress (the Young Turks), in reality a demonstration of their power. Kiamil Pasha had been a consistent opponent of the growing tendency in the Committee of Union and Progress to concentrate in their own hands an amount of power which, it was claimed, made the committee government as despotic as had been the rule of Sultan Abdul Hamid, though, of course, less reactionary. The army, which had been the chief agent and the forefront of the revolution which last July made Tur-

*The
Revolt in
Turkey.*

key a constitutional monarchy, did not realize the benefits expected from and promised by the new régime. It may be that the Young Turks feared to better the conditions of the soldiers and to pay them the back money due, lest the military acquire too much power. Or, on the other hand, it is not impossible that European *weltpolitik*, which has had so much at stake in the shift and play of international advantage and disadvantage in the Balkans, instigated the soldiers to revolt.

*Fall
of the
Ministry.*

Be that as it may, the reports spread widely throughout the armed forces of Turkey in both Europe and Asia that the Committee of Union and Progress intended abolishing the constitution, abrogating the religious law of Mohammed, and arrogating to itself supreme dictatorial power. On April 13, without a warning, thousands of mutinous troops, denouncing as tyrants and deceivers the Young Turkish party and Ahmed Riza Pasha, president of the parliament, surrounded the parliament house at Constantinople and demanded the deposition of Hilmi Pasha and his cabinet. After many hours of turmoil

and panic in the city and outlying sections, during which there was much disorder and looting and some loss of life (as to the number of killed reports do not agree), the ministry yielded and handed in its resignation and the Sultan appointed Tewfik Pasha, formerly Foreign Minister, to be Grand Vizier. For days the entire city of Constantinople was in the hands of the troops, who, disregarding their officers, terrorized the inhabitants. It soon became evident that, temporarily at least, the Committee of Union and Progress had lost its power and that the *Jemiyeti Mohammedieh* (League of Mohammed), backed by the rank and file of almost the entire army and a large majority of the Moslem populace, was master of the situation.

The March on Constantinople. Conflicting reports came day after day of the movement of large military forces toward the capital from all parts of the empire, ostensibly to protest against the abrogation of the constitution by the Young Turks. It soon became evident that, while undoubtedly slightly reactionary in character, the new movement did not portend a return to the former despotism of Abdul Hamid, all parties swearing to defend the constitution. The troops, still loyal to the Young Turk régime, were quickly mobilized, and being assured that the Committee of Union and Progress was not, as had been supposed, tainted with anti-Moslem tendencies or possessed of the intention to establish a political dictatorship, a civil war of the first order became one of the possibilities. It soon began to be persistently reported that, whatever the result of the new movement, Sultan Abdul Hamid would be forced to abdicate, if not put to death. There can be no doubt of his reactionary intentions, nor of the fact that for months he has been expending large sums of money from his private fortune for the purpose of corrupting the army and bringing them back to allegiance to the old régime of personal government. As we go to press with this issue of the REVIEW the situation is verging on civil war, with the clergy, the Liberal Union, and the garrison of Constantinople on one side, and the Young Turk Committee, with the troops from Salonika and Adrianople on the other.

Riot and Massacre in Asia. A revolt of first-class proportions in Albania, an intimation from Sofia that Bulgarian troops were ready to cross the border into Turkish territory, and reports of sickening massacre, de-

struction of property throughout almost the entire extent of Turkey's Asiatic possessions almost immediately followed the crisis in Constantinople. Armed bands of fanatical Mohammedans, Kurds, and other disaffected elements, according to reports received in Europe on April 18, some days before that date attacked Adana, Tarsus, Mercina, Alexandretta, and Kharput, all towns in Asia Minor, and massacred the native Christians, principally Armenians, to the number of 5000, including at Adana two American missionaries. Adana, a town of 10,000 inhabitants, was burned to the ground.

Anarchy in Persia.

Persia's fight for constitutional government proceeds very slowly and with great labor and loss of life. During the past few weeks actual civil war has been progressing in Persia, the so-called Nationalists, at the head of fairly well equipped and drilled troops, virtually overthrowing the authority of the Shah and setting up reform governments in captured towns. In Tabriz a government upon a European model has been in operation for some months. Rioting, disorder, loot, and blackmail, however, have marked the course of both government and revolutionary troops, and to this, according to reports late last month, must be added wholesale massacre by invading Turcoman tribes from Russian Turkestan. These tribesmen, it was reported last month, had occupied Meshed and Astrahabad and were holding them against both government and revolutionary Persian forces. Our own Government has notified the Shah that the United States will hold Persia responsible for the protection of American citizens at Tabriz and other places where disorder exists. It seems impossible to gauge the actual opinion or intentions of the Shah, whose frequent promulgations and as frequent revocations of a constitution have precipitated a condition of frightful anarchy among his own people which can apparently terminate in nothing less than some form of aggressive foreign intervention. Sooner or later it would seem that Great Britain and Russia must act.

Eminent Japanese Visitors.

The two special commissioners from Japan, Dr. Hikojiro Wada and Mr. Tokutaro Sakai, representing the international exposition which is to be held in Tokio in 1917, after some weeks spent in Europe studying conditions for the benefit of the exposition, paid a visit

last month to New York, Washington, and other American cities, where they were cordially and hospitably received by government officials and private citizens. In a special dinner given these commissioners on April 13, Secretary of State Knox declared to the visiting Japanese officials that, speaking by the authority of the President, he desired to emphasize the intention of the United States Government to strengthen by all means in its power the ties between the two governments and the two peoples. Two Japanese cruisers were expected to visit San Francisco late last month, and the municipality and the citizens prepared to receive them royally. On a number of other occasions during this summer there are to be opportunities afforded United States governmental authorities and American citizens to return in a measure the hospitality extended to American sailors during the visit of the United States fleet to Yokohama on its trip around the world.

*How They
Will Be
Received.*

In June the Japanese Vice-Admiral Uriu will visit Washington to attend the annual dinner of the class of 1881 of the Naval Academy, of which he is a member. It is planned to make this occasion memorable for its hospitality to the Japanese naval commander. In September, also, a committee of Japanese business men will visit the cities of our Pacific Coast and view the Alaska-Yukon Exposition, upon the invitation of the Chambers of Commerce of Seattle, Portland, and Tacoma. Remembering Japanese courtesies to our fleet and to the American business men who visited Yokohama and Tokio in January, no doubt the Pacific Coast will be cordial and even demonstrative in its expressions of friendliness to the visiting Japanese merchants. In connection with Japanese-American commercial relations, we would call the especial attention of our readers to the thorough analysis of Japanese finance, by Mr. Adachi Kinnosuke, editor of the *Far East*, which appears on page 587 of this issue of the REVIEW.

*Japan
Educating the
New China.*

In the Japanese capital there is being enacted to-day, quietly and without ceremony or heralding to the world, what is certain to be the first act of one of the greatest international dramas in history. Ten thousand Chinese students, coming from every section of the vast Celestial Empire to study modern Western learning in the institutions of Tokio,

hold in their hands the key to the China of the future. Therefore the high importance of education of this band of young Chinese who are to be the leaders of thought and action in the new China. The emigration of Chinese students to Japan began only a decade ago. By 1905 there were 8000 in Tokio. To-day the number exceeds 10,000. If we add to this the nearly 2000 Korean youths who are studying Western progress in Japanese schools the full importance of this movement will be seen. A recent report of the foreign department of the International Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association, in New York, contains some very interesting data about these students, who have come from the proudest, most conservative, most secluded nation of the world to "sit at the feet of their conqueror in order to learn the secret of her progress and power." Not more than one-third of the students, we are told, are supported by government funds. The others, drawn largely from the highest and best classes of China, are sent by wealthy families, by groups of poor families, by trade schools, and finally by various other organizations and societies.

*China's
Dignified
Foreign Policy.*

Early last month there became effective in China a new citizenship law, forbidding under severe penalties Chinese subjects to become naturalized in any other country. Once a Chinaman always a Chinaman, is the spirit of the new law, the passage of which, we are informed, was dictated by two considerations. The first was to "save the face" and preserve the dignity of China before the world and particularly before the United States. Hereafter, in reply to the statement that foreign nations will not permit Chinese to become citizens, the government at Peking will reply that China herself does not permit the expatriation of her subjects. In the second place, China is building up a military establishment after the European fashion, and the new law will prevent any wholesale expatriation to avoid military duty. The Peking government is evincing an unlooked-for dignity and persistence in its attitude on the Manchurian Railway question, on the one hand with Russia over the right of Russian representatives to collect taxes in Harbin, and on the other with Japan over the administration and policing of railroad territory in southern and eastern Manchuria. Early last month the Chinese Foreign Office



Photograph by Pach Bros., N. Y.

DR. JAMES HULME CANFIELD.

(Librarian of Columbia University, who died on March 29.)

demanding the withdrawal of the Japanese troops and police from the Antung and Mukden railway and requested the Tokio government to submit the whole question to the Hague Tribunal for arbitration. This, however, the Japanese have refused to do, claiming that "the resources of diplomacy have not yet been exhausted."

Australia and Imperial Defense. The foreign politics of the Australian commonwealth, which for years have revolved around the question of threatened Asiatic domination, were stirred to some considerable excitement during March and April by several sensational speeches delivered by ex-Premier Deakin before the Federal Parliament and before several popular audiences in Melbourne. Accusing the existing ministry,

which, it will be remembered, is made up of members of the Labor party, headed by the Hon. Andrew Fisher, of supineness in the matter of national defense, Mr. Deakin aroused such feeling that the administration, the policy of which one Melbourne editor calls "faulty, hesitant, timorous, and empty," enunciated a real policy of international defense. Premier Fisher announced that for adequate naval defense there was absolutely necessary an Australian navy to co-operate with the imperial fleet. His program contemplates the building of four ocean destroyers and sixteen river-class destroyers within three years, all to be constructed in Australia, this flotilla to take over the entire responsibility of defending the Australian coast. Coming as the offer did, at the time of the offers of Canada and New Zealand to build *Dreadnoughts* for the imperial navy, this loyalty of the Australian commonwealth has made a deep impression not only upon the British people but upon all Europe as well.

Our obituary record for the month (see page 547) contains the names of an unusual number of persons of eminence. We have made reference elsewhere to the deaths of Marion Crawford, the poet Swinburne, Madame Modjeska, Admiral Cervera, and the Hon. Ethan Allen Hitchcock, formerly Secretary of the Interior in two administrations, whose services to the country on behalf of an honest enforcement of the laws ought to be held in permanent remembrance. Portraits of these five persons of distinction in their several careers will be found in this number of the REVIEW. No man more useful in his day and generation has lately passed away from the activities of a busy life than Dr. James H. Canfield, who for ten years had been head of the Library of Columbia University, and active in many kinds of service in New York. Leaving Williams College some forty years ago, he had built railroads, practiced law, and administered schools in the Northwest, had for fourteen years been a professor of history and politics in the State University of Kansas, and then had presided in turn over the Universities of Nebraska and Ohio, remaining four years at each institution. In every State where he had lived he had been unsparing in the performance of public duty and in the service of the community.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From March 20 to April 20, 1909.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

March 22.—In the Senate, all vacancies on standing committees are filled; nearly 500 bills are introduced....In the House, Mr. Payne (Rep., New York) makes a speech in explanation of the Tariff bill.

March 24.—In the House, Champ Clark (Dem., Mo.), the minority leader, makes an attack on the Payne Tariff bill.

March 25-31.—The House debates the Payne Tariff bill.

April 1.—In the Senate, a resolution introduced by Mr. Hale (Rep., Me.), favoring the restriction of the business of the extra session to the passage of a Tariff bill and the Census bill, is adopted....The House continued the debate on the Tariff bill.

April 2.—In the House debate on the Tariff bill, Mr. DeLeon, the Philippine Commissioner, speaks against free trade with the islands.

April 5.—The House adopts the resolution of the Committee on Rules providing for committee amendments to the Tariff bill and giving full opportunity to alter the lumber and hides schedules.

April 6.—The House strikes out the countervailing duty on lumber.

April 7.—The House adopts an amendment to the Tariff bill placing a duty of only 1 per cent. on crude petroleum.

April 8.—In the Senate, the Census bill is introduced by Mr. LaFollette (Rep., Wis.).... The House adopts thirty-five minor amendments to the Payne Tariff bill proposed by the Ways and Means Committee.

April 9.—The Senate considers the Census bill....The House passed the Payne Tariff bill by a vote of 217 to 161.

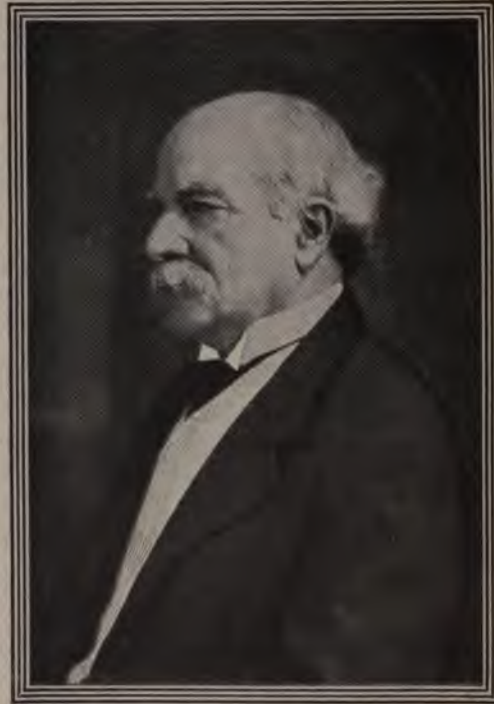
April 10.—The Senate passes the Census bill and receives the Tariff bill from the House.

April 12.—In the Senate, the Finance Committee's substitute for the Payne Tariff bill is introduced by Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.)....The House corrects the error in the Payne Tariff bill by which products of petroleum are not placed on the free list.

April 15.—A message from President Taft, transmitting a tariff bill for the Philippines, is received in both branches....In the Senate, Mr. Bailey (Dem., Tex.) introduces an amendment to the Tariff bill providing for an income tax....In the House, Mr. Scott (Rep., Kans.) introduces a bill to prohibit dealing in futures.

April 19.—In the Senate, Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.) opens the tariff debate, declaring that the Finance Committee's bill would produce ample revenue for the needs of the Government.

April 20.—The Senate sends the Census bill back to conference.



Photograph by Harris & Ewing.

HON. ETHAN ALLEN HITCHCOCK, FORMER SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

(Who died at St. Louis on April 9.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

March 22.—President Taft announces the appointment of Lloyd Bowers, of Chicago, as Solicitor-General of the Department of Justice....Secretary Meyer creates a board to consider matters connected with the reorganization of the Navy Department....In the Pittsburg graft cases, the Grand Jury returns three indictments for conspiracy, one for perjury, and two for bribery.

March 23.—Governor Hughes, of New York, signs a bill passed by the Legislature designating October 12 as a legal holiday, to be known as Columbus Day....The new Chicago charter, in eleven bills, is introduced in the Illinois Legislature.

March 26.—President Taft orders the marines restored to the navy under former conditions....George Alexander, the municipal and reform candidate for Mayor of Los Angeles, Cal., is elected at the "recall" election.

March 27.—President Taft announces the appointment of a budget committee of cabinet members to supervise estimates of federal expenses.

March 30.—President Taft holds a tariff conference with Speaker Cannon and Representatives Payne, Dalzell, and Dwight, at the White House.

March 31.—The Georgia convict lease system comes to an end with the transfer of 1200 felony convicts from various private stockades to the respective counties in which their crimes were committed.

April 5.—Arguments are begun in the Government's suit against the Standard Oil Company at St. Louis.

April 6.—St. Louis elects a Republican Mayor, Frederick H. Kreismann.

April 8.—Gen. Benjamin F. Tracy, referee, reports to the Supreme Court that New York City's debt limit on June 30, 1908, was more than \$106,000,000.

April 16.—President Taft has a conference with Samuel Gompers and other officers of the American Federation of Labor.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

March 20.—The Finance Committee of the German Reichstag rejects without debate the new gas and electricity taxes proposed in the Government's taxation bill.

March 21.—In the strike of the post and telegraph employees of Paris the government makes concessions regarding the restoration of the men to duty.

March 22.—The Indian budget shows a deficit caused by the famine, high prices, and bad trade. . . . New Zealand offers to defray the cost of a first-class battleship for the British navy.

March 23.—The Venezuelan Government sends warning that ex-President Castro will be arrested if he lands in Venezuela. . . . The budget committee of the German Reichstag decides to report the government's naval program calling for three *Dreadnoughts* and one large cruiser. . . . Six thousand of the striking government postal employees in Paris vote to return to work.

March 24.—King Victor Emmanuel opens the Italian Parliament. . . . Great Britain accepts New Zealand's offer to build a battleship. . . . In the German Reichstag the navy estimates are voted without debate.

March 25.—The French Chamber of Deputies unanimously votes to appoint a parliamentary commission to investigate alleged graft in the navy. . . . The Crown Prince of Servia surrenders his right to succession in favor of his brother. . . . The Russian Supreme Military Court imposes sentences of death on thirty-one persons.

March 26.—The committee of inquiry into the state of the French navy is appointed. . . . The French Chamber of Deputies debates the postal strike. . . . The Woman's Anti-Suffrage League holds a great demonstration in London.

March 27.—The Servian cabinet accepts the resignation of Crown Prince George.

March 28.—The Servian national assembly ratifies King Peter's choice of Alexander, his second son, as heir to the throne.

March 29.—The British House of Commons, by a majority of 218 votes, refused to adopt a

vote of censure on the government's naval plans. . . . In the Canadian House of Commons a resolution is introduced declaring that Canada ought to assume her proper share of responsibility for the protection of her coast line and seaboard. . . . In the German Reichstag, Prince Bülow denies any acceleration in naval construction.

March 30.—Augustin Birrell again introduces the Irish Land bill in the British House of Commons. . . . Chancellor von Bülow defends his own position and that of the Emperor before the German Reichstag, which adopts the salary appropriation.

March 31.—The new Port of London authority takes over the London docks.

April 1.—The Russian Duma votes to increase the army budget by more than \$21,000,000.

April 2.—Sargent Cortes and his son, Vicente, are sentenced to death by a Cuban court-martial for the recent revolt.

April 5.—A British air fleet is strongly advocated in the House of Commons.

April 8.—The Mexican budget contains appropriations of \$4,900,000 for education and \$11,500,000 for irrigation.

April 13.—The Turkish garrison in Constantinople mutinies and forces the government to dismiss the Grand Vizier, the Minister of War, and the president of the Chambers; seventeen persons are reported killed and thirty wounded. . . . The French parliamentary committee investigating the navy yard at Toulon finds further evidence of waste and mismanagement.

April 14.—A new Turkish cabinet, with Tewfik Pasha as Grand Vizier, takes office in Constantinople; the Sultan grants other demands made by the mutinous troops. . . . A bill is introduced in the Spanish Chamber of Deputies authorizing a loan of \$200,000,000 at 4 per cent. . . . The Government of Ecuador checks a plot to overthrow President Alfaro and establish a triumvirate.

April 15.—Thousands are massacred in Asiatic Turkey.

April 16.—The French telegraphers join the postal employees in demanding the privilege of forming unions, which includes the right to strike.

April 17.—The Committee of Union and Progress in Turkey induces the third army corps to march on Constantinople from Salonika and Adrianople.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

March 21.—The powers give general adherence to the principles of the International Naval Conference.

March 22.—Great Britain and Russia join in a note to the Shah of Persia demanding that outrages committed by Persian troops be stopped.

March 23.—Austria-Hungary refuses to accept the Servian note formulated by Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Minister.

March 25.—President Taft nominates John G. A. Leishman, of Pennsylvania, to be Ambassador to Italy; Henry Clay Ide, of Vermont, to be Minister to Spain, and Charles H. Sherrill, of New York, to be Minister to the Argentine

Republic... Russia agrees to recognize Austria's annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

March 30.—Serbia accepts the proposals laid down by the powers... Japan refuses China's request to submit questions at issue in Manchuria to The Hague.

March 31.—Austria having accepted the Serbian note all tension is regarded as at an end... The last American troops leave Cuba... Colombia decides to present the tripartite treaty to the national assembly to be elected in July.

April 1.—Austria-Hungary sends a final note to Serbia accepting conditions which avert war in the Balkans... The Prussian Government introduces a bill in the Diet designed to prevent American fertilizer interests from purchasing Prussian potash mines... President Taft nominates George H. Moses, of New Hampshire, to be Minister to Greece and Montenegro.

April 4.—The French tariff committee agrees to amendments reducing schedules in favor of the United States... Dr. Saenz Pena, of Argentina, is selected by Venezuela as arbitrator in the questions to be settled with the United States.



HEROES OF THE ANTARCTIC.

(On the left is Lieutenant Shackleton, who has established a record by penetrating to within 111 miles of the South Pole, or 350 miles nearer than the previous "Farthest South." On the right is Petty Officer Joyce, one of the most experienced of Lieutenant Shackleton's men, who was in charge of the dogs and sledges. See page 594.)



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SEÑOR DON FRANCISCO LEON DE LA BARRA.

(The new Mexican Ambassador to the United States.)

April 5.—The Turkish Chamber of Deputies, by vote of 136 to 46, approves the Austro-Turkish protocol providing for the settlement of differences arising out of the annexation by Austria-Hungary of the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina; under it the Turkish Government will receive \$10,800,000 indemnity... A Chinese naturalization law revokes the right of natives to become citizens of foreign governments... The State Department at Washington is informed that Nicaragua will make an early effort to settle, either by compromise or arbitration, the Emery claim.

April 6.—Great Britain, at the request of the United States, decides not to allow ex-President Castro, of Venezuela, to leave the *Guadaloupe* at Port of Spain... Japan asks China to reconsider her proposals regarding Manchuria.

April 9.—France informs the United States that the decision to expel ex-President Castro, of Venezuela, from Martinique will be at once carried into effect.

April 10.—Ex-President of Venezuela is expelled by France from Martinique... All the powers involved recognize Austria's annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

April 11.—Denmark announces that ex-President Castro, of Venezuela, will not be allowed to make his residence in any of its West Indian possessions.

April 15.—An American missionary, D. M. Rogers, is killed at Adana, in Asiatic Turkey... Three Russian gunboats are sent to Astrabad, Persia, to protect the inhabitants against possible massacre by tribesmen.



Photograph by Clinebush.

CHIEF CRAZY SNAKE.

(Head of a warlike band of Indians in Oklahoma.)

April 16.—It is announced that President Zelaya, of Nicaragua, is preparing to begin war on Salvador.

April 19.—The Russo-Bulgarian settlement is signed at St. Petersburg simultaneously with the signing of the Turco-Bulgarian agreement at Constantinople, Bulgaria paying \$16,400,000 as the price of independence.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

March 20.—An earth shock occurs in Catalonia....In the case against Col. Duncan G. Cooper and his son, Robin Cooper, charged with the murder of ex-United States Senator E. W. Carmack at Nashville, Tenn., the jury returns a verdict of murder in the second degree, with twenty years' imprisonment as the penalty.

March 21.—Czar Nicholas, of Russia, confers the Grand Cross of Alexander Nevski on President Diaz, of Mexico.

March 22.—The Cunard liner *Mauretania* breaks all east-bound records, completing the run from Ambrose Channel Lightship to Daunt's Rock in four days, eighteen hours, and twenty-five minutes, making an hourly average of 25.61 knots, the best day's record being 609 knots.... William Whitla, the kidnapped son of J. P. Whitla, of Sharon, Pa., is returned to his father at Cleveland, Ohio.

March 23.—News is received that Lieutenant Shackleton, of the British navy, has reached a point within 111 miles of the South Pole, the farthest south yet reached (see page 594)....

Ex-President Theodore Roosevelt sails from New York for Africa.

March 25.—Sir William Ramsey announces that he has succeeded in transmuting zirconium, thorium, hydro-fluorsalicylic acid, and bismuth into carbon....Gifts of \$100,000 to Phillips-Exeter Academy at Exeter, N. H., are announced....Ex-Secretary George B. Cortelyou is elected president of the Consolidated Gas Company of New York.

March 26.—The Republic Iron & Steel Company announces a 10 per cent. wage reduction, affecting 12,000 men.

March 27.—The centenary of Edward Fitzgerald is commemorated at Ipswich, England (see page 616)....The new buildings of the Victoria College are opened at Alexandria.

March 29.—The Mansion House fund at London for the Italian earthquake is closed, the total amount subscribed being £139,000 (\$695,000)....Fire at the Havana Central Railway piers causes a loss estimated at \$1,000,000.... The Zeppelin airship reaches a height of 6000 feet....A detachment of Crazy Snake's band of warlike Indians is surrounded in Oklahoma, and one Indian is killed and eight captured.

March 30.—The new Queens Borough Bridge, in New York City, is formally opened for traffic....Jan Pouden, the Russian refugee, is released from custody in New York.

April 1.—Four buildings of the federal military prison at Leavenworth, Kan., are destroyed by fire.

April 2.—Many cases of bubonic plague and yellow fever are reported in Guayaquil, Ecuador....The Virginian Railway, constructed by H. H. Rogers from Norfolk, Va., to Deepwater, W. Va., is opened....Count Zeppelin leaves Munich in his airship at 3:30 p. m. and arrives at Friedrichshafen at 8....Ex-President Roosevelt is warmly welcomed at Gibraltar.

April 3.—Fire at Ft. Worth, Tex., kills six persons and causes a property loss estimated at \$5,000,000.

April 5.—Ex-President Roosevelt lands at Naples.

April 6.—Ex-President Roosevelt arrives at Messina and is warmly greeted by King Victor Emmanuel.

April 7.—Ex-President Roosevelt sends from Messina a message to the American people, telling of the splendid work done by American officers and civilians to relieve the earthquake sufferers....The British steamer *Hero* strikes and sinks the destroyer *Blackwater* off Dungeness....At a conference between the anthracite operators and mine workers at Philadelphia the operators refuse all demands and submit a proposition to continue the present wage agreement for three years.

April 8.—About fifty wooden buildings in the tenement house district of Manchester, N. H., are destroyed by fire....Three submarine torpedo boats are launched at Quincy, Mass.

April 9.—Ex-President Theodore Roosevelt arrives at Port Said.

April 11.—Fire at Lenox, Mass., causes the death of six persons and a property loss of \$300,000.

April 13.—Fire at Rochester, N. Y., causes damage aggregating \$500,000 and renders about 100 families homeless.

April 16.—The Cudahy Packing Company, of Kansas City, is indicted on 695 counts, charging fraud in affixing internal revenue stamps to oleomargarine.

April 18.—70,000 inhabitants of Vienna thank Emperor Francis Joseph for his successful efforts to preserve peace....The ceremonies of the beatification of Joan of Arc are held at St. Peter's, Rome.

April 19.—The committee of anthracite mine operators decides to report that the men must sign the agreement of the strike commission or expect a lockout.

OBITUARY.

March 21.—Rev. John B. Drury, D.D., editor of the *Christian Intelligencer*, 70....Ex-Congressman William Connell, of Pennsylvania, coal operator and philanthropist, 82....Charles M. Kurtz, director of the Buffalo Fine Arts Academy, 54....Prince Michael Hilkev, member of the Council of the Russian Empire.

March 22.—Sir Roland Blennerhasset, 69.... John H. Starin, head of the Starin transportation lines of New York, 83....Dr. Rudolph von Renvers, an eminent German physician.

March 23.—Dr. William H. Wahl, a well-known scientist of Philadelphia, 60....Col. William Lamb, a well-known Confederate veteran of the Civil War, 73.

March 24.—Rev. Sereno E. Bishop, D.D., of Hawaii, 85....Prof. Alfred Messel, the German architect, 56.

March 26.—Charles B. Waité, author and linguist, of Chicago, 85.

March 28.—Gov. Samuel G. Cosgrove, of Washington State....Dr. William Jones, the anthropologist sent to the Philippines by the Field Museum of Chicago, 34.

March 29.—Dr. James H. Canfield, librarian of Columbia University, 62....Rear-Adm. George A. Converse, U. S. N., retired, 65.... Rev. John Crowell, D.D., of East Orange, N. J., 95....Dr. Heinrich Wiegand, director-general of the North German Lloyd Steamship Company, 54.

March 31.—Isaac Henderson, publisher, author, and playwright, 59....Gen. Count Egbert Hoyer von Asseburg, president of the German Committee of the Olympic Games, 63.

April 1.—Rev. James Stuart Dickson, secretary of the College Board of the Presbyterian Church, 50.

April 2.—Charles Chauncey Mellor, of Pittsburgh, musician and scientist, 73.

April 3.—Admiral Cervera, who commanded the Spanish fleet which was destroyed by the United States fleet at Santiago de Cuba in 1898, 70.... Dr. William Henry Edwards, the naturalist, 88....Dr. H. C. Potter, founder and builder of the Pere Marquette Railroad, 86....Peter

Robert Burrell, fourth Baron Gwydyr, the oldest British peer, 99.

April 4.—Ritter von Sonnenthal, Austrian actor and manager, 75....Benjamin Johnson Lang, a prominent Boston musician, 71.

April 5.—Ex-Governor William A. Poynter, of Nebraska, 61.

April 6.—George Herbert McCord, landscape and marine painter, 61....Brig.-Gen. Marcus D. L. Simpson, U. S. A., retired, veteran of the Mexican and Civil Wars, 85....Gen. Thomas W. Scott, Adjutant-General of the Illinois National Guard, a veteran of the Civil War.

April 7.—Ex-Congressman William Neville, of Nebraska, 66....Mrs. Will H. Low, translator of the works of Robert Louis Stevenson into French, 56.

April 8.—Mme. Helena Modjeska, the Polish actress, 65 (see page 605)....Prof. George Rice Carpenter, of Columbia University, 45.

April 9.—Ethan Allen Hitchcock, Secretary of the Interior under Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt, 74....Ex-Congressman Walter Reeves, of Illinois, 60....Francis Marion Crawford, the novelist, 55 (see page 636).... William Fitzhugh Whitehouse, a famous American traveler, 62.

April 10.—Algernon Charles Swinburne, the English poet, 72 (see page 637)....Paschal Grousset, French journalist and communist, 65.

April 11.—Theodore W. E. De Lemos, the well-known architect, 59....Joseph Russell Jones, one of the oldest residents of Chicago, 86.

April 12.—Stefan von Kotze, a leading German writer, 39....Anton Hesse, of Munich, a well-known sculptor, 71.

April 13.—Sir Donald Currie, head of the great English ship-owning concern, 84....Miss Carolina Holman Huidobro, a well-known lecturer on South American countries, 50.

April 14.—Ex-United States Senator Matthew C. Butler, of South Carolina, 73.

April 16.—Edward H. Barnard, the landscape painter, 53....Charles M. Preston, former Superintendent of Banks of New York State, 57.

April 17.—Amzi L. Barber, president of the Barber Asphalt Company, 66....Prof. William H. Council, president of the Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes, at Normal, Ala., 61....Mrs. Jennette Shepherd Loop, a well-known portrait painter, 69....Col. James E. Montgomery, a member of General Grant's staff during the Civil War, 82.

April 18.—Col. Jacob A. Augur, Tenth Cavalry, U. S. A., 60....Rev. James Harrison Rigg, D.D., a well-known Wesleyan Methodist minister in London, 88.

April 19.—Dr. Frank W. Draper, instructor and professor in Harvard Medical School, 66.

April 20.—Joseph C. Meredith, chief engineer of the Florida East Coast Railway extension, 53....John Dennin Hall, the well-known inventor, 80.

ANNOUNCEMENTS OF CONVENTIONS, CELEBRATIONS, AND EXPOSITIONS, 1909.

CELEBRATIONS AND EXPOSITIONS.

PLACE.	DATE.	SECRETARY.
Alaska-Pacific Exposition.....	Seattle, Wash.	
Hudson-Fulton Celebration.....	New York City & State.	Welford Beaton (Chief of Publicity), Seattle, Wash.
Lake Champlain Pericentenary Celebration.....	Lake Champlain, N. Y., and Vermont.	Col. Henry W. Sackett, Tribune Building, New York.
St. Louis Celebration of Centennial of Incorporation.....	St. Louis, Mo.	Hon. Henry W. Hill, Mutual Life Building, Buffalo, N. Y.
Cleveland Industrial Exposition.....	Cleveland, O.	Charles F. Wenneker, St. Louis, Mo.
Golden West and American Industries Exhibition.....	London, Eng.	Chamber of Commerce, Cleveland, O.
Congress of the Internationale Musik Gesellschaft.....	Vienne, Austria.	
400th Anniversary of the Birth of John Calvin.....	Geneva, Switzerland.	
500th Anniversary, Founding of the University of Geneva.....	Geneva, Switzerland.	
National Exposition of Ecuador.....	Lepic, Germany.	O. G. Sonneck, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.
International Exhibition of Latest Inventions.....	Quito, Ecuador.	Dr. Cesar Borja (Director), Quito, Ecuador.
International Exhibition of Railways and Land Transport.....	St. Petersburg, Russia.	Society of Military, Maritime & Rural Science, St. Petersburg.
International Exposition.....	Buenos Aires, Argentina.	Eduardo Schiatter, C. E., Buenos Aires.
Archaeological and Historical Congress.....	Kazan, Russia.	
International Exposition of Painting and Sculpture.....	Liege, Belgium.	
International Automobile Exposition.....	Christiana, Norway.	
Women of All Nations' Exhibition.....	London, England.	
Congress for the Repression of Fraud in the Production and Manufacture of Food Products.....	Paris.	

EDUCATIONAL GATHERINGS.

Catholic Educational Association.....	Boston, Mass.	F. W. Howard, Columbus, Ohio.
Catholic Summer School of America.....	Cliff Haven, N. Y.	Charles Murray, 7 East 42d Street, New York.
Chaataqua Institution.....	Chaataqua, N. Y.	George E. Vincent (President), Chaataqua, N. Y.
National Education Association.....	Denver, Colo.	Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn.
Summer School of the South.....	Knoxville, Tenn.	F. F. Claxton (Superintendent), Knoxville, Tenn.

MEETINGS OF RELIGIOUS BODIES.

American Baptist Missionary Union.....	Portland, Ore.	F. F. Haggard, D.D., Box 41, Boston, Mass.
American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions.....	Minneapolis, Minn.	Cornelius H. Patton, D.D., 14 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass.
American Christian Missionary Society.....	Pittsburg, Pa.	W. R. Warren, Bissell Block, Pittsburg, Pa.
American Federation of Catholic Societies.....	Pittsburg, Pa.	Anthony Matre, St. Louis, Mo.
American Missionary Association.....	Burlington, Vt.	C. J. Ryder, 287 Fourth Avenue, New York.
American Unitarian Association, National Conference.....	Chicago, Ill.	Rev. Walter F. Greenman, 684 Astor Street, Milwaukee, Wis.
Baptist Young People's Union of America.....	Saratoga, N. Y.	George T. Webb, 324 Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill.
Bible Teachers' Training School.....	Montreat, N. C.	Orvin R. Judd, 541 Lexington Avenue, New York.
Brotherhood of St. Andrew.....	Providence, R. I.	Hubert Carleton, 88 Broad Street, Boston, Mass.
Congregational Home Missionary Society.....	Pittsburg, Pa.	Hubert Carleton, 88 Broad Street, Boston, Mass.
Disciples of Christ, Centennial Anniversary.....	Seattle, Wash.	Edwin M. Randall, 57 Washington Street, Chicago, Ill.
Epworth League, International Convention.....	Red Wing, Minn.	John G. Dahlberg, 372 Logan Avenue, Winnipeg, Canada.
Evangelical Lutheran Augustana Synod of No. America.....	Minneapolis, Minn.	Wm. K. Friel, D.D., Milwaukee, Wis.
Evangelical Lutheran Church in N. A., General Council.....	Bucyrus, O.	Jennie M. Greenwood, 5555 Bortmer Avenue, St. Louis, Mo.
International Order of King's Daughters and Sons.....	Rochester, N. Y.	G. W. Kates, 600 Pennsylvanla Avenue, S. E., Washington.
National Spiritualists' Association.....	Omaha, Neb.	Frances P. Parks, Evanston, Ill.
National Woman's Christian Temperance Union.....	East Northfield, Mass.	A. G. Moody, East Northfield, Mass.
Northfield Conferences and Summer Schools.....	East Northfield, Mass.	William H. Roberts, D.D., Witherspoon Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.
Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A., General Assembly.....	Denver, Colo.	

Presbyterian Church in the U. S. (South), General Assembly, Savannah, Ga.
 Railroad Y. M. C. A., International Conference, St. Louis, Mo.
 Returned Presbyterian Church Synod, Chicago, Ill.
 Returned Church in America, General Synod, Rochester, N. Y.
 Southern Baptist Young People's Union, Louisville, Ky.
 Salvation Army National Congress, Chicago, Ill.
 Society of Christian Endeavor, International Convention, St. Paul, Minn.
 United Presbyterian Church of No. Am., General Assembly, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Universalist General Convention, Detroit, Mich.
 Welsh Presbyterian Church, Milwaukee, Wis.
 Woman's American Baptist Home Mission Society, Portland, Ore.
 Y. M. C. A. Employed Officers' Conference, Omaha, Neb.
 Y. M. C. A. World's Conference, Barmen-Eberfeld, Germany.
 many.

SCIENTIFIC AND PROFESSIONAL GATHERINGS.

American Academy of Medicine, Atlantic City, N. J.
 American Association for the Advancement of Science, Boston, Mass.
 American Bar Association, Chippewa Falls, Wis.
 American Car Association, Detroit, Mich.
 American Climatological Association, Trenton, Mich.
 American Electrochemical Society, Niagara Falls, Canada.
 American Institute of Electrical Engineers, Thousand Islands, N. Y.
 American Institute of Homeopathy, Detroit, Mich.
 American Institute of Mining Engineers, Spokane, Wash.
 American Library Association, Bretton Woods, N. H.
 American Medical Association, Atlantic City, N. J.
 American Osteopathic Association, Minneapolis, Minn.
 American Pomological Society, St. Catharines, Ont.
 American Society of Civil Engineers, Bretton Woods, N. H.
 American Society of Mechanical Engineers, Washington, D. C.
 American Surgical Association, Philadelphia, Pa.
 American Therapeutic Society, New Haven, Conn.
 Association of American Physicians, Washington, D. C.
 International Dental Congress, Berlin, Germany.
 International Hahnemannian Association, Pittsburg, Pa.

SOCIAL, ECONOMIC, AND POLITICAL CONFERENCES.

American Economic Association, New York.
 American Public Health Association, Richmond, Va.
 Country Life Conference, Chautauqua, N. Y.
 Lake Mohonk Conference on International Arbitration, Mohonk Lake, N. Y.
 National Association of Manufacturers, New York, N. Y.
 National Conference of Charities and Corrections, Buffalo, N. Y.
 National Municipal League, Cincinnati, O.
 National Negro Business League, Louisville, Ky.
 National Peace Congress, Chicago, Ill.
 Playground Association of America, Pittsburg, Pa.

OTHER OCCASIONS.

American Cotton Manufacturers' Association, Richmond, Va.
 American Federation of Labor, Toronto, Canada.
 American Railway Association, New York, N. Y.
 Grand Army of the Republic, National Encampment, Salt Lake City, Utah.
 International Sunshine Society, New York, N. Y.
 National American Woman Suffrage Association, Seattle, Wash.
 United Confederate Veterans, Annual Reunion, Memphis, Tenn.

May 20
 May 27-30
 May 29
 June 2
 June 7
 May 15-19
 July 7-12
 May 26
 Oct. 28-29
 June 18-20
 June 25-28
 June 1-6
 July 28-Aug. 2

Rev. W. A. Alexander, Clarksville, Tenn.
 Edwin L. Hamilton, Round Association Bldg., St. Louis, Mo.
 F. W. Sproull, P. O., 2325 Perryville Avenue, Allegheny, Pa.
 William H. De Hart, P. O., Maritan, N. J.
 C. P. Learrell, Oxford, Miss.
 Colonel George French, 389 State Street, Chicago, Ill.
 William Shaw, Tremont Temple, Boston, Mass.
 D. F. McGill, D. D., 1808 Chartiers Street, Allegheny, Pa.
 E. M. Atwood, D. D., 189 Harvard Street, Rochester, N. Y.
 Rev. John R. Jones, Columbus, Wis.
 Mrs. Katherine S. Westfall, 2969 Vernon Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

June 5-7
 Dec. 27
 Aug. 24-27
 June 4-5
 May 6-8
 June 28-30
 June 21-26
 October
 June 28-July 5
 June 8-11
 June 1-4
 August
 Sept. 14-16
 July 6-9
 May 4-7
 June 3-5
 May 6-8
 May 11-12
 Aug. 23-28
 June

Dr. Charles McIntire, 52 N. Fourth Street, Easton, Pa.
 L. O. Howard, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.
 Dr. A. C. Rogers, Faribault, Minn.
 John Hinkley, 215 N. Charles Street, Baltimore, Md.
 Guy Hinsdale, M. D., Hot Springs, Va.
 Prof. Jos. W. Richards, Lehigh University, So. Bethlehem, Pa.
 Ralph W. Pope, 33 West 39th Street, New York.
 Dr. J. Richey Horner, 635 Rose Building, Cleveland, O.
 R. W. Raymond, 29 West 39th Street, New York.
 J. I. Weyer, Jr., State Library, Albany, N. Y.
 Dr. George H. Simmons, 103 Dearborn Avenue, Chicago, Ill.
 Dr. Charles W. Pligrim, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
 Dr. H. L. Chiles, Metcalf Building, Auburn, N. Y.
 John Craig, Ithaca, N. Y.
 Charles Warren Hunt, 220 West 57th Street, New York.
 Calvin W. Rice, 29 West 39th Street, New York.
 Dr. Robert G. LeConte, 1530 Locust Street, Philadelphia, Pa.
 Dr. Noble P. Barnes, Washington, D. C.
 Dr. George M. Kober, 1819 Q Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.
 Burton Lee Thorpe, St. Louis, Mo.
 Dr. J. B. S. King, Masonic Temple, Chicago, Ill.

Dec. 27-31
 October
 August 23-24
 May 19-21
 May 17-19
 June 9-16
 Nov. 15-20
 August 19-21
 May 3-5
 May 10-14

T. N. Carver, Cambridge, Mass.
 Dr. Charles O. Probst, Columbus, O.
 Cornell College of Agriculture, Ithaca, N. Y.
 H. C. Phillips, Mohonk Lake, N. Y.
 George S. Boudinot, 170 Broadway, New York.
 Alexander Johnson, Fort Wayne, Ind.
 Clinton Rogers Woodruff, No. American Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.
 Booker T. Washington (President), Tuskegee Institute, Ala.
 Royal L. Melendy, 174 Adams Street, Chicago, Ill.
 Henry S. Curtis, Metropolitan Building, New York City.

May 25-26
 November 8
 May 19
 Aug. 9-14
 May 20-23
 July 1-7
 June 8-10

C. B. Bryant, Charlotte, N. C.
 Frank Morrison, 801 G Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.
 W. F. Allen, 24 Park Place, New York.
 Henry M. Nevius (Commander-in-Chief), Red Bank, N. J.
 Mrs. Mary D. Beattie, 96 Fifth Avenue, New York.
 Elizabeth J. Hauser, Warren, Ohio.
 William E. Mickle (Adjutant-General), New Orleans, La.

CARTOONS ON CURRENT TOPICS, PARTICULARLY THE TARIFF.



PRESIDENT TAFT GIVES DIRECTIONS.

"Now, then, boys, hew to the line, but be careful not to cut any deeper."

From the *Globe* (Utica, N. Y.).



UNCLE SAM (to the State): "You shave his face, and I'll cut his hair."

From the *Spokane-Review* (Spokane, Wash.).



500 BUTTONS.

From the *World* (New York).



JUST A LITTLE TIP TO HER REPRESENTATIVE.
From the Pioneer-Press (St. Paul).



THE EYE OF THE NEEDLE.
From the World (New York).



GOOD NEWS.
From the Spokesman-Review (Spokane).



JESTER JOE CANNON.
"Why is a Democrat?"
From the Call (New York), the Socialist's daily.



HURRY IT UP.
From the World (New York).



HOW IT IS.
CHORUS: "I don't need it, uncle, but the other fellow does."
From the Times-Star (Cincinnati).



ANOTHER GOLD BRICK.

From the *Sentinel* (Knoxville).



LOOK PLEASANT, PLEASE!

Puzzle picture.—Find the party whose portrait won't appear in the photograph.

From the *Herald* (Boston).

The making of the new tariff schedules by Congress continues to engage the attention of the cartoonists, and the proposals to tax articles of women's apparel have provoked many specimens of the car-

toonists' work. The "ultimate consumer" also comes in for attention from these knights of the pencil, on the score that he is likely to be entirely ignored in the processes of tariff-making.



THE TEMPEST IN OUR TEAPOT.

From the *Traveler* (Boston).



ALLOWED TO LAND AT LAST.

From the *Herald* (Boston).



"THE MAN WITHOUT A COUNTRY."
From the Journal (Minneapolis).



NOT POPULAR WITH THE LADIES.
From the Evening World (New York).



ON THE WAY TO INDEPENDENCE.
From the Journal (Detroit).



A NEW MOTTO IN RAPID TRANSIT MANAGEMENT.
From the Press (New York).



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GERMAN TAR: "We don't want to fight, but, by Jingo, if we do, we've got the ships, we've got the men, we've got the money, too."

JOHN BULL: "I say, that's my old song."

GERMAN TAR: "Well, it's mine now."

From *Punch* (London).



MIGHT IS RIGHT; OR, A STUDY IN INTERNATIONAL CHIVALRY.

GERMANY (to Russia): "I am sure you will find my Balkan arguments irresistible.—In your present condition."

From *Punch* (London).



"WHERE DO I COME IN?"

China's pertinent question apropos of the attitudes of Japan and Russia in the Manchurian railroad problem.

From the *Saturday Review* (Shanghai).



AN AUSTRIAN VIEW OF SERVIA'S AMBITIONS.

Be not alarmed, kind gentlemen. This ferocious-looking person is not an anarchist about to throw a bomb. He is merely,—as picture number two indicates,—a Servian citizen who has imbibed more Russian whiskey than is good for him.

From *Floh* (Vienna).



MADAME LA FRANCE AFRAID FOR HER FRANCS.

"IVAN" (to Russia): "For mercy sake, keep out of that row. You have most of my funds in your pocket."

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

SENATOR ALLISON'S RECOLLECTIONS OF PUBLIC MEN.

BY ARTHUR WALLACE DUNN.

[Had Senator William B. Allison been in better health during the latter part of his life the country might have been able to read reminiscences of a most interesting kind. He had determined to write of the most interesting epochs of his long public career, but never had the time. His last days were spent in an effort to regain the health which had been broken under the continuous strain of a busy life. Several months before his death I had a chat with him about the great men of the past and present whom he had known. I have here set down the comments he made, quoting him directly when his remarks were most pertinent. The story was submitted to Senator Allison for revision, and he desired to change a few words here and there because he feared, in the kindness of his heart, that they might offend some living person, but he never felt well enough to make such changes. With such exceptions the article had his approval. No changes have since been made, save a few of a verbal character made necessary on account of the Senator's death.—A. W. D.]

“I HAVE been intimately acquainted with ten different Presidents of the United States, and during their incumbencies of the Presidential office I was a member of the Senate or House of Representatives. I entered Congress a member from Iowa in 1863, in the midst of the Civil War. I served eight years in the House and entered the Senate in 1873, and have been a member of that body continuously since that time. The Presidents I have known were Lincoln, Johnson, Grant, Hayes, Garfield, Arthur, Cleveland, Harrison, McKinley, and Roosevelt.”

With these words the late Senator Allison entered upon an interesting reminiscence when asked about public men he had known in his long career. The Senator had then achieved a record which eclipsed all others and which may not soon be equaled. He had been a member of the Senate continuously for thirty-five years, and was serving his sixth consecutive term. Other men had been elected for six terms,—one of them, the late Senator Morgan, of Alabama, had entered upon his sixth consecutive term when he died,—but Allison had five years more service. At the time of his death he had been chosen by a State primary for a seventh consecutive term, and, if he could have lived to the age of a number of Senators who have died in harness, he would have had forty-two years of continuous service in the Senate. Justin S. Morrill, of Vermont, was for more than thirty years a member of the Senate, but he only lived a little more than a year after entering upon his sixth term. John Sherman, of Ohio, was longer in actual service than Morrill, having thirty-two years to his

credit, but his service was interrupted by four years' vacancy when he was Secretary of the Treasury under President Hayes.

A PATHETIC REMINISCENCE OF BUCHANAN.

“I did not know President Buchanan personally,” said Senator Allison, “but I saw him at the time of Lincoln's first inauguration. I remember particularly his departure. He was driving to the Baltimore and Ohio station with his bags piled upon the driver's seat. It was an old, white, haggard face that peered out of the window, and no one gave it a friendly greeting. There was no escort and seemingly no regret at his departure from the capital where he had been chief magistrate. There may have been some person in the carriage with him, but apparently he was alone. It was a pathetic picture of the sad closing of a career. Buchanan had struggled twenty years for the Presidency, and was an old man when finally elected. He was constantly over a political volcano while in the White House. Pledges and promises of twenty years were brought to him for redemption, and there were not places for one-fourth of those who presented their political promissory notes. His term closed with a divided nation, with his own party disrupted, and himself blamed for conditions absolutely beyond his control. At this distance, and in the light of knowledge and experience, the picture of Buchanan on that March day in 1861 looks more pitiful to me than it then seemed.”

LINCOLN AND NASBY.

During the first part of President Lincoln's administration Senator Allison had

been active in organizing and dispatching Iowa troops to the front, and naturally when he came to Washington as a member of the House of Representatives he was well known to the President by reputation.

"I well remember one of my early interviews with Lincoln. I had not talked very long before he said:

"Allison, have you read Nasby's book?"

"I had read Petroleum V. Nasby's 'Confedrit X Roads' letters, but did not know they had been published in book form, and I replied 'no.'

"Not to have read Nasby proclaims a man an ignoramus," said Lincoln. 'Listen to this,' and he read a selection from one of the letters.

"I then explained that I had read the letters, but did not quite understand the President's reference when he asked the question. I was acquitted of being 'an ignoramus,' and during the remainder of Lincoln's life in the White House we were the best of friends. He became to me a greater man day by day, and has grown as the years pass, until he has become one of the greatest figures of American history."

LEADERS IN THE "RECONSTRUCTION" ERA.

Mr. Allison was a member of the House during the whole of Johnson's administration and the first two years of Grant's first term. Those were the stormy days of "reconstruction," the days when old Ben Wade was leader of the Senate, and Thaddeus Stevens was leader in the House. Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, was Speaker; James G. Blaine was being groomed as his successor. Among other members famous then and since were Roscoe Conkling, John A. Logan, George F. Hoar, James A. Garfield, Robert Schenck, "Sunset" Cox, William D. Kelley, Samuel J. Randall, Proctor Knott, Eugene Hale, Elihu Washburne, Henry Winter Davis, George S. Boutwell, Oakes Ames, Ignatius Donnelly, Francis P. Blair, George H. Pendleton, John A. Kasson, Benjamin F. Butler, Rutherford B. Hayes, and others of lesser note. Many of those members Senator Allison afterward met as colleagues in the Senate. Two of them he saw elevated to the White House, and several have served as cabinet officers or on foreign missions.

"Thad. Stevens was the master," said Senator Allison. "He was the absolute ruler of the House. His strong personality and ability gave him the command. In those days the Ways and Means Committee han-

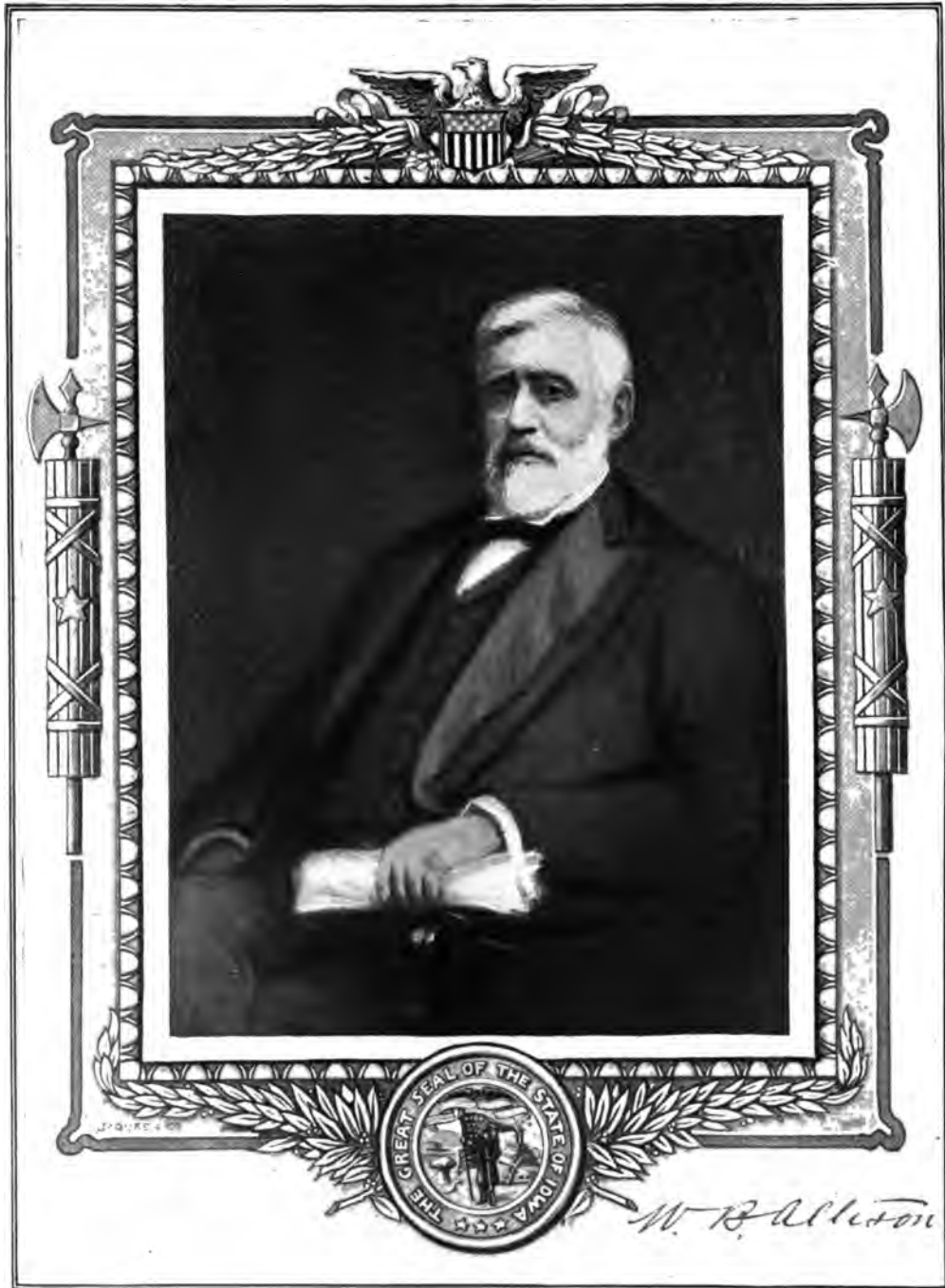
dled the appropriations. During my service in the House the committee was divided, the Appropriations Committee being created. Stevens went with the Appropriations Committee and Schenck became chairman of Ways and Means, but Stevens continued as leader. His power was not diminished in the least, and while he remained in the House he was the master.

"Stevens did not hesitate to use strong measures to accomplish his purposes, and often keen wit served his turn as well as argument. I remember one day when the Indian appropriation bill was under consideration, and Maynard, of Tennessee, opposed a provision in it which was supported by Stevens. Maynard wore his hair long, and as he was dark, he looked something like an Indian. In fact, it was said he had Indian blood in his veins. He spoke earnestly and vigorously against the provision in the bill to which he was opposed, closing with quite a long Latin quotation. Stevens replied by saying that 'so far as the gentleman spoke in English I cannot agree with him and I am not familiar with his Choctaw, and therefore cannot indorse it.' There was a hearty laugh at Maynard's expense, and his motion was promptly voted down. Next to Stevens Schenck was the strongest man in the House. He was a strong partisan and supported the drastic policy of Stevens against the Johnson administration.

"My own personal relations with President Johnson were the best, though not very extensive. In those days Congress was constantly at war with the President and deprived him of power wherever it was possible to do so.

"Elihu Washburne was a forceful man. He essayed the rôle of defender and sponsor for General Grant while Grant was in command of the army, and afterward when he became President. Washburne rather claimed the credit of discovering Grant, and was his most faithful friend in the House. He was also a great stickler for economy, and carefully scrutinized the appropriation bills.

"Garfield and Hayes were both in the House while I was a member. Garfield was always a commanding figure and a man of considerable prominence, but did not reach the stage of leadership while I was in the House. In the 70's he came to the front. As the old leaders of war time and reconstruction days passed away, a dozen men came forward and among them were Blaine, Garfield, Hoar, Kelley, and Kasson on the



THE LATE SENATOR ALLISON OF IOWA.

(From the painting by Wilbur N. Reaser, purchased by the United States Senate for its own gallery.)

Republican side, and Morrison, Julian, Holman, and Voorhees on the Democratic side. The days of the 'brigadiers' in the House were after my time. They came when the Democrats of the Southern States regained control and, naturally, prominent men of the Confederacy were sent to Congress.

"Mr. Hayes was always regarded as a solid, substantial man in the House, but never took the rank of a leader. No one ever suspected that he had the making of a President in him when he was in the House. In fact, no one ever considered Garfield a possibility in those days. I think both can be considered typical 'dark horses' of which so much is said about the time a national convention is about to assemble."

THE ELECTORAL COMMISSION: HAYES-TILDEN DISPUTE.

The Hayes-Tilden contest for the Presidency was one of the most exciting periods in the history of the country, ranking next to the Civil War. In fact, civil war was narrowly averted. Senator Allison, though comparatively a new member of the Senate, took an active part in that celebrated case. As it afterward proved, his own political fortunes were linked with the contest and, had Tilden been seated, it is altogether probable that Allison's Senatorial career would have been cut short with one term.

When the dispute over the election became acute McCrary, of Iowa, introduced a resolution looking to a settlement of the controversy. Out of this resolution grew the Electoral Commission. But it was with many misgivings that certain Republicans consented to the commission. The matter was in dispute many days between the two houses. Senator Allison supported McCrary in his movement for the commission. McCrary was a member of the conference committee between the two houses, and frequently consulted Allison. "Don't agree to anything until the Republicans in the Senate can unite," Allison told McCrary, and, as the Republicans were divided, it looked as if an agreement might never be reached. The dispute was over the method in which the justices of the Supreme Court were to be selected, the order being very important. Taking them in the order of seniority, two Republicans and two Democrats would be chosen and the fifth would be David Davis, who had been appointed by Lincoln, and had since become an independent. But Davis was to be elected to the Senate in Illinois, and the

next justice was then Bradley, a Republican. At the time of the agreement, however, it was not absolutely known that Davis would not be a member of the commission. Senator Morton, of Indiana, would not sign the report which was finally presented, but consented to it with the reservation that he should oppose it in the Senate.

The night before the report was presented there was a dinner at Senator Allison's house and Blaine and Kasson were both there, with several others. They then agreed that the commission scheme was the best that could be framed. The next day Morton spoke against it. John Sherman declared it to be a device to prevent Hayes from being seated as President. Then Blaine vigorously opposed it in the House.

"And there is where Blaine fell down," remarked Senator Allison. "Kasson supported him. They had figured it out that the commission would seat Tilden. Already the Republican papers of Iowa were declaring that the Republicans had been trapped by the Democrats and Tilden would be seated. Kasson was understood to be a candidate for my seat in the Senate, and if the Electoral Commission, which I advised and supported, had seated Tilden instead of Hayes, Kasson would have defeated me for the Senate. As it was, the people forgot all about it when the elections came around. It was not mentioned in the campaign. I never understood why Blaine changed his mind unless it was on account of the strong opposition that developed among a number of Republican leaders. The Democrats have always claimed they were cheated in that contention. But Hayes made a good President. He was not a brilliant man, but was honest, conscientious, and firm."

GARFIELD, BLAINE, AND ARTHUR.

Garfield was not President long enough for Senators to take his measure as chief executive, and all the talk of his brief career in the White House was centered around the bitter controversy between himself and the New York Senators, Conkling and Platt.

Garfield took two men out of the Senate who were in a measure rivals of Senator Allison. Blaine he made Secretary of State and William Windom, of Minnesota, he made Secretary of the Treasury. Blaine was an aggressive, dictatorial man. His six years in the Speaker's chair and short minority leadership in the House, together with the fact that in two national conventions, 1876

and 1880, he had nearly carried off the nomination, tended to increase the natural dominance of his character. Beyond question had Blaine remained long in the Senate he and Allison would have clashed, because their natures were so different and because Allison, with his natural conservatism, would never have followed Blaine in his more vigorous, not to say rash, policies. Windom was chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, and when he went into the Cabinet, Allison, who was the ranking Republican member, succeeded to the place, a position he held until his death, with the exception of two years, 1893-'95, when the Democrats controlled the Senate. Windom was like Allison in the matter of being a man of facts and figures, but gave more attention to transportation problems.

Of Chester A. Arthur, who succeeded Garfield after his tragic death, Senator Allison said: "He was punctillious in his promises, always a courteous gentleman, and considerate to a degree. President Arthur was a man of ability, but he left much to his Cabinet officers. In his administration the Cabinet minister transacted all the business pertaining to his department unless it was a matter of great importance. Arthur believed in having competent men as Cabinet officers and holding them responsible for the management of their departments."

CLEVELAND, HARRISON, MC KINLEY.

Senator Allison did not care to discuss the careers of Presidents then living, one of whom was Grover Cleveland. "My relations with Mr. Cleveland and all the members of his Cabinet," he said, "were cordial and friendly at all times. As chairman of the Committee on Appropriations I was brought into close relations with Mr. Cleveland and his administration, and, although we belonged to different parties, we always maintained the best personal relations.

"Benjamin Harrison served six years in the Senate, but was in private life when nominated and elected President. He has often been described as a cold, hard man, but those who knew him well have no such impression. He was retiring and had a way of keeping within himself which some of the newspaper writers have described as 'drawing into his shell like a turtle.' But when once acquainted with him he was genial and pleasant. His administration was very successful and a credit to the country.

"Although I never served in the House

with President McKinley, I was intimately associated with him during the consideration of the McKinley Tariff bill. He was chairman of the Ways and Means Committee of the House, and I a member of the Finance Committee of the Senate. We were both on the conference committee where the bill, as it became a law, was agreed upon. When he became President our relations were not only cordial, but intimate, and I, with others, was in frequent consultation with the President. This was especially true before and during the Spanish War period. I learned to know him as the kindly, courteous gentleman that he was, and one who desired only the best interests of his country."

IN THE COUNSELS OF ROOSEVELT.

Senator Allison was one of the most trusted advisers of President Roosevelt. He knew the President when he was Civil Service Commissioner, also when he was Assistant Secretary of the Navy. Mr. Roosevelt presided over the Senate only for a short time in 1901, when the Senate held a short session to inaugurate the new administration and confirm the nominations. When Mr. Roosevelt became President he turned to Senator Allison as one of the men whom he could consult on all important questions. It was Senator Allison who finally suggested changes in the railroad rate bill which enabled the President and the majority of the Republican Senators to reach an agreement by which that measure was passed. Senator Allison would not discuss or comment upon an administration which had not been completed, and with which he was so intimately associated.

THIRTY-FIVE YEARS IN THE SENATE.

There were strong men in the Senate when Mr. Allison became a member, thirty-six years ago. Of those who were members of that body at that time or took their seats when he did only nine are now living, and none of them is in public life. He was at the time of his death eight years the senior of any man then a member of the Senate, and antedated by two years any man now in Congress in the commencement of service. Senator Cullom, of Illinois, entered the House two years after Allison. He was out for a number of years and Governor of his State six years. Cullom was Allison's junior in the Senate by ten years. Among the men whom Allison found in the Senate when he entered that body were the following:

Powell Clayton and Stephen W. Dorsey, of Arkansas (Clayton is still living, and until recently was ambassador to Mexico; Dorsey is also living), Thomas F. Bayard and Eli Saulsbury, of Delaware; John A. Logan and Richard Oglesby, of Illinois; Oliver P. Morton, of Indiana; John James Ingalls, of Kansas; Hannibal Hamlin and Lot M. Morrill, of Maine; Charles Sumner and George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts; Zach. Chandler and Thomas W. Ferry, of Michigan; Alexander Ramsey and William Windom, of Minnesota; Lewis V. Bogy and Carl Schurz, of Missouri; John P. Jones and William M. Stewart, of Nevada (the former still living); Frederick T. Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey; Roscoe Conkling and Reuben Fenton, of New York; John Sherman and Allen G. Thurman, of Ohio; Simon Cameron, of Pennsylvania; Henry B. Anthony and William Sprague, of Rhode Island (the latter still living); William G. (Parson) Brownlow, of Tennessee; George F. Edmunds and Justin Morrill, of Vermont (Edmunds is still living); Henry G. Davis, of West Virginia (who is still living, and was a Democratic candidate for Vice-President in 1904); Matthew H. Carpenter and Timothy O. Howe, of Wisconsin.

In 1876, three years later, Colorado was admitted, and Henry M. Teller came to the Senate. He held the seat until March 4, of the present year, save four years passed in Arthur's cabinet. Blaine succeeded Morrill, of Maine. William Pinkney Whyte was elected from Maryland, taking his seat two years later than Allison. After a long interval he was again a Senator, serving the unexpired term of the late Senator Gorman. Other men of prominence who entered the Senate while Allison was yet a young member of that body were Francis M. Cockrell, of Missouri; John T. Morgan, of Alabama; David Davis, of Illinois; James B. Beck, of Kentucky; L. Q. C. Lamar, of Mississippi; M. C. Butler and Wade Hampton, of South

Carolina; Orville H. Platt and Joseph R. Hawley, of Connecticut; Henry L. Dawes and George F. Hoar, of Massachusetts; George G. Vest, of Missouri; Eugene Hale and William P. Frye, of Maine; George H. Pendleton of Ohio, Isham G. Harris, of Tennessee; Arthur P. Gorman, of Maryland.

STRONG PERSONALITIES.

Commenting upon some of these men Senator Allison said: "Morton, of Indiana, intellectually, was the peer of any man of his time. He became feeble in health in his later years, but his mind remained strong and unclouded. Owing to his health he made his speeches while sitting in his chair, a courtesy the Senate cheerfully accorded him. Matt. Carpenter was one of the most brilliant men and ablest lawyers I ever knew. Thurman was another great lawyer and so, also, was Edmunds. Zach. Chandler was a strong, able man, and as intense a partisan as ever existed. Senator Cockrell was one of the best legislators ever in the Senate. While a partisan on party issues, he was an American at all times. He aided greatly in the settlement of Cuban difficulties, and we owe much to him in securing the reorganization of the army after the Spanish War. Mr. Cockrell belonged to the later generation rather than those who were prominent when I first entered the Senate. With him were Beck, of Kentucky, and Gorman, of Maryland, the latter succeeding Beck as the Democratic leader. But Gorman soon became the actual leader of his party after he came to the Senate, and before he succeeded Beck. He achieved his greatest triumph in the defeat of the Elections bill in the Fifty-first Congress. The way he handled that bill fixed his status. In many ways Gorman was the greatest judge of character that was ever in the Senate. I always found him fair-minded, and all in all he was a valuable Senator."





A GROUP OF AMERICANIZED OSTRICHES.

NATURALIZING THE OSTRICH.

BY WILL ROBINSON.

THE Western stockman and farmer is of necessity a pioneer, and by nature anything but conservative. Not satisfied with revolutionizing methods of growing grain, raising fruit, and breeding domesticated animals, he has invaded the domain of the sportsman and trapper, and claimed many of their former subjects as his own.

In Texas he is breeding buffaloes and crossing them with cattle, in Oregon he is raising Chinese pheasants, on Alaskan islands he is farming foxes, and now, the latest thing, he is growing ostriches in Arizona and California as calmly as his grandmother raised chickens in Connecticut.

It was a transplanted Briton over in South Africa, however, who really started the business. The beginning was made some time in the early sixties, when a Kaffir chief brought to Grahamston, Cape Colony, six pairs of splendid birds and presented them to Sir Walter Currie, commandant of the mounted police. The birds thrived in captivity, grew even better feathers than they did in their wild state, and multiplied. Fortunes were made, and ostrich farming in South Africa became an established industry.

Attracted by these successes, in 1882, an enthusiastic adventurer in the by-paths of commerce, filled the hold of a steamer bound for New York with, it is said, 200 ostriches.

Imagine a drove of these gigantic birds, weighing from 250 to 300 pounds each, accustomed to sunlight, the open range, and

fresh air, tightly packed in wet, dark, ily-ventilated pens, on a floor that pitched and tossed unceasingly. Small wonder that the voyage was a time of horror and death for the birds. All but a pitiful remnant perished on the way. From New York the survivors were shipped to San Francisco, where only twenty-two of the original number arrived alive.

After a time the birds underwent another enforced journey. This time to a farm near Anaheim, in sunny Southern California, where, at last, the wanderers found a congenial home.

During the next four years three more importations from South Africa were made, the total aggregating about 100 birds; forty-four of which, brought over by Mr. Edwin Cawston, were destined to become the ancestors of fully 75 per cent. of the ostriches now in America.

The last shipment from Africa was made in 1901, when twelve gigantic Nubian birds were brought to the Pan-American Exposition. At the close of the fair, the herd was divided; half of the birds being shipped to an ostrich farm in South Pasadena, Cal., and the remaining six to the Salt River valley, Arizona.

The initial attempt to bring ostriches from California to Arizona was proportionately as disastrous as was the first importation from Africa.

In 1888, two Arizona farmers, Josiah



SIX WEEKS' OLD OSTRICH CHICKS.
(About two feet tall.)

Harbert and Newt Clanton, purchased a breeding pair and twelve chicks from the South Pasadena farm. The ostriches made the trip by rail without accident, and landed in good condition at Phœnix. Here they were put into a wagon to be conveyed to their owners' ranch. In order to handle better the somewhat obstreperous cargo, not only were hoods pulled over the birds' heads, but the wagon was covered with canvas. There were six dusty miles to be traveled under a hot Arizona sun. When the birds were uncovered at the ranch, eleven of the chicks were found to have smothered.

Certainly this was a discouraging start, and if anything further was needed to quench the ardor of these pioneer ostrich farmers, it was supplied during the year following, when



YEARLINGS.

the mother bird died from the effects of raising barbed wire.

This left the old male and one chick, who, doubtless being stirred to pity by the straits to which her owners were reduced, at the end of the third year laid an egg. The habit once formed was persisted in, and seven years later, in 1898, this admirable mother had ninety-seven children and grandchildren.

It is doubtful if any of the farmers now engaged in ostrich raising in Arizona ever saw one of the big birds before Harbert and Clanton introduced them. Naturally these pioneers learned things.

The old geography said: "The ostrich is the largest of living birds. It inhabits the



A GROUP OF COCKS AND HENS IN THE GENERAL PASTURE.

barren deserts of interior Africa, and runs with incredible swiftness. It is very timid and hides its head in the sand at the approach of danger."

Timid? Mr. Enterprising Rancher has his pair of birds safely enclosed in the old calf pasture, which he has surrounded with a smooth wire fence. The 300-pound male stands by the gate with his absurdly big eyes taking in the view. The new hired man reaches his hand through the wires to surreptitiously pluck a feather for Mary Ann's Sunday hat. There is a streak of ostrich leg that swishes through the air with the rapidity of a league player's bat. The big front

toe of the ostrich comes in contact with the hired man's shoulder, and the hired man goes to the hospital for a month.

The ostrich strikes forward and down, and the kick of a mule is a zephyr beside it.

He is a queer-looking bird, this swift-sailing frigate of the desert. Six to eight feet in height he stands, mostly neck and legs, and he can easily reach nine feet. He always dresses in conventional black, with white trimmings at the wings and tail. His head is all eyes and beak. The former discounts the eagle's for sharpness, and the latter would make a score or so of duck bills. The thighs of the bird are devoid of feathers, and give you the impression that he has just put on tights preparatory to taking his place in a comic opera chorus. His long shin is red to match his beak, and the foot is composed of two enormous toes.

Not the least surprising thing about one of the big males is his voice. It is the most unbird-like note imaginable. It is a roar: "Oom! Oom! Oom!" His throat swells out like a miniature balloon, and the farm-yard sounds like a menagerie.

The marital life of the ostrich is quite above reproach. He marries early. Banns are usually cried by the time the contracting parties have reached their fourth year. In



AN OLD HEN.



A SEVEN-FOOT MALE, A FIGHTER.

South Africa, perhaps owing to a pagan or Mohammedan environment, the ostrich, occasionally, is polygamous, one proud lord sometimes being given charge over two meek and domesticated hens. In California and Arizona, in spite of Utah traditions, one wife is considered trouble enough for any husband.

The cock is always an ardent wooer, and when attempting to charm his inamorata his preenings and gyrations of head, body, and legs are enough to fill the breast of a Salomé dancer with envy and despair.

They do their own matchmaking, and mating is usually for life. Divorce is infrequent and unpopular. The hen is a model of constancy, and if a frivolous-minded husband sometimes attempts a mild flirtation with hens, his advances are properly frowned upon by the flock.

Once settled down to married life the big bird makes an exemplary husband and father.

A puzzling complication in the domestic life of the ostrich is brought about by the introduction of the incubator, and we may only conjecture the feeling it inspires in parental breasts. Is it a presuming usurper or a welcomed emancipator? It is truly a delicate question.

However, from the practical view of the farmer, there is no doubt as to the utility of the wooden hen. While parent-raised birds seem to be more vigorous, yet an entire brood is sometimes saved by temporarily transferring the eggs to an incubator when continued rain threatens the ruin of the hatch.

The hen often lays two and occasionally three settings a year, and there will be from eight to twenty eggs to each setting. The nest invariably made by the male is simply a shallow depression in the ground, which he scoops out with his breast. After the chicks are hatched, it is he and not the hen who attends most closely to their care. However, on most ranches the chicks are taken away from their parents and cared for in brooders, which house is big enough for a small family of people.

Perhaps the most attractive thing about the entire ostrich business is the fascinating manners of the young chicks. At birth they are about the size of a grown chicken, and in color not unlike a young turkey. After the first week or two they are the most agile things on earth, and as playful as young lambs.

They are as familiar with you, and as inquisitive, as a cat. They whirl, gambol, and dart about like nothing else in the world. A clap of the hands, and they scurry off like a lot of witches, only to be back again in a few moments, picking at your buttons, and looking longingly at your teeth when you open your mouth to laugh at them.

While the business of the domesticated ostrich is to grow feathers and not to contribute to omelets, still the eggs are very good eating. When the market quotation is fifty cents a dozen for the product of the Kansas chicken, a housewife might gladly embrace the opportunity to purchase one-twelfth of a dozen strictly fresh ostrich eggs, for that fractional quantity will contain the makings of a breakfast for a family of fourteen. In other words, one ostrich egg has as much meat in it as two and one-half dozen hen eggs. One Americanized bird is on record with laying 250 pounds of eggs in a year.

But, however much may be said of ostrich eggs as a matter of diet, there need be no fear that the vending of the flesh of the bird itself will ever unsettle the market for beef or turkey. Ostrich drum-sticks make fair eating, but the breast is all bone, and there is no white meat around the wish-bone to tempt farmers to Thanksgiving crimes.

As to the feeding of these gigantic fowls, it may be stated frankly that neither blue vitriol nor ten-penny nails are ever included in their menu. Like a chicken he must swallow sharp stones to furnish his digestive organs with machinery to perform their work. It is perhaps this instinct that leads the bird to peck at any bright object that attracts his eyes.

Generally speaking, his tastes are varied and indiscriminating.

After all, as a steady diet, the bird does well on alfalfa. When pasturage is green he is simply turned in and grazes like a horse or cow. When green feed is short, three and a half pounds of chopped alfalfa hay a day and an equal amount of bran and an equal amount of corn or rolled barley once a week will keep the big fowl in prime condition.



MALE ROLLING EGGS TO NEST.

(The hen sometimes lays her eggs in different places about the inclosure. The cock always rolls them to nest.)



AN OSTRICH INCUBATOR.
(Helping ostrich chicks out of the shell.)

So far, in America, the ostrich has shown a remarkable freedom from disease. Measles, distemper, pip, and indigestion all pass him by. The only fatalities have come from either smothering or accident.

No one seems to know just how long he will live. In Africa there are birds that have been in captivity for forty years, and are still raising feathers at the old stand. It is authoritatively stated, however, that twenty years comprises the profitable feather-raising period of the bird.

The first ostriches imported from South Africa were primarily brought over for exhibition purposes. Indeed, there seems to have been no idea that there was a profit in feathers until Harbert and Clanton began to figure results. Now in California the exhibition part of the enterprise is rapidly being subordinated to breeding and the growing of plumes, and in Arizona the show feature is practically ignored.

Feathers are first clipped when the birds are nine months old, and while both the first and second pluckings are salable at fair prices, it is not until the birds have reached their second birthday that the valuable plumes are at their best. After that the birds are plucked regularly every eight months. One and one-half pounds of feathers a plucking is considered a fair average; the feathers being worth about \$20 per

pound. This is taking the feathers as they run. Plumes of which it takes from 80 to 120 to weigh a pound are worth up to \$170 per pound in the markets of London and New York.

It is assumed in American ostrich-farming that each adult bird will produce \$30 worth of feathers per annum.

The black feathers and the fine white plumes come from the male bird, the second-quality white and the gray ones from the female. The best plumes come from the wings, the smaller ones from the tail, and both wings and tail produce the smaller feathers, which go into boas, stoles, etc.

The harvesting of feathers is always spoken of as plucking. However, it is only the smaller feathers that are pulled. The larger ones are carefully cut with shears, and the quill stumps pulled out later after they have dried. The operation is painless.

While the old theory that the ostrich hides his head in the sand at the approach of danger is never duplicated on the farms, yet the blinding of the eyes has a wonderfully soothing effect on the birds' nerves. This is usually accomplished by pulling a hood over the ostrich's head, when he can be shunted about with comparative ease.

Usually the pens of the younger birds and those of the females can be entered without danger by the keeper. With a bad-disposi-



PLUCKING PLUMES ON AN ARIZONA OSTRICH FARM.

tioned old male it is different. Then the keeper arms himself with an implement somewhat resembling a garden rake with the teeth removed, and the crossbar at the end lengthened and slightly bent outward. Should the keeper desire to remove a turbulent male to an adjoining pen, he places the "U" shaped end of his forked stick against the bird's breast. The contrary old male will always push against it. The keeper then backs through the gate and into the other pen the bird pushes after, his own contrariness accomplishing the keeper's desires.

Should the keeper be attacked when unarmed, his only chance is to lie down and roll for the fence. The 300-pound bird may break a rib or so by jumping on him, but he cannot administer his death-dealing kick to an object so close to the ground.

Cape Colony contains some 300,000 ostriches, and exports, in round numbers, \$7,000,000 of feathers a year. Nearly one-fifth of these come to America. Indeed, the enterprise is paying the South African farmers so well that they want to keep the rest of the world out of the business. With that end in view, stringent laws have been passed prohibiting the exportation of either live birds or eggs. But so far as Cape Colony is concerned the mischief is already done. There are farms in Egypt, Argentina, Australia, New Zealand, and America,—enough to enable American breeders to import new blood

into their herds whenever it is expedient.

At first reckoning, the American farmer is absolutely dazzled at the figures which grow under his fingers.

He figures that every hen will lay the limit of fifty or sixty eggs per year, and that all of them will turn into ostriches. A chick at six months is worth \$100, at breeding age \$800 and upwards per pair. If one hen ostrich lays sixty eggs,—sixty eggs being sixty birds, each worth \$400 apiece, and each producing \$30 worth of feathers a year, what would 100 hen ostriches do? No wonder the poor man goes to bed with a headache.

The cold fact of the business is that on a well-conducted farm the increase is considered satisfactory if it averages from four to six birds per pair per year.

The small rancher is going into it, too. One acre of irrigated land set to alfalfa will more than keep a pair of birds the year round. They require no more care and less fencing than hogs. One man can care for 100 birds, except at plucking time. The expenses on the big ranches will not average over \$10 a bird per annum.

There are about 500 birds in California divided among eight farms. There is one farm in Jacksonville, Fla., one at Hot Springs, Ark., and another in Oregon. It is, however, in Arizona that the business has developed most rapidly. The farms in that territory are all confined to the Salt River valley, near Phoenix, and contain about 3000 ostriches. The holdings run all the way from six birds to 1800.

The business is being systematized. The energy of the less-fertile birds is allowed to expend itself upon feather-raising. The increase is coming from the best stock. The result should be that not only should the number of fertile eggs per bird be increased, but the quality of the feathers should also show improvement.

So it would seem that these aliens from Africa bid fair to become adopted citizens of the United States. They have taken out their naturalization papers and made themselves at home. They like our climate, our food, and our ways. We are rather favorably impressed with them.

Certainly an animal which, aside from his money-making possibilities, is, at one time, the inspiration of the ballet dancer, the pillar of the Knights Templars lodge, the advocate of woman's emancipation, the ally of the Audubon Society, and the envy of the dyspeptic, should be worth cultivating.



EXPLOSION AT STANFORD MERTHYN COLLIERY, NEAR NEW CASTLE, NEW SOUTH WALES, AUSTRALIA.
(The photographer was in the act of making a picture of slack pile when explosion occurred.)

OVERCOMING COAL-MINE DISASTERS.

WORK OF THE GOVERNMENT IN EXPLOSION INVESTIGATIONS AND LIFE-SAVING IN THE MINES—TESTING OF EXPLOSIVES.

BY GUY ELLIOTT MITCHELL.

SINCE 1890 more than 25,000 men have met violent deaths in the coal mines of the United States.

One hundred thousand miners during this period have been either killed or more or less seriously injured in coal-mine explosions, cavings-in, and other accidents. Three-fourths of this terrific loss of life has been logically proved needless.

These are sufficiently appalling figures, but what is even worse, the death-rate from mine accidents has been increasing by leaps and bounds, and in 1907 had reached the record figures of 4.86 for every 1000 miners employed, the highest in the history of coal mining in this or any other country, and in spite of the fact that in no place in the world are natural conditions so favorable for the safe extraction of coal as they are in the United States.

Without remedial or stringently preventive action the country is on the threshold,

according to the belief of government and coal-mining experts, of a period of mine disasters and a death roll in excess of even present or past records. For with the exhaustion of the shallow and more easily mined coal seams in the near future, thinner and less regular seams must be worked. This, with the rapidly increasing cost of timber used for mine props, bringing the mining condition in the United States more nearly in a position of equality with those in foreign countries, must result in a great increase in the number of accidents unless measures are adopted to correct the conditions that have brought about our present unusually high death-rate.

But it may be predicted with entire confidence that an increased death-rate will not obtain in this country. We have before us the examples of Belgium and other foreign countries where coal mining is deeper and more dangerous but where the death-rate is

to-day only a fourth that of the United States and is constantly decreasing, due to governmental control of mining methods and explosives. Of greater promise still is the fact that we have at last awakened to the conditions of terrible mortality in the mines and have vigorously begun the work of government investigation of the causes of mine accidents, and the testing of explosives with a view to reducing such catastrophes to a minimum.

During 1907 there were 8441 men killed or injured in the coal mines of the country, and during 1908 probably nearly as many, although the figures are not yet available, while the Government investigations already made show that the number of these accidents caused directly or indirectly by mine explosions has been steadily increasing for years. They also indicate that this increase has been due in part to the lack of proper and enforceable mine regulations; in part to the lack of reliable information concerning the explosives used in mining, and the conditions under which they can be used safely in the presence of the gas and dust encountered in the mines; and in part to the fact that in the development of coal mining not only is the number of miners increasing, but many areas from which coal is being taken are either deeper or farther from the entrance, where good ventilation is more difficult and the dangerous accumulations of explosive gas more frequent.

TECHNOLOGIC EXPERT IS OPTIMISTIC.

"The increase both in the number and in the seriousness of mine explosions in the United States during past years," according to Prof. Joseph A. Holmes, the technologic expert of the Geological Survey, who is in immediate charge of these investigations, "may be expected to continue unless, through investigations made in the United States such as have proved effective in other coal-producing countries, information can be obtained and published concerning the explosives used, the conditions under which they may be used safely in the presence of coal dust or gas, and the general conditions which make for health and safety in coal-mining operations. Such information, obtained through comprehensive and impartial investigation, may serve in this, as in other countries, as an intelligent basis both for legislative enactments and for agreements among persons associated with mining operations.

"One after another of these terrible un-

derground disasters has awakened the sympathies of the nation and has aroused an earnest desire that they may be entirely prevented. Experience in the deeper and more dangerous coal mines of Belgium and other countries not only indicates that these mine accidents may be reduced to less than one-third their present number in the United States, but also gives promise of results which in the future may at least approach complete prevention."

STATISTICS OF COAL-MINE FATALITIES.

The following figures show the mine deaths annually during the past eighteen years,—a fairly constant increase up to and including 1907. It is believed that the figures for 1908 when compiled will show something of an improvement:

Number of men killed in the coal mines of the United States, 1890-1907:

1890.....	701	1899.....	1,245
1891.....	1,076	1900.....	1,495
1892.....	859	1901.....	1,594
1893.....	965	1902.....	1,828
1894.....	957	1903.....	1,774
1895.....	1,057	1904.....	1,990
1896.....	1,120	1905.....	2,067
1897.....	947	1906.....	2,961
1898.....	1,049	1907.....	3,200
			26,043

It will be noted that as many violent deaths have occurred in the coal mines of the United States during the last six years as during the preceding twelve years; the number of fatal accidents has practically doubled within that time.

The great increase in the production of coal during the past decade and the consequent increase in the number of miners employed in the industry might seem to account for the increase in the number of fatal accidents; but the table given below showing the number of men killed for each 1000 employed shows that the increase cannot be accounted for in this way.

DECREASE IN FOREIGN MINING FATALITIES.

In all European coal-producing countries the output of coal has increased greatly during the last ten years, but the number of deaths per thousand miners, instead of increasing as in this country, has undergone a marked and decided decrease. This decrease has been due to the effect of mining legislation in those countries for the safeguarding and protection of the lives of the workmen, and has been made possible by government action in establishing testing stations for the study of safety in mining.



GROUP OF THE THREE MINE EXPERTS FROM EUROPE AND MEMBERS OF THE UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY.

(1, J. A. Holmes, Chief Technologic Branch, U. S. Geological Survey; 2, George Otis Smith, Director U. S. Geological Survey; 3, Victor Watteyne, Inspector-General of Mines, Belgium; 4, Carl Melssner, Councilor for Mines, Germany; 5, Arthur Desborough, H. M. Inspector of Explosives, England.)

In the decade ending 1840 the number of Belgian miners killed for each 1000 employed was 3.19; in that ending 1870 it was 2.60; in the year 1900 it was 1.05, and in 1906 it was .94. It will thus be seen that there has been a constant reduction in the percentages of fatalities to a figure which is less than one-fourth the ratio now existing in the United States.

The following figures show a comparison of the death-rate among miners in the United States, Belgium, Great Britain, Prussia, and France, so far as available, for each 1000 men employed, 1895-1906:

Year.	United States.	Belgium.	Great Britain.	Prussia.	France.
1895.....	2.67	1.40	1.49	2.54	...
1896.....	2.79	1.16	1.48	2.58	...
1897.....	2.34	1.03	1.34	2.35	1.07
1898.....	2.59	1.04	1.28	2.86	1.07
1899.....	2.98	.97	1.26	2.31	1.35
1900.....	3.24	1.05	1.30	2.25	1.42
1901.....	3.24	1.16	1.36	2.34	1.03
1902.....	3.49	1.07	1.24	1.99	.95
1903.....	3.14	1.14	1.27	1.92	.86
1904.....	3.38	.93	1.24	1.80	.89
1905.....	3.53	.91	1.35	1.85	.84
1906.....	3.40	.94	1.29	1.94	...
1907.....	4.86

In spite of the fact that coal mining is naturally far more difficult and dangerous in these foreign countries than it is in the United States, owing to greater depth and increasing gas, the figures compiled by the Geological Survey also show that the fatali-

ties for each million tons of coal produced are greater in this country than abroad. In 1906 in the United States there were 5.57 men killed for every million tons of coal produced; in Belgium 4.96, and in Great Britain 4.31.

Belgium, Great Britain, and Germany all maintain thoroughly equipped testing stations and carry on extensive experiments for devising means to prevent accidents and to increase the safety of workers in the mines. The results of this work are apparent from the vital statistics of the coal mines, and it is hoped and expected from this time forward that the figures with reference to American coal mines will show a like improvement. For the Federal Government has taken hold of the matter with energy, and already several important results have been attained.

RECENT NOTABLE MINE EXPLOSIONS.

The fact of the terrible loss of life in American mines was brought forcibly to the attention of the public with the frightful explosions of something over a year ago in the worst of which, the Monongah explosion, 356 miners lost their lives.

During the past eighteen months the most notable mine disasters have occurred at

Monongah, West Virginia; at the Darr mine in Pennsylvania, with 250 victims; at the Naomi mine, Pennsylvania, with 32 deaths; at Yolande, Alabama, with 61 deaths; at the Hanna mine, Wyoming, with 70 deaths; at the Marianna mine, Pennsylvania, with 154 deaths, and recently at the Ziegler mines, Illinois, with 26 deaths, and at the Lick Branch mine, West Virginia, with 105 deaths.

Prior to these disasters, the Geological Survey had carried on limited investigations of coal-mining conditions in New Mexico, and Indian Territory under a small appropriation, and also of coal-mine explosions in several States in connection with its general investigation of the waste and destruction of coal in mining operations. Last year, however, delegations of miners and coal operators appeared before Congress and demanded definite legislation which would afford relief. The operators urged the need of scientific investigation of the causes of mine accidents and professed themselves as more than willing to adopt any regulations which the Government experts might sug-

gest after a study of the problem. This resulted in the appropriation by Congress last May of \$150,000 for the purpose, in support of which dozens of speeches were made in Congress showing the great interest which had developed in the subject.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PITTSBURG EXPERIMENT STATION.

The work was entrusted to the Geological Survey and arrangements were at once made with the War Department to secure the use of some of the old Arsenal buildings and grounds at Pittsburg, where a large explosives gallery has since been erected. Through the State Department, invitations were also extended by President Roosevelt to the official heads of the government mine inspection departments of the three European countries where mine and explosives inspection and control has reached its highest efficiency, to visit the United States and make an official examination under the auspices of the Technologic branch of the Survey of the coal-mining conditions in this country with reference to safety.



THE MONONGAH COAL-MINE DISASTER.

(Mouth of mine, showing holes torn in hill by explosion of December 6, 1907.)



A SIDE VIEW OF THE EXPLOSIVES GALLERY AT PITTSBURG, SHOWING PORT-HOLES AT SIDE.

FOREIGN MINE OFFICIALS VISIT AMERICAN MINES.

The foreign governments lent their cordial support to America's appeal and leaves of absence were granted, respectively, to Mr. Victor Watteyne, Inspector-General of Mines, Belgium; Herr Carl Meissner, Councillor for Mines, Germany, and Captain Arthur Desborough, His Majesty's Inspector of Explosives, England, to enable them to visit the United States.

These experts placed at the Survey's disposal their own large experience and suggestions, and before returning home formulated a general report of the mine conditions found in this country and recommendations for the prevention of mine accidents. This report was published and widely distributed.

Meantime, the experimental work continued at the Pittsburg station. Test explosions were made in the gallery and men were trained in rescue work. Two discoveries have been made at this plant which will certainly tend to decrease the number of mine fatalities. In the first place, it has been demonstrated that some of the so-called safety explosives are anything but safe in mine practice; in fact it has been stated that in their use the "miner takes his life in his hands every time he touches off a fuse."

EXPLOSIVE TESTS ALREADY EFFECTIVE.

As a result of the Government tests, several brands of explosives have been quietly withdrawn from the market by the manufacturers. There is no Federal law to regulate standards in explosives manufacture; but the Government's findings, with public opinion in the background, has been in these instances sufficient to awaken the makers of

explosives to the danger to themselves of offering for sale inferior goods from the use of which is likely to result terrible loss of human life. The Government will continue these tests until explosives are standardized in such a manner that the miner will have a definite idea of what any particular brand of powder or dynamite will do. Such information, too, may well be the basis for State regulative enactments.

COAL DUST PROVEN AN EXPLOSIVE.

Probably the most important experiments thus far made, however, are those in which it has been actually demonstrated that coal dust is an explosive equally as dangerous as the deadly fire damp. This has been a disputed question among miners and engineers alike. At the Congressional hearings last year it was developed that the real cause of the great mine explosions was practically unknown. The statement was made that men who have been in the coal business all their lives say that coal dust will not explode; that others say that dust will explode, and that others say that it will explode if mixed with a certain proportion of gas. Mr. J. H. Jones, representing the Pittsburg coal operators, remarked, "I venture to say that if you get a dozen thoroughly practical mine managers together one-half of them will not agree on the causes necessary to bring about an explosion. Under such conditions we are groping in the dark and naturally we look to the Federal Government to tell us what the trouble is."

The Geological Survey tests, however, since that time have shown conclusively, in the presence of hundreds of miners and operators, that all varieties of coal dust yet tested except dust from anthracite coal will

explode in a mine where there is no gas. Efforts are now being made to discover the most practical preventive, and some measure of success is being attained.

PRACTICAL TESTS OF EXPLOSIVES.

Conditions at the Pittsburg station have been made to approach as closely as possible to those found in actual mines. The tests of various powders and other explosives used in blasting coal are being made in the mammoth boiler-plate gallery, previously filled with gas or coal dust, or a mixture of them. The gallery is 100 feet long and six feet in diameter. Safety valves are located all along the top, and are left unfastened in such a manner that whenever there is an explosion the valves are forced open. A series of port-holes on the side of the cylinder, fitted with heavy glass, enable witnesses to view the results from a parallel observation house sixty feet distant. Explosive mixtures of fire damp and air or coal dust and air, or coal dust and fire damp, are pumped into the cylinder and the explosive which is to be tested is shot into the mixture from a cannon, so that the flame penetrates into its midst. Natural gas is, however, substituted for fire damp because it corresponds very closely to this deadly gas.

WILL PREVENT COAL WASTE.

These investigations are expected to accomplish a double purpose; not only a reduction of the number of men killed in the mines, but also a saving in the waste in coal mining, which is now in the neighborhood of forty per cent. The use of improper explosives, as well as the improper use of suitable explosives, results annually in the waste of great amounts of coal. Too high charges in blasting, or the use of unnecessarily violent explosives, shatters much good coal, converting fuel into dust which may itself be explosive and become productive of much further damage. Such excessive blasting too often loosens the roof of a coal mine, which may fall later when least expected, often causing a loss of life and seriously obstructing the work of the mine.

LIFE-SAVING OXYGEN HELMET.

One feature of the problem which has the greatest human interest is the mine rescue work by use of the oxygen helmet. In this splendid mechanism science and invention have come to the aid of the brave fellows, usually the volunteer comrades, who at every great explosion go into the disrupted mine, braving gas and fire damp in the hope of rescuing entombed miners or in the search for bodies. Fitted with one of these helmets, a man may work with comparative comfort and efficiency and perfect safety in the fumes of the most deadly gas for two hours at a stretch. The life-sustaining breath is in the form of compressed oxygen, stored in a cylinder which is carried by the rescuer on his back, the oxygen being connected with the operator's mouth by a flexible, rubber-lined metallic tube. The rescuer's exhalations are passed through small lumps of potassium hydroxide which absorbs the carbonic acid gas, after which the nitrogen, together with more oxygen from the cylinders, is again available for the op-



UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY MINE RESCUE MEN.
(Equipped for practice service, with oxygen helmets. Entrance to artificial mine in background on the left.)



UNITED STATES GEOLOGICAL SURVEY MINE RESCUERS AT PRACTICE WORK.

(Passages and obstructions are supposed to represent conditions found after a mine explosion. Rescuers enter at right side of the picture and emerge into mine interior from left-hand aperture. Rescuer in act of giving oxygen to nearly asphyxiated victim.)

erator. For the training of men in the use of this rescue appliance and in other details of life-saving, a part of the Pittsburg station has been fitted up as a mimic coal mine. This is a large, glass-encased, airtight room which contains difficult passages such as exist in coal mines. There are also various obstructions similar to those found in a mine after it has been wrecked by an explosion. Dummies are also provided, weighing from 150 to 200 pounds each, representing asphyxiated miners. This room is actually filled with sulphur gas and a rescue corps of men who are being trained in the work enter daily, clad in helmets which supply them with oxygen while they work. The men remain in this chamber for two hours, removing obstructions, picking up the dummies, giving them emergency oxygen treatment, placing them on stretchers, and carrying them away. There is also at hand a machine which records the amount of work a man may be expected to do while wearing one of these helmets.

VIEW RESCUE CORPS AT WORK.

One-half of the large building in which this rescue room is located is used as an audi-

torium where several hundred miners and operators can watch the rescue drill through large glass windows separating the auditorium from the gas-filled chamber. Although there has been but little opportunity so far for the rescue corps to demonstrate its efficiency at the mines in actual rescue of miners, still it has done some good work, and has extinguished dangerous mine fires in a number of cases, doubtless in this way preventing serious mine disasters. More than once the helmeted men, while fighting a mine fire, succeeded in bringing an unconscious man to a place of safety, where he was given oxygen treatment and recovered his senses in a short time.

Survey officials state that it is not the intention of the Government to provide rescue corps for mine disasters. The Pittsburg corps was organized with the idea of encouraging the mine owners and the miners themselves to form such organizations. Invitations have been issued to operators throughout the country to send picked men to the experiment station where they may watch the Government rescuers at work and later go through the same training them-

selves, in order that they may gain the necessary confidence in the use of the oxygen helmets. Already a number of the large mining companies have taken advantage of this invitation and are organizing rescue corps at their mines, fully equipped with this life-saving apparatus.

With the machinery at the Pittsburg station in good operation it was decided to hold a formal opening of the plant, and invitations were issued to miners and mine operators, various members of Congress, and others interested, to be present and witness practical tests. This formal opening of the station in December by the Secretary of the Interior was largely attended, and convincing demonstrations were given of the practical value of the mine-disaster investigations and rescue work.

RESCUE STATIONS FOR ALL PRINCIPAL COAL FIELDS.

Having got this rescue work well under way at the central station, the Geological Survey is now about to extend its operations to all the principal coal fields of the country and establish branch stations. Here glass-fronted rooms will be fitted up to resemble coal-mine conditions following an explosion, into which gas can be introduced, where the miners and mine bosses of the locality can be trained in rescue work. At the same time the Government mining engineers assigned to these branch stations will be available, at a moment's notice, to go to the scene of any actual disaster occurring in their territory, in company with their rescue experts equipped with the oxygen helmets. It is not, however, as stated, the main purpose of the Survey to maintain sufficient rescue corps to cover the entire country, but rather to invite the co-operation of mine owners in furnishing men who can be trained in the use of the rescue apparatus until such time as all the principal mine owners shall have thoroughly equipped rescue crews at their own mines. The first of these substations has already been opened at Urbana, Ill.

GOVERNMENT VIGOROUSLY ATTACKING PROBLEM.

Another feature of the experiments is the testing of the different "safety" lamps under varying conditions of gas and coal dust. Foreign countries have stringent regulations with reference to the use of lamps in mines. For the testing of lamps a machine

has been built modeled after one in use by the Belgian Government, which has contributed largely to the safety of mining in that country.

Everything considered, great progress is being made in determining the causes of mine disasters and providing for future prevention. The sentiment of the country has forcibly expressed itself that the record of the past in mine mortalities must be cut down, and the Government is showing the way step by step and pointing out how mining can be made safer to human life and less wasteful in output. The Geological Survey experts have planned, devised, and worked to bring about an improved condition in record time. The best engineers in the country have been employed to give their undivided attention to the problem, and State authorities and private operators have heartily co-operated. At the present time the Pittsburg station is running twenty-four hours a day, with three shifts of eight hours each, while the supervising experts are working as many hours of the day as they can stay awake.

PROBABLE ORGANIZATION OF NEW BUREAU.

In connection with the first appropriation for mine-disaster investigations, the establishment of a bureau of mines was proposed; but pending this action by Congress it was determined to attack the problem in the Technologic branch of the Geological Survey, which was already doing some work along these lines. An attempt was made in the Appropriations Committee of the House of Representatives, in February, to cut down the appropriation for this work; but when the item came before the House itself, the amount was immediately increased to the same figure as the initial appropriation of last year, namely \$150,000, for the vigorous continuation of the work. It is probable, however, that a Bureau of Mining Technology will very soon be created by Congress, to be administered by the Secretary of the Interior and to which the technologic work of the Survey will be transferred. This bureau will undertake all technologic work of this character, following up or supplementing the more purely geologic work of the Survey, such as the study of mining geology, the investigation of the deposits and production of metals and minerals, the new bureau co-operating with the Survey in the more strictly economic phases of their exploitation for human use.

A NATION OF LITTLE SAVERS.

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE.

IF you were a Frenchman with a very small surplus to invest; if, even, that surplus were but a modest franc, you might become the holder of a French Government bond. From the cradle to the grave the French subject is taught to save and to turn his earnings into safe income-producing account. The state pays a premium on thrift. It rewards its school children for various good performances with a tiny bank deposit which, invariably, will have grown into goodly size when the recipient has reached maturity. Having nursed its people through the early stages of economy it directs their steps in the choice of investments, and even assumes paternal power in arbitrarily transforming the savings bank account into government bonds, or *rentes*. Thrift is a national characteristic. France is a nation of little savers, of little incomes, and of little farms. Collectively, these exercise a tremendous power on the affairs of Europe. The holder of the one or two-franc bond and the possessor of the bank account, so small that bankers of other countries would scorn it, have built up a monetary power that commands the respect of the world, and, indeed, regulates the finances and politics of much more presumptuous nations.

Bonds of states and governments, of railroads with a government guarantee, bonds of cities and towns, of mortgage companies, are the Frenchman's choice. His portfolio contains the most varied collection of government securities imaginable. It is safe to say that, in Paris, coupons are cut from the bonds of nearly every government under the sun. Too often the Frenchman gambles and loses in mining shares. He will have none of his own country's industrial issues.

Something over two years ago, in the *REVIEW OF REVIEWS*, I exploited the fact that France had captured from Great Britain the title of "world's banker," and that it was to Paris instead of to London that the borrower turned his steps. The shock of this statement to British pride was considerable. It was controverted. After the 1907 panic English bankers pointed to the manner with which the Bank of England had guided the nations through the monetary

crisis. By advancing its discount rate to 7 per cent., gold was automatically brought to it from all corners of Europe. With this gold, debtors, whether individuals, corporations, or governments, were satisfied. But France and the Bank of France stood in the background, and really supplied most of the yellow metal so that, when these debtors began to liquidate, they found that France and the Bank of France were, in most cases, their creditor.

To-day France, even more than in 1906, is the world's banker. Her inexhaustible supply of funds waiting for investment is the wonder and the envy of all foreign bankers. Wars come and go, acute political crises follow fast after each other in mercurial Continental Europe, and panics flatten industry and draw sharp cleavage between creditor and debtor. Through all these changes and chances the great middle class of France continues to save enough from its income to finance countries with much greater industrial wealth and to fill the vaults of the Bank of France to overflowing with gold. The shores of France are laved with a golden flood that never seems to ebb. How could it be otherwise in a nation that so carefully trains its people to save and splits up its government debt certificates into pieces of one, two, and three francs (20 to 60 cents); of whose 10,000,000 electors nine-tenths are investors, and where, of 12,500,000 savings bank depositors, over 50 per cent. have less than \$4 to their credit in bank.

Week after week, until the end of January, the financial columns of the daily press contained this statement: "Paris secured all the gold offered in the London market to-day." So it happens that, in the past year, the Bank of France has increased its gold holdings nearly \$170,000,000. The actual amount held in the middle of January was \$715,000,000, which was only exceeded by the gold in the United States Treasury, and has never been approached by a trading institution. For it should be remembered that the Bank of France is a dynamic force in the commercial life of the nation maintaining it. Napoleon,

under whose régime it was founded, enjoined his finance minister and the governors and regents of the bank to make its prime object the discounting, at a low rate of interest, of the credit obligations of all French commercial houses. Consequently, we see the petty borrower of five francs receiving as much consideration at the Bank of France as the applicant for millions, and find that, in 1906, no less than 232,000 bills for amounts under 10 francs (\$2) were discounted and carried in the domestic portfolio of the richest bank in the world.

Nearly every nation under the sun is today paying golden tribute to France. She has an army of creditors, but no debtors. About two score governments have to remit interest-money to her. The interest and dividends on the capital of her small investors represent earnings in all parts of the world. The road to Paris becomes, therefore, the route of least resistance for the floating gold supplies. Paris is absorbing into her banks from 35 to 40 per cent. of the metal freshly taken from the mines. So uniformly favorable is the international credit balance to France that, since 1891, about one-fifth of all of the gold mined has found its way into the Republic. In the year following the panic the stock of gold in the chief banks of the world increased \$400,000,000. This actually equals the twelve months' production of new metal. Of this gold the Bank of France secured \$100,000,000; Bank of Germany, \$75,000,000; associated banks of New York, \$100,000,000; Bank of Russia, \$55,000,000; Bank of Italy, \$50,000,000; the Bank of Austria-Hungary, \$17,000,000, and the Bank of England about \$9,000,000. The \$1,250,000,000 gold held by France and Russia is greater than the combined holdings of the banks of other nations. In ten years gold in the Bank of France has increased \$300,000,000, while the Bank of England has been gaining less than \$20,000,000.

Prince Von Bülow, the German Chancellor, recently gave his people the example of French thrift and industry to study. This was after the influence of French gold had impressed itself on German diplomats, and quieted their war talk. France recovered in four years from the billion-dollar indemnity of 1870, a burden imposed on a devastated land. Great Britain has just recently shaken off the debt of a far less serious war in South

Africa, waged nearly a decade ago. This year, with French exports cut 50 per cent. by the empty purses of foreigners who usually buy the products of that country, France has saved enough to finance nearly all of her European neighbors.

Why is France amassing this enormous fund of gold? Is she preparing for war or warding it off? We know now that her control over the money markets of Europe quickly brought harmony out of discord at the Algieras conference in 1906, when once it threatened to be exercised. For many persons her gold supply is an index of European political sentiment. The fact should not be overlooked that it is also, and now especially, a very good barometer of trade throughout the world. All of France's commercial creditors have been paying off their loans because they could not employ the money loaned them. So capital has gone home. France has, further, peremptorily called back funds loaned abroad. The gold holdings undoubtedly do represent, in a degree, fear that the seething pot in the Near East may some day boil over. The Russian loan accounts for a fair portion of the increase. In the last analysis, however, it must be admitted that the gold that France obtains comes to her by right as supreme international creditor.

The extent to which France has been carrying the idea of protecting her gold and keeping it at home once it gets there is shown in the high ratio between the metallic holdings of her national bank and circulating notes. These notes are covered by gold to the amount of 70 per cent. If we add to this silver the Bank of France note is secured by a metallic reserve equal to 87 per cent. This is an astonishing situation.

One cannot deny the fact that a nation that has so much idle gold suggests stagnation. Capital ought always to be earning something. In order to enlarge the supply of it funds have been recalled from lucrative foreign channels and reloaned at lower rates of interest where they could be instantly secured. France probably deserves the charge of living within herself too much. She is trying to consume only what she produces and to economize to the last franc. Whatever her policies she commands to-day, by exacting industry and thrift, the liquid supply of capital in Europe, and will always be the best able to help that government which is in financial distress.

THE EMMANUEL MOVEMENT.

BY LYMAN P. POWELL.

(Rector of St. John's Church, Northampton, Mass.; author of "The Emmanuel Movement in a New England Town.")

IN the development of great religious movements achievement has usually preceded definition, classification, and terminology. Luther crossed swords with Eck before he could foresee the Protestant Reformation. Jonathan Edwards heralded the Great Awakening before ever he left Northampton to write elsewhere the classic of predestination. And Moody brought two countries to their knees in godly penitence years before William James and Starbuck, Coe and George Jackson supplied modern evangelism with the watchwords of the new psychology.

The Emmanuel movement has reversed an age-long process. Not three years old, it is already clearly defined in the public mind. It has already found its proper place somewhere in that hazy middle ground which religion and medicine are inevitably forced to share between them. It is adequately furnished with a psychological terminology as scientific as either religion or medicine.

There are, to be sure, problems of adjustment and of adaptation still to be worked out in order to meet the varying conditions of one locality or another. But no well-informed and unbiased student of the Emmanuel movement is in any doubt as to the position this work is in general to occupy among the agencies fast multiplying in these days to make religion more practical and medicine more useful and to bring about that "team work" between the minister and doctor which Dr. Cabot is habitually emphasizing in connection with this subject.

THE EMMANUEL IDEA.

The Emmanuel idea is simplicity itself. If not all physicians agree with Dr. Frank Billings that "drugs, with the exception of quinine and mercury, are valueless as cures," few will be found to disagree with Dr. John H. Musser that "as the present compares with twenty years ago, one can see less and less of the use of drugs." Sir Frederick Treves is sure that drugs are in the main to "be replaced by simple living, suitable diet, plenty of sun, and plenty of fresh air." But

men like Dr. Richard C. Cabot are pointing out in steadily increasing numbers that besides all these aids to health there is, especially in nervous ailments, large room for psychical treatment.

It is now a fact self-evident that where nerves have been put to strain by worry, fear, or other untoward mental states, the removal of the cause relieves the strain itself and the nerves are likely to regain their tone again. Believing that it is the special province of religion to deal with the troubled mind and the restless soul, the Emmanuel worker in the spirit of the healing Christ would make his contribution, always with the doctor's approval and even under his direction if he will, to the improvement of the mental and the spiritual condition of the nerve-worn.

ITS OBVIOUS LIMITATIONS.

While it is possible that the Emmanuel treatment may have place in improving the mental and the spiritual atmosphere of those afflicted with troubles far more serious than the nerves induce, the originator of the movement has from the first assumed an attitude of extreme conservatism. Accepting Dr. S. Weir Mitchell's dictum that "there is no scientific record of any case of organic disease having been cured by any form of influence exerted through the mind" rather than the judgment of the English medical writer who has recently remarked that "faith and other unorthodox methods of treatment are not necessarily limited to so-called functional diseases," only those cases have been accepted for treatment which the doctors after careful diagnosis have pronounced purely nervous in their character.

Bright's disease and typhoid fever, tuberculosis and hydrophobia, pneumonia, and insanity find no welcome and no message in the Emmanuel clinic. The Emmanuel worker is well content if he can help to any extent whatever those who suffer from neurasthenia and psychasthenia and their unhappy brood of insomnia, nervous dyspepsia, neuralgia, hysteria, hypochondria, mor-

bid fears, fixed ideas, suicidal tendencies, and certain bad habits like alcoholism, which in one way or another are affected by the nervous system or else affect it to its serious hurt. And the spiritual help is given contemporaneously with a definite medical and physical régime.

THE EMMANUEL METHOD.

The method is as simple as the idea. It includes, especially in Boston, both social uplift and individual instruction. There is a class meeting every Wednesday evening in Emmanuel Church, which is sometimes completely filled, to worship and to listen to a helpful address on some subject of everyday importance, like worry, fear, sorrow, or unrest. As the months have slipped away, this service has more and more become a clearing house for the restless, the distressed, the tempted, and the morbid. Though the social influence of such a service is usually preventive, in the forgetfulness of self in such a service minor neuroses, like neuralgia and insomnia, have sometimes disappeared.

To comparatively few, in view of the inexorable fact that the Emmanuel movement is but one of many interests of the minister in a parish as large and influential as Emmanuel Parish is in Boston, has it been possible to give individual treatment. No applicant has been received save after the diagnosis and expressed approval of a regular physician, and in recent months the patient has been required besides to keep in close touch with the physician under whose direction the treatment has been given.

Perhaps the word treatment smacks too much of scientific medicine. While all psychical agencies approved by American and European experience have been regarded as legitimate in special instances, the treatment has usually consisted simply of frank discussion, specific direction, mental quieting, and general oversight of the inner life till such time as through the reorganization of the spirit, the re-energizing of the will, and the re-education of the impulses the unhappy sufferer has gained, or regained, perfect self-control.

The purpose first and last is not so much to help the patient as to teach the patient how to help himself. To this end the patient's continuous co-operation is required, and congenial work of one sort or another is earnestly advised with returning health. Though systematic suggestion is frequently required to dislodge specific symptoms and

unwholesome thoughts, the treatment is variably spiritual. The clinic is in a sense the minister preaching to a congregation of one at the moment of suggestibility, and the physical improvement usually "a casual by-product," as called it elsewhere, of a wider mental look and a deeper spiritual serenity.

ORIGINATORS OF THE MOVEMENT.

The rise of this movement seems providential. The discoveries of psychology, the craving in our time for religious reality, and the revolt against materialism in philosophy and in medical science—all these forces have contributed to the Emmanuel movement, the originators of which, as everybody knows, are Dr. Worcester and Dr. McComb.

Born in Massilon, Ohio, in 1861, Reverend Elwood Worcester, Ph.D., was graduated at the age of twenty from Columbia College, one year later from the General Theological Seminary, and three years later, in 1890, from the University of Leipzig with the degree of Ph.D., *cum laude*. He was fortunate to be at Leipzig while the two Delitzsches were still the brightest stars in the Hebrew firmament. Wundt was still busy in the reconstruction of psychology.

From them he learned much. B. G. Gamaliel was that profound thinker, C. Theodor Fechner, whose influence through the writings of Ebbinghaus, Paulsen, and Professor James is still with us, and of whom in his latest book, "The Living Word," Dr. Worcester remarks: "The effect of his personality and of his thought marked a turning point in my life, and his influence has deepened with the passing years. . . . It is doubtful if Europe during the nineteenth century of its greatest philosophical activity produced a profounder or a more fruitful religious thinker."

When Dr. Worcester returned to his native land he brought with him the best that Europe had to give in theology, psychology, and philosophy, and in the almost twenty years which have since intervened he has added to wide-ranging knowledge various ripening experiences. For several years he was professor of philosophy and chaplain at Lehigh University. From 1896 to 1901 he preached from the pulpit of St. Stephen's Church, Philadelphia, to a highly intelligent congregation. For five years past he has been rector of that well-known church in B

whose name has happily suggested the veraciously descriptive title of the movement which he has originated.

These Boston years of his have been the supreme years of Dr. Worcester's great activity. They have marked the crystallization of his ideas both in philosophy and theology, and in the following words it shines forth in all clearness:

For the past generations men have been groping for a theology which should approach the old mysteries God, evil, the soul, and immortality from the point of view of modern scientific and philosophic thought. The old static aspect of the universe has been supplanted by the dynamic. The old transcendent conception of God has yielded to the immanent. The thought of God as mere ruler and judge is no longer sufficient for men's religious needs. Science has discovered God at work, and religion also craves a spiritual and active Deity who works through laws and through us.

Some men of high emprise and keen originality have been content to put their yearnings and their aspirations into books and sermons. Dr. Worcester is of different mold. He would also reduce to terms of human service what he counts worth while in thought. Four years ago he established the Emmanuel class for the home treatment of consumptives which now has to its credit such a large percentage of cures that the latest session of the International Tuberculosis Congress voted it a gold medal and Dr. William Osler, who has introduced the method into England and Ireland, says of it: "I know of no more encouraging fact in connection with the disease than this practical experiment."

When in the autumn of 1906 Dr. Worcester tentatively started a class for the healing of those suffering from nervous troubles by suggestion re-enforced by faith, he chanced to have at hand in an associate minister a friend whose preparation had, like his, been most unusual for the work.

Born in Ireland, the Reverend Samuel McComb, A.M., D.D., was graduated from Oxford, made a D.D. by Glasgow, studied philosophy, psychology, and theology at Berlin, served for a while as professor of ecclesiastical history at Queen's University in Canada, and made a name for himself on either side the ocean first in the Presbyterian and then in the Episcopal pulpit. No two preachers, perhaps, in the whole English-speaking world needed each other more than did Drs. Worcester and McComb in the autumn of 1906. They are men of diverse types. Each has strongly marked peculiari-

ties of his own, and each supplies what is lacking in the other. Since the inauguration of the Emmanuel movement they have worked on terms of the closest friendship and unanimity.

PUBLIC INTEREST IN THE WORK.

A movement inaugurated in such circumstances naturally attracted from the outset much attention. The sick and sad who, as many doctors now admit, have had for many a day to walk "through dry places, seeking rest and finding none," from the first all but overwhelmed the new Emmanuel workers with their heart-breaking cry of "Save, or we perish." Men of distinctly modern training, who had been indifferent or contemptuous toward the clamorous cults of recent years, turned instinctively toward the first religious movement of their time to make appeal to academic minds. Preachers to whom the phrases of conventional theology have long since lost allurements gave immediate heed to claims couched in the language of the philosophy of idealism and of the new psychology. And the Emmanuel movement at once became the evangelism of the cultivated.

Faddists, convinced that what could indisputably do much ought to be able to do everything, hurried in vast numbers to Emmanuel Church, only to find themselves to their discomfiture and disappointment in an atmosphere as scientific as it is religious, and sometimes went away as quickly as they came to seek elsewhere that short cut which has never yet been found to health of soul or mind or body. Men whose training has been more theological than philosophical or more philosophical than psychological, have viewed the movement with suspicion and sometimes impelled by *à priori* reasons or by second-hand information have altogether missed its larger implications and condemned it without proper hearing. The ultra-conservative and the phlegmatic who are apt to deny that "New occasions teach new duties" have naturally had no interest in this latest effort made by men who hold positions of responsibility in the Christian Church to redistribute the emphasis in religion to ends pragmatic and humanitarian.

In spite of the misapprehension which was to be expected and of the criticism which has sometimes been of service, the movement has with every passing month gained new momentum. Three years ago there was no Emmanuel worker in the world. Now there is no country in the world but the idea has

found lodgment in it, and the workers steadily are multiplying everywhere.

While the Boston movement was still young, work was begun at Northampton, Brooklyn, and Detroit. Within a year, New York, Chicago, Rochester, Columbus, Cleveland, and other places have been added to the list. The Bishop of Connecticut has advised his clergy to make use of the idea, especially in their ministrations to the sick, and the Bishop of California, following a recent visit Dr. Worcester paid to the Pacific Coast, has formally established the work in his diocese and placed at its head the Reverend Albert Shields, one of Dr. Worcester's most successful Boston helpers.

The interest abroad is almost as intense as here. The work is already in operation in South Africa and Australia. A class of 500, Dr. Worcester reports, is studying the general subject in Tokio, Japan. The movement in Great Britain received appreciable impulse when Dr. McComb spoke last summer on it at the Pan-Anglican Congress and before various other bodies, and there is now in active operation in England a "Church and Medical Union," which has the hearty approval of many of the foremost preachers and physicians in the kingdom.

THE INDIRECT INFLUENCE.

To those attracted by the purely scientific aspects of the Emmanuel movement nothing probably is of more significance than the development of interest, since the work was started, in the entire field of psychotherapy. No organizations have been more insistent on addresses from Dr. Worcester and other Emmanuel workers than universities and colleges. Professors and students have been among the most frequent applicants for Emmanuel treatment, and men who have long thought it ill form to be spiritually minded have found substantial basis for a working faith in the Emmanuel idea.

Universities and colleges, both in their medical schools and in their psychological departments, are making haste to establish lectureships and other foundations in psychotherapy. Cornell has now a psychotherapeutic clinic under the direction of Dr. Beatrice Hinkle. Harvard has this past winter been giving a course of public lectures on the theme. At Yale both the medical and theological students now have a chance to receive definite instruction in the subject. Tufts College has a well-organized department. Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, Clark, and Johns

Hopkins are preparing to give much attention to psychotherapy. The subject is to be discussed at the American Church Congress, held in Boston, May 11-14. And a monthly course of study appearing in a magazine entitled *Psychotherapy* has been established under the trained editorship of Mr. W. B. Parker, some time of the *Atlantic* and the *World's Work*, to offer definite instruction to groups outside as well as inside university walls, in "sound psychology, sound medicine, and sound religion."

A FEW STATISTICS.

While statistics are both difficult to collect and to estimate aright where nerves are involved, almost from the first careful records have been kept of every case to which systematic treatment has been given, and Dr. Richard C. Cabot more than a year ago reported in the *Outlook* that a considerable percentage of the cases which had received Emmanuel treatment in Boston during a period of seven months, the statistics of which he had studied, had been benefited. More recently Dr. Worcester has stated that during a period of a year ending apparently in the summer of 1908, some 661 cases had been treated for nervous functional disorders, not to mention a far larger number of persons who came to Emmanuel Church during that time from all parts of the country seeking godly counsel and moral uplift in the conduct of their lives.

In the year 1908, out of more than 400 who came to the Emmanuel clinic in Northampton, ninety-three, of whom sixty-four were suffering from nervous functional disorders, received systematic treatment with the following results thus tabulated in my recent book on "The Emmanuel Movement in a New England Town":

Diseases.	Apparently cured.	Much improved.	Slightly improved.	Not improved.	Result unknown.	Relapsed.	Treatment discontinued.	Still under treatment.*	Totals.
Neurasthenia . . .	0	22	6	2	..	30
Psychasthenia . . .	3	4	4	4	4	..	1	..	25
Alcoholism	2	..	1	3	5
Miscellaneous . . .	8	13	1	1	1	1	24
Totals	22	44	12	5	5	2	3	12	93

* Not counted in the total

And in other places where the Emmanuel work has been in progress a careful study of the available statistics would probably disclose about the same results.

The idea is everywhere the same. It is

adequately described in the official handbook of the Movement, "Religion and Medicine." Without charge, without detachment from their denominational organization, without any break with scientific medicine, men and women suffering from nervous ills have been helped by spiritual agencies back to health again. There has been for thousands the land over literal fulfillment, these three years past, of Isaiah's words quoted in the Gospels, "The people which sat in darkness saw great light; and to them which sat in the region and shadow of death light is sprung up."

THE SUPREME QUESTION.

After three years the time has come to ask the penetrating question, "What in the largest sense is the Emmanuel movement?"

None with first-hand knowledge of the work regard it as a mere healing scheme. If there were no other facts in evidence statistics would alone suffice to make its larger implications clear. Those actually ill resorting to Emmanuel treatment in Boston have been in the small minority. For every nervous sufferer who has come to me for treatment in Northampton, there have come seven as to a friend for counsel or for comfort in some mental stress, some moral trouble, or some spiritual exigency.* And I doubt not that Emmanuel workers everywhere are having much the same astonishing experience.

To exaggerate the larger import of the movement would be difficult indeed. Those on the outside who are unable to conceive of it as more than a device for curing nervous people without the help of drugs are about as near the truth as those to whom the practice of medicine is still nothing more than drug administration in spite both of Dr. Barker's word that in the minds of many drugs are now "almost moribund" and of the informing experience of the Out-patient Department of the Massachusetts General Hospital, which in five years reduced the number of its prescriptions from 58,177 to 43,674, and at the same time increased the number of its excess visits from 30,691 to 63,389. While it may, perhaps, be too early to predict, some of us who have been longest in the work and have had experiences most varied are inclined, as months slip by, to think more definitely of the movement as the happy introduction to a more efficient pastoral activity in which the pastor will come as close

to his people and minister as intelligently and as scientifically to their spiritual needs as the doctor comes to his patients and prescribes for the ailments of their bodies, and in consequence will contribute, even when he knows it not, to the upbuilding of the body as well as of the soul and mind. For, as Ray Stan- nard Baker has truthfully remarked, both the minister and doctor are to-day discovering "that nothing, finally, can take the place of the direct human touch."

Whatever happens in the future, the Emmanuel idea is sure to be of steadily increasing service in the reinstatement of the minister in the position of authority which he once held in the community. His position now is almost everywhere anomalous where it is not positively difficult. During the thirty-six years which ended in 1906 the number of theological students increased but 137 per cent. and the increase in the number of medical students amounted to 302 per cent. While the minister's authority as a spiritual expert has gradually waned in recent years, the authority of the physician has everywhere waxed greater with the growth of the scientific spirit. In Falstaff's day there were others besides the roystering old knight who never cried out "God, God, God!" till they were on their deathbed. To-day there are countless thousands who not even in their dying hour babble "of green fields," and the minister in his professional capacity is no more welcome by their sickbed than in their drawing room.

The Emmanuel clinic makes the minister a spiritual expert, as the medical clinic makes the doctor a specialist in the treatment of the body's ailments. When men and women bring their spiritual and moral troubles to the minister with the same confidence with which they bring their bodily ills to the physician and speak as frankly to the one as to the other, the minister comes to such an understanding of moral and spiritual pathology as he has not had before. And when to the thousands who have lately found help in the Emmanuel treatment for many troubles in which the restless spirit or unwholesome mind has reacted unfavorably on the body, there are added in the future countless thousands who can truly say with Jacob, "I have seen God face to face, and my life is preserved," the minister of Jesus Christ will come unto his own again and act and speak "as one having authority, and not as the scribes."

* Mr. Powell is unable to answer communications regarding his work in this field, save from clergymen and physicians.

AN EMMANUEL WORKER'S RECORD OF RESULTS.*

THE foregoing exposition of what is known in this country as the Emmanuel Movement was written by a man who had not only made a study of the teachings promulgated from Boston, but had devoted many months to a clinical test of those teachings. The Reverend Lyman P. Powell, rector of St. John's Church at Northampton, Mass., was one of the first clergymen outside of the immediate Emmanuel Church circle to become interested in the message of Dr. Worcester and Dr. McComb. In the fall of 1907, about a year after the inauguration of the movement at Boston, Mr. Powell opened at Northampton an Emmanuel clinic, with regular weekly hours, and during the first year of his practice he saw in this clinic 400 different people and gave systematic treatment to 105. A tabulation of the results appears in Mr. Powell's article, on page 580.

In a little book entitled "The Art of Natural Sleep" (Putnams), published last year, Mr. Powell related his experience in applying to cases of insomnia the principle of suggestion. The broader scope of the Emmanuel clinic and the importance of the results achieved from the application of the same principle and similar methods to a wide range of nervous disorders seemed to call for a brief, popular statement of the facts, available for the general reader who is interested in learning how the work is actually conducted and at the same time useful to the clergyman and physician who desire to put Emmanuel methods in practice. To that end Mr. Powell has written "The Emmanuel Movement in a New England Town,"—a book which admirably supplements "Religion and Medicine," by Drs. Worcester and McComb.

In connection with Mr. Powell's article in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, the reader will be interested in this comment (from page 38 of his book) on the cases with which he has personally dealt:

Of the one hundred and five cases, twenty-four, most of them in recent months, have been sent me by physicians of their own accord, and it is rapidly becoming difficult for me to accept

any other cases. In twenty-eight cases I have had, besides the doctor's diagnosis, his counsel and co-operation at every stage, and not infrequently the dentist, the oculist, the throat specialist, the orthopedic specialist, or the neurologist has made an important contribution to the convalescence. Special treatment for insomnia, occurring as a symptom or a sequel of some other ailment, has been given to twenty-eight of the one hundred and five, not to mention at least fifty more who have in one interview been directed to the art of natural sleep. The improvement in sleeping has been in almost every instance immediately evident, as in the numerous instances of constipation for which suggestion re-enforced by faith seems to be as surely a specific as quinine is for malaria.

The reader cannot fail to be impressed by the moderation and candor with which Mr. Powell presents the results of his work. Thus, in his summary of the cases tabulated in his book, he says:

Reducing the statistics to percentages, it would appear that about 24 per cent. have been "apparently cured," 47 per cent. "much improved," 13 per cent. "slightly improved," 5 per cent. "not improved." If the percentage in which there has been no improvement seems small, so small, in fact, as to appear almost invisible to scientific medicine, which has failed alone to effect any change whatever in many of the ninety-three cases under consideration, it should be remembered that before I undertake the treatment of any case I require not merely the diagnosis of a reputable doctor, but also trust my intuition as to whether I can with my temperament and training wake in the patient the faith without which I can do nothing. There are some cases in which, though the prognosis would seem favorable, I feel at the first interview my inability to help, and frankly admit the fact. In two of the three cases in which I have discontinued the treatment, I have done so because I found myself unable, after a few interviews, to dominate the situation and to induce the patient scrupulously to follow my directions, and taking the responsibility upon myself I promptly terminated the professional relationship.

Throughout the book there is a notable absence of the exaggeration and straining for effect which so often accompany the propaganda of any new cult. Mr. Powell's conservatism makes his conclusions the more convincing.

In his concluding chapter, "The Movement and the Church," Mr. Powell indicates what he terms "the wider reach" of this form of ministry, and sums up in the following paragraphs his views of its possibilities:

* The Emmanuel Movement in a New England Town. By Lyman P. Powell. Putnams. 210 pp., ill. \$1.25.

The Emmanuel method aims at two results at once: 1. To inform the mind and educate the spirit. This in many instances is sufficient to effect the bodily improvement. In several of my cases of general neurasthenia almost incredible results have quickly followed close adherence to this plan. 2. To remove in a comparatively small number of cases, if I may trust my own experience, local ailments by direct suggestion reinforced by faith. This result almost always follows swiftly the preceding one. When there has been a failure to do so, there has always been good reason to suspect the presence of some element which diagnosis had failed to bring to light.

It is beside the mark for any one of Christian faith to argue from the rich experience of Europe that suggestion without faith will bring the same result. For if, as the Christian maintains, religion is the strongest motive in the human heart, Christian faith must surely have some therapeutic value where the devils of worry or fear have so controlled the mind that

the poor nerves at last have felt their clutch and tried to fling it off.

The time is not far distant when the doctor will be specially trained, as now he seldom is, to give suggestive treatment when it is clearly indicated. Institutions, like Harvard, Yale, Tufts, Cornell, Pennsylvania, Johns Hopkins, Clark, and Wisconsin, have already blazed the way. But even after the physician is technically trained to give suggestion, Christian people will require that suggestion be reinforced by faith, and physicians who lack Christian character will in consequence find the *entrée* more difficult than it now is into Christian homes. The idea itself is so simple, its untechnical exercise in the ordinary relationships of life so free from peril, that everybody charged with the responsibility of souls or minds in trouble will make instinctive use of it in church and home alike. All society will, in fact, form an amiable conspiracy to suggest on every hand the thoughts that make for mental and moral health, and many a nervous ill which now afflicts mankind will disappear.

THE EMMANUEL WORK FROM THE PHYSICIAN'S VIEW-POINT.

BY JOHN C. FISHER, M.D.

THE healing ministry of the Emmanuel Church, Boston, carried on by the rectors, Drs. Worcester and McComb, under constant medical supervision, has been successful beyond all expectation, and has received the very general commendation of the medical profession.

We are especially interested in the fact that such men as Dr. Putnam, Dr. Cabot, and Dr. Barker, in consultation with Dr. Worcester and Dr. McComb, outlined the methods to be followed by Emmanuel Church, and that associated with the directors have been men of the standing of Dr. Isador Coriat, joint author with Drs. Worcester and McComb of "Religion and Medicine," which sets forth the principles of what is now known as the Emmanuel Movement.

The founders of this movement are marvelously well equipped. They are men of strong personality, of broad views, theologians, philosophers, psychologists. While hypnotism, suggestion, auto-suggestion, and psycho-analysis have been used in the clinic, the curative power of prayer, the tonic effect of religion, the coming of God to the soul, are the processes on which greatest stress has been laid. In "Religion and Medicine" es-

pecial emphasis is put on these features of the work.

To-day the question is not one of approval or disapproval of the unique work of Dr. Worcester and those associated with him. From the modest inception of the movement, in 1906, it has grown by leaps and bounds. Clergymen and laymen have flocked to Boston to study the methods in use, and the people have read eagerly the large number of explanatory articles which have appeared, in rapidly increasing numbers, in the newspapers and periodicals of the country.

THE CLERGYMAN IN THE DOCTOR'S FIELD.

The term "Emmanuel Movement" has come to mean, in the popular mind, treatment of functional troubles through hypnotism, suggestion, auto-suggestion, psycho-analysis, and religion by clergymen. So, to-day, we face the serious question, Shall the treatment of so-called functional diseases be relegated to the church? There are those of the clergy who claim that healing the sick is a function of the church. In one of the books treating of the movement is this query, "Now we clergymen are required to answer the question, 'Where is the lineal succession to the power of healing, in the name of Him

who has all power in heaven and earth?" This "power of healing" was entrusted to the disciples of the Christ in the words (Matt. X, 8), "heal the sick, cleanse the lepers, raise the dead, cast out devils." We cannot indorse such a claim, and feel that the cause is injured by basing action on an isolated text, which, if authority, sanctions treating organic as well as functional disease; while authority or ability to treat organic disease is distinctly disclaimed by the leaders of the movement. The religion of Christ is for all people of all ages: how can this religion be best adapted to the needs of the people of this twentieth-century age, with which we are dealing, rather than how it was applied to those of the primitive church, is the question.

In the popular mind to-day there is the impression that, in functional diseases, so-called, the duty of the physician ends with the diagnosis, and that treatment can be best entrusted to the clergy. This impression is due no doubt to the often repeated, "Psychic troubles need psychic treatment," with the added statement that physicians have not been trained to give this treatment,—which is but a half truth.

WEIR MITCHELL'S CONTRIBUTION.

It is true that the medical profession at large has not been adequately instructed in psychology and psycho-therapeutics, but physicians have used these methods from time immemorial, and they have been brought to their present state of usefulness by the profession. Psycho-therapeutic treatment cannot be discussed without using the names of Mesmer, Charcot, Bernheim, Liebault, Janet, Lloyd-Tuckey, Freud. In our own country there have been a number of well-known physicians who have added largely to our knowledge of the subject. The Weir Mitchell "Rest Cure" is known the world over. To the public it is simply rest; to many of the profession rest, plus massage, electricity, and forced feeding; while in fact the psychotherapy brought into the treatment is one of the strongest factors making for cure. By this treatment thousands have been helped back to health.

Just here it seems appropriate to remind those who believe that the medical profession has been ignorant of the fact that body and spirit go to make up man, that this great Emmanuel Movement can be traced to the influence of a physician, Dr. S. Weir Mitchell, who instilled into the mind of Dr. Wor-

cester the idea of clergyman and physician joining forces to help nervous sufferers. Again it was Weir Mitchell who years ago said:

"Our best have owned the rare dramatic art,
Which gives to sympathy its lifting hour:
Go learn of them, the masters of our art,
To trust that wise consultant called the heart
There are among us those who haply please to
think
Our business is to treat disease,
And still unknowingly lack this lesson still,
'Tis not the body, but the man is ill."

SERVICE THE PHYSICIAN CAN RENDER.

The medical profession, cognizant of the almost insuperable difficulties surrounding the carrying out of such a program as has been inaugurated and is being carried out by the Emmanuel Church, can but look with grave apprehension on the assumption by the church at large of the responsibility of treating disease. In so far as hypnotism and scientific suggestion and psycho-analysis are to enter into the treatment the profession must enter an emphatic protest against their use by the clergy, whose training has been mostly in theology, somewhat in psychology and philosophy, none at all in medicine.

Hypnotism is a two-edged sword. Its use is not as well established as one might infer from reading some of the literature spread broadcast to-day. Many of our most eminent specialists are opposed to its use, excepting in a small group of cases, and then only under most careful supervision. To relegate the use of this agent to the clergy will be a distinct step backwards in the treatment of disease. While the other psycho-therapeutic methods have less possibilities for harm, their use should be entrusted to men thoroughly grounded in the principles of medicine as well as in psychology.

The physician ought not to be consulted for a diagnosis and then left out of the case. The border line between functional and organic disease is often hard to outline, and the patient must be kept under constant observation. The condition present to-day may change in a few days, so that other treatment than that first outlined will be necessary. Most of these cases of functional trouble need treatment by physical methods as well as mental, and some by physical methods only. Hydro-therapy, massage, electricity are very useful, aside from any element of suggestion in their use. It is not fair to the patient to deprive him of the benefit which comes from the use of these helpful methods

while psychic treatment is being given. Medication, too, is helpful in most of these cases and ought not to be left out of the "plan" for the patient's treatment.

If one will read the chapters in "Religion and Medicine," written by Dr. Coriat, he will see clearly that the use of hypnotism and other scientific psycho-therapeutic methods should be carried out only under constant medical supervision.

THE REAL EFFICACY OF RELIGIOUS FAITH.

A very evident element of weakness in the movement is lack of organization. The church cannot undertake supervision: and hence a great many of "the unfit," to use Dr. Gordon's illuminating term, will rush into the work. To be sure this may be the best way to hasten a solution of the question. The legitimate sphere of scientific psycho-therapy is so limited that the multitude of the unfit who use it will soon weary when the brilliant results expected are not realized. Hence it will come to pass that, as the movement spreads out from Boston, the psycho-therapeutic element will gradually filter out, and we shall have the religious element left. Then we shall be getting onto the proper ground for the church to render most efficient service.

It is certainly true, as Bishop Fallows has said, "The medical profession has everything to gain by welcoming the assistance of ministers of religion in this neglected field." The only question is, how this assistance can be extended so as to bring about the best results for the patients. All the hope and cheer and uplift which can be brought into the life of any nervous, "functionally troubled" invalid, or of one suffering from organic disease, will prove of inestimable value. Even Paul Dubois, the freethinker, gives testimony to the curative value of religious faith. Many glowing tributes to this power in helping in the cure of disease, from the pens of men high in the medical profession, could be quoted. The profession at large welcomes all assistance of this kind that the clergy will give.

SYMPATHETIC ATTITUDE OF THE MEDICAL PROFESSION.

As the Rev. Dr. W. R. Huntington says: "In so far as Emmanuelism aims at bringing the pastors of souls and the souls whose pastors they are into close relations, Emmanuelism makes for good."

We think there is a widespread misunder-

standing as to the attitude of the medical profession toward religion. That there is a feeling of dissatisfaction with the religion of the churches is evident. None of us could voice that feeling in stronger terms than are used by the founder of this movement. However, when the clergy get above measuring Christianity by creeds, and look on religion as a form of power, the foundation of all the activities of life, a large majority of the profession will be found in hearty accord with the church. In "The Outlook of the Church," Dr. Worcester, in impassioned words, urges united effort on the part of the church to realize all that is contained in the cry, "Back to Jesus."

Believing that health and happiness are the right of man, and that they are to be obtained in fullest measure only through the influence of religion, we bid this phase of the Emmanuel Movement Godspeed.

The medical profession should thank the Emmanuel Movement for a revival of interest in the spiritual side of man. We use the term "revival" advisedly, for there is nothing new in the psycho-therapeutic methods used. These have been common property of the medical profession for many generations. Moreover, there is nothing new in the treatment of disease by religion. Man is naturally religious, and has in every age turned to religion in some form for help. The history of man is a succession of revivals, and today we are but adding another chapter to this history.

The present generation has seen a revolution in the practice of medicine. Physical diagnosis has become exact, so that the size and location of the various organs of the body can be determined. By means of the stethoscope heart and lung sounds can be determined and located. The microscope has unfolded the secrets of blood and body secretions. Pasteur's discovery of microbic life and Lister's antiseptics have given a marvelous impetus to surgery. The discovery of anti-toxins has robbed some forms of disease of their terrors. The up-to-date physician has been the man with stethoscope and microscope and test tube and X-ray who could make a complete examination of the body, its secretions and excretions. But this has all been "materialistic." Without a visible lesion, no disease, has been the dictum. In medical meetings a man who read a paper on the relation of mind to body, or treatment by suggestion, would find himself in the section on nervous diseases with a small audi-

ence. No one engaged in general practice would wish to spend his time listening to such a paper. A physician offering to read a paper on the effect of religion in curing disease would have found the program full.

To-day this is changed. There is now a place on the program for articles on psycho-therapy, religion in medicine, the Emmanuel Movement; and the papers are heard in open meeting and discussed by the general practitioner as well as the specialist. The leading medical journals publish many papers on these subjects and give editorial space to a discussion of these themes. Medical schools are establishing departments for instruction in psycho-therapy. Great good must result from such systematic, scientific study.

If we of this generation are living in an atmosphere of materialism, the coming generation is to meet a wave of mysticism and a craze of psycho-therapy. To meet these changed conditions so that our patients may receive the best treatment; that there may be intelligent co-operation with the clergy; that faddism may be limited, the profession at large should understand psychology, psycho-pathology, and psycho-therapeutics, even though most of the treatment be left in the hands of a selected few of the profession. For renewed interest in these subjects we have to thank the Emmanuel Movement.

After all has been said with regard to the marvelous progress of medicine during the past fifty years, the physician is painfully aware of the limitations which are constantly present in the treatment of disease. When our best has been accomplished there is left, as a rule, after an attack of sickness, a body more or less scarred, and by reason of interference with normal action the person is hampered the remainder of his mortal life. The physician feels that treatment of disease is but a makeshift; preventive medicine is his ideal. To this goal the profession is bending its energies. We are proud of what has been accomplished during our own day to lessen the sufferings of mankind. The horror of the operating table has been abol-

ished by the use of anesthetics. Operations which formerly were impossible to perform are now done painlessly by reason of the use of anesthetics, and successfully by reason of antiseptics. Thousands of lives are thus saved annually, and untold suffering ameliorated.

PREVENTIVE VERSUS CURATIVE MEDICINE.

All honor is due him who introduced quinine as a specific in the treatment of malaria: ten thousand honors are due Laveran and Manson and Ross, who have demonstrated that it is entirely unnecessary to have malaria. The plague and typhus are now of historic interest only. Yellow fever, tuberculosis, and typhoid fever will soon be matters of history. A large number of earnest, skilled observers are working day and night to solve the mystery of that awful scourge, cancer. To-day we join in thanks to Flexner, who has given us a serum which is curative in cerebro-spinal meningitis, but there is even greater gratitude in store for him who shall show how to wipe out the disease.

We confidently believe the day is not so far distant when disease will have been compelled to yield her secrets to man, and the physician will have indeed become what he wishes to be,—a preventer, not a curer of disease. The Rev. Dr. George A. Gordon has said, "The mission of the church is not primarily to the sick, but to the well." Physician and clergyman can thus meet on common ground, and join hands in a work for man, which shall be not the curing, but the prevention of disease. This is the grandest work of all, and here surely is a task the church can legitimately undertake. It is a much greater expression of learning and skill and beneficence to prevent than to cure disease,—this we all believe. Will not the church bring much greater glory to herself, and best honor the Christ, by so applying the wonderful power of religion to those who are well, that men shall escape a large percentage of the terrible nervous troubles said to be due to the fact that we are out of harmony with our Creator?



JAPAN'S FINANCIAL CONDITION.

BY ADACHI KINNOSUKE.

(Editor of *The Far East*.)

IT seems incredible that a nation which, in 1878, had a debt of \$33,886,931, should find itself only thirty years later burdened with one of more than \$1,120,000,000. But such is the plight of Japan. At the close of the year 1908 the national debt of Japan amounted to \$1,120,565,000. And this is the way it grew:

The issuance of the public loan bonds in the fiscal year of 1878-9, amounting to about \$93,000,000, increased our indebtedness by one jump from 1.9 yen per head to 6.9 yen. The second great increase came with the Chinese war. In 1897 we found ourselves under the load of an indebtedness of nearly \$211,000,000. Then came the Russian war. The government met the extraordinary expenditure of this war by the flotation of exchequer bonds five times in the years 1904-5. The first, second, and third issues, amounting to \$140,000,000, bore interest at 5 per cent., and the fourth and fifth issues, aggregating \$100,000,000, interest at 6 per cent. These last two issues were redeemed in 1906 with the proceeds of the 4 per cent. sterling loan of £25,000,000, which was placed in London, Paris, New York, and Berlin. This hundred and twenty-five million dollar loan sold at 90 and is to run until 1920.

These domestic loans were, of course, utterly inadequate to meet the war expenditure. Therefore, the government placed abroad the two 6 per cent. loans amounting to £22,000,000 sterling, pledging the customs duties of the Empire as security. These loans have already been consolidated and redeemed. In March, 1905, the government floated the first 4½ per cent. loan of £30,000,000. Half of this amount, which sold at 90 and which will run until 1910, was floated in London, and the other half in New York. This loan was secured by the first charge upon the net profit of the tobacco monopoly. The second 4½ per cent. sterling loan for the same amount was issued in London, New York, and Berlin in July, 1905. This, like the first, was secured by the profits of the tobacco monopoly. We do not know just who are holding these foreign loans of ours at the present time. Neither is there any way of knowing what proportion of them is held in New York, London, Paris, and Berlin, but the majority of our bonds are undoubtedly held in these four financial centers.

The general feature of the national debt now outstanding can be more plainly seen by the following table, which is compiled from the "Eighth Financial Annual" (1908), issued by the imperial department of finance:

NATIONAL DEBTS OUTSTANDING, MARCH 31, 1908.

Kind of loan.	Internal Loans.			Redemption.	
	Amount outstanding.	Interest.	Issued.	Begin.	End.
Financial adjustment:					
Old Public Loan.....	\$1,667,457	None.	1872	1872	1921
Redemption of Paper Money.....	11,000,000	None.	1890	1893	1912
Consolidation of Old Loans.....	81,285,500	5 %	1887-1897	1892	1951
War and military loans:					
Navy Loan.....	4,148,350	5 %	1886-1889	1891	1923
Chinese War Loan.....	56,702,975	5 %	1895-1900	1900	1950
Exchequer Bonds.....	136,667,400	5 %	1904	1904	1911
Extraordinary Military Expenditures Loan.....	150,333,275	5 %	1906	1911	1936
Exchequer Bonds.....	6,155,225	5 %	1904-1905	1904	1911
Industrial and economic undertakings:					
Railway Loan.....	21,786,850	5 %	1893-1907	1898	1961
Hokkai do Railroad Loan.....	2,125,650	5 %	1898-1907	1903	1961
Debentures of Purchased Railway Companies.....	13,982,365	5-8 %	1904-1906	1904	1962
Loan for Railroad Purchase.....	15,498,550	5 %	1908	1913	1962
Public Works Loan.....	37,153,150	5 %	1897-1907	1902	1962
Formosan Public Works Loan.....	16,820,818	5 %	1900-1906	1905	1960
Total.....	\$555,322,615				
	Foreign Loans.				
War Loans.....	\$527,201,512	4-5 %	1905	1910	1947
Economic undertakings:					
Railway Loan.....	16,622,975	4-4½ %	1899-1906	1908	1953
Public Works Loan.....	39,026,125	4 %	1899	1908	1953
Total.....	\$582,850,612				
Grand total.....	\$1,138,223,227				

HOW JAPAN PAYS HER BILLS.

In order to meet the extraordinary expenditure of the last war the Japanese Government separated the war indebtedness (which amounted to \$850,000,000 at the end of 1906) from the general budget, and a scheme of redemption of this war debt was approved by the Imperial Diet and promulgated in March, 1906. According to this scheme the amount of not less than 110,000,000 yen (\$55,000,000) is to be laid aside every year to be applied to the payment of interest and the redemption of the war debt. On this plan the entire indebtedness of the war is to be paid off within thirty years.

When the Katsura Cabinet (the present administration) returned to power it carried in its portfolio the now famous five formidable plans.

First, to increase the annual amount to pay off our national debt; second, to cut off entirely the floating of new loans, going so far as to stop the marketing of the unsold portion of the already authorized bonds; third, to abandon the time-honored scheme of counting upon the annual increase of state revenues; fourth, to extend over a longer period of years than had previously been determined upon, the completion of certain projected public works for which money had already been appropriated, and, fifth, to make the financing of the railways an account independent of the national budget.

The 28th of August, 1908, placed a white stone in the history of Japanese finance. On that day the Katsura Cabinet decided to lay aside every year at least 50,000,000 yen (\$25,000,000) for the purpose of paying off the principal of our national debt. The minimum amount of 110,000,000 yen, provided in the national debt consolidation fund referred to above, allows not much over 25,000,000 or 30,000,000 yen for the principal. Therefore, the Katsura program of laying aside 50,000,000 yen a year would raise the amount in no mean degree. If this policy be followed every year, our war debt will be redeemed very much sooner than the time specified,—namely, thirty years. As a matter of fact, it speaks well for Japanese finance that, in the very bitterest period through which it has passed, the administration could manage to set aside for the debt charge 151,183,514 yen in 1906-7, 174,390,457 yen in 1907-8, and 176,839,532 yen in 1908-9, in each case a much greater amount than the 110,000,000 yen planned. Marquis Katsura, our present Premier, indeed has an abiding respect for the imperial finance. When he organized his cabinet he did not

trust the portfolio of Finance to any one but himself.

SUPPORTING THE ARMY AND NAVY.

As if it were not enough for us to effect a transformation which took Europe and even America at least four or five hundred years, in a short, suffering close-crowded half century, Fate made us very close neighbors to the scene of Russia's dream of a Far Eastern Empire, and to the awakening of China.

Japan, like a man, cannot live by bread alone. As we have grown and begin to know where we stand, national defense has become to us more than food, more than raiment. For what doth it profit our empire if we inherit all the culture and the wealth of the world if we lose our very existence as a nation?

In the year 1908 we spent \$144,189,183 for our army and navy. Since the Chinese war (that is to say, between April 1, 1895, and March 1, 1909) we spent for the army \$376,985,088 and for the navy \$313,443,440. Within fourteen years, for the purpose of national defense alone, our empire, therefore, has been compelled to expend the grand total of \$689,428,528. It should be said here that not a cent of the expenditure on the Russian war is counted in this amount. The war account was made independent of the general budget, and the entire war period is now treated as one financial year. After that tremendous expenditure we are told, and we ourselves know it well, that the navy of Japan is but a new-born babe.

Following the Russian war we instituted the post-bellum six-year expansion program. The Katsura Cabinet extended the program over twelve years instead of six, cutting down by so doing the expenditure by half, so far as the annual budget is concerned. Last year it was even less than that. The amount provided for the army and navy expansion program was cut down twice.

Lest there be a Wall Street financier or a manufacturer of canned goods in America who will be tempted to sneer at our military expenditure of \$144,000,000, may we be permitted to remind our American critics of this fact? After spending \$850,000,000 in the Russia war Japan is called upon to maintain the third* greatest navy in the world to-day, and also to maintain an army which is, modestly, about four times as big as that of the United States. Our empire, moreover,

* Captain Jane, in his 1908 edition of his "Fighting Ships," places Japan with Germany as the third greatest naval power.

is doing all this when her foreign trade is \$140,956,000 less than that of the Argentine Republic.

FINANCING KOREA, FORMOSA, AND MAN-
CHURIA.

But consider further that there is Korea. What we were forced to spend to help her along is not an imposing amount, but there is more than one item in this connection. For example, take the Korean Railway. This is ours, but in Korea there are periodic floods, which are not at all ours. Yet they wash away our railway. In the budget for 1909 is noted the item: "For reconstruction and repairs (Korean Railway), \$2,206,809." In the supplementary budget for 1908-9 also there is an entry: "\$131,000 for repair work in Korea caused by flood," and in the supplementary budget for 1909-10 another item,—a trifle, too,—for \$150,000 for the same thing. This amount is a sort of subsidy for the much-advertised Oriental Colonization Company. There are claims that it will make money. Meanwhile, it is taking a good deal of money which we can ill afford to lose. At present it certainly does not make any. Our government loaned to Korea to make good what is known as the Reform of 1908 the sum of 19,000,000 yen,—about nine and one-half million dollars in gold,—for five years without interest. Then our government guaranteed the Industrial Bank of Japan the payment of the principal and interest for a sum not exceeding \$10,000,000 to encourage the work of developing Korean resources. Our government also guaranteed the principal and interest on another \$10,000,000 of the debentures of the Oriental Colonization Company. All these make a fair total.

As if Formosa and Korea were not quite enough of a load to bend our financial backbone like a young bamboo under a winter load of snow, all the world knows of the yellow man's burden in Manchuria. For the fiscal year of 1908-9 the expenditure of the administration of the Kwantung Province of Manchuria, which we received from Russia after the war, amounted to \$2,326,901. This sum is entirely independent of the expenditure connected with the South Manchurian Railway on which we have raised a loan of \$20,000,000.

There are many other bills we have had to pay for the establishment of a merchant marine, which we, like England, had to have, and the thousand and one different national

public works, such as the improvement of harbors, the establishment of water works, and the perfecting of the railway, telegraph, telephone, and other means of transportation and communication.

WHAT ARE THE NATIONAL RESOURCES OF
JAPAN?

Where do we find the wherewithal to meet all these obligations? The wealth of Japan is estimated at about ten billion dollars, while a few years ago the annual income of our people was given at about one billion dollars. That is not much. What little we have, however, we are developing fast. Here is an incident in point:

In 1895 we went to war with China. Our government wanted money; and wanted it badly. It let our people know about its needs in terms of war loans. To the first call the people answered by putting up \$25,000,000. The government wanted more, and on the second call it succeeded in getting from the people \$15,000,000; in all, \$40,000,000. The people gave this amount very willingly. That fact was plain on the very face of it. It was widely advertised also. The thing that was not so well known, especially outside of the country, however, was that this was all that the people could do at the time,—and a little more. Nine years later came the Russian war. Once more the government talked to the people in the unpleasant language of governmental loans. The people of Japan, however, apparently enjoyed this bitter talk. Indeed, they became enthusiastic about it. Five times the government talked to the people and five times the people replied by giving up altogether \$300,000,000. In addition to this amount we raised about \$600,000,000 from foreign loans. As in the time of the Chinese war, the willingness of the people, their enthusiasm, their appreciation of the honor of the opportunity of emptying their pocketbooks for the state was the same. Ours is the Spartan ideal; no consideration for the individual, everything for the state. What was not exactly the same was that our people had a very much harder time in putting up \$40,000,000 at the time of the Chinese war than in surrendering \$300,000,000 at the time of the Russian war.

In all Japan we have no more than 26,000 square miles to till. But 60 per cent. of our entire population belong to the clan of Abel. Therefore, although as yet our farmers till their pocket-handkerchief farms in as primi-

tive a fashion as in the Adamic age, agriculture is by far the greatest industry of our country.

We think that we have some mines. But nothing shows our insularity in so brutal and pointed a manner as our mining industry. Still the total mineral output of the Empire of Japan in 1907 amounted to \$54,750,000.

After farming both dales and hillsides until they could find nothing more left but volcanic rocks, our ancestors took to the sea. Fishery, indeed, has from ancient times given satisfaction to more hungry mouths of the empire than any other source, save agriculture. The total marine products (both raw and manufactured) in 1906 were worth \$48,967,593. Unlike agriculture, the pleasant job of farming the seas has no cramping limitations. From the days before history was born our pirate forefathers were permitted to roam at their sweet will over the South Pacific, the Yellow and Japan seas, and over what to-day are known as the Russian waters. In more recent times we have come to an agreement with both our Korean and Russian friends, and our fishermen are now permitted to carry on their business in the waters belonging to them both. Fishermen are now using more than 2000 fishing boats in Korean waters and their annual catch is valued at over a million and a half dollars. In Russian waters the value of the catch of the Japanese fishermen in 1907 was valued at three million and a quarter dollars.

We have some foreign trade also, although not worth while boasting of. In order to find any figure approaching ours, the student will have to go down the list of the great powers until he reaches the Argentine Republic, and even Argentina exported \$80,420,000 more than we did in 1906, while in 1907 our entire export to all the countries amounted only to \$216,206,436.

As for our manufacturing industry, on December 31, 1906, there were in the Empire of Japan 10,361 factories of different types, employing 612,177 workingmen and women. Such are the principal sources of our revenues,—slender as the rills of our native hills.

A TAXATION SYSTEM, HEARTLESS, BUT IMPERATIVE.

With such burdens and standing where we do, it is small wonder that the taxation system of our country is a wonder work. The government must look to taxation for the major portion of its revenue: it is through

taxation that it must find the wherewithal to pay its bills. The land tax stands at the head of the list. Before the war with Russia our land was taxed at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of its assessed value. When war came the rate was raised from 3 per cent. to as high as 17.5 per cent., according to the class of land. From this source, in the fiscal year 1908-9, the government received \$42,859,229. Next comes the tax on liquor. The rate on this ranges from \$5 per koku (about 40 gallons) on beer to a stronger liquor containing not more than 45 per cent. of alcohol upon which \$17.50 per 40 gallons is levied. From this source, in the same fiscal year, the government received \$35,904,842. Next on the list is the income tax. This is divided into three classes.

The first is the incomes of juridical persons.* In estimating the income of this class the balance brought over from the preceding year, the amounts set aside for insurance and liabilities are deducted from the net profits. Before the war this class paid $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., but after the war the government put on an extraordinary special tax which made them pay in addition to the ordinary tax an amount equal to 80 per cent. to 400 per cent. of the ordinary rate, $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The second class of income tax was put on public loan bonds and the debentures of different kinds of companies. This class now pays 2 per cent., as before the war. The third class takes in all the different incomes not included in the above two. The tax on this class is graded from incomes of 300 yen per annum to not less than 100,000 yen. The lowest amount (300 per annum) formerly paid before the war was 1 per cent. and the highest (not less than 100,000 yen) $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. But since the war the lowest income pays 10 per cent. instead of 1 per cent., and the highest pays 20.35 per cent. In other words, a man who is receiving 300 yen a year used to pay 3 yen, while to-day he pays 30 yen; and the man who gets 100,000 yen pays to-day 20,350 yen a year. From the graded income tax the army and navy officers while engaged in war are exempt, as are also allowances to widows and orphans and pensions, school expenses, incomes of men who do not engage in business for profit, incomes of men engaged in business in foreign countries, etc. In 1908-9 the income tax collected amounted to \$18,785,757. Following this comes the consumption tax on textiles which amounted to nearly

* Assumed by the law to exist for the purposes of taxation.

\$10,000,000, and sugar excise over \$8,000,000. In the same financial year the government received from public undertakings and state properties \$72,140,612. In 1907 the United States lost on her postal service \$8,587,361. But our government did not lose, it could not afford to lose, and from the postal and telegraph service in the fiscal year 1908-9 we made \$19,272,799.

CUSTOMS DUTIES AS A SOURCE OF REVENUE.

In the financial year ending March 31, 1909, the revenue of our government from customs duties was estimated at \$20,715,460.

The tariff question is burning the American to-day with a fever heat. Of course, the story of the customs tariff in Japan may be a mere nursery tale by comparison. And yet, in our country no one influence has put so abiding and deep an impression on its industrial and financial life as this same question of tariff. The tariff in Japan is young. It was born in 1859, when we concluded most of the commercial treaties with the rest of the world. Tariff at that time was regulated entirely by treaties. The life of the first tariff was brief. It was revised in 1866, and as revised remained in force until 1899.

Under this tariff practically all export and import duties could not be raised above 5 per cent. ad valorem. The repeal of this unjust tariff was one of the great incentives to our statesmen. The state needed the revenue, however, and for thirty-three long years the revenue from the customs duties never exceeded, in any one year, \$3,140,000. That was about 4.12 per cent. of the total value of the imported dutiable goods.

Our present tariff was one of the choicest legacies of the Chinese war,—most certainly of infinitely greater profit than the cession of Formosa. Since 1899 we have been permitted to put 5 per cent. to 10 per cent. ad valorem duties on raw materials, drugs, machinery, rolling stock, vessels, etc., and 10 per cent. to 20 per cent. ad valorem duties on half-manufactured articles, such as glass, paper, yarns, metal manufactures, etc., and 35 per cent. to 40 per cent. ad valorem duty on liquor and tobacco and 20 per cent. to 40 per cent. on articles of luxury such as jewelry. After the Russian war the government revised the tariff, putting on a special surtax on a number of goods, and the revised tariff came into effect on October, 1906.

The state in this manner has received about \$22,000,000 per annum, which amounts to about 15.5 per cent. of the value of the

dutiable goods. With all that we are as yet far from enjoying tariff autonomy. The present treaties with the powers will expire by limitation on August 3, 1911. In a recent speech, Mr. Ishii, the Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, declared that our government is already doing a great many things. It is working hard to look into the varied needs of our own country as well as the wishes of our foreign friends, and very likely the notice will be issued in August of next year to these foreign friends, telling them that the present customs tariff of our country will expire at the date mentioned. One thing is certain: Our revised tariff will not be lower than the present one. Why? Once more the same refrain; the government needs money.

STATE MONOPOLIES AND WHAT THEY YIELD.

Our country, moreover, goes into business itself to make money. The state has three monopolies, tobacco, salt, and camphor. The total revenue from these monopolies in the financial year 1908-9 was estimated at \$25,286,000, which was about 8 per cent. of the total revenue of state for that year.

In 1898 the government inaugurated the leaf tobacco monopoly, which brought in an annual revenue of about seven and a half million yen. When the Russian war came and the government wanted to get more money it turned the leaf tobacco monopoly into the manufactured tobacco monopoly. The government lets private individuals cultivate the tobacco, but it does not permit them to manufacture, itself buying the leaf tobacco from individuals at a fair price. The government does not allow any importation of leaf or manufactured tobacco from abroad. It sells the products of its own factories through licensed agents at a fixed price, receiving from this source a revenue of about sixteen million dollars per annum. There are unkind customers of our government-made tobacco,—especially the American tourists,—who go home freighted with black reports of our tobacco monopoly. Our government,—singularly enough,—does not report such bad things about its own tobacco. It thinks so well, in fact, of its product that in December, 1907, it raised the price by 30 per cent. The sale of tobacco did not fall as much as even the government itself expected. The outlook of the tobacco market not only at home, but in Korea, Manchuria, and China seems to be exceedingly encouraging. This practical proof of the quality of government tobacco may not be satisfactory to the Amer-

ican tourists, but it seems to be very satisfactory to the Japanese Government.

The mother of our salt monopoly, as of the manufactured tobacco monopoly, was the Russian war. Salt is now manufactured only by persons licensed by the government, which buys the product from them at different prices, according to quality. This is then sold to the public at profit. Unlike the tobacco monopoly, any one can sell salt, but no foreign salt can be imported except by government agents. The government makes a special export price on salt which could be exported by anybody. The annual profit of the salt monopoly is estimated at about six million dollars. There is this difference between the revenue from the salt monopoly and that from tobacco. The revenue from tobacco is expected to increase,—and very rapidly, too,—while the salt monopoly has no such lucrative future.

The third monopoly of our government, that in camphor, was effective in Formosa alone at first. The home market for camphor is limited. It looks to the foreign markets for the consumption of the major portion of its product. Down to December, 1907, a foreign firm handled the government camphor, but since then the government has turned the business over to a Japanese firm.

GOVERNMENT RAILWAYS AT A PROFIT.

Besides the monopolies, one great state undertaking is the railway. In March, 1906, the railway nationalization law, which had passed the Imperial Diet, was proclaimed. At the time there were about thirty private lines in the empire, of which about seventeen were on the trunk line commanding the main channels of traffic of the empire, and the government decided to take over these seventeen private railways. Their combined mileage was 2812, and they had been built at the cost of about \$114,500,000. The government is to buy these seventeen lines within ten years, from 1906-15. For the purchase of the lines the government is to raise about \$210,500,000 of public loans.

Railway finance was made a special account to which a certain amount is to be turned over from the imperial treasury every year. This separation of the railway account from general finance is convenient. It is so arranged that the profits of the railways could be applied to pay off this debt. A plan for the redemption of railway loans is drawn up by which the entire railway purchase bonds would be redeemed within thirty-two years.

The government has already taken over five private lines. The showing that the railways made under the government administration does not seem to be very bad. Not that there has been an absolute absence of complaint against the national administration; far from it. Still, as a government report invites us to see, the following is a fact: In the year ending with March, 1905, 104,000,000 passengers were carried. In the year ending with March 31, 1907, the number rose to 125,000,000. Freight business also increased. In 1905 it was 19,000,000 tons,—in 1907 it rose to 24,000,000 tons. The net profit from the railways in the budget of 1908-9 was estimated at \$18,527,000. The national railway after it has paid its debt is expected to yield about \$27,500,000 annual net profit to the state.

THE BANKING AND CURRENCY SYSTEM.

In the early years of Meiji,—in November, 1872, to be precise,—the imperial government wished to do two things: to develop trade and to redeem the paper money of the country. It issued, therefore, what is now known as the National Banks Regulations. These were modeled on the National Bank Act of the United States, and marked the beginning of the modern banking system in Japan. In 1880 the government stopped the creation of new national banks and, two years later, it established the one central bank of the country, the Nippon Ginko (Bank of Japan). This is a joint stock company with the fully paid-up capital of 30,000,000 yen (\$15,000,000). In 1883 the government took away the privilege of issuing notes from the then existing national banks, and gave it exclusively to the Bank of Japan. When the charters given to several national banks had expired, they continued to do business simply as private banks. In this manner, by February, 1899, all the national banks of the Empire had completely disappeared.

In 1907 we had 2236 banks in Japan with a total capitalization of 579,638,220 yen, and which showed the balance in deposits of 1,830,693,270 yen. Their earnings in 1906 amounted to 208,445,599 yen and paid dividends at the rate of 9.6 per cent.

Our present currency system is based on the coinage law of 1897 which established the gold standard in Japan. The standard gold coins are five, ten, and twenty yen pieces, and the subsidiary silver coins are issued in ten, twenty, and fifty yen pieces. Our standard gold coin is 90 per cent. pure

gold and 10 per cent. copper. The twenty-yen gold piece weighs 16.6 grams. With the adoption of the gold standard, all the bank notes became convertible into gold. The Bank of Japan is permitted to issue bank notes against gold and silver coins and bullion, also on government bonds, treasury bills, and on other bonds and bills of a reliable nature. The amount of bank notes, however, is limited to 120,000,000 yen. Under special circumstances, the central bank is permitted to exceed this amount by special permission of the Minister of Finance. But such additional amount is taxed at the rate of not less than 5 per cent. per annum. The bank notes in our country are issued in 1, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, and 200 yen denominations.

THE OUTLOOK FOR JAPANESE FINANCE.

We have seen our country struggling under a pretty heavy load of debt. It should not be forgotten, however, that \$162,816,483 of our national debt has been invested in productive industries and in the exploitation of Korean, Manchurian, and Formosan resources.

Within ten or twenty years the golden seeds which our government has sown in Korean and Manchurian fields will bring forth golden harvest,—some ten, some twenty, and some an hundred fold. Already there is a story abroad throughout the land of a Korean investment which is returning 35 per cent. profit. Indeed, this is one of the stock retorts of our government to its critics. Would not the "hoggish" policy of the Japanese Government of absorbing all the profitable enterprises,—railway, tobacco, etc.,—stunt the individual initiative of the people in industry and trade? Certainly. But now the government must have the money. It has taxed the people and can tax them no farther. There is no other way but to take these profitable undertakings and make money for itself. But within ten or twenty years it will receive its treasure ships home from varied enterprises. Then, back to the people, it will hand all the profitable undertakings.

The Katsura Cabinet has formulated a financial policy. As long as it carries out the scheme,—provided, always, that nothing extraordinary happens,—we shall be completely out of debt within thirty years at the most; perhaps within a much shorter time. The beauty of the scheme of the Katsura Cabinet, moreover, is that it refuses to bank on the dream of a future increase of the revenue of state. Although the cabinet refuses to count

upon it, the revenue of the state has been increasing every year. It has been increasing at no modest rate, either. Ten years ago our revenue was a little over \$127,000,000; in 1905 it was \$164,000,000; in 1908 it rose to about \$318,000,000.

Moreover, after all is said and done, we are to-day facing the daybreak on the greatest market in the world,—the Asian continental market. We are nearest to the Chinese market. It would be very strange, indeed, if we should fail to share in the profits from the trade of awakening China.

THE GREATEST ASSET OF JAPAN.

But the basic answer to the question, "How does Japan manage to pay her bills?" can hardly be found in the statistical table of her financial annual. The greatest asset of our empire is sentimental. That our Western friends may see this fact clearly, permit me to put it in the following manner: Let the Government of the United States go to Mr. Smith, in Chicago, and Mr. Brown, in Wall Street, and say to them, "You are receiving \$100,000 a year income, and we want you to give to the support of the government in one form or another \$30,000 a year of your income." Let the German Government or the British go to their people and say the same thing. What would happen? A first-class revolution on the spot.

The people of Japan are performing the financial miracle of giving up about 30 per cent. of their net income every day, without saying a word about it. In other words, the greatest asset of the Japanese Empire of to-day is the patriotism of her people. Within twenty-five years, perhaps, at the rate of conquest Western commercialism and the doctrine of individual rights are making among our people, we shall be as civilized as any other so-called Christian nation. As yet, however, the state to the imagination of the people of Japan is greater than all the gods. The glorification of the state is the Mecca of all our dreams. We take very seriously all matters connected with the state; so seriously, indeed, that we have no sense of humor about them. That is the reason why we caricature all of our eight million gods in the pleasantest of moods in the world, but would not for a moment permit any one to caricature His Majesty the Emperor. This also is the reason why we have no graft in our government finance. And that saves a lot of money for our country.

THE ANTARCTIC CONTINENT.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

IT is seventeen years since the crusade began in England and Germany for the renewal of Antarctic exploration. At that time we knew little of the vast expanse of land or sea ice south of the Antarctic Circle. Bits of land had been discovered chiefly near the Antarctic Circle, 1000 to 1500 miles or more south of New Zealand, Australia, and the Indian Ocean and 600 to 700 miles south of South America. South Victoria Land was known to be a large land mass, but most of the other discoveries were merely short stretches of snow-covered coasts, and no one knew whether they were fragments of the northern edge of a continent or only the shores of islands. At any rate, here was the largest unknown region in the world. It surrounded the South Pole, its diameter was about 4000 miles, its area was at least twice as great as that of Europe, and a number of eminent men of science believed that one of the continents was hidden here.

Their faith in a vast extent of unknown land was based chiefly upon the fact that the sediments collected by the *Challenger* expedition, and the rock specimens dredged from the sea floor of Antarctic waters by later parties, gave strong evidence that the land from which they were derived was continental. These sediments and rocks were such as come from large land masses and not the material ejected from volcanoes that have built up many hundreds of oceanic islands.

Here was the greatest of fields for pioneer research and several European nations caught the enthusiasm that inspired the British and German propagandists of the revival of Antarctic discovery. Eight expeditions, Belgian, English, Scotch, German, Swedish, and French, have ably occupied the field and have brought home a large amount of scientific information. Six of them, two English expeditions led, respectively, by Scott and Shackleton, the Scotch under Bruce's command, the Germans under Drygalski, the Swedes under Dr. Otto Nordenskiöld, and the French under Dr. Charcot, have discovered new land, and two of these parties, those of Scott and Shackleton, have pushed their discoveries of ice-capped plateaus and lofty mountains very far to the south; and one of the smallest of

all these expeditions has practically proven the existence of the Antarctic continent.

The sledge party of Ernest H. Shackleton, on January 9, this year, reached 88° 23' S. Lat., 162° E. Long. The four men at the sledge rope were then 111 statute miles from the South Pole. They were 421 miles nearer to the Pole than the highest latitude previously reached in the Antarctic. They were ninety-two miles nearer the South Pole than Peary's closest approach to the North Pole. This latest news from the polar regions marks one of the most brilliant achievements ever recorded in the ice zones. Curiously enough, the leader who has been almost within sight of the South Pole seemed, six years ago, to be one of the most unfortunate of Antarctic travelers. He was attacked by scurvy, when with Scott on his poleward dash, and it was with the greatest difficulty that his comrades brought the helpless invalid back to the ship *Discovery*. But this year Shackleton has stood on a lofty plateau and looked southward to a lower plain, almost, if not quite, to the southern apex of the earth's axis.

The Southern summer is now ending and, if all goes well with Dr. Charcot, the only explorer now in the South Polar area, he will start next fall to follow the long coasts of West Antarctica, south of South America, farther toward the Pole. We may briefly summarize the main results of research since the great revival of Antarctic enterprise in 1901.

A large extent of new land has been discovered all around the South Pole. Norden-skiöld, in 1902, made a sledge journey of 400 miles along the eastern side of West Antarctica, where the bold King Oscar Mountains rise high above the shore line. On the west side of the same long, narrow stretch of mountainous land, Dr. Charcot surveyed new coast lands in 1903. It is thought that this land, which is the nearest approach of Antarctic soil to the northern continents, may be a great peninsula jutting northward from the frozen, continental mass. "Why not?" was the query of Charcot's mind when he again steamed south for the same field of labor; and the name of his new, staunch ship, the *Pourquoi pas?* echoes the query.



THE ANTARCTIC CONTINENT AND WHAT WE KNOW OF IT.

Almost straight across the polar area from West Antarctica, Drygalski discovered, in 1902, south of the Indian Ocean, the ice-clad Kaiser Wilhelm II. Land in the same region where Lieutenant Wilkes, of our navy, found the long stretch of shores, some seventy years ago, that bear the name of Wilkes Land. In 1904, Bruce, of the Scottish expedition, discovered Coats Land far south of the Atlantic, whose coast he was able to follow for seventy-five miles. This coast is believed to represent another segment of the continent of Ant-

arctica. Scott discovered, in 1902, King Edward VII. Land, which is joined by the Great Ice Barrier of Ross to South Victoria Land; and in the same year he traced the coast of South Victoria Land toward the Pole for 380 miles, and at his farthest point he saw the mountains still stretching southward to the eighty-third parallel; and within the past few months Shackleton has sledged hundreds of miles over the land ice, south of Scott's farthest.

Every polar authority believes that some

or all of these new found lands are a part of the Antarctic Continent. The deduction of Drygalski (and no more thoroughly scientific expedition than his ever entered polar ice) was that, at Kaiser Wilhelm II. Land, they were on the edge of the South Polar continent. From his balloon he could see nothing but endless land ice. "The winds from the inland ice, by their Föhn* properties pointed at a far-reaching, uniformly ice-capped hinterland. These easterly Föhn-like gales, by their frequency and uniformity, reveal the immensity and homogeneous nature of these Antarctic lands." It is interesting to read, with this, the deduction which Scott drew from the Föhn winds. He wrote that their frequency from the south indicated a high land toward the Pole, doubtless of great extent. Sure enough, Shackleton has discovered this high land and traveled over it, at altitudes of from 8,000 to 10,000 feet, to a point no more miles from the Pole than the little city of Yonkers is from Philadelphia.

These recent explorers have proven that, in Jurassic, Cretaceous, and Tertiary times, this most southern land, as has long been suspected, had a temperate or even a warmer climate. This is shown by their collections of fossils, both animal and vegetable. The paleontological evidence also points to the conclusion that there was once a land connection between Antarctica and more northern lands, at least with South America. The approximate location of the south magnetic Pole has been fixed by a sledge expedition to the area which it occupies. There is no department of physical and geographical science that has not been enriched by these expeditions. It is worth noting that Arctic exploration has never yielded such an output of large volumes as those still coming from the press which present the purely scientific results of the recent researches in the Antarctic. This may seem anomalous, but it is a fact that no series of Arctic explorations has ever been organized under scientific standards so uniformly high as those of the recent exploratory enterprises in the Antarctic. This is merely the result of the new era of the more exact study of terrestrial phenomena.

The Antarctic expeditions have also contributed something to the methods and appliances of polar research. We shall not

know till next year whether Charcot is finding much utility in the specially built automobiles that he had tested among Alpine snows, to the wonderment of the mountain peasantry. But Shackleton found his machine very useful in placing some supply stations along his sledge route to the south. The automobile seems to have been employed only on the wide expanse of the comparatively level glacier ice whose northern edge is the Great Ice Barrier. He was also fairly well satisfied with the result of substituting ponies for dogs in sledge hauling. They were in the harness for a long distance to the south and, as their draught powers weakened, he killed the animals and cached their flesh for food on the return journey, a most important expedient, for he and his comrades needed the food on their way back to winter camp.

The cabled narrative of Shackleton's remarkable sledge trip to the neighborhood of the Pole is lacking in some important details. We do not yet know, for example, where he left the southern limit of the glacial ice, afloat or grounded, and made the rest of his southern march over the continent itself. This is a very interesting point, and it is to be hoped that he was able to determine it. Scott's travels on this ice led to the conclusion that it is an enormous expanse of the land ice that is constantly being pushed off the land and extends over the comparatively shallow waters of the sea for several hundred miles to the north. Shackleton's route appears to have been, on the whole, about south of his winter camp on Erebus Island. Some distance to the south of the eighty-third parallel he certainly reached the land ice cap, for his further journey was on a plateau of great altitude, with mountain ranges trending south and southwest; but at his turning point he saw no mountains, and the country stretched away, at a far lower level, to the Pole.

We have reason to believe that no land will be found in the neighborhood of the North Pole, while Shackleton's discoveries lead to the conclusion that the South Pole is in the midst of the Antarctic continent. As in many arctic experiences, it has not been given to the costliest enterprises in the South Polar regions to achieve, in a popular sense, the largest result of all. The continent is there, and the proof that the Shackleton expedition brings of this fact will probably whet the desire to continue these expeditions till Antarctica is revealed in all its confines and conformation.

* Föhn winds are masses of air descending from high to lower levels and warmed by compression as they fall. The Chinook winds of western Canada are Föhn winds. They are observed in Greenland, the Swiss and Austrian Alps, and elsewhere.

THE PAN-AMERICAN SCIENTIFIC CONGRESS.

BY L. S. ROWE.

(Chairman of the Delegation from the United States.)

ON the twenty-fifth of December last there assembled in the Chilean capital one of the most remarkable gatherings of modern times. The Pan-American Scientific Congress, held in Santiago, Chile, from December 25, 1908, to January 5, 1909, was a highly important event for both American continents. It was in a sense a great "experience meeting" at which scientists from every section of the two continents met together for the purpose of comparing the results of their investigations and exchanging views as to the best solution of the political, social, educational, and engineering problems peculiar to North and South America.

The keynote of all the sessions was the emphasis laid on these distinctively American problems. This plan served a larger purpose in impressing upon the delegates, and through them upon the government and people of their respective countries, the essential and fundamental community of interest arising out of the similarity of problems confronting the countries of America. The organizers of the Congress, as well as the delegates, were fully conscious of the fact that American and European scientific methods must necessarily be the same, but that owing to the geographical position, the physical peculiarities, and the conditions of settlement of the western hemisphere, there exists a series of problems distinctively American.

It is manifestly impossible to touch upon the numerous questions discussed in the nine sections into which the Congress was divided. The delegation from the United States* was

* The delegates of the United States to the Pan-American Scientific Congress were: Prof. L. S. Rowe, chairman, University of Pennsylvania; Prof. Thomas Barbour, Harvard University; Prof. Hiram Bingham, Yale University; Prof. Webster E. Browning, Princeton University; Prof. Archibald C. Coolidge, Harvard University; Prof. H. D. Curtis, Cornell University; Col. William C. Gorgas, Isthmian Canal Commission; Prof. Christopher W. Hall, University of Minnesota; Prof. Adolph Hempel, University of Illinois; Mr. W. H. Holmes, Bureau of Ethnology, Smithsonian Institution; Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin, University of Chicago; Prof. Albert A. Michelson, University of Chicago; Prof. Bernard Moses, University of California; Prof. Paul S. Reinsch, University of Wisconsin; Prof. W. F. Rice, Northwestern University; Mr. George M. Rommel, Bureau of Animal Industry, Department of Agriculture; Prof. William R. Shepherd, Columbia University; Prof. William B. Smith, Tulane University; Prof. Jay Backus Woodworth, Harvard University.

fortunate in securing the co-operation of distinguished members of a number of national associations, such as the American Society of Civil Engineers, the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, and the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, who contributed papers which attracted much attention and aroused great interest.

SOME OF THE SUBJECTS CONSIDERED.

Selecting a few of the many questions discussed will serve to illustrate how carefully the plan of the Executive Committee to concentrate attention on problems of special interest to this hemisphere was carried out.

In the Social Science, Educational, and Agricultural Sections (three of the nine into which the Congress was divided) the main subjects discussed were: (1) International Law; (2) Financial and Monetary Problems; (3) Educational Problems; (4) Economic, Social, and Political Problems; and (5) Improvement of Agricultural Methods.

The formulation of the distinctively American problems in international law, with a view to laying the foundations for a continental agreement on the principles that should govern their solution, was proposed. Such agreement would mean a new factor in the development of international law, and would tend to place international relations on a distinctly higher plane.

All the countries of South America have within recent years been making strenuous efforts to place their monetary systems on a more stable basis. Although these problems present themselves in a different form in each country, the interchange of experience is of the greatest value to all. The situation is particularly acute in Chile, where for some years past the government has made ineffectual efforts to get on a gold basis. The symposium held during the sessions of the financial section of the Congress threw much light on the possible solution of this problem.

Education was one of the most important topics before the Congress. Not only was attendance at this section large, but the character of the papers presented was such that

every delegation must have profited greatly by the wealth of experience submitted. The essential unity of the educational problems confronting the republics of the American continents was deeply impressed upon all.

An important and eminently practical suggestion, which was received with much enthusiasm, was contained in a remarkable paper by the Honorable S. N. D. North, Director of the Census, on the desirability of uniformity of schedules and agreement as to dates at which the census should be taken in the republics of the American continents. As a result of this suggestion a resolution was adopted embodying such recommendations.

A SCIENTIFIC, NOT A DIPLOMATIC, CONGRESS.

It is important to distinguish between the scientific congresses and the Pan-American diplomatic conference which last assembled in Rio Janeiro in 1906, and which will next meet in Buenos Aires in 1910. These scientific congresses possess one advantage over the diplomatic conferences because of the possibility of a full and free interchange of opinion, untrammelled by diplomatic instructions or political considerations. Although the conclusions reached do not take the form of treaties and conventions, they possess the merit of expressing accurately the ripe judgment and the most advanced thought on the important problems confronting the republics of this hemisphere. Viewed in another light, these congresses mark the successive

steps in the formation of a continental public opinion. The united and definitely formulated views of the American republics on questions affecting the welfare of the continents must command universal respect.

The decision to hold the next Congress in Washington in 1912 places a heavy responsibility upon the American scientific world. The Santiago Congress laid the foundations upon which the intellectual unity of the American republics must rest. The selection of Washington as the next meeting place is the expression of the desire of Latin America to cultivate closer intellectual relations with the United States.

The real significance of the Santiago Congress is clearly seen when its deliberations are compared with those of its predecessors. These congresses have hitherto been exclusively Latin-American. The first congress, held in Buenos Aires in 1898, and the succeeding sessions in Montevideo in 1901 and in Rio Janeiro in 1905, while not hostile to the United States, contributed toward developing a feeling of Latin-American solidarity which was certain to become, in time, a serious obstacle to the development of unity of thought on the American hemisphere.

A REAL PAN-AMERICAN SPIRIT.

It is this Pan-American spirit which prevailed at the Santiago Congress, and which distinguishes it from its predecessors. Every student of Latin-American affairs knows that

for many years there has existed throughout the countries of South America an under-current of distrust toward the United States. This distrust was born of the feeling of uncertainty as to the ultimate intentions of the United States with reference to Latin America and rested upon a complete misapprehension of the purposes of the United States and of the thought and feeling of our people. It was kept alive for local political purposes by small groups of local leaders and by newspaper and magazine articles inspired from European sources.

It is a notorious fact that during the Span-



THE UNIVERSITY OF CHILE, AT SANTIAGO.

(Where the sessions of the Pan-American Scientific Congress were held.)



THE DELEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES TO THE PAN-AMERICAN SCIENTIFIC CONGRESS.

(Reading from left to right: Dr. Paul S. Reinsch, Dr. Archibald C. Coolidge, Dr. Hiram Bingham, Prof. William R. Shepherd, Dr. L. S. Rowe (chairman), Hon. Elihu Root, Mr. W. H. Holmes, Col. William C. Gorgas, and Mr. George M. Rommel.)

ish-American war the sympathies of practically all the South American countries were with Spain. The United States was regarded as the aggressor, bent upon extension of dominion, and thus constituting a real menace to the countries of Latin America. The feeling that prevailed is strikingly illustrated in the series of public meetings that were held in the South American capitals, notably in Buenos Aires. One of the leading public men of the Argentine, now being seriously considered as a candidate for the presidency, referred in no uncertain terms to the United States as a constant menace to all the Latin-American countries.

During the ten years that have elapsed this attitude has undergone considerable modification, but there still exists a feeling of uncertainty directly traceable to a failure to grasp the real spirit of our foreign policy. This ignorance is due to the lack of intellectual contact with the United States, which makes it possible to impress the popular mind with sensational accounts of the grasping policy of the United States and of the dangers involved in permitting this power to develop unrestrained.

When the decision was first reached to in-

vite the United States to participate in these congresses, and thus make them Pan-American instead of Latin-American, there was considerable misgiving as to whether this invitation would meet with favor in the United States. There is a feeling widespread throughout South America that the enthusiasm of the government and people of the United States can only be aroused when the material interests of the country are involved. It was felt, therefore, that the plan for a scientific congress would be coldly received, and that the countries of Latin America were laying themselves open to a rebuff in extending this invitation. That the invitation was not only cordially received by the Government of the United States, but also met with a hearty response from the universities of the country, created much surprise and was a source of universal satisfaction.

MAKE-UP OF THE GATHERING.

When the Congress assembled in Santiago on the twenty-fifth of December, twelve American universities and three national scientific associations were represented, in addition to the official delegation sent by the Government of the United States. The uni-

versity representation would have been considerably increased if the time fixed for the meeting of the Congress had been more favorable. December, January, and February are the university vacation months in all the countries south of the equator. University representation from the United States meant, therefore, the sacrifice of at least half the academic year in order to reach Santiago for a December meeting. Had it not been for this fact, had it been possible to utilize the months of June, July, August, and September for this purpose, it is safe to say that the representation from the United States would have been increased fourfold. The presence of a large group of American scientists, representing every field of research, was interpreted throughout Latin America as an indication that the people of the United States were beginning to apply a new standard in the estimate of their sister republics.

It was the good fortune of many of the delegates from the United States to visit Uruguay and the Argentine Republic on their way to or from Santiago. Not only was the traditional Latin-American hospitality shown them, but they were received with an enthusiasm so real and spontaneous as to leave a lasting impression on every member of the delegation. Far more important and significant than the cordiality of this reception was the universal desire to be brought into touch with scientific and educational activities in the United States. All the countries of Latin America have received, and still receive, their intellectual stimulus and educational inspiration either from France or Germany. There is a growing feeling, however, that the lessons of educational experience in the United States contain much of value and profit for the people of Latin America. While in Uruguay, the Argentine, and Chile, the delegates from the United States were constantly questioned with reference to our educational organization, and advice and suggestion requested as to the plan best adapted to introduce American methods into their systems.

The personal ties formed between scientists from the United States and their fellow investigators in Latin America constitute another indirect result of the Congress, the value of which it is difficult fully to appreciate at the present time, but which will be-

come more apparent as the years roll by. Although the Congress devoted itself primarily to problems of special interest to the people of this hemisphere, it is clear that in many cases it was not possible to do more than formulate these problems. The mere fact, however, of such definite formulation and of the general agreement that the concerted action of the Republics of America is necessary in order to secure their solution, marks an important step forward in the development of the spirit of continental solidarity. This new spirit of international co-operation was particularly marked in the discussion of sanitary, social, and legal problems.*

The Santiago Congress also served to demonstrate that in all the countries of Latin America careful scientific research is being conducted in all the higher institutions of learning, and that this research is being directed primarily to the solution of the distinctively national problems. Probably the most vivid impression carried away by the delegates from the United States was the fact that in every Latin-American country there is a group of serious students willing and even anxious to co-operate with their colleagues in the United States in the investigation of problems affecting the welfare of the people of this hemisphere. Every delegate from the United States returned with a better appreciation of the significance of the Latin-American civilization, and of the mutual services which the culture of the North and South may render each other.

* Among the interesting and significant papers presented to the Congress were: Two on international law, by Dr. Alexander Alvarez, Solicitor of the Chilean State Department, and Prof. Paul S. Reinsch, of the University of Wisconsin; one on "Gold and Prices," by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin, of the University of Chicago; one on "The Adaptation of Teaching to the American Social Medium," by Dr. William R. Shepherd, of Columbia University; one on "America in the Pacific," by Prof. Archibald Cary Coolidge, of Harvard University; one on "The Bases of Spanish and English Colonial Civilization in America," by Prof. Bernard Moses, of the University of California; one on "The Reasons Why the English Colonists, on Achieving Their Independence, Became a Single Nation, While the Latin-American Colonies Did Not Form a Federation, or Even a Confederation," by Prof. Hiram Bingham, of Yale University; one on "Sanitation in the Tropics, with Special Reference to Malaria and Yellow Fever," by Col. William C. Gorgas, of the Isthmian Canal Commission; two by Dr. W. H. Holmes, Chief of the Bureau of Ethnology, Smithsonian Institution, on "The Origin of the People of America" and "The Antiquity of Man in America"; one on "Race Decay," by Prof. W. B. Smith, of Tulane University; and two by Mr. George M. Rommel, Animal Husbandman of the Department of Agriculture, on "Methods of Instruction in Animal Husbandry in the Agricultural Colleges of the United States" and "Sanitary Animal Police in the United States."

ANOTHER YEAR OF DEFEAT FOR THE AMERICAN SALOON.*

BY FERDINAND COWLE IGLEHART.

THE revolt against the liquor traffic seems to be world-wide. The fight against it in Europe is nearly as fierce as it is in this country. Finland abolished intoxicants by a vote of its Parliament. Iceland adopted national prohibition in September, last. The Duma of Russia ordered the removal of the royal eagle from the vodka bottles, and the substitution of the skull and cross bones, the symbols of death, and the word poison written in large letters beneath them as a warning to the people. In Paris there are placards placed on the bulletin boards saying that "whoever puts alcohol in his mouth takes out his brains, his money, his health, his happiness." Government statistics in England show a decrease of thirty million dollars' worth of intoxicants in the consumption during the year 1908.

THE SOUTH SWEEP BY A "PROHIBITION"
WAVE.

The temperance revolution in this country continues with unabated energy. Eleven thousand saloons were put out of business during the year 1908. As many more in 1907, and at that rate of decrease it would require but twenty years to abolish all the saloons of the country.

About eighteen of the twenty millions of the people of the Southern States have already outlawed the saloon. In New York City alone there are one thousand more saloons than in all the fourteen Southern States, and it looks as though within the coming five years every State in that section would vote the saloon out of existence.

On May 6, 1908, North Carolina followed her sister States of Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, in the adoption of State prohibition, by a popular vote.

The campaign was a notable one, participated in by Governor Glenn, the two United States Senators, every member of Congress, all of whom stood against the saloon, securing a majority of 42,000 votes.

The fight for prohibition in 1909 was begun by Tennessee, following the example of her old mother State, North Carolina, passing a bill prohibiting the sale of intoxicants by a vote of 24 to 13 in the Senate, and 62 to 36 in the House. It was vetoed by the Governor, and passed over his objection by the same vote in the Senate, and by the loss of but one vote in the House. This bill will go into effect the first day of next July, at which time every saloon in the State will close its doors. A more drastic bill to prohibit the manufacture of intoxicants in the State, which is to take effect on January 1, 1910, was carried in both branches of the Legislature, and was passed again over the Governor's veto, and is now a law.

In South Carolina each county having a dispensary will vote on the question of option between the county dispensary and prohibition in August of this year.

Thirty-six of the forty-six counties of Florida, including 525,000 of the 650,000 of population, have abolished the saloon. There are only 330 saloons in the entire State, and from the organization of the present Legislature it seems probable that State-wide prohibition will be adopted at once.

Louisiana has more than 32,000 square miles of "dry" territory, and six entire parishes were placed in the anti-saloon license column during the past year.

Fifty-nine out of the seventy-nine counties of Arkansas are dry, and 1,612,000 of the 1,750,700 of the people in the State are living in territory where the drink traffic is forbidden. There are only 317 saloons in the whole State left, which must give way to the inevitable public verdict against the business.

During the past year 800 saloons were driven out of Texas, and fifteen new counties voted no-license. Of the 243 counties 150 are "dry," sixty-six part "wet," and twenty-five license the saloon. Two hundred thousand of the 267,000 square miles of the State is "dry" territory, containing a population of 3,000,000 people. State-wide prohibition will be a certainty in the near future.

* See "The Nation's Anti-Drink Crusade," by Dr. Iglehart, in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, April, 1908, page 468.

In Virginia during the past year 400 liquor places were put out of business. Seventy-one of the 100 counties in the State have not a licensed saloon.

The temperance people of West Virginia lost in their battle before the Senate, which recently adjourned, losing two propositions; first, the amendment to the constitution, forbidding the manufacture and sale of intoxicating drinks, and also one for county local option. There are 700,000 of the 1,200,000 people of this State who live in territory where the saloon is forbidden. Thirty-three counties out of the fifty-five in the State are entirely "dry."

In Kentucky one more county has been added to the "dry" column, making ninety-six out of the 119 counties in the State.

Missouri has made decided progress during the past year. There are now fifty "dry" counties in the State, including their municipalities, while twenty-seven other counties have abolished the saloon under the county-option law, which exempts cities of 2500 population and more from its operation.

AGGRESSIVE CAMPAIGNING IN THE MIDDLE WEST.

The fires of prohibition that have been burning in the cotton-fields of the South have crossed Mason's and Dixon's Line and caught in the meadows, the corn-fields, and wheat-fields of Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio, and other Northern States, and are burning as fiercely as they have been in the South.

Illinois, the third State in the Union in wealth, population, and importance, never gave its people the benefit of a local-option law until last year, when the people voted in 1300 towns, 1000 of which went "dry."

The temperance movement in Indiana is about as vigorous as in any of the Southern States. The Remonstrance law had cleared the saloon from two-thirds of the geographical area of the State. Of the 36,300 square miles of territory, 26,170 had been made "dry," and about 1,600,000 of the population out of the 2,600,000 were living in "dry" territory. Governor Hanley called a special session of the Legislature in September last, which passed a local-option law with the county as the unit, under which the people are making Indiana a prohibitory State as rapidly as they can get to the polls. Under the old law twenty entire counties had gone "dry." Since last autumn forty-three more had joined their company, making sixty-three of the ninety-two counties in the

State which are entirely "dry," and it is understood that but one county of all the forty-four recently voting has gone "wet."

It is said that the local-option question got mixed up pretty badly in Hoosier politics; some of the leaders claiming that Watson and the Republican State ticket were beaten on that account. It is likely that the Republican party would have been beaten very much worse if it had undertaken to dodge the issue, which was inevitable. It is charged that the liquor people beat Kearns for the Senatorship, and that he, in revenge, prevented the repeal of the local-option bill. But whatever hand the temperance question played in the politics of the State, the people, Democrats and Republicans, went on steadily voting the saloon out of business in the State, and it now seems likely that Indiana may be the next State of the North to adopt State prohibition.

The revolution in Ohio is just as marked as in Indiana, and just as enthusiastic as in any of the Southern States. The Anti-Saloon League, which was born in that State, removed the saloon from large districts in the State by one form of local option or another, but a local-option bill for the county as the unit was passed by the Legislature, under whose provisions voting has been going on since last autumn, with results that have startled the nation. The saloon had been removed from five entire counties under the previous laws, but since last September sixty-three counties have voted on the subject, fifty-eight of which have abolished the saloon, and only nine counties have licensed it, so that, of the eighty-eight entire counties of the State, sixty-three have gone "dry," and nine have gone "wet." Many of the contests were notable, especially the one in Clark County, which contains Springfield, with a population of 42,000, polling a vote of almost 19,000 votes, which went "dry" by 139 majority. The Legislature this year passed two laws strengthening the local-option law; one preventing agents from soliciting orders for liquor in "dry" territory, the other providing for the appointment of secret-service men in each county in the State to assist the prosecuting attorney in securing evidence of the illegal sale of liquor. These measures were desperately fought by the liquor men, who were finally overcome.

One year ago there was but one county entirely "dry" in the State of Michigan. Early last month, after one of the fiercest fights in the history of the State, local-option

elections were held in twenty-seven counties, twenty of which went "dry," closing at one stroke 600 saloons and ten breweries.

After a tremendous struggle, the Nebraska Legislature at its last session passed the Daylight Sale bill, permitting the sale of liquor only between the hours of 7 a. m. and 8 p. m.

The Legislature of Iowa on the eve of adjournment passed two bills unfriendly to the liquor interests, one limiting the number of saloons to one to one thousand of the population in cities, the other requiring druggists to file with the auditor of the county signed applications for liquor.

The State of Washington has just passed a county-option law, excluding municipalities of 2,500 or more, which have a separate option of their own.

The Legislature of Idaho has this year passed a very strong local-option law.

Both branches of the Legislature of Utah passed a county-option bill, but just at the last of the session, when too late for a remedy, the Governor vetoed the bill.

Prohibition was the main issue in the municipal elections held in Colorado, outside of Denver, early in April. The Anti-Saloon party generally was successful.

LOCAL OPTION IN NEW YORK AND NEW ENGLAND.

A local-option bill for cities as a whole is pending before the New York State Legislature. The present liquor law of the State permits local option for towns, under which elections have been held this year, resulting in a net increase of thirty "dry" towns. About 330 towns in the State are "dry," about 320 "wet," and the rest are part "wet" and part "dry." The Committee of Fourteen introduced a bill at Albany, providing among other things for the opening of saloons in cities of the first class certain hours on Sunday, which was promptly killed in the Senate Committee. Yates County, by a vote on February 23, carried all the towns in its territory against the saloon, and became the first and only entirely "dry" county in the State.

Recent elections in Connecticut have abolished the liquor traffic from 3000 square miles of territory, closing 300 saloons during the year.

Massachusetts has gained ten municipalities for the "dry" column.

During 1908 429 saloons were driven out of Rhode Island.

IMPORTANT FEDERAL LEGISLATION.

For several years the temperance people have undertaken to secure an amendment to the Interstate Commerce law, forbidding the importation of intoxicating liquors into territory made "dry" by State legislation, and have failed. On February 17 last there was incorporated into the penal code of the United States the Interstate Liquor Shipment bill, introduced by Representatives Humphreys, of Mississippi, and Miller, of Kansas. It is considered by many the most important temperance legislation since the passage of the Wilson law in 1890. This bill does three things: (1) It prohibits C. O. D. shipments. (2) It prohibits delivery to fictitious consignees. (3) It requires that all packages of liquor for interstate shipment shall be plainly marked, designating the contents and consignee. The bill was in grave danger, and would have been killed in the committee had it not been that Speaker Cannon obstinately demanded its passage, and then voted for it upon the floor. This law, while it will not do all that the friends of temperance might desire, will go a long way toward correcting the abuse that the liquor dealers have practiced upon the citizens of the States that have prohibited the drink traffic, and will pave the way for further relief which the people of the States may demand in the future.

THE SALOON "FIGHTING FOR ITS LIFE."

Almost all of the legislatures meeting during the present year have had bills relating in some way to the liquor traffic. Very few of these bills showing any friendliness to the saloon have been allowed to become laws. A recent editorial in *Bonfort's Wine and Spirit Circular*, written by T. M. Gilmore, the president of the National Model License League, expresses the opinion of many liquor dealers upon the present temperance revolution. It says:

The Anti-Saloon League is backed by able men and plenty of money. In the last eighteen months the business we represent has been outlawed in the States of Oklahoma, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, North Carolina, and Tennessee, and it is now facing destruction in West Virginia, Texas, Kentucky, Arkansas, Utah, and Idaho. The saloon is fighting for its life in practically every State in the Union.

The liquor dealers strenuously insist that "prohibition does not prohibit," and their literature, which is scattered broadcast among the church people as well as others, claims

the failure of the prohibitory laws in the States having them. They insist that the more the traffic is prohibited the more liquor is consumed, and that hypocrisy and disrespect for law are fostered, and yet the States that have adopted prohibition seem to be very well pleased with their legislation, and none of them have surrendered to license, and other States in pretty rapid succession are joining their ranks. In Maine, Kansas, and North Dakota at their last election governors were chosen on platforms not only declaring for State-wide prohibition, but for a rigid enforcement of the prohibitory law; while in Georgia, Oklahoma, and Alabama the anti-saloon forces have held their own, preventing legislation which would in any way weaken the State prohibitory laws.

STRENGTH OF THE ECONOMIC ARGUMENT.

No great result can come from a small cause. There are powerful causes that are putting the saloon out of business. More and more the economic argument is influencing voters to abolish the saloon. The man who frequents the saloon is not so strong in body nor intellectually so keen, nor professionally or industrially so efficient as the man who does not. A man who has no scruples on the subject, but has good common sense soon discovers that he is handicapped in the heated competition of life when he becomes a patron of the saloon.

The New York Central, the Lackawanna, the Pennsylvania, the Baltimore and Ohio, the Wabash, the Rock Island, the Great Northern, and other railroad systems have adopted the following rule: "The use of intoxicants by employees, while on duty, is prohibited. Their habitual use, or the frequenting of places where they are sold, is sufficient cause for dismissal." The Michigan State law will not permit a man who is not a total abstainer to have anything to do with the running of trains. The premium on temperance in railroad circles is so great that 25,000 employees of the Northwestern Railroad signed a pledge of total abstinence at one time.

Business houses generally discriminate against the drinker in the employment of men. The United States Commissioner of Labor sent a note of enquiry to 7,000 concerns employing labor; 5363 of them responded that they took the drink question very much into account in hiring men, and that they had to be the more careful in selecting responsible help because the law held them

liable for injuries caused by accident. The young man of ambition and hope who wants to get into a good place and succeed in it knows full well that he must stay away from the saloon. This business argument sends hundreds of thousands of employees into the ranks of those who are fighting the traffic.

The people paid last year a billion dollars for intoxicating drink, \$108,000,000 more than for all the necessaries of life, and it is a protest against this colossal material waste and a desire to divert some of the drink money to better uses that has prompted many to vote no-license in the campaigns. The billion dollars paid over the counter for drink for the year is only about a half of the material damage the traffic causes, requiring institutions to be maintained by the public.

The large amounts of money paid into the treasuries of States and municipalities by the liquor-dealers are no compensation for the material as well as the moral waste in the community, and while there are many friends of law and order who vote for license because they think the saloon ought to be made to pay a part of the price of its public injury, the people are getting to believe more and more each year that the damage of the saloon is too great, and they are unwilling to tolerate it and are voting "no" on the proposition to permit it.

The sentimental and moral argument for the removal of the saloon is more powerful with the average voter in the "wet and dry" campaigns than the economic one, strong as it is.

The liquor men have untold wealth at their disposal, the ablest minds in the nation are employed as their attorneys. They have lobbyists at the sessions of every State Legislature and national Congress, they have politicians of both parties in every State and city who can be relied upon to promote their interests. They have an army of 200,000 saloon keepers, and more than that of loyal patrons, millions of dollars are spent in advertisements and in their literary department each year, and their fight will be desperate and prolonged. But the self-interest and conscience of the nation are against them, and unless there shall be some reformation in the liquor traffic, which seems now impossible, or if there should occur no disagreement or disintegration among the temperance forces now so united, it is likely that within a generation the saloon, as we see it to-day, will have passed away.



HELENA MODJESKA, DRAMATIC ARTIST AND PATRIOT.

It was given to the late Polish-American tragedienne, Mme. Helena Modjeska, who died at her estate in Orange County, Cal., on April 8, to achieve supreme success in one of the most difficult of all arts, the drama, in a foreign country of whose language she was ignorant until her thirtieth year. For more than thirty years thereafter she was an undisputed leader in her art, and the great Bernhardt is reported to have more than once declared that she recognized both Dusa and Modjeska as her equals. Modjeska succeeded because of her tragic power, her purity of aim, the grace and delicacy of her artistic touch, her great capacity for work, and above all her fine, magnetic personality. Her Shakespearean interpretations were (in the words of Mr. Richard Watson Gilder) "worthy of his most exquisite and thrilling imagination." Her first success was in "Adrienne Lecouvreur," but her repertoire was a varied and extensive one. In Shakespeare she was an excellent *Rosalind*; in "Henry VIII," "Lady Macbeth," "Two Gentlemen of Verona," "Measure for Measure," and "Mary Stuart," she was truly great. For biographical details, see this REVIEW for June, 1905.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

AROUND THE WORLD FOR TWO CENTS.

THE two-cent postage rate in the United States and the penny rate in Great Britain have become such matter-of-fact elements in our social and commercial everyday life that it is difficult to imagine a time when they were non-existent. Yet it is but sixty-nine years ago that penny postage was adopted in England. On the first of May, 1840, was issued the first postal envelope,—now dear to the hearts of stamp collectors,—bearing the magic words "Postage one penny." The remarkable thing about this envelope is its allegorical design, drawn by the Royal Academician W. Mulready, representing Britannia sending letters to all parts of the earth, which, viewed in the light of recent postal progress, would seem to indicate that the talented designer was a prophet as well as an artist; for at this present time of writing a letter can be sent for one penny (two cents) from England to New Zealand, to Canada, or to the United States.

There can be but little doubt that within a comparatively short time other countries of the world will adopt this great "postal reform," and that ultimately "Around the world for two cents" will become a *fait accompli*. By common consent the title "Father of Universal Penny Postage" has been conferred on Mr. J. Henniker Heaton, M.P., who has become known in England as the Unofficial Postmaster-General and "the Member for St. Martin's-le-Grand," the headquarters of the British Post Office in London. Under the suggestive title at the head of this article Mr. Ralph D. Blumenfeld, editor of the London *Daily Express*, narrates Mr. Heaton's untiring efforts in furtherance of his scheme of universal penny postage. In the *Outlook* for April he tells how, "single-handed, undaunted," this "simple, unassuming Member of Parliament" has "brought closer together millions upon millions of people by means of cheaper postal rates." Here is the postal reformer's ideal:

Universal penny postage may well be described as a scheme whereby any inhabitant of our planet, white, black, or yellow, may be enabled for the sum of one penny to communicate with any other at the lowest possible rate and

the highest attainable speed,—Englishman with German, Frenchman, Italian, or Russian; European with American; Asiatic with Australian or African,—so that when one soul has something to say to another, neither color, nor religion, nor creed, nor diplomacy, nor national antipathy, nor latitude, nor longitude, nor poverty, nor any other barrier shall stand between them. It is a grand yet simple assertion of the brotherhood of nations; it is a change that threatens no interests and benefits all mankind.

Mr. Heaton's life-work may be said to have grown out of his own experience of the hardships of dear postage. At the age of sixteen he left Rochester in Kent, England, to seek his fortune in Australia.

Here he first came in touch with the hardships imposed by high postage on people who longed for news from dear ones at home, yet were too poor to maintain a regular correspondence; and he became the most inveterate postal reformer that the world has ever known. Prosperity came early. He married the daughter of his proprietor, and in due time returned to England,—and to Parliament. But in returning he had only one object in view, that of relieving the post of its incubus of high postage. . . . Night and day, winter and summer, year in and year out, Heaton has been reforming.

So persistent has he been that Postmaster-General avoid him. His first attack on the British House of Commons was made so long ago as 1886, when he moved that the government open negotiations with other governments with a view to the establishment of a universal penny postage system. The motion was lost,—"defeated by the government, which feared too great a drop in its revenue." He then traveled to every civilized state of the world, carrying his banner of postal reform wherever he went.

In his peregrinations he reached Washington in 1889, when the Hon. John Wanamaker was Postmaster-General in the Harrison administration. He was received with sympathy then, and the next year, 1890, when the Postage Committee of Congress, while expressing favorable views on the subject, reported that they would like to include Germany in the reduction to the two-cent rate, when the time came. But nothing more was done at the time.

In 1891 a rate of twopence halfpenny (5 cents) was inaugurated for letters to all

British colonies. On Christmas Day, 1898, penny postage to Canada was established. In recognition of his services in the cause of cheap postage "the city of London presented Mr. Heaton with its freedom enclosed in a golden casket. The city of Canterbury did likewise." A year later New Zealand adopted universal penny postage.

There was a long fight with officialdom before the British Government could be induced to extend the penny rate to the United States. On the Fourth of July, 1906, at the Hotel Cecil banquet, Ambassador Whitelaw Reid spoke in favor of the change. Shortly after, Mr. Heaton induced a number of rich men to offer to guarantee the government against the loss which it was anticipated would follow the reduction; but the proposal was declined. On July 17, 1907, United States Postmaster-General Meyer wrote a private letter to Mr. Heaton stating that he was "favorably inclined" to a two-cent rate. Mr. Heaton was in Australia when the letter reached him.

The Reformer came back as fast as he could. . . . In May Mr. Whitelaw Reid was waited on by Mr. Heaton and Lord Blyth. . . . A few days later Mr. Buxton, the British Postmaster-General, wrote to the Reformer and asked him to be good enough to be in his place in the House of Commons the next day to listen to some remarks on penny postage. Mr. Heaton went, and heard the announcement that the thing he had been battling for so many years had been arranged between Great Britain and the United States.

Mr. Heaton proposes the formation of a stock company to guarantee the British Government against loss for ten years, but to take the profits for a like period!



HON. JOHN HENNIKER HEATON, M.P.

(The Englishman who has devoted almost a lifetime to the advocacy of cheap postage rates.)

The *Outlook* writer says Mr. Heaton "points with pride to a letter that Sir W. Howard Russell received from a man in Canada." It read:

You know that Henniker Heaton. Tell the blackguard that he is the curse of my life. All my relatives in County Clare,—you know there are a hundred of them,—have written to me, taking advantage of the two-cent post, to ask me for assistance to enable them to come over.

LABOR AND SOCIALISM.

THE veteran professor, Dr. Goldwin Smith (he is now fourscore and six), publishes in the *Canadian Magazine* his views concerning what he describes as "a paroxysm of industrial and social agitation under two phases, more or less blending with each other: that of Socialism and that of Labor." Admitting that he is better acquainted with the history of Labor in England than with its history in Canada, he sets out to show what has been accomplished in the Old Country. He says:

While the great Napoleonic war was going on,

little could be done in the way of social, industrial, or political improvement. But not many years elapsed after the end of the war before peaceful progress resumed its course, especially in the interest of the laboring class. A series of acts for the protection of Labor, such as the Factory Acts and the Mining Acts, was passed. The unions were legalized . . . the Poor Law was amended, sanitary workhouses were erected, and at the same time a great impulse was given to charitable works of all kinds,—hospitals, homes, and places of recreation. A system of public education was introduced, and this, it must be borne in mind, was an act of beneficence on the part of the state. . . . The general reform of the law has enured mainly to the benefit of the poorer class. Much

more, no doubt, remains to be done; but it cannot possibly be said that the conduct of the property-holding and ruling classes in England has been such as to provoke the hatred of them which glows in extreme Socialist manifestoes.

Political power has been extended to the masses by a series of Reform bills, until today there is to be found a Labor man in the



GOLDWIN SMITH, THE VETERAN CANADIAN EDITOR AND ESSAYIST.

British Cabinet. The rate of money wages, and the purchasing power also, have increased; the death-rate has decreased; and old age is to be pensioned.

In the exercise of their political power Professor Smith claims that the masses in England have not always been quite true to their own interest.

They have shouted and voted for war, regarding it apparently as a spree. For opposing war, and war most causeless and iniquitous, John Bright was burned in effigy, and he and Cobden . . . were thrown out of their seats. We are told that numbers are now wandering unfed in the streets of London. Those same streets saw the hideous orgy of the war spirit on the Mafeking night.

Referring to the charges of rapacity frequently brought against capitalist employers, Professor Smith reminds his Labor readers that in any list of capitalists, especially on the American continent,

will be found the names of many who have

risen from the ranks and in whom the appetite for gain and the tendency to grind the laborer are not less marked than in the rest.

In one respect, however, he thinks there may have been a change for the worse:

The social severance of employer from employed has probably increased. Old men may remember the time when the habitations of the two classes were less apart, and there was more intercourse between them. They now live entirely apart; the workingmen in their cottages near the works; the employer in his villa in the outskirts. . . . Employers should do what they can to improve the social relation.

As to the adoption of profit-sharing as a remedy for Labor wars and strikes, the professor cites Mr. Carnegie as declaring it to be practicable; and he believes that if the latter "can bring it about, he will add to his many benefactions the greatest of them all."

With regard to Socialism and its watchwords of Equality and Fraternity, Professor Smith considers that of Fraternity a measure "may be said to be attained in any well-ordered and contented commonwealth," but that Equality "will hardly be attained without a radical change in the providential government of the world." He continues in the following terms, which will be read with interest by Americans:

That all men are created equal the authors of the American Declaration of Independence hold to be a "self-evident truth." With deference to their illustrious authority, it would be difficult to frame a more self-evident fallacy. Men are created and sent into the world with every conceivable variety of endowment, physical, moral, and mental, with infinite variety of circumstances and not less various openings and chances in life. If all could be rolled flat today, to-morrow the differences would reappear. This may offend our sense of equity, but the responsibility must rest on the government of the world. An equal right to justice all men undoubtedly have, but there the natural equality ends.

What is now wanted is the Socialist's plan for the reorganized community. Asks the professor:

How and by whom is it to be governed? Who is to make the laws? Who is to regulate industry? Who is to distribute the parts and determine the remunerations of all workmen? How without private capital can undertakings be set on foot? How without the prospect of private gain can private enterprise be called into play? Will there not have to be, besides a complete change of organization, a change of human nature almost as complete?

Then, again, if a part of the community should cling to private property and individual enterprise, what is to be done? Are the methods of the French Jacobin and the

Russian anarchist to be brought into play, as intimated in the utterances and writings of extreme Socialists? In England to-day Socialism seems to be "taking the form of the use of the powers of taxation for a general transfer of property. The ultimate consequence of this or of any sweeping policy of confiscation would probably be political convulsion, with industrial disorganization in its train."

UTOPIAN SOCIALISTS.

THE Berlin *Sozialistische Monatshefte*, whose affiliation speaks from the very name, contains an article which shows that in Germany,—and why not elsewhere?—the Socialist movement counts adherents who for practical wisdom and earnest purpose have no superiors among the opponents of that movement. Such a man is the writer of said article, Herr Franz Laufkötter, who takes most severely to task those of his brother Socialists who indulge themselves in pleasant fancies. Of the "emotional" or "Utopian" Socialists, as he calls them, Herr Laufkötter writes thus:

The evolution, through a scientific process from Utopia to reality, is incumbent upon the individual as well as upon society at large, however painful it may be to relinquish illusions, and look facts squarely in the face. And because this process of change is extremely sobering, and has the effect of a cold bath on heated minds, so many people balk at taking the step from Utopianism, by the scientific road, to practical Socialism. They would rather remain children and go on dreaming, would rather continue to dwell in the magic realm of fantasy than take up arms and fight the rude realities of life. This widespread mental state explains the very prevalent fear of practical Socialism, the aversion to energetically attacking actual, present problems, the recoiling from social experiments. These modern Utopians hope, like children, for some wonderful event that shall somehow occur, instead of laying hand to the plow which must furrow the capitalistic field.

The Utopian Socialist lulls himself in the dream that capitalism can over night, as it were, be transformed into Socialism by a revolutionary uprising of the masses. A great many Socialists have no notion that society develops quite slowly, by social laws, that the future must grow organically out of the present, and that in the present the ground must be tilled if flowers are to spring from it in the future. The catastrophic theory,—which, let us hope, has asserted itself for the last time in its prediction of a general economic strike,—is analogous to the idea of volcanic eruption; only this theory overlooks the circumstances that not dead rocks but living souls are being dealt with. And whoever has observed how laboriously social changes are brought about, just because they affect human life so profoundly, must certainly have lost all faith in the magic efficacy of the so-called social revolution. The Utopians take the thing very easily. They conjure a particular kind of world

out of their brains, and do not ask whether it be possible to realize that magic world; they simply put it before us, and ask us to believe in it; they describe as actually existent a paradise which never has had any being but in the imagination of childish rhapsodists. It is time to recognize how badly Socialism needs definite work. We cannot sleep into the socialistic state, we must toil into it step by step; severe effort will it cost us to conquer every foot of soil.

None but a Utopian, the author goes on to say, can entertain schemes of tearing out the whole capitalistic system, root and branch. A scientific, practical Socialist, he declares, will follow the advice of Karl Marx to adapt such features of economic progress as capitalism offers. Emotional abuse of capitalism is quite out of place, urges Herr Laufkötter, and he demands, instead of "straw bonfires of enthusiasm," education of the intelligence, tempering of the spirit, and hard, purposeful endeavor for "the erection of a habitable house" of Socialism.

But some Socialists seem to think, he continues, that a member of the Socialist party is inherently a superior being to a member of any other party merely because of his admission to the Socialist ranks.

As if to join a proletarian organization could of itself improve a man! As if upon the organization did not devolve the difficult task of making the new member into a better human being! It lends no higher dignity to a person to belong to the Socialist party, though taking part in the economic and spiritual battles of Socialism is intended to,—and will,—raise men to a loftier plane. Neither is the conception that the future state will show perfect and ideal conditions any less Utopian. In the state of the future people will also cook with water and men will not be angels, but will still be men, with human faults and foibles. Does one not, even now, read often enough in Socialist newspapers that in the Socialist state there will be no more crimes? This Utopian idea is absolutely silly, and proves the ignoring of those factors which are at the base of human conduct. . . . Consideration of "how people will get on together" in the Socialist state ought to give us pause. We must, to begin with, be satisfied with hoping that Socialism will raise mankind by slow degrees, whereas the unpractical Utopian raves about a heaven on earth where the lion and the lamb shall roam green fields together. In the future state, too,

will there be friction, which is really a good thing, for otherwise there could be no question of development and improvement. In fact, the state of the future will look quite different from that painted by the Utopian. For there, too, will men be forced to toil arduously in order to meet their advancing requirements, and there,

too, will there be compulsion to work and testing of the workman's merit. It is a mistake to believe that there everybody will live in sweet idleness, with all labor performed by machinery, a mistake to fancy the future state as a hand of cockayne where roast pigeons will fly into one's mouth.

THE RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION.

SO much misapprehension seems to exist with reference to the scope and objects of the Russell Sage Foundation that we think our readers will welcome a statement at first hand in regard thereto. In the first number of the *Survey*, which is the new name for *Charities and the Commons*, appears an account of the initial activities of the Foundation, from which we extract the following particulars. The trustees of the Foundation are: Mrs. Russell Sage (President), Mr. Robert W. de Forest (Vice-President), Mr. Cleveland H. Dodge (Treasurer), Miss

Helen M. Gould, Mr. Robert C. Ogden, Mrs. William B. Rice, Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler, Mr. Alfred T. White, with Mr. John M. Glenn, Secretary and Director; and it is Mr. de Forest who, in the article under notice, tells just what it is proposed to do and what not to do. As set forth in its charter, the purpose of the Foundation is "the improvement of social and living conditions in the United States of America." To that end the Foundation is authorized

to use any means which from time to time shall seem expedient to its members or trustees, including research, publication, education, the establishment and maintenance of charitable or benevolent activities, agencies, and institutions, and the aid of any such activities, agencies, or institutions already established.

In what may be termed her deed of gift Mrs. Russell Sage expresses her desire that the Foundation should preferably "not undertake to do that which is now being done or is likely to be effectively done by other individuals or by other agencies."

She also authorizes the trustees

to invest the principal of the fund, to the extent of not more at any one time than one-quarter of its entire amount, directly in activities, agencies, or institutions established and maintained for the improvement of social and living conditions, provided that such investments shall, in the opinion of the trustees, be likely to produce an annual income of not less than 3 per cent.

As might have been expected, the Foundation was at the very outset "overwhelmed with applications for individual and corporate relief . . . from educational institutions of all kinds and churches of all denominations." The trustees therefore found it necessary to define the scope of the Foundation's activities, and they resolved:

(a) The Foundation will not attempt to relieve individual or family need. Its function is to eradicate so far as possible the causes of poverty and ignorance, rather than to relieve the sufferings of those who are poor or ignorant.

(b) The sphere of higher education, that served by our universities and colleges, is not within the scope of the Foundation. . . .



MRS. RUSSELL SAGE.

(c) Aid to churches for church purposes, whatever their denomination, is not within the scope of the Foundation.

Already the Foundation is able to point to a respectable list of its activities along the lines of educational propagandist movements, research, publication, aid to the corporate or individual effort of others, and direct action by its own staff. Among these perhaps the first place should be given to the Foundation's work toward the eradication of the "white plague." It

provided the means whereby a very successful campaign has been instituted in New York State. . . . The result of this campaign has been that over a million dollars has been appropriated by municipalities, counties, and individuals for tuberculosis hospitals, dispensaries, and other agencies. . . . The handbook of the national association, compiled by Philip P. Jacobs, and entitled "The Campaign Against Tuberculosis in the United States," was printed as a Russell Sage Foundation pamphlet. . . . The Foundation contributed to the International Congress at Washington. It also paid part of the expense of the recent tuberculosis exhibition in New York, which attracted the unparalleled attendance of about 750,000 people within six weeks. . . .

Playground Extension has been another movement which has received the attention of the trustees.

One of the first things the Foundation did was to contribute the money necessary for a model playground and exhibit at the Jamestown Exposition. The great interest created by the first congress of the Playground Association, held in Chicago during the summer of 1907, made it manifest that important results could be accom-

plished throughout the country by the establishment and proper organization of playgrounds, if an active propagandist movement to that end was instituted. The Russell Sage Foundation has contributed largely to this movement. . . . Since the Foundation took part in it, playgrounds have been established in about 100 cities, and about 175 have been projected.

Investigations have been made by the Foundation into the placing-out of children and the management of institutions for their care. It has also aided in the education of teachers for model gardens for school children, and contributes to the maintenance of one such garden in the neighborhood of New York. It has helped to extend the work of the Charity Organization, and has supported the work of "a special committee of the New York Association for the Blind, directed particularly to the prevention of blindness in children." In research, its lines of effort have included: A study of workingmen's insurance; a study of the evils of the salary and the chattel loan business; investigations as to the desirability of establishing on a business basis an employment bureau in the City of New York; and especially the exhaustive study of industrial conditions in Pittsburgh, which was noticed in the April number of the REVIEW.

Many other activities of the Foundation are enumerated in Mr. de Forest's article, which latter not only is interesting reading, but enables one to realize how great is the obligation under which Mrs. Sage has placed the nation in general and the community of New York in particular.

WHY WE NEED A BUDGET COMMITTEE.

STEPS recently taken at Washington to systematize the preparation of the national budget make pertinent Ex-Secretary Cortelyou's article in the *North American Review* for April. In this article he points to "the growing difference in the wrong direction" between the national revenues and the national expenditures,—a condition which "seems to demand not only some effective plan for increasing the revenues, but a thorough system of co-ordination whereby receipts and disbursements may be properly compared and adjusted, one to the other, by an established authority which shall be responsible for the final balance."

At present there is no such authority. Each claim that is made upon Government resources

is pressed by its supporters practically without reference to any other. It lies within the sphere of the Treasury Department to call the attention of the Congress to the estimated income and the estimated out-go for the coming year; but no authority exists,—except in the veto power of the President,—to bring the one within the limits of the other. It is only when the final results are scheduled, and the country realizes the existence of an enormous deficit, that the situation excites attention and becomes the subject of comment sometimes bordering on censure. Such criticism, however, must invariably fail of beneficial results, because of this lack of a supervising authority, which can make adjustment between the demands upon the Treasury and the nation's revenues.

The pressing need of some such controlling body is forcefully illustrated by the table at the head of the following page.

Year.	Net receipts.	Net disbursements.
1878.....	\$275,446,776	\$236,964,327
1888.....	379,266,075	259,653,959
1898.....	405,321,335	443,368,582
1908.....	601,126,118	659,196,319

As a further argument, Mr. Cortelyou cites the present condition of the nation's finances. He says:

The deficit for the fiscal year which ended June 30, 1908, was \$60,000,000. It has been estimated that the total revenues of the Government, calculated on the basis of existing law, will fall at least \$150,000,000 below the appropriations for 1910, if these appropriations are granted substantially as requested by the departments; while it also seems assured that the revenues for the current fiscal year, ending June 30, 1909, will be approximately \$120,000,000 less than the expenditures. Thus the deficiency of next year may entirely wipe out the surplus in the Treasury, and necessitate an increase in taxes or the sale of bonds.

Mr. Cortelyou thinks the demands on the Treasury are not likely to decline, the average increase having been for years hardly less than 15 per cent. per annum. It appears, however, that the present form of daily Treasury statements is misleading with regard to the disbursements, in that "it makes no separation between the expenditures for the ordinary service of the Government and those for permanent public works, like river and harbor improvements, public buildings, and the Panama Canal." It is the practice

of many foreign countries to provide for permanent improvements by specific bonds; but it has been the custom of the United States to "make most of its appropriations for permanent improvements from current revenues." Instead of placing upon posterity its share of the burden, our Government has allowed the entire load "to rest upon the present for improvements which will largely benefit the future." If rearranged in the manner suggested, the account for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1908, would read as follows:

Net ordinary receipts.....	\$601,126,118.53
Disbursements	570,477,838.81
Surplus	30,648,279.72
Extraordinary disbursements:	
Panama Canal.....	38,093,425.29
Public buildings under Treasury Department	9,341,364.55
Reclamation service.....	11,126,042.02
Rivers and harbors.....	30,157,649.01
Reduction of public debt.....	34,356,750.00

Any changes that may be made along the foregoing lines would make it none the less desirable that

some committee should be charged with the direct responsibility of keeping the expenditures of each year approximately within the revenues of the year, or if, in specific cases, this could not be done without crippling branches of the public service, of authorizing the issue of short-term obligations to bridge the deficit of lean years. By such a committee many needless and wasteful expenditures might be checked, deficits avoided, and any surplus diverted to the most necessary and beneficial purposes.

THE NAVAL CASE FOR GERMANY.

A REALLY remarkably frank and outspoken "open letter" to "Mr. John Bull," setting forth the viewpoint of the German people in the race of armaments, appears in the April *Contemporary Review*. Why does Germany need a strong navy? This question is thus answered by the anonymous writer of the article:

With our world-wide commerce, our infant colonies, and our immense mercantile marine, your example, your precept, and your practice taught us that it was impossible to do without a navy altogether. Yet for such a policy there is something to be said. But for a weak navy there is nothing to be said. It would invite attack and be a constant temptation to an enemy. When a lion-tamer puts his head within the jaws of a lion he acts as we should have done had we created a fleet which you could have snapped up as a toothsome morsel before breakfast.

Of one thing I can assure you: we are not building our fleet with any design of attacking you. We are building it because we are afraid that you may some day attack us, and that the

weakness of our fleet may encourage you to destroy our ships and sweep our commerce from the seas. My dear Mr. Bull, you are a pirate, and the son of a pirate, and the nation which attacked Copenhagen in 1807 need not be surprised if we should not be quite sure that Kiel might not tempt you in 1909. But for this I am not blaming you. Indeed, to some of us your ability to resist the temptation to attack our nascent fleet is much more amazing than would be the bombardment of Kiel before breakfast.

All nations are at times in position when war,—even aggressive, treacherous, piratical war,—seems to them the highest morality. Continues the writer:

Your action at Copenhagen a hundred years ago was defended at the time as a necessary act of self-preservation. If you had not seized the Danish fleet, Napoleon would have compelled the Danes to use it against you. A similar policy of anticipating attack has been the basis of German policy since the days of Frederick the Great. And as we are unable to accept the theory that you are more angelic than ourselves, we feel that we must hurry up our

naval defenses, if only to prevent you from doing to us what, if we were in your place, we should, on the principles of Frederick the Great, most certainly do to you.

Referring to German popular feeling at the outbreak of the South African war, the writer says:

When the Boer war broke out the British Empire embarked with the utmost enthusiasm upon a war of annexation in South Africa; then we knew that our worst forebodings were justified. The old gray wolf of the Northern Seas had reappeared,—ruthless and hungry as in the days of the Vikings. It was not long before an outrage on the German flag warned us of what the Kaiser called our "bitter need of a strong German navy." From that moment the die was cast. We dare hesitate no longer. The England of Gladstone had disappeared. We were face to face with the England of Mr. Chamberlain.

WHAT THE GERMAN NAVAL PROGRAM MEANS.

Quoting the preamble to the German Navy Bill of 1900, the writer says, with an almost amazing frankness:

Surely there never was inserted in an Act of Parliament so extraordinarily frank a declaration to a neighboring power as to the aim and object of our naval preparations. In plain set terms we told you that, as you were capable of making the Boer war, we considered it necessary, as a legitimate act of self-protection, to build a sufficient number of ships to jeopardize your security if you attacked us and to weaken your supremacy even if you gained a victory. There is not the slightest attempt to evade the fact that we were building against you. The fact that you were the objective and that your policy was the justification of our shipbuilding

program was defiantly, almost blatantly, proclaimed in the hearing of all the world.

The menace of Tariff Reform and the National Service League, we are told, spurred Germany to quicken her pace:

An England pacific, Gladstonian, free trading, relying upon voluntary service for her armed force,—such an England may have as large a fleet as she pleases without exciting any alarm. But an England that is aggressive, protectionist, armed to the teeth by conscription, is another proposition altogether. Against the latter England we must, in self-defense, push on our naval defensive forces with the utmost rapidity. We are accused of an act of moral treachery which would justify armed reprisals because we took advantage of the cheapness of materials last autumn, and the dearth of employment to lay down two of our 1909 *Dreadnoughts* in 1908, and to accumulate materials for the second pair in advance of what we intended. But there was no intention on our part to hurry up the construction of these ships, nor did we intend to lay down four more ships this year. What we shall do now depends upon the extent to which your agitators succeed in inflaming public sentiment in both nations.

This noteworthy article concludes with these words:

You are now going to build two keels to our one. Of that I make no complaint. I rather welcome it as a recognition on your part that the four-to-one preponderance of the *status quo* cannot be maintained. It is impossible for you to avoid scattering your battleships over your foreign stations. We keep ours at home. Hence, with an ally, Germany will always have a fair fighting chance against a two-to-one British Navy. And with that, believe me, we shall be well content. For we do not object to your superiority at sea. What we cannot tolerate is an ascendancy so great as to place the whole of our oversea commerce, our colonies, and our navy absolutely at your disposal.

WHAT A WAR BETWEEN THE GREAT POWERS WOULD MEAN.

FAR away from the scene of conflict the dire results of an appeal to arms are manifest. In the *Chautauquan* Mr. Charles A. Conant, in one of the articles of the "Friendship of Nations" series, writes:

Among the countries of Europe the demoralizing effects of a general war are almost too sickening for contemplation. Crashes on the stock exchange, the stoppage of dividends on industrial securities,—wiping out the income of widows and orphans and other small investors,—the recall of international credits, and the offer of enormous loans for war purposes, would soon be followed by the closing of mills and factories which ministered to the comforts of the people in time of peace, the cutting off of food supplies, strikes and riots by operatives

who faced starvation, and the clutch of the heavy hand of the state upon the lives and homes of the thousands of men needed as food for powder on the battlefield, or food for the fishes when \$6,000,000 battleships were puffed out of existence by a hostile shot.

Mr. Conant shows what would be the result of a few years of these conditions:

First.—The world of modern industry and growing comforts for the mass of men would cease to move forward; secondly, as the old machinery deteriorated without renewal or extension, the world would begin to move backward. . . . A prolonged and expensive war between great powers would mean simply that the work of the past century in raising the standard of living would be lost.

Mr. Conant is writing of the modern economic forces against war, and he says that the effect of a really serious war, in which several great powers were engaged, would be to bring to a halt much of the costly and efficient machinery of modern life, and would probably be to set back the material condition of society for many years.

As showing how costly modern wars are, Mr. Conant cites the Boer war, which cost the British Government directly nearly \$800,000,000, and that between Russia and Japan, which cost the former nation about \$840,000,000, and Japan no less than \$1,000,000,000. A modern battleship easily costs \$6,000,000, exclusive of armament.

When six of these floating masses of iron and steel went to the bottom in the battle of the Sea of Japan, not less than \$40,000,000 was destroyed in a day. How does this destruction of the products of labor affect the community? Simply by withdrawing these great sums from the amounts which might be applied to extending the machinery for increasing human comfort and diminishing the severity of labor.

Further, capital would be "diverted from the purposes of material progress to its use in making powder and ball"; and "the demands of the state in time of war would absorb the savings accumulated by the labor of producers in time of peace." Then, again, there is the derangement of the machinery of exchange.

It is difficult to measure fully all the evils which would flow from the slowing down and disuse of the existing mechanism of exchange. Steamships tied up because if they carried out freight it would be exposed to capture by the enemy; cable offices closed because relations with belligerent countries were suspended; the

stock markets reduced to idleness, interrupted by periods of feverish excitements; international bankers closing their doors; manufacturers of wool and cotton cloths shutting down their mills because, as in the "Lancashire cotton famine" of 1861-65, they could no longer obtain their raw material; manufacturers of cotton and mill machinery abandoning their plants because no new mills were being established or projected;—these would be among the many symptoms which would bring home to the average man who worked with hand or brain the evils and risks of war.

As Mr. Conant points out, there has been no real war "on the soil of civilized countries under modern economic conditions." At the time of our Civil War, "the machinery of international exchanges was still in its infancy; and it was but little developed at the time of the Franco-German conflict in 1870-'71." The amount then invested in railways and steamships "was a bagatelle which would have aroused in a Morgan or a Harriman a smile of contempt." When the *Alabama* was attacking American commerce, "that commerce was represented by a total of \$687,000,000, whereas in 1908 the figure was \$3,000,000,000."

A war between the great powers would entail sufferings on individuals and communities which would far exceed the sufferings in any previous war.

The nations of western Europe not only depend in a large degree upon Russia and America for their bread; the mills of Birmingham and Calais depend for their raw material upon the cotton-fields of Egypt and America. The very shoes which would cover the feet of the contending armies would have to be in large measure from the hides of Australia and the Argentine.

Do all soldiers have big feet.

PRESIDENT ANGELL'S RETIREMENT.

IT is given to few university presidents to be able to point to such a long and useful and honorable career in the service of a single institution as that which James Burrill Angell, of the University of Michigan, voluntarily terminates at the close of the current academic year. Four years ago, at the age of seventy-six, he tendered his resignation, "in the belief that the interests of the University would be subserved by the appointment to the presidency of a younger man"; but the Board of Regents "declined in such kind words" to accept his resignation that the aged captain consented to remain at the helm a few years longer. Now, having

passed his eightieth milestone, the venerable and venerated president seeks that repose which he has so justly earned. In the *Michigan Alumnus* for March Prof. Martin L. D'Ooge gives a review of "the great work Dr. Angell has accomplished in building up the University." From this we extract the following paragraphs:

When President Angell entered upon his office in 1871 there was no regular and fixed appropriation for the University from the State. In 1873 Dr. Angell made his first plea for a fixed and definite income, and . . . the Legislature voted one-twentieth of a mill tax, which yielded \$31,000 the first year. Since that time this appropriation has been raised twice,

until at present it is three-eighths of a mill, producing an income of \$660,000, which is equivalent to an endowment by the State of more than \$15,000,000 at 4 per cent.

There are enrolled to-day 5188 students, as against 1207 in 1871. During this period the number of officers of instruction and administration has grown from thirty-nine to about 400. Four new departments have been organized, and no less than sixteen new buildings, if we count in the hospitals, the Alumni Memorial Hall, and the new Chemical Laboratory, have been erected.

When Dr. Angell entered upon the duties of his office there were two ideas that had been incorporated in the life of the University, co-education and the diploma system of admission. The first woman was admitted the year before Dr. Angell came. It is simply just to say that no administration could have been more generous and fair toward this experiment than that of our president. . . . In the diploma system he saw the best means of making the University in reality, as it was in name, the head of the public school system of the State.

The leadership of this University in educational methods and policy, and its influence in shaping the character of many of the State universities of the Northwest, is generally recognized. That this influence has been widely extended and measurably increased by the addresses and published reports of our president is equally well understood. . . .

The wideness of his sympathies and the largeness of his views have been felt within as well as without the walls of the University. The spirit that disdains pedantry, that responds to all activities of the great world, that appeals to high ambitions and is generous in its dealings with youth, that makes teacher and student fellow-seekers after truth, that puts the genuine stamp of genuine manliness upon the boy,—it is this spirit that has been infused into the inner life of the University by the man who so quietly and unostentatiously has been standing for more than a generation at the helm.

The *Alumnus* says editorially:

For the past thirty-eight years President Angell has guided the University during its greatest period of growth. . . . When he assumed the leadership, the lines on which the University was to be builded were already indicated. It has been the task of his fine idealism, tempered with the practical genius of the diplomat, to draw together the threads of the University in the making, already in the loom, and to indicate the grandeur of the design which the world will some day see nearer completion. . . . The University of the present stands an enduring monument of his work,—and of the fine years of his manhood.

The Board of Regents, in their resolution accepting with regret Dr. Angell's resignation, said:

The proud position which this University has attained is due, more than to all other elements combined, to the fact that for more than one-half of its entire life it has been blessed with



DR. JAMES B. ANGELL.

(Who retires at the age of eighty from the presidency of the University of Michigan.)

his learning, his culture, his wisdom, his tact, and above all with the example and inspiration of his high-minded Christian character.

The University of Michigan has wisely determined not to lose Dr. Angell altogether, if it can help it. The Regents have tendered to him the chancellorship of the University, the duties to be such as "he may be willing and able to perform; the salary for such office to be \$4000 per year, with house rent, light, and fuel, so long as he sees fit to occupy his present residence."

The same number of the *Alumnus* records some interesting observations by Dr. Angell at a banquet to Miss Ida M. Tarbell on the occasion of her Ann Arbor address at the Lincoln celebration. Lincoln, as is well known, repeated at Providence his famous Cooper Union speech; and among his hearers was Dr. Angell, then the editor of the *Providence Journal*. Up to this time Dr. Angell had shared "the popular unfavorable impression which seems to have prevailed throughout the East, owing to the awkwardness of Lincoln's personal appearance." The speech, however, gained for Lincoln an ardent advocate; and to bring Lincoln "before the public in the most favorable light," Dr. Angell employed John Hay, a student of law in Lincoln's office, to write for the *Journal*

"a series of articles which should emphasize the sterling qualities of the man rather than his fame as a rail-splitter." Hay emphasized the "rail-splitter" too strongly; and it was not till they had been "mercilessly blue-pen-

ciled" by Editor Angell that the articles appeared in the latter's journal. The articles were unsigned, and their historical interest remained unrevealed until disclosed by Dr. Angell at the banquet.

THE PERSONALITY OF "OMAR" FITZGERALD.

THE centenary (on March 31) of Edward FitzGerald, who, translating Omar Khayyám's "Rubáiyát" into English, enriched our literature by one of its really great poems, affords Mr. Francis Gribble, in the *Fortnightly Review*, with an opportunity for writing a brilliant literary essay. Here is his vivid picture of the eccentric poet, whose conduct caused his neighbors, not unnaturally, to regard him as unbalanced:

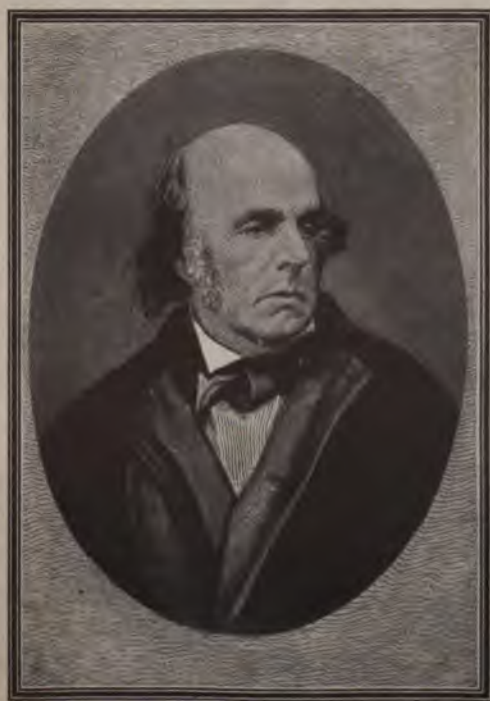
His trousers, we are told, were of baggy blue cloth, and were always too short, displaying stockings which were white as long as they were clean; in hot weather he took off his boots and carried them over his shoulder, slung from a stick, while in cold weather he trailed rather than carried a green plaid shawl. His high stand-up collars were always crumpled, and the bow of his large tie was apt to come undone. He strode along "with a remote, almost a

haughty air, as though he guarded his own secret," but his headgear was a weather-beaten and antique top-hat, with a black band around it, secured in its place by a handkerchief. Such was FitzGerald out of doors,—a sage who decidedly did not walk crowned with any outward glory. Within doors his appearance must have been, if possible, even more grotesque. He was bald, unshaven, sallow cheeked, with thin, straggling whiskers. He did not trouble to make his toilet, but sat all day in his dressing-gown,—that dressing-gown which Mrs. FitzGerald had considered unsuitable afternoon or evening wear for a man in his position,—lounging on a low chair with his feet in the fender. Together with his dressing-gown he always wore his hat,—that ancient and battered silk hat with the black band round it. When he removed it, it was only for the purpose of getting a red silk handkerchief which he kept stored in its recesses.

That is the picture,—the ludicrous and saddening picture of a baffled, futile man whom life has worn down rather than defeated, who has lived cleanly but ineffectively, who has not gone forth to look for pessimism, but has simply sat still until pessimism has come to him. He had not, like the Preacher, tried life and found it wanting; he had suffered from the first from the moral disease which the French call *impuissance de vivre*, and he knew it. Nothing was worth while because nothing had ever been worth while. Contemplation had not even gained him a philosophy. Nothing remained but to make the confession, throwing up the sponge, as it were, to slow, majestic music. For that, after all, is what the translation of the *Rubáiyát* amounts to. Speaking for himself, he voiced, with the sorrowful dignity of one inspired, a wider skepticism,—a more far-reaching Epicureanism,—than he knew; and the world was more grateful for that than it ever is, in our own generation, for new and original ideas.

A "literary analysis" of FitzGerald's work is contributed to the *Dial* by Warren Barton Blake, in the course of which we find this paragraph:

Poetically, FitzGerald was slighted in his own times; that is, his "Rubáiyát" was slow to win its meed of admiration. Popular approval came so late that there was no time for the poet to do more than lengthen the body of the "Rubáiyát" and to change the shape of the sleeves. But all that is handsomely atoned for now. He has been duly overestimated, and has had his "Variorum" and "Definitive" Edition, albeit there is little enough worth treasuring in



EDWARD FITZGERALD.

(Whose centenary has just been celebrated.)

those seven fine volumes but the "Rubáiyát" itself and the "Meadows in Spring," and the description of the rowing-match and Christ Church meadows in "Euphranor." His earlier neglect has been atoned, as has been said; we are gone, in fine, to quite the opposite extreme. When were there school-girls lacking to recite,

"I sometimes think that never blows so red
The Rose, as where some buried Cæsar
bled,"—

tears in their voices and holes in their handkerchiefs? There are Omar Khayyám Clubs, also, which plant roses from Omar's grave on the grave in an English churchyard!

The letters of the poet, Mr. Blake declares, were the "crispest and most pleasure-

giving of the century." Says Mr. Blake on this point:

His effects seem less studied (a great consideration in letter-writing) than Stevenson's; the personality is gentler than Carlyle's; the body of letters is larger and their range wider than Lamb's, which he so loved. His letters are, then, worth every one's reading. They make a fine bed-book, or an excellent birthday gift. They are warranted to contain a minimum of Tennyson anecdotes. Also, how fully have they the smell of the soil, and the scent of the garden where their writer potted; and how rich they are with allusions,—literary, personal, such as only a poet and a wide (but dainty) reader knows how to use! Everywhere, too, is the reflection of that piquant personality which never lost itself in the correspondent's.

OUR EXCHANGES AND THE YELLOW PERIL.

THE silver question has come to be so generally regarded as a "dead issue" that to hear one speak of reviewing it at this date seems like "the echo of a voice from out the past." Yet Mr. Moreton Frewen, a vice-president of the Bi-Metallic League, in the *North American Review*, attempts to show why this controversy, which has slumbered for half a generation, "now demands far more urgently than ever before the consideration of those then in their nurseries, but today in their schools, from whose painful experience and developing intelligence a rational solution will yet be secured." He appeals to the youth of America "to study carefully a question which, in the doubt and drift of the last thirty years, has deep-seated a disease certainly perilous, perhaps even fatal, to our Western civilizations." Anticipating that this statement will be regarded by some as extravagant, he proceeds to show that our exchanges with 800,000,000 of Asiatics rise and fall as the gold price of silver rises and falls, and that when silver and the silver exchanges fall,

then for every Asiatic desiring to buy our goods, gold and our gold prices have automatically advanced, and his power to purchase from us is proportionately reduced. Since 1896, owing to the metallic inflation of our currency occasioned by the abundance of new gold supplies, gold prices (and wages) in the West have been rising with unexampled rapidity, while silver prices and wages in the Orient have slightly receded.

There have been two cosmic falls in the price of silver, viz., in 1893-94 and 1907-08; and each of these was followed, "just as we should expect," by an acute financial convulsion. Baron Alfred Rothschild warned

the Brussels Monetary Conference that if it broke up "without achieving any definite result" there might be a depreciation in the value of silver "frightful to contemplate, and out of which a monetary panic might eventuate the far-reaching effects of which it was not possible to forecast." This warning, given in February, 1893, was not heeded; the Conference adjourned without having reached any result whatever; and a few weeks later the greatest collapse in the price of silver ever known was followed by unparalleled disasters.

For every bank in Australia, save one, closed its doors, while one-fourth of the entire railroad mileage of the United States passed into the hands of receivers.

The ability of the Asiatics to buy American goods depends on the value, in exchange, of their silver money. "The greater the fall in silver, the greater the premium they must pay for our gold on every tiny bourse and in every bazaar from the Yellow to the Red Sea." Mr. Frewen gives the following illustration:

Only thirty-five years ago the Hongkong exchange on London was four shillings and two-pence; to-day it is one and ninepence. Let me translate this statement from its financial vernacular for the man in the street. A few years ago, when a Chinaman wanted to buy English cottons he bought ten sovereigns,—that is, a bill of exchange for ten pounds on London,—with thirty-one of his silver taels. To-day, while his labor and his products bring him no more taels than in 1873, he must give seventy-seven taels for this same bill of exchange for ten pounds. Is it any wonder then, that, notwithstanding the splendid efficiency of the American railroad service to the Pacific and America's lines of

well-equipped steamships, yet American exports to the Orient languish?

Illustrating this advance in the price of gold further, he says:

In 1873 the English sovereign was worth in exchange with China about three taels, and three taels then paid for one day the wages of twenty-five Chinamen; but now the sovereign exchanged into the currency of China is worth nearly eight taels and now pays the wages for one day of sixty Chinamen. Is there any doubt that American capitalist captains of industry will, in the next few years, take advantage of such exchange conditions? . . . It requires but little imagination to foresee that the day is near when the United States Steel Corporation will be a great exporter even to American shores of rails rolled in their own mills in Shansi.

On the dangers attending this advance in the price of gold, Mr. Frewen cites the late Prof. Francis A. Walker, of Boston, who as long ago as 1894 said:

I recognize in this silver issue no mere problem in finance; I believe that with its right settlement is bound up the very progress of civilization in the Western nations.

He quotes also the late Speaker Reed's warning: "May not the yellow man with the white money cut the throat of the white man with the yellow money?"

Mr. Frewen is of the opinion that the initiative in this issue might more properly come from Washington than from Westminster, particularly because there would prob-

ably never have been a Silver Question but for a bill passed by Congress in 1873, demonetizing the standard dollar. And the strange thing about this bill is that those most concerned with its passage seem never to have taken the trouble to discover what the bill really was. For instance, General (afterward President) Garfield said:

Perhaps I ought to be ashamed to say so, but the truth is that I . . . never read the bill.

Senator Beck, of Kentucky, remarked:

What I complain of is, that this House never knew what was in the bill.

Senator Allison, of Iowa, stated:

When the secret history of this bill comes to be told, it will disclose the fact that the House intended to coin both gold and silver, and intended to place both metals on the French relation instead of our own.

Mr. Kelly, himself the father of the bill, said:

The Committee on Coinage, who reported the original bill, were faithful and able and scanned its provisions closely. As their organ, I reported it. Never having heard till long after its enactment of the substitution in the Senate of this section which dropped the standard dollar, I know nothing of its history. But I am prepared to say that in all the legislation of this country there is no mystery equal to the demonetization of the silver dollar of the United States. I have never found a man who could tell how it came about or why.

"AMERICAN MOBILITY."

AMONG recent foreign visitors to our shore who have committed to print their observations concerning our national life an Italian novelist, Francesco Matteucci, has distinguished himself by singular acuteness, such, in fact, as only the quick and flexible "Latin" mind is capable of. Signor Matteucci's latest published remarks on America are to be found in the Roman *Rivista d'Italia*, and touch upon a great variety of subjects. But on no single phenomenon of American life does this author dwell with as much emphasis as on our national characteristic of mobility, to which he refers again and again in the course of his article. So many changes take place here, he declares, both in visible, concrete things and in the lives of individuals, that a European traveler returning after an absence of twenty years might fancy he was in a country absolutely new to him.

In the great cities of the East, colossal and sumptuous edifices, still quite new, are demolished to make room for other edifices yet more grandiose and costly. Where once stood an hotel there now stands a monster building of fifty floors; in place of long rows of little houses, all neat and trim, aligned as far as reached the vision, you now behold majestic blocks, with elaborately ornamented fronts, containing hundreds of flats, varying in price from \$3000 to \$10,000 a year; instead of the park you knew, so pleasant with its leafy trees, its flower-beds, and murmuring fountains, you see a small lake; where a factory was, there rises a theater; where barracks met the eye, you now perceive a circus,—and so on.

In the Far West, upon the other hand, where but yesterday limitless prairies stretched out their vast expanse, active cities to-day exist, put there as if by magic incantation, rearing skyward their thousands of triumphant chimneys crowned with plumes of smoke; where among the tortuous mazes of immense and fearful forests the bear and elk once freely roamed, there may now be heard the resounding, inexorable axes of an army of tree fellers; where a moun-

tain stood jealous guard over the treasures of the earth the conquering pick tears into its flank with innumerable strokes.

So, too, the extraordinary transmutation,—occasionally to be observed,—of a man of commonest proletarian stock suddenly grown rich, into a fine gentleman of fashion with the most luxurious tastes and habits. But this man may lose all his wealth in some unlucky speculation, and his millions will pass on to another, who may do likewise with them. And this, opines the sharp-sighted Italian, is one of the reasons why riches do not make classes in America,—since nobody knows how long he is going to keep his money, and hence is uncertain of who his next associates in daily life will be. As to the frequent changes of one's business or profession here, Signor Matteucci delivers himself as follows:

With us the adoption of a vocation is a very solemn thing for a young man, and is often discussed during months and years by the whole family united in conclave. A decision once arrived at, the path chosen must be followed at any cost, and however good or bad the results. An American youth chooses his occupation as he would a pair of boots. If they are too big or too tight he buys another pair, and in the same way, if one pursuit is not to his liking, he takes up a different one. But the time spent he does not consider wasted, for it represents so much experience to the good, which some day or other will be useful. The only time lost is that spent sitting down or with your fingers in your belt. For such young men a so-called career has no existence, unless in the case of a few Government officials or university teachers. At twenty a young fellow begins life as a journalist, at thirty he may possibly be a

banker, at forty manager of an insurance company, and at fifty in politics.

Of course our candid friend does not spare us the just reproach that in America politics themselves are a business. Neither does he overlook the fact that a great deal of our mobility,—or, let us confess, instability,—expresses itself in the looseness of the domestic bond that is prevalent among so many of our rich people.

In Europe the state and the family are the two poles round which revolve the being of every person. In America there are the state and the individual, and as the state is such a remote and abstract thing, there is, in fact, only the individual,—who proclaims his independence at every touch and turn. Such a system undoubtedly conduces to a sad loosening of family ties. In the great centers the home, the family hearth, is almost at its last. Many wealthy families inhabit hotels all the year round, immense modern *caravanserais*, where everything is as artificial, fictitious, and cut after a pattern as could possibly be conceived. Very often, too, the members of a family will scatter to the four quarters of the globe: the mother leaves for Europe, the father goes off trout and salmon fishing in the Canadian lakes, the daughter betakes herself to Newport, and the son to Alaska to shoot big game. Divorce, which is pushed to absurd extremes, will end by completely disintegrating the domestic connections. Divorces take place for the silliest reasons, and often without any reason at all. Wives and husbands are changed as overcoats or boots are. It is not rare to see men, divorced two or three times and blessed with offspring from each successive wife, marrying women in the same condition. This gives rise to pseudo-relationships among the various children which would lend themselves to complications seemingly funny were they not so tragically demoralizing.

RUSSIA'S REALIZATION OF HER WEAKNESS.

HOW comparatively small a part Russia has been condemned to play in the councils of Europe since the defeat of the Czar's armies by the generals of Japan is brought out with startling distinctness by the diplomatic defeat of her foreign minister Iswolsky in the Balkan crisis by the bold strategy of Baron von Aehrenthal, of Austria-Hungary.

That Russian leaders realize the humiliation of their country is shown by the general tone of the editorials in the more serious reviews during the past few months. In a long editorial in the *Moskovski Yezhenedyelik* (Moscow Weekly) recently, Prince Grigori Trubetzkoi, the well-known Russian

economist and patriot, presents a vivid but gloomy picture of the political, economic, and social disorganization under the present régime, the demoralization of the military system, and the "general ruin of the empire." Commenting on the Azeff disclosures (which were set forth by Mr. Herman Rosenthal, in this REVIEW for April) and the bitter struggle in the Duma over the budget, this writer gives it as his conclusion that "the government, which is just celebrating its victory over the confusion of the past three years, is utterly powerless to protect the country."

This weakness, Prince Trubetzkoi points out, was manifested by the "empty oration"

of the Minister of War in reply to the speech of the Deputy Guchkov. "Every word of the speech of the latter sounds like a painful reproach and an ominous warning."

Guchkov, the review writer declares, who is the leader of the majority party in the Duma, pointed out with "what good will and readiness the Duma has not only granted a budget, but has also prompted the War Department as regards the necessity of new expenditures. And yet," he continued, "three times within the last three years and a half warlike animosities broke out, three times we have had to prepare ourselves to parry this danger, and now we are repeatedly asking ourselves: 'Are we really ready for it?'"

Admitting that, from a material point of view, some improvement is discernible in the Russian situation, Guchkov maintained that, "as yet we see no adequate understanding of the responsibility nor that spiritual uplift which are so necessary for the regeneration of our country." He went on to say:

Russian foreign policy is determined by the consciousness of our being unprepared in a military sense. And though the attitude of our foreign policy is correct, yet we must not consider this question from the narrow point of view of our military debility. For if our patience continue much longer, the appetite of our neighbors will keep on growing. But Russia, he says, cannot place herself in the same position in which Turkey formerly found herself, and in which Persia now is,—of living only, if not by grace of the pity, at least because of the common jealousy of the powers. . . . And thus we have the painful question before us: We know how poorly we are prepared in a military sense of the word. Our enemies know it better than we,—and so does the government and the ministry of war. We, therefore, ask ourselves, is the state of our defense known to the supreme authority of our army (the Czar), and have those persons upon whom the great responsibility rests the manliness to disclose to the supreme authority this condition? We should like to believe that they have this manliness; but at the same time we tremble at the thought that the truth is known to the supreme authority, and that, nevertheless, things remain as they are.

Trubetzkoï maintains that in these words of Guchkov, who is a patriotic nationalist, the evils of autocracy are very clear, from the moral as well as from the practical point of view. He says:

The romanticists of Russian autocracy always point out the necessity for a strong central power, in order to uphold the dignity of the Russian Empire. Having learned nothing from the lessons of the recent past, they welcome the restoration of the old régime. And what is the result? Our foreign policy is dictated by the

consciousness of our military powerlessness, which our enemies know better than we, and for which,—according to those people whose loyalty is difficult to doubt,—there is obviously no remedy. The true conditions are not a secret to the monarch, and nevertheless things remain as they are.

"Why," asks Prince Trubetzkoï, "has not Russia gone through, after our recent blow, the same process that the small Prussian state went through, some hundred years ago, after the defeat of Jena?"

Then its defeat served Russia as an impetus to army reform, to call forth the creative genius of the nation. Moreover, in that government there were men who united the work of the reform of the army with the first bold call to the people for the establishment of a general obligation to military service. Why are we Russians backward? Why are we perpetually unprepared for the struggle, we, a nation of a hundred and forty million, with immense resources, with excellent individual soldiers, and with an enormous military budget? Why must we prepare ourselves not only for the humiliation of the Slavs protected by us, but also for our own disgrace, accustoming ourselves to the possibility of a new Berlin congress, which will complete the work of its predecessor?

The cause of all this weakness, continues the Prince, is obvious.

The whole strength of the government has been spent in its struggle with the people. The policy of menace has produced its results. It has turned toward those very persons who applied it, creating among them a condition of fear of the foreign enemy, and depriving them of the possibility of returning to the people, in order to draw new strength from their countrymen. One cannot take everything from the people with impunity and give nothing in return. One cannot keep the people down in poverty and lawlessness, robbing it of its last penny, taking its best workingmen for the army,—and yet not to be able to protect the national dignity, or even to ward off the danger from abroad.

"The only thing left for Russia now," concludes this frank writer, "is not a 'popular' foreign policy, but the protection of our own skins."

To be sure, the danger of war for Russia lies almost entirely in the disclosure of our weakness. The more we acquiesce in it, the stronger will grow the temptation among our neighbors to make use of their advantage over us. The Germans, for example, are not utterly incapable of the idea of taking from Russia at least part of the Baltic provinces, in order to place us in the position of another Servia, and thus conclusively solve the intolerable Slav question, which appears to them the chief obstacle in the way of the hegemony of Germany on the continent. The hope of help from friends and allies is vain, so long as we ourselves lay so little stress upon our national self-defense.

ALCOHOL AND THE CORSET.

EVIDENTLY realizing that the above title would prove somewhat perplexing to his readers, M. Marcel Prévost, the author of the article appearing thereunder in a recent number of *Le Figaro* (Paris), explains in his opening paragraph that

it is not the title of a fable, nor is it the fantastical juxtaposition of two words drawn at random from the dictionary. It is the *rapprochement*,—perhaps unexpected,—of the names of the two worst plagues that ravage humanity called “civilized,” and particularly the people of France. One is more especially a masculine plague; the other is exclusively feminine. Both, however, have this common characteristic, that their attraction is purely artificial.

All children are naturally gourmands; but the taste for alcohol is not inborn. The first time a child tastes it he makes a grimace; and he is only brought to take it by means of the addition of sugar. M. Prévost refers to the reprehensible practice of the women of Normandy, who give their babies slices of bread steeped in diluted brandy, the result of which is that the boy of ten “is already an assiduous frequenter of the cabarets.” He adds:

Were the consumption of alcohol suppressed to-day, humanity would not have one pleasure the less. The suppression of alcohol would be no greater loss to the French people than the suppression of opium.

Equally “the feminine plague of the corset is a sort of diabolical suggestion, which satisfies no true need of either well-being or estheticism.” M. Prévost reminds his countrywomen that the Venus of Milo exceeds thirty-eight inches round the waist; and he calls their attention to the admirable group of “The Dance” on the façade of the Paris Opera House, in which the figure of the man exhibits a waist no larger than those of the women dancers. The estheticism of Carpeaux, he says, was that of ancient Greece, and of all the world in the main, “for no maker of corsets ever pretended that the lines of his models would conform to the canon of the artists.” The following little “lecture” is then addressed to woman-kind:

Some women say: “It is impossible for me to walk without corsets”; but this should be translated: “The deformity which was imposed upon me from infancy is now acquired definitively. I am not a normal woman.” Just as the slave of alcohol says: “I am ill when deprived of my beverage.” A good half of the feminine beings scattered over the globe walk without

corsets. The compression of the waist was suggested to women neither by the desire to be more beautiful nor with a view to comfort. It was a suggestion as unforeseen, as stupid, as the compression of their feet by the Chinese women or the dilatation of the neck among the “swells” of Padang. Do you know, Madame, what is the height of fashion among the grand ladies of Padang? At the age of six an iron collar is fixed around the neck of the young girl; each succeeding year another collar is added, each being solidly riveted; little by little the intervertebral cartilages are distended, until in the adult the neck becomes as long as the face.

M. Prévost, in the course of a fierce denunciation of alcoholics, says:

Thousands of human beings are wretched through alcohol; and one cannot find a single soul that it has made happy. One statistician (I believe a German) has calculated that a single alcoholic has in the space of a hundred years cost the state 900,000 francs, through the misery, sickness, insanity, and crime of his descendants.

The effects of the feminine plague are less tragic in appearance; but appearances must not be too implicitly relied on. “Anything that threatens the equilibrium, the health, of the women is exceptionally grave; for the woman is the mother, and the scarcity of mothers is the ruin of the race.” After citing the views of eminent physicians as to the injurious effects of the corset, M. Prévost asks the women to try a little experiment for themselves.

Lay aside your corsets for six months, Madame. At the end of that time your waist will have increased from four to six inches, and the organs will have simply recovered their normal volume. “But this would be frightful! Increase my waist six inches! Sir, you are mad!” This is simply the argument of the Chinese ladies and of the *grandes dames* of Padang.

The evils of corset-wearing are summed up in the following terms:

From all this results this sad phenomenon: With a smaller expenditure of energy, with a régime more sober and more chaste than that of man, with less of alcoholism, the modern woman is less healthy than the modern man. She is becoming more and more a being fragile, bizarre, dyspeptic, and neuropathical. She is fitted less and less for the duties of maternity; and thus the feminine plague conspires with its masculine fellow to attack the race at the very root.

What should be done with regard to these two plagues? M. Prévost answers:

Deal with them as with all plagues,—with discretion, constraint, and force; and force here means the law. Already laws for the regulation of the sale of alcohol have been devised.

But laws against the corset,—will any one dare to introduce such? In Bulgaria and Roumania girls are forbidden to wear corsets in the state schools; in Germany a similar prohibition exists for the female students in the gymnasia; in Russia the girl pupils of the lyceums and the high schools are required at entrance to discard "the cuirass which they wear under the name of corset" . . . but in France an ordinance of the Council of Health forbidding the use of corsets during lessons in gymnastics is not executed and, moreover, is not executable for the very good reason that "the habiliments of the

young ladies do not admit of the discontinuance of the corset."

But, concludes this entertaining article, "fashion, even if absurd, is not invincible, as witness the passing of the custom of piercing the ears. When women are convinced that the compression of the waist is more dangerous than the mutilation of the feet, as in China, they will doubtless themselves call for a law to wipe out the feminine plague."

DEVELOPING THE CHILD'S INDIVIDUALITY.

THE old adage, which so many of us were accustomed to have inflicted upon us in the days of our early youth, that "little boys should be seen and not heard," and other kindred admonitions of self-effacement are voiced less frequently nowadays. For there are now at least some parents who believe that children gain little by repression, but, on the contrary, that they should be encouraged in expression. The desirability of fostering this juvenile self-assertion, instead of checking it, has of late found several feminine literary champions on the European continent, with Ellen Key in the lead. Another of these ladies, Frau Schalk-Hopfen, is bringing out a volume entitled "Children and Human Beings," from which the *Oesterreichische Rundschau* (Vienna) has been permitted to print a chapter in advance of the book's publication. In the said chapter several strong opinions are to be found with respect both to the general bringing up of children and the development of their individuality.

Considerations of convenience and fear of life determine our manner of bringing up children. A child must think, feel, and do as we do, so that no unpleasantness may accrue to us from its opposition. Because our own virtues are merely subdued and modified vices, we see no other method than this of rearing children; because we are unable to move arms or legs without awkwardness, therefore a child may not wear graceful clothing that follows the natural lines of the body. . . . Just as every child is clad in garments cut to a given style and measure, so, even before it comes into the world, is its exact amount and kind of activity decided upon, without regard to the question as to whether its capabilities might demand some different arrangement. We expect of each child the same interest for all branches of study, and its success in class, sometimes even in life, is made dependent on its possessing no unduly strong interest for anything. But as every human being has a certain place to fill in life, a place intended for him, and no one else, our teaching is valuable only in so far as it helps

the one taught to find this place. Few people observe their own child as they would notice a strange child; few take care not to press it artificially toward a career which the child would never have chosen on its own account. Parents, in fact, make the choice for themselves and out of their own inclinations. Disagreeable experiences of their past they wish to spare their offspring from; paths they would have liked to tread, but which fate closed to them, they want their progeny to walk upon. And with these objects in view, a child whose abilities run in an altogether opposite direction, is carefully schooled and disciplined, is made unhappy in the present in order to make it unfit for the future. Thus arises the spirit of revolt in the growing child, alienation between it and the parents, and a total lack of mutual understanding,—despite "the best of intentions." I do not believe in good intentions that want for goodness. To pursue the ambition of making your child succeed is to revenge yourself for your own frustrated hopes, and to worship at the shrine of that infallibility of yours which your fellow men refused to recognize.

We ask all manner of self-sacrifices and restraints from mere infants,—says this author in another paragraph,—which we should find much difficulty in performing ourselves. Besides, we cling too rigidly to formulas patented by and for our own fancies as grown-ups.

What seems a trifle to us is not supposed to offer the slightest difficulty to a child. If an adult takes some little thing away from a child, or compels surrender of the article, it cries bitterly, and not only manifests all the outward signs of a great grief, but internally experiences one with the full vehemence of reality. A grown-up person usually regards this with impatience, and from the heights of his lofty mentality declaims to the child in loud words upon the "silliness" of shedding tears for so slight a cause. It is no doubt very easy to judge everything by a single standard and nothing from a similar point of view or a divergent point of view. In the child's world there are no trifles.

The least incident contains potentialities of extreme joy or sorrow for a child, which

can remain indifferent only toward matters it does not understand. For a child there is no such thing as moderate emotion. And since children are human beings, and not merely unimportant subjects to experiment upon with our superior knowledge, we must allow them all the liberty we can, and likewise render them all the help we can. The first because they differ from ourselves, the second because they are weaker. A child is entitled to have its peculiarities respected, just as a grown-up person is. "A child," declares Frau Schalk-Hopfen, "has a full prescriptive right to scream, weep, or laugh; in a word, to express grief, pain, or joy, as any one else might have the right to establish such conditions as would best enable him to fulfill his individual endeavors."

The author's remarks on the "superficiality and futility of the present-day school sys-

tem," though not applicable in equal degree to all countries, are yet intended as a universal challenge:

Hegel's incompletely thought-out demand for general culture, fostering self-conceit and banality, still weighs heavily upon us. To his theory we owe the circumstance that our schools give knowledge and not education, the overrating of words at the expense of thoroughness and of the spirit of initiative. . . . The mass of facts, of ready-made judgments, of traditional opinions to be accepted uncritically, all set out before, and forced upon, the pupil, in themselves offer the developing human entity not the slightest enlightenment about his own relation to laws of life that equally affect every one. . . . All the incoherent book-lore rammed into him concerning Hindus, Greeks, Jews, Christians, and Romans,—all this together is of far less value to him than a single discovery, made by himself, of the connection between a few large happenings. The material is of little consequence; it is the method that counts.

THE SITUATION IN CRETE.

ONLY a decade ago the island of Crete, after a desperate struggle of many years which filled the world with horror at the tremendous bloodshed and cruel massacres, succeeded in shaking off the Ottoman yoke, which had been her burden for two centuries. The European powers interfered and forced the Porte to withdraw its troops from Crete and to give up (in October, 1898) the direct possession of the island. An autonomous government, by an Executive Commission, under a High Commissioner, proposed by King George of Greece and approved by the protecting powers, was then established.

Crete, however, has always looked longingly toward Greece and, last October, when the Balkans were in the midst of the turmoil over Austria's annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina and Bulgaria's Declaration of Independence, Crete also announced her incorporation with Greece. The powers would not permit this. But the Cretan problem is ever present in the councils of Europe. Therefore, it will be interesting to read the article appearing in a recent issue of *L'Helénisme*, the organ of Greek "imperialism" which is published in French in Paris. The writer of this article, who signs himself "XXX," tells us that the new autonomous government of Crete had to face, "from the very first day of its inauguration, tremendous difficulties and obstacles of every kind in all

lines of its work." The Turks evacuating Crete left this once flourishing island in a state of ruin and total devastation. The new government concentrated its activity in the first place to improve the economic situation, and it must be admitted that it "accomplished its task with admirable skillfulness and conscientiousness and obtained in a very short time excellent and remarkable results."

As to the agricultural possibilities and actualities of the island, the Greek writer says:

Crete is an agricultural country, and every effort was made to improve its agricultural efficiency by applying up-to-date methods, agricultural machinery, chemical manures, etc. The soil being rich and fertile by nature, the results obtained are surprising, especially if one considers the conditions under which the work was begun. Especial attention and care have been paid to the reforesting of the Cretan highlands. The forests of the island, once of great extent and representing one of its chief assets, suffered a great deal, partly by changes in the climate, which turned dry and arid, and partly by carelessness on the part of the competent authorities. In this field the government obtained visible and remarkable results. The main articles of export of Crete are now olive oil, raisins, citrons, oranges, wood for constructive and combustible purposes, cheese, wine, soap, and silk cocoons. All articles of texture and textile, metal articles of all kinds, pharmaceutical products, sugar, coffee, flour, and cereals must be imported. It is the intention of the government to improve the agricultural efficiency of the island so far as to make it able to satisfy its needs of those last two named articles by products of its own soil and even to export, eventually, the remainder.

The customs duties (3 per cent.) on imported articles are applied chiefly as indemnity to the Cretans for their losses during the years of insurrection, 1897 and 1898, "a proceeding which has had an excellent effect upon the growing of public welfare in Crete." The Bank of Crete, a national institution, is investing large amounts of money in all sorts of enterprises, and supports financially all movements to improve and to develop agriculture and the economic welfare of the country. All kinds of improvements in the sanitary condition of the island have been accomplished,—for instance, the great reservoir for drinking water in Canea.

Population, says "XXX," is increasing at the rate of 2 per cent. per annum. The emigration of the Greek population is decreasing since the establishment of the autonomy of the island.

To develop outside trade, contracts have been arranged by the government with many navigation companies to secure for the island a regular steamship service. The *Navigazione Generale Italiana* now maintains two lines of regular service between Crete and Mediterranean ports. Telegraph and mail service is increasing, a bureau of sta-

tistics of the most improved kind has been established and keeps an accurate record of every line of trade and transaction. The schedule of the public treasury showed in March a year ago a surplus amounting to over \$400,000. This is the best proof of the excellent work which has been done in the short time of ten years by the national, autonomous government in a ruined, exhausted country. In a word, the economic situation of the island is good.

Outlining the actual political situation in Crete, this writer reminds us that in October, 1898, Crete proclaimed her union with the kingdom of Greece, a provisional government was established, and all civil and military authorities took an oath of fidelity to King George.

Agents-provocateurs hired by the Young Turkish party tried, fortunately in vain, to raise an anti-Greek and anti-Cretan movement among the Mussulman population. The cabinet at Athens, maintaining an attitude of sympathy for the recent evolution in Turkey and for the Young Turkish movement which caused these radical changes in the Ottoman Empire, displayed perfect neutrality toward the spontaneous action of the Cretan House of Representatives, a fact which has been highly appreciated by all European chancelleries.

OUIDA ON THE WOMAN PROBLEM.

ONE of the most interesting contributions in a long time to the discussion of the woman question appears in the current number of *Lippincott's*. An editorial footnote informs us that

Mlle. Louise de la Ramée, better known as Ouida, the brilliant novelist, wrote two papers more than twenty-five years ago and sold them to this magazine with the stipulation that they should be withheld from the public until after her death. She passed away in Viarreggio, Italy, January 25, 1908, and we are now free to give to the public these extraordinary documents which . . . have remained in the editor's safe so many years,—passing uninjured through the great fire of 1899.

The first paper is entitled "Shall women vote?—a study of feminine unrest, its causes and its remedies"; and, though written so long ago, is eminently pertinent, and will doubtless be welcomed by many who share the late novelist's views. Ouida states that she has studied the question with some degree of attention, and has come to the conclusion that women do not clearly know what they actually aim at and require.

If equality in privileges be taken, equality

in liabilities must be enforced also. Are women to go to this extreme?—to become soldiers if they become surgeons; to become sailors if they become statesmen? We doubt if they are prepared to reach this length; but unless they are, the desire for "equality with men" is only another phase of the desire for every privilege and the exemption from every penalty.

The plea now raised is for the admission, on the simple score of womanhood, of all women to the possession of the paths and thrones of men. Now, if what has been termed the "accident of sex" has not bestowed superiority on "those who, happily for themselves, chance to be males," how comes it, asks Ouida, that the world has had no female Phidias, Tacitus, Plato, Cicero, Euripides, Plautus, or Thucydides?

Women reply: "Because we have not been educated." There is some truth in this. . . . But the very fact that they have not insisted on better education, have not obtained it for themselves, is a proof of integral difference, if we avoid the needlessly offensive term of inferiority.

An argument against the women is based on man's prehistoric conquests.

In the prehistoric ages . . . we know that men were markedly inferior to the beasts of the desert and the saurians of the swamps. Against the enormous animals and serpents then existing men did wage continual and most unequal war, continually being vanquished and eaten up by these fearful creatures against which they possessed neither weapons nor armor commensurate with the huge tusks of the mastodon, the impenetrable hide of the rhinoceros, the jaws of the crocodile, the talons of the tiger and the bear. Yet the issue was that in the end the originally weaker but integrally superior race ultimately conquered, subjugated, and from many parts extirpated the stronger. . . . In the same manner we conceive that women,—had they been superior to their males as were their males to the beasts, by mind that overcame matter,—would have conquered for themselves some sort of supremacy, or at any rate that equal position from which they now complain they have been perforce kept out, in the many thousands of years that have seen them upon the earth. . . . If they had been born with a passionate craving for pure knowledge, could the schools have barred them out through all these centuries? We cannot think so.

Better late than never, however; and anything that makes for the better education and the enlightenment of women is to be welcomed, "in view of the manifold superstitions, intolerances, and ignorances that prevail in the female intelligence, and of the fearful influence which these in turn bring to bear upon the children committed to their charge."

It is impossible to overrate the invaluable consequences of any introduction of *geist* into the minds of women. . . . The evil mental influence of women is fully as great as can be the good moral influence of the best of their sex. . . . It is from his mother's hands that the awakening reason of the young boy drinks in the poisons of priestcraft, of religious fear, of illogical belief, of credulous bias; poisons that cramp and numb the mind which thus receives them. . . . We believe that . . . the evil done unconsciously to budding minds by the weak and superstitious lessons given in all good faith by women to the offspring who take their dictum as a law divine is incalculable and retards in an immeasurable ratio the progress and the liberties of the world. Therefore, we repeat, everything that can be done for the extension and the fortification of female intelligence is invaluable.

The cry for "equality with men" is much the same thing, says Ouida, as the roughs' cry for equality in government. In both instances the rights of citizenship are demanded; but the responsibilities of citizenship are shirked.

If roughs and women be henceforth to rule (as rule they must through their overwhelming numbers if admitted to any share in governmental power), both should be prepared to make

the sacrifices required; the one to surrender the vice and ignorance and dishonesties of their careers, the other to surrender the courtesies and suavities and securities of their position. The question of the former we leave to politicians; it is with the latter alone that we are concerned. And it is precisely this sacrifice that women will not make: we have known many vehement upholders of "women's rights" who claim for their sex the title to be politicians, physicians, anything that they choose, but we never knew one of them who would endure the suggestion of waiving in consequence the feminine demand for deference, homage, and all the graceful amenities that men have paid to women through the generous concession of the stronger to the feebler being.

Yet what can be more absurd or more unjust than that women should bully their way into their national parliaments, share in the public administrations, fight in the rough-and-tumble of public contests, and take the place of men in every profession and pursuit, yet all the while claim the *pas* by virtue of their sex, and exact that abdication in their favor which has been conceded to them out of reverence for the very inequality they so scornfully repudiate.

It is there, in Ouida's opinion, "that the whole radical weakness of the present hue and cry raised by women lies; *i. e.*, the demand for everything with the resolve to concede nothing." The authoress goes on to say:

And it is a little ludicrous to observe that in America, where the clamor for female rights is raised most loudly, there also are courtesy and obedience and subserviency to women, as women, exacted in the most ridiculously exaggerated manner. For a woman to state that she has the right to knock you out of your seat in Congress or Parliament, and occupy your place herself, yet that she has also the right to expect you to give up your seat in a railway carriage and stand for her accommodation throughout a journey of hours, is a form of oppression as absurd as it is illogical. The strength that can achieve the political conquest and the weakness that can exact the social courtesy cannot possibly be leashed together. A woman must choose between the two. . . .

Ouida avows quite frankly that she does not apprehend "that women have so very much of which to complain, or that their position is in any sense so intolerable as they regard it." She has "no sort of prejudice" on this subject; and she "knows well that there are women who make splendid financiers, scholars, authors, and even mathematicians." But it is because she attaches so much vital and widespread import to the mental improvement of womankind that she "infinitely regrets to see so good and unassailable a cause mixed up with cries so vague and often so preposterous as those we hear so often anent 'female rights.'"

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN THE UNITED STATES.

"MEN are much alike in all parts of the world, and, in the mass, they do not believe in granting equality of rights to women. The conditions in the United States are intolerable; and it is a disgrace to our Federal Constitution that it gives one class of citizens the power to keep another class forever disfranchised, and this, too, by a bare majority vote. This most vital question, which should be decided by a superior, elected representative body, is left to the irresponsible masses, to a conglomerate of every nationality, every color, every degree of vice,—intemperance, immorality, ignorance, greed, dishonesty,—to such an electorate as exists nowhere else on the face of the earth." These words occur in an article by Mrs. Ida Husted Harper on the woman-suffrage question, in the April *North American Review*.

People ask, says Mrs. Harper, why the women of the United States do not make more progress in getting the suffrage. The principal reason is to be found in our form of government, in our Federal Constitution, which vests the right to extend the suffrage wholly in the States.

In every other country the women have only to obtain the assent of the national parliamentary body and they are enfranchised. In the United States two-thirds of both houses of Congress must be secured, and then they can do nothing but submit a resolution to amend the National Constitution. When this has been done, the women have over thirty more campaigns ahead of them, as it must be ratified by three-fourths of the State Legislatures. The only other method by which women can obtain the power to vote is to carry their case directly to the State Legislatures and secure the necessary majority of both Houses,—usually two-thirds,—for a resolution to submit to the electors an amendment to the State constitution. In many States this resolution has to pass two Legislatures, and as most of them meet biennially, it requires four years simply to get the question submitted. If it is passed by the first and rejected by the second, the entire contest must be made over again.

In former times "the inferior position of women in education, business, organization, and public work in every respect" militated against the success of the woman-suffrage movement. Now, although most of these handicaps have been removed, certain antagonizing forces have succeeded them which are still more difficult to overcome. For example:

The results of the Fifteenth Amendment have

not been satisfactory, and there is a determination on the part of many not to add the colored woman's vote to the colored man's.

The laws permit the male immigrant to become a voter almost at once; many thoughtful people feel that it would increase the calamity to extend this privilege to the foreign-born women.

All who deal in intoxicating liquors,—manufacturers, saloon-keepers, and all retailers,—are uncompromising foes of woman suffrage.

The "party machine" also is bitterly hostile to the enfranchisement of women.

It appears, however, that there is a still more powerful opponent; and we think Mrs. Harper's observations hereon will cause considerable surprise. She says:

In recent years the women have met an opponent that has caused them more alarm than all the others combined,—the large "trusts" or corporations. Their first open appearance was in the New Hampshire campaign of 1903, when a rich and powerful railroad made a determined effort to prevent the convention which was framing a new State constitution from incorporating a clause providing for woman suffrage. . . . The clause finally was adopted, and then the railroad took care that it was rejected by the voters.

On inquiring the cause of the opposition, the women "were coolly informed that this would increase the number of voters who must be bought at every election and throw into confusion the present well-systematized calculations."

Lists were shown to them of the purchasable voters in every precinct throughout the State, and they were calmly told that the corporations did not propose to have the voting lists doubled; that, besides the additional expense, it would take some time to learn how many of the new votes were for sale and the price; also that there was no telling what women would do if they got into the Legislature.

In spite of all the opposition against it, Mrs. Harper claims that there is an "immense growth of favorable sentiment for woman suffrage." Only two States,—New York and Massachusetts,—have anti-suffrage societies. The National Woman-Suffrage Association "has spacious headquarters, publishes a monthly paper, has a press bureau, and an income (in 1906) of \$18,000." Last year in Chicago a suffrage clause in the proposed new charter was only defeated by the casting vote of the chairman of the commission; in the Illinois Senate a change of three votes would have given the required majority; in California two votes only were lacking to secure a majority; in Indiana also two

votes were needed; in Vermont a bill for municipal suffrage, which can be conferred simply by legislative action, was carried in the House by 130 to 25, but was defeated in the Senate by five votes.

It is often said "The women do not want the franchise." Mrs. Harper claims that this is no longer a well-founded statement. Today there are "thousands where a few years ago there were tens" who desired it. The

250,000 members of the W. C. T. U. "are almost a unit in demanding the vote." The petition to have woman suffrage included in the new charter for Chicago was seventy-five yards long. It would be "absurd to expect that the majority of the 16,000,000 women in the United States realize the value of the suffrage sufficiently to want it, but the leaders among them do want it and are working for it."

THE "BLACK HAND" PROBLEM IN AMERICA.

A MOST timely article, and one which the municipal authorities of New York will do well to consider very seriously, on the problem of the Black Hand, is contributed to *McClure's* for the present month by Mr. Arthur Woods, Deputy Police Commissioner in New York City. This official establishes two incontestable facts: (1) that under the existing law it is almost impossible to prevent the admission of Black Handers to and their exclusion from this country; and (2) that only by the institution of a secret police system can anything be done to deal effectively with the Black Hand situation in America.

WHO THE BLACK HANDERS ARE, AND WHY THEY COME TO AMERICA.

More than one and three-quarter millions of emigrants from Italy have landed in New York within the past ten years. "As a whole," says the Deputy Commissioner, these people are respectable, industrious, and self-supporting. Mixed with them, however, there has flowed into this country a thin stream of immigrants, also of the Italian race, but of a very different character. These are men who have left criminal records behind them in Italy; these are the Black Handers. In New York it has been found in almost every case that a man arrested for a Black Hand crime has been convicted of crime in Italy. They settle down in communities of wage-earning Italians wherever they can find them, and then proceed to prey upon them. . . . The vast majority of the Italian immigrants here are in need of defense against the criminals. The Black Handers are parasites, fattening off the main body of their fellow-countrymen. They are Italian criminals who prefer to make their living by extortion rather than by the sweat of their faces.

For the Black Hander, America is a veritable paradise. In his own country the criminal, after he has served his term of imprisonment, is subjected to special surveillance for from one to five years (ten years in the case

of a commuted life sentence), during which time the *vigilato*, as he is called, is continuously under the eyes of the police. How hard the way of the transgressor in Italy really is may be gathered from the Deputy Commissioner's description:

A person coming out of prison is directed to go to his native town, to find work within ten days, and to report to the police. He is not allowed to carry arms of any kind, not even a razor or a walking-stick. . . . He is not allowed to enter any places where people are gathered together, such as saloons, churches, restaurants, hotels. This means in effect that he must stay at home when he is not at work. . . . He must be in at night at a specified hour, usually sunset, and must not leave home in the morning until sunrise. . . . He reports to the police at least once a week. . . . At any time when it seems wise, such as on election night, during a military review, or on any public occasion, the police can corral all these *vigilatos* and stow them away in jail for forty-eight hours, to keep them out of temptation's way. . . . If he violates any of the surveillance requirements he may be arrested and imprisoned.

Then, again, in Italy the criminal is under a national police system, which covers the whole of the country. In America, "if a man gains a bad reputation in one city, he can be fairly certain of leaving it behind him and starting all over again if he goes to another city. We have no national police force.

DIFFICULTY OF DEPORTING BLACK HANDERS.

Difficult as it is to prevent Italian criminals from entering the United States, it is almost more difficult to deport them when they are discovered here, writes the Deputy Commissioner. Section 20 of our immigration law, which went into effect July 1, 1907, reads: "That any alien who shall enter the United States in violation of law . . . shall, upon the warrant of the Sec-

retary of Commerce and Labor, be taken into custody and deported to the country whence he came at any time within three years after the date of his entry into the United States."

Under this section, if an ex-convict can manage to exist in this country for three years, no matter what his crime may have been,—he may even have been in Sing Sing,—when "he has been physically under the Stars and Stripes for thirty-six months, he can snap his fingers at our deportation laws." The Deputy Commissioner cites several such cases. One is that of an Italian who is at the present moment serving in Sing Sing a sentence of two and a half years. When this man comes out of jail he will have been in this country more than three years, and may defy deportation. Yet he has a record of twenty-seven convictions in Italy. Another case was that of "a violent member of the Mafia." When finally located in the United States he had been in America just eleven days more than the three years; and it was officially decided that the law forbade his deportation.

THE NEED OF A SECRET SERVICE SYSTEM.

General Bingham, the New York Commissioner of Police, has often asserted the inability of the force at his command to deal with the Black Hand problem; and the

Deputy Commissioner is equally insistent on the necessity of a secret service. With an Italian population of nearly three-quarters of a million there are in the entire police force of New York City, numbering 10,000 men, "only fifty or so who speak Italian. Even of these some are unfamiliar with the dialects of Southern Italy." There are so few of them, and they work so constantly in the Italian colonies, "that their faces are as well known as old friends!" As Deputy Commissioner Woods remarks:

Although they number but a handful, their task is to ferret out all the crime in an Italian population as large as that of Rome. If they could be supplemented by a dozen or twenty men, working always under cover, never appearing in court or at headquarters, there would be fewer mysterious stories in the newspapers, and the jails would be more full of swarthy, low-browed criminals.

Obviously, however, the pressing need is regulation of the admission of immigrants from districts which furnish such a large proportion of the "undesirable citizens"; and it was in investigating this matter that the late Lieutenant Petrosino lost his life. It would seem to be an open question whether, if some check cannot be placed upon the emigration of Black Handers, immigrants from Italy and Sicily should not be excluded altogether from the United States.

OUR NEGLECTED PEAT RESOURCES.

THE depletion of our fuel resources is now recognized as a contingency which requires immediate attention. In the *Engineering Magazine* for April Dr. Charles A. Davis, peat expert of the United States Geological Survey, presents some facts and some figures on this question which are well worth the thoughtful consideration of all who have the interest of the country at heart. The possibility of using peat for fuel and as raw material has, he says, been long determined in Europe, where "approximately 10,000,000 tons of peat fuel, prepared for market by various processes, are consumed each year." As a source of producer-gas, also, the utilization of peat has made considerable progress. Dr. Davis writes:

At a time when in America the use of coal at the mines for producing electric energy in quantities to be transmitted to distant centers of consumption is still a dream, to be realized in the future, entirely trustworthy reports come

from Sweden, Germany, and other countries of northern Europe that peat is being used successfully, in plants built at the bog, as a source of producer-gas for use in internal-combustion engines to generate electricity for lighting, traction, and manufacturing purposes in towns miles away. Moreover, some of the plants which are so operated are built in units of 150 horse-power and develop less than 500 horse-power for the entire plant, thus refuting the idea that such installations must be only for large units and great total current production.

Peat is also used abroad "with success in metallurgical operations, as in foundries and steel works, and in brick and glass making, as well as in various ceramic kilns."

Dr. Davis thus describes some of the methods by which peat is made into fuel in European countries:

As cut peat it has extensive use in stoves for cooking and heating, in the form of air-dried blocks or sods, cut from the bog by hand labor with special forms of spades. A more compact and efficient fuel is made by more or less thor-

oughly macerating the freshly dug wet peat and pressing it into molds, after which it is allowed to drain and dry by spreading the blocks on the ground exposed to sun and wind. A somewhat more modern method of preparation is to grind it in a specially designed mill similar to the pattern commonly used in grinding clay for brick making. The peat is ground wet as it comes from the bog, and is delivered from the mill in the form of wet bricks, which on exposure to the air and the heat of the sun for a comparatively short time become dry, firm, tough, and, compared with untreated peat, non-absorbent. This is "machine peat" of the European markets.

Of the more fibrous kinds of peat large quantities are used in Europe for bedding for live stock, and as powder for absorbent and sanitary purposes. Thousands of tons are imported from Europe; and one Indiana factory "sells its entire output of several hundred tons at about \$12 per ton. Of this kind of peat 2,578,000,000 tons are available in America, representing, at \$10 a ton, a prospective value of \$25,780,000,000.

Another and an extensive use for peat in the United States is that of fertilizer filler. It appears that

the peat is dried and pulverized and in this form is especially adapted to the purpose, since it absorbs water and ammonia greedily, is antiseptic and an effective deodorizer, and prevents chemical decomposition better than any other substances ever used in a similar way. Assuming that one-half of the entire estimated amount of peat is suitable for the product, its value would be at least \$38,666,000,000.

Fortunately our peat deposits,—at least those of commercial importance,—lie along the northern boundary and in the coastal plain of the Atlantic region. Dr. Davis thinks it extremely probable that there are "workable peat beds in the swamps of the Gulf States and in the parts of the flood plain of the Mississippi and its tributaries lying at a distance from the streams. He has compiled from official sources the following estimates:

Total swamp area of the United States, square miles.....	139,855
Assumed to have peat beds of good quality, square miles.....	11,188
Average depth of peat over this area, nine feet, giving 200 tons of dry fuel per acre for each foot in depth, or a total of, tons.....	12,888,500,000

If coked and the by-products of distillation were saved, the products and values resulting would be:

	Product in tons.	Value.
Peat coke.....	3,608,800,000	{ Charcoal price, \$26,005,300,000 Coke price, 9,743,700,000
Illuminating oils....	257,800,000	} 4,474,200,000
Lubricating oils.....	90,200,000	
Paraffin wax.....	38,700,000	3,479,900,000
Phenol.....	167,500,000	66,345,100,000
Asphalt.....	25,800,000	824,900,000
Wood alcohol.....	43,800,000	7,844,000,000
Acetic acid.....	56,700,000	
Ammonium sulphate.....	39,900,000	2,777,400,000
Combustible gases....	738,400,000	6,501,300,000

If converted into machine peat bricks, at \$3 per ton, the value of the latter would be \$38,665,700,000, or about the same as the value of half of it used as fertilizer filler.

FRANCE AND THE SPREAD OF AUTOMOBILISM.

"AUTOMOBILISM" is a word that has not yet appeared in our dictionaries; but it is commonly used by the French journals, and will doubtless be soon adopted by our lexicographers. Referring to the rapid popularization of automobilism as a mode of locomotion, and France's contribution thereto, M. Edouard Payen, writing in the *Economiste Française* of March 13, says:

Paris saw the first essays, and has been, so to speak, the cradle of this new means of transportation. It is about fifteen years since the first automobiles were seen in the streets of the Capital. They were uncomfortable vehicles, mostly with seating accommodation for the conductor only. Soon one will regard these ancient types with as much curiosity as the venerable steam-carriage of Cugnot, now in the *Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers*. The introduction of various improvements quickly led the public to utilize this means of locomotion, which

now added comfort to its first quality,—rapidity; and whereas ten or eleven years ago an automobile was regarded as a curiosity in Paris, the use of such vehicles has become so widely extended that to-day their passage through the streets excites no more remark than the common horse-drawn fiacre. . . . The number of automobiles daily traversing the Avenue des Champs Elysées is enormous. On February 2, 1908, between three and seven P.M., no fewer than 2,953 were counted, and on the eighth of the same month 3,430 was the total noted.

From Paris the infatuation for automobilism soon spread to the provinces; but, on comparing the number of tax-paying machines for the whole of France and for the Capital, the proportion for Paris is found to be always large. M. Payen gives some interesting figures showing the remarkable growth of this means of travel within the past ten years:

Year.	Number of automobiles.	
	All France.	Paris.
1899.....	1,672	288
1902.....	9,217	1,673
1907.....	31,286	6,101

The home demand for automobiles was sufficiently large to give a great impetus to the industry; but beyond this the excellence of the French machines soon attracted other countries as purchasers, and the exportation of automobiles became an important item in French commerce. The figures submitted by the *Economiste* writer are as follows: Value of exports for 1905, 100,521,000 francs; for 1906, 137,854,000 francs; for 1907, 144,352,000 francs. Great Britain, which is described as "a superb client for the French automobile industry," purchased from France machines to the value of 60,410,000 francs. Purchases by other countries were as follows:

	Francs.
Belgium.....	15,579,000
Germany.....	13,602,000
United States.....	10,872,000
Argentina.....	5,601,000
Brazil.....	4,467,000
Algeria.....	4,077,000
Italy.....	3,968,000
Switzerland.....	3,802,000
Spain.....	3,771,000
Egypt.....	3,330,000
Mexico.....	2,956,000

According to M. Payen, 947 automobiles were imported into the United States in the year 1908 from France, representing a value of 8,884,000 francs. In the same year England sold ninety-one machines and Germany but thirty-two to American purchasers.

M. Payen gives some other interesting figures showing the spread of automobilism throughout the world. In 1902, which was the first year in which the American customs authorities published any accounts of importations of automobiles, 205 machines were received from Europe. In 1907 the number had increased to 1,017. M. Payen remarks with reference to this fact: "This nation [the United States] is given over to automobilism; and if it purchases some machines from foreigners, it also builds large numbers at home. It is estimated that in the year ending December 31, 1907, it con-

structed and sold in that vast country so fewer than 52,302 automobiles *de luxe*." In Germany on January 1, 1908, there were 16,449 automobiles and 19,573 motorcycles. In Russia each year sees an appreciable progress. From thirty-five machines imported in 1902, the number increased to 257 in the first six months of 1907. In Rio de Janeiro in 1908 there were 415 automobiles; and as soon as better roads are provided in the environs of that city there will be a great increase in the number of machines. The Argentine Republic possessed, in 1907, 969 automobiles belonging to private individuals, besides 277 for hire; and even in the little republic of Uruguay, where three years ago there was not a single machine, there are now nearly 150. In Nova Scotia, where the roads are in a lamentable condition, 97 automobiles were recorded in the bureau of the secretary of the province at the commencement of this present year. In Norway these vehicles are becoming more and more popular. In Canada, on the other hand, in certain provinces where the roads are quite good, automobiles are comparatively rare. Even the Far East is falling in line; Bangkok in Siam has more than 300 machines.

It appears that in certain cases, in the desire to secure new markets, machines have been shipped to districts where roads were either lacking or in too rudimentary a condition for automobiling; and, says M. Payen, "photographs have been received exhibiting the poor automobiles in the act of being extricated from the mire by the assistance of oxen, the most ancient of all the draught animals." He adds:

The first condition requisite for the development of automobilism is good roads; the second, the presence in the population of persons of sufficient means to purchase, and especially to maintain in good order, these vehicles; the third, that the local regulations for automobiling shall not be too Draconian. As regards the last mentioned proviso, in Denmark, for instance, the maximum speed allowed is about 18½ miles an hour; and, moreover, the absolute prohibition against using automobiles after sundown is not likely to increase the number of purchasers.



FINANCE AND BUSINESS.

NOTES ON APPLIED ECONOMICS OF THE MONTH.

(Last year this space was devoted to a presentation and discussion inspired by the remarkable financial events of 1907. The increase of public interest in this underlying field of economics can be traced, not only through the attention given by the general press, but also through the recent founding of special schools of finance, administration, and commerce in leading universities, such as Harvard, Wisconsin, Dartmouth, New York, and Pennsylvania. Owing to the many-sided nature of the subject, comment in these columns upon the month's activities, the broad principles that underlie them, and their personal application, can better be given in the form of briefer notes.)

INVESTMENT BALANCE.

“PANICS are always the result of improper personal investment,—of putting all the eggs in one basket, and then fearing some one will kick the basket over.”

Sereno S. Pratt, secretary of the New York Chamber of Commerce, pointed out this public influence of the private investor in a lecture before the New York Y. M. C. A., delivered on the 7th of last month.

Three days later came an illustration from real life. A New York State trust company and two banks suspended. Their total deposits were about \$3,600,000. As much as \$700,000, it was reported, had been loaned on the notes of a single publishing company,—which could not pay.

Nearly one-fifth the eggs in one basket!

A big trust company in New York is now sound and prospering under sober, scientific management. Yet less than a year and a half ago it helped to precipitate a national panic,—not only because its own officers had been putting too much of its deposits into a single group of interests, but also because too many fellow institutions and fellow citizens had been doing likewise.

In contrast is the list Mr. Pratt read of the \$17,436,885 stocks and bonds owned by a certain corporation. Not that it was especially conservative; the company's president displayed “a manifest speculative tendency.”

Only 16.8 per cent. of the money was in bonds, and of the stocks less than half were strictly investment issues. The “guaranteed” issues were but 14.7 per cent. of the total stock holdings, the first class preferred stocks 17.1, and the high class bank stocks 5.1 per cent. This left 53.8 per cent. put into more or less uncertain “common” shares.

So the story might have been different

were it not for the extreme “distribution” observed. Ninety-one different securities were held. The average holding was \$191,000. Fifty-four were less than the average. And the largest single stock holding was 10,000 shares of Southern Pacific,—only 7 per cent. of the total. Thus the stocks showed a big net profit,—\$1,728,532.

Any curious reader can peruse more lists like the above by obtaining at the library the reports of the life insurance companies made to his State commissioner. One of the “Big Three” life companies has, among its railroad securities alone, the bonds and stocks of seventy-two different railroads.

Science cannot prevent death, nor the modern agriculture, drought. Peril is inherent in all human enterprise. “No insurance company would insure all the houses in one city. That would be gambling.”

Bank stock ranks high as a class. Yet Mr. Pratt recalled a Western town, centered industrially upon the fortunes of one mine, in which the deposits of a perfectly sound bank had fallen off so swiftly, owing to the mine's closing down, as to cut its profits to a fraction. The prosperity of another town, this time in New England, similarly hinged upon the activity of one big mill, and the stock of its bank also had proved an exceedingly uncertain dependence for income.

THE FEATS OF COMPOUND INTEREST.

LAST month a middle-aged German came into the office of this magazine with some investment questions. He was plainly dressed. Modestly and quietly he explained that he was a clerk in a savings bank and had put by a little something every year. He was going South to live. He wanted to take his money out of the bank and buy bonds.

Now the salaries of savings bank clerks in

New York State are proverbially low. It was entirely unexpected when the investor showed the amount he had saved as \$21,000.

Compound interest is a magician. There had been needed, to produce that \$21,000, only an average of \$393 put by each year for thirty years, and allowed to "cumulate" at the average rate of 3½ per cent.

The Labor Bureau of Massachusetts recently made an investigation into income, expenditure, and savings. Thirty out of every hundred people who were questioned confessed that they did not save. Here are the averages for the other 70 per cent.:

	Average income.	Aver. expenditure.	Average saving.
Bankers and brokers.....	\$7,726	\$5,338	\$2,388
Lawyers	4,169	2,685	1,474
Wholesale dealers.....	4,158	2,888	1,270
Physicians	3,907	3,190	717
Teachers	3,520	2,850	670
Manufacturers	3,516	1,974	1,532
Railroad officials.....	3,441	2,813	628
Commission merchants.....	3,394	2,527	867
Supts. of manuf. cos.....	3,262	2,533	729
Clergymen	3,150	2,581	569
Professors and tutors.....	2,878	2,335	543
Steamboat officials.....	2,529	1,926	603
Retail dealers.....	2,349	1,968	481
Express officials.....	1,906	1,647	259
Farmers	1,426	1,172	254

Take the teachers, for instance. Many of them must have been at work for as much as twenty-five years. Many of these must have been in communities where it is possible to get at least 5 per cent. on sound mortgages, local mill stock, and bank stock. Now their average saving of \$670 a year, invested at 5 per cent. and the interest reinvested at the same amount every year for twenty-five years, would amount to \$33,575.71.

How many Massachusetts teachers have \$33,000?

Even the farmer's \$254 a year would grow to \$12,728.70 within twenty-five years. And the clergyman's \$369 would make the snug fortune of \$18,491.69.

WHEAT AND OTHER CROPS.

NOW begins the annual anxiety as to crops, shared by investors and part-takers in affairs of every kind. More money in the farmer's purse means more travel for the railroads, more merchandise shipped back to the farmer, larger deposits in the bank,—prosperity.

Wheat, indeed, was a national topic last month. By the 17th the "crusade," conducted by newspapers of large circulation against the speculators for higher wheat prices, had become bitter and sweeping. Bakers were reducing the size of loaves. A bill was introduced in the House by Repre-

sentative Scott, of Kansas, to prohibit dealing in "futures" in grain, cotton, and other farm products.

Prices cannot escape values permanently. No "corner" yet devised has kept a commodity, for long, much above the price at which the world markets will take it. In so far as Mr. Patten and his associates saw conditions first, they are entitled to some profit. Those conditions can be summed up by the word "uncertain."

The Government crop report on winter wheat, issued the second week in April, was better than expected, though, of course, behind last year's.

The condition of wheat for April 1 is reported at 82.2. This is far below 91.3 for a year ago, but less than half as far below the ten-year average,—86.6. This is calculated on December 1 of each year. The 1908 figure for December 1 was only 85.03.

The drop of 6 per cent. between the April and December figures for 1908 is the sort of thing that occurs most years. The new system of figuring by which this year's April figures were reached attempts to anticipate this difference by averaging the reductions over a period of years. Thus the comparison is not as unfavorable as it seems at first.

More than 436,000,000 bushels are indicated by the old basis, and more than 373,500,000 by the new. The former would be not two million bushels less than the 1908 crop, and smaller than three only out of the last ten.

Rye is reported at 87.2. This compares with 89.1 last April and 87.6 last December. The yield this year may be more than thirty millions of bushels.

Both corn and oats show prospects for greatly increased acreage.

BUSINESS.

CAREFUL students of business see more encouragement than otherwise in the prevailing quiet mixed with confidence. Things cannot be worse than the worst.

Transportation seems ahead of manufacturing and trade. The *Railroad Age Gazette* feels reassured by the recent improvement in the earnings which in December, 1907, were "chopped off as by an ax." Wages and supplies could not be quickly reduced; so forces, maintenance, and operations had to be.

If prices and wages generally are to be lowered and demand consequently increased,

it will certainly mean more business for the railroads. Whether in the case of industries other than railroads, the contraction is more ahead than behind, is the question now.

That "genuine tariff reduction would start two wheels going for every one it would stop," is the broad view taken by Byron W. Holt, one of the editors of *Moody's Magazine*. If "genuine," tariff reduction would mean wage and price reduction also.

It is hard to persuade workmen that it is really best for the country for them to accept less wages, particularly since the price of commodities in general has advanced more than 50 per cent. in the last ten years.

It is entirely possible, however, that the reductions of the tariff bill will represent such delicate compromises that few business men will find their arrangements immediately and violently disturbed.

CAUTIOUS IMPROVEMENT.

IN spite of the caution apparent in most directions, last week showed real improvement in typical affairs.

Business failures have been growing less. *Dun's* classification for the month of March, published on the 9th of last month, embraces, as usual, thirty-one causes of failures. And twenty-three of these involve less liabilities than in 1908; while in 1908 there were only three classes that reported less than in 1907. About the same results appear if one takes the first quarter of the year for a comparison.

Post-office receipts are swelling. At New York City they were 16.9 better for March than a year ago, and 12½ per cent. better than in 1907.

Then there was actually 88 per cent. more building in the first quarter of 1909 than there was in 1908, and 15 per cent. more than in 1907. "It is indisputable," says the *New York Times* of April 9, "that people do not sink good, free money in bricks and mortar unless the spirit of hope is strong."

Immigrants to the number of 31,781 arrived in New York during the week ending April 3. A year ago the movement was practically as great the other way. If there were no jobs for these thousands, the stream would soon dry up.

A picturesque item comes from the gem trade. During March, 1909, \$3,353,407.97 worth of precious stones and pearls passed through the Appraisers' Stores in New York, —nearly nine times the importations of March, 1908. Jewels usually hint at surplus

money. The demand for them is one of the latest to come with prosperity.

The final test, of course, is bank clearings. The total of check-exchanges for 1909 has been less so far than for 1907, but more than for 1908; even though there was much less in the checks of enormous amounts that are handed around as a result of activity on the Stock Exchange. Transactions there for March were less than for five years past.

At the same time, bond dealings were much heavier than last year,—\$84,000,000 for the month as against only \$63,000,000.

Less money in trade and speculation,—more in investment securities,—thus is illustrated the country's attitude of waiting.

OUR MONEY SYSTEM.

A "LEADING ARTICLE" in the April issue reported the success of the Mexican "natural" currency, which contracts and expands in relation to business. Later there was excellently demonstrated the absurdity of our own reverse system.

The Comptroller of the Currency's report showed that during March our circulation increased by \$10,553,505. Yet money was going begging in New York at less than 2 per cent. Gold is being rushed to England to get as much as 2½ per cent. In many principal sections of the country, bankers are searching for anybody honest and sound enough to lend money to at almost any rate.

A broader view is even more discouraging. While we have \$6,000,000 less circulation than last year, total, we have lost \$33,000,000 in the real basis of that money,—gold. The difference has been made up by silver dollars and bank notes. Of the increase during March, for instance, fully \$6,000,000 consisted of national bank notes.

Here is a great check to enterprise. Suppose crops turn out plentiful and trade and transportation profitable. More money will be called for, and the rate of discount will be raised to uncomfortable heights, as in the past, to attract the gold back again. Money will be needed and bank notes will be scarce. Another panic, crisis, and depression will be in order.

Meanwhile, the country is flooded with notes that it does not need.

How stable are the interest rates in civilized foreign countries was recently pointed out by Charles A. Conant. The factor is the central-bank of issue, which is the rule abroad. The highest discount rate in his-

tory for the German Reichsbank is $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The highest recently for the Bank of France is 5 per cent. The highest for a generation in the Bank of England is 7 per cent.

Now compare American interest rates for the fall of 1907 with the present.

"Do not blame the banks,—blame the system,"—said Frank A. Vanderlip, president of the National City Bank of New York, to the *Journal of Commerce* last month.

His own institution, the largest in the country, is powerful enough to take a scientific and broad view of banking. Consequently, its circulation last month was lower than in several years. Most banks, however, are not in a position to forego profits. Therefore, when the Treasury called for the surrender of \$10,000,000 deposits, and the banks found on their hands an equal amount of bonds which had been put up as security for those deposits, they naturally used the bonds as a basis for more circulation. They did not want to sell them, because they had been largely bought at higher prices.

The Currency Committee, of which Senator Aldrich is chairman, will not be able to resume its work until the tariff is out of the way. It has a mission vital to the prosperity of the country.

PROSPEROUS TROLLEYS.

THE nickels that trolley car conductors collected last year add up pleasingly and instructively.

Street and electric railways actually made more money in 1908 than they did in 1907. They took in $\frac{2}{3}$ of 1 per cent. more,—not much, but still more,—and there was 2.65 per cent. additional net income for their bond and stock holders. Compare what happened to the steam roads,—a loss of 12 per cent. in gross and 7 per cent. in net.

These figures gather interest for more than holders of street railway bonds and stocks, as soon as one begins to separate the items. It seems that not all the roads increased their earnings by any means. Several were hit as badly as the steam roads. And they were mostly small lines in small localities where "the activities of the entire population are bound up in *some one branch or division of trade.*"

Here is more evidence for the principle of investment distribution. The quotation is from the *Financial Chronicle* of April 10, which gathered the figures for 203 roads.

In most of the larger cities, where population is dense and where there is much accumulated wealth and where trade activity is not exclusively dependent upon a single industry or a single group of industries, electric railway earnings have held up remarkably well, and in some instances actually record expansion over the previous year.

A small trolley line may offer bonds as safe as a large one, but rarely so unless its patrons are commercially diverse.

The advantage of the electric over the steam road is that most of its earnings, in many cases all, are from passengers. This is always the most stable kind of transportation. Yet the unique New Haven gets less than half its revenue from passengers; while even so prosperous a road as the Union Pacific gets less than 1-5. It is the passenger earnings that hold steadiest in good times and bad.

Its figures, the *Chronicle* explains, cannot include all the undertakings of this sort. Some, like the Cleveland Electric and the United Rys. of Baltimore, do not furnish data. Others, like the United of San Francisco and Cincinnati Traction, gave figures only for gross. Here are the figures:

	1907.	1908.
Gross	\$278,387,557	\$280,262,681
Net	114,406,399	117,441,782

Not only trolley lines, but telephone, electric lighting, gas, and all the other public utilities have "arrived" as investment offering enterprises since last year.

The steadiness of the earnings behind their securities has left no doubt that the best of them are now to be considered with the farm mortgage, the steam railroad bond, the steady dividend-paying stock, and the other accepted American investments.

RAILWAY DEPRESSION.

WHAT depression did to the railways can be read from the report published on the 13th of last month by the Bureau of Railway News and Statistics in Chicago. The calculation is made for the year ending November 30, 1908. This included the worst months of the depression. The loss for the period was \$330,000,000,—more than twice as much as the loss for the year ending June 30 last, which was used as a basis by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

Passengers, as suggested in the preceding article, held up remarkably well. The average distance traveled was 33.57 miles instead of 51.72 the year preceding. But there were only about $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. less passengers car-

ried. The actual figures are 854,255,537 against 873,905,133 the year before. The revenue from passengers, however, suffered more in proportion, owing to the two-cent and other passenger rate laws.

Some good was blown by this ill wind to those passengers, employees, and trespassers who might have been killed with greater railroad activity. The number of fatalities fell from 11,656 to 10,264.

ASSESSMENTS OF STOCKHOLDERS.

THE best thing that can be said about the assessments on stockholders following the 1907 crisis is that there have been so few of them. Among the railroads, the only one of much concern to the public that has called on its stockholders for cash so far is the Chicago Great Western.

Only four more railroads of wide importance are in the hands of receivers. The Wabash-Pittsburg Terminal is expected to scale down its second mortgage bonds, and possibly the first. New Englanders own a great many of these securities.

There may be no assessments on the Western Maryland and the Wheeling & Lake Erie stocks; or even on those of the Seaboard Air Line. It has recently been announced that the company was earning more than its fixed charges.

A curious fact emerges from a study of the big assessments in the gloomy years between '93 and '98, when seven leading American railroads asked their stockholders to pay up or get out,—the Atchison, B. & O., Reading, Erie, Northern Pacific, Southern, Union Pacific. The amounts varied from \$20 a share on Reading common to \$10 a share on Southern common. Four of the roads called on the holders of the preferreds also.

Yet all the stocks of the above roads were quoted in the open market, within six months after reorganization, at a price *nearly equal to the assessment and the previous market quotation put together*. In the case of the B. & O., it amounted to much more. The figures have been brought to light by Stuart Daggett, in his careful work on "Railroad Reorganization."

If the reader happens to be one of those who paid the assessments on any of these stocks, and held on, his profits are extraordinary. Atchison, now above par, was only $5\frac{3}{4}$ one month after reorganization. Northern Pacific, now 140, was $1\frac{1}{2}$; Union Pacific, now nearly 190, was only $10\frac{1}{8}$.

The present crop of financial writers declare that Great Western has no such possibilities as Reading or Union Pacific. The road will have to earn \$10,000,000 barely to pay the 5 per cent. dividend on the *new* preferred stock. The holder of the present common stock has to pay \$1500 on every hundred shares, and only gets fifteen shares of preferred. Since the most the road ever did earn was a little over \$9,000,000, and since the present rate is even less, it would seem, indeed, as if the holders of Great Western common would have a "long pull" before the forty shares of *new* common (which they will receive if they pay up) will be a dividend producer.

Moreover, the Great Western's chief claim to fame has always been its "nuisance value," its power for disturbing the rates of more powerful neighbors. It is more completely shut in than ever, now that the Canadian Pacific system has captured the Wisconsin Central.

Yet a good many American railroads have surprised their critics in the past.

INVESTMENT FROM ABROAD.

"WHEN I am buying gilt-edge bonds for myself, I always pick out those that have a foreign market."

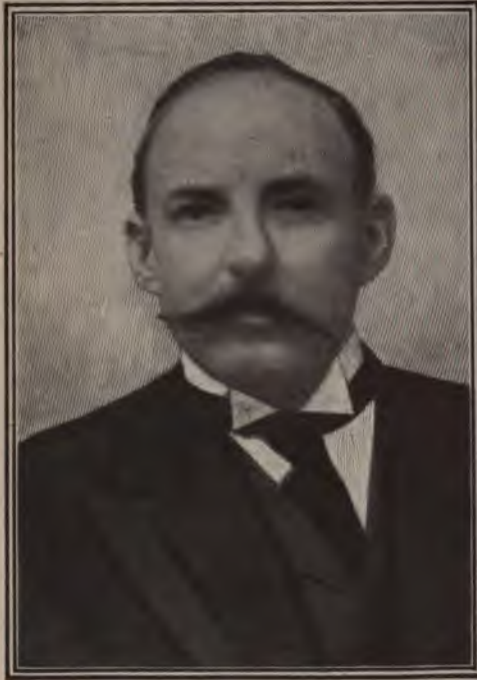
The clever bond-dealer who gave this hint last month has shown good judgment for many years in picking out railroad issues that yield more than 4 per cent.,—in some cases 6, and averaging perhaps 5.

But when he does tuck something away in the 4 per cent. "savings bank" kind of bond, he gets an issue that is salable not only in New York, but also in London, Amsterdam, Frankfort, Berlin, and Paris. To that extent its emergency selling price is just so much less dependent upon the degree of prosperity and of bond buying within the United States.

The above comes to mind on reading a report by Franklin Escher in *Moody's Magazine* for April. The Government had asked him to ascertain, if possible, the amount of American securities held abroad. He therefore examined the coupon collections of several old established American banking houses with international connections.

"Year by year, the same clientele abroad sends over for collection more coupons. The deduction is obvious." More bonds are being held in foreign strong boxes than ever before.

MARION CRAWFORD, THE NOVELIST.



F. MARION CRAWFORD.
(Born August 2, 1854; died April 9, 1909.)

AT once the most prolific and the most cosmopolitan of American novelists, Francis Marion Crawford, who died at Sorrento, Italy, on April 9, had won and kept his fame simply by his marvelous gifts as a story-teller. Excelling in descriptive power, Crawford despised the cult of realism in fiction. He told the story for the story's sake. His pictures of certain European cities were so minutely faithful to detail that they have served the traveler as guides; but their accuracy was as spontaneous as anything else that went into the Crawford books. Those street scenes formed the backgrounds of vivid mental photographs. They were essential to the narrative, not merely the stage accessories. The author's brain was peopled with more heroes and heroines than could be projected on his canvas, rapidly as he worked. Some of Crawford's contemporaries, it is well known, have toiled painfully to create characters to fit mechanically devised plots. In the case of Crawford's stories, on the other hand, plots and characters were inseparable, and the combination was rarely so improbable or fantastic as to appear artificial. In a very real sense, Crawford's stories were a part of himself.

What manner of man, then, was this American who knew his Rome as few Italians know it and his New York better than many New Yorkers? He was a citizen of the world with-

out losing his Americanism. As a boy he knew a half-dozen European languages; in early manhood he mastered Russian, Turkish, and finally Sanskrit and Hindustani. Born in Italy, he was educated partly in America and partly in England and Germany. His father, Thomas Crawford, was the sculptor of "Liberty" on the dome of the Capitol at Washington. His mother was a sister of Julia Ward Howe and a descendant of Gen. Francis Marion, of the Army of the Revolution. Although most of his life was passed in foreign lands, Francis Marion Crawford could not, if he would, have freed himself from the influence of American tradition.

Crawford made his way to India and for a time edited the *Indian Herald* at Alahabad. He soon tired of journalism, however, and returned to Italy. After recovering his health by outdoor life in the Abruzzi, he worked his way to America on a tramp steamer and continued his study of Sanskrit at Harvard University.

At twenty-eight Crawford was in New York, without definite occupation or aims, when his telling of a story that he had gathered on his travels in India made such an impression on his uncle, the famous "Sam" Ward, that he was urged by that excellent judge of human nature to write a novel. "Mr. Isaacs" was the result of a month's work. After its rejection by two of the New York magazines the manuscript was sent to the house of Macmillan in London and accepted. Before he had learned the fate of "Mr. Isaacs," Crawford had written another story, "Dr. Claudius," and this was speedily followed by a third, "A Roman Singer." All three were successful,—the first brilliantly so in England as well as America. Crawford's career was now marked out for him. Before he had passed his fortieth year eighteen of his novels had been published and, at the time of his death, after twenty-seven years of writing, there was a list of forty titles accredited to him in the publishers' catalogues. Of these works it is stated that 2,000,000 copies have been sold.

In addition to his novels Mr. Crawford wrote one play, "Francesca da Rimini," which was produced at Paris by Sarah Bernhardt in 1902; but he himself regarded historical writing as his most important calling. At the time of his death he was engaged upon a "History of Rome in the Middle Ages." His "Rulers of the South," published several years ago, is an admirable account of the development of southern Italy.

The distinctive quality in all of Mr. Crawford's work is the sympathetic treatment of the human materials. Few Americans have known intimately so many peoples. None has yet arisen who has been able to picture so effectively other civilizations than our own. Equally at home in Europe, the Orient, and the United States, Mr. Crawford wrote with as full a sympathy and as quick a comprehension of one nationality as of another. It was a marvelous gift, and we must only regret that its master did not live to employ it with even greater success in the service of formal history.

For the past twenty-five years Mr. Crawford

had lived most of the time at Sorrento, where he had a villa overlooking the Bay of Naples. A widow and four children survive him.

Mr. Crawford's chief works are: "Mr. Isaacs," 1882; "Dr. Claudius," 1883; "A Roman Singer," 1884; "To Leeward," 1884; "An American Politician," 1884; "Zoroaster," 1885; "A Tale of a Lonely Parish," 1886; "Marzio's Crucifix," 1887; "Paul Patoff," 1887; "Sarcinesca," 1887; "With the Immortals," 1888; "Grifenstein," 1889; "Sant' Ilario," 1889; "A Cigarette Maker's Romance," 1890; "Khaled," 1891; "The Witch of Prague," 1891; "The Three Fates," 1892; "The Children of the King," 1892; "Don Orsino," 1892; "Marion Darche," 1893; "Pietro Ghisleri," 1893; "The

Novel—What It Is," 1893; "Katherine Lauderdale," 1894; "Love in Idleness," 1894; "The Ralstons," 1894; "Constantinople," 1895; "Casa Braccio," 1895; "Adam Johnstones' Son," 1895; "Takisara," 1896; "A Rose of Yesterday," 1897; "Corleone," 1897; "Ave Roma Immortalis," 1898; "Via Crucis," 1899; "In the Palace of the King," 1900; "The Rulers of the South," 1900; "Maria, a Maid of Venice," 1901; "Cecilia, a Story of Modern Rome," 1902; "The Heart of Rome," 1903; "Whosoever Shall Offend," 1904; "Soprano, a Portrait," 1905; "Venetian Gleanings," 1905; "A Lady of Rome," 1906; "Arethusa," 1907; "The Little City of Hope," 1907, and "Francesca da Rimini" (play), 1902.

SWINBURNE, THE LAST OF THE VICTORIAN POETS.

IN all English literature it would be difficult to find any poet who attained such eminence as Swinburne in the technical management of verse. The aged novelist, George Meredith, who was a lifelong friend of the late poet, in a tribute at the funeral characterized Swinburne as "the most spontaneous singer of all England's children."

With the death of Algernon Charles Swinburne there passes the last surviving member of the group of great Victorian poets. For more than a quarter of a century the poet had been living in retirement with his artist friend, Theodore Watts-Dunton, at Putney. Little known to the public and making but few contributions to published verse during the later years of his life, Swinburne nevertheless was not a recluse. He was interested in all kinds of sports, particularly swimming, in which he excelled. The entire life and social standing of the man were unhampered by the necessity to work or do anything for which he had no taste. Although born in London he could not be called a Londoner, since his father, Charles Henry Swinburne, an admiral in the British Navy, and his mother, a daughter of the Earl of Ashburnham, were both "North Countree" people. Young Swinburne's education began at Eton and was finished at Oxford, where, at Baliol, he became a prominent figure in the literary life of the community as a companion to William Morris, Edward Burne-Jones, and Dante Gabriel Rossetti. A continental tour, partly in the company of Walter Savage-Landor, finished his educational period and brought him back a classical scholar.

His first poetic productions, including two plays entitled "The Queen Mother" and "Rosamond," made no special impression. In 1864, however, upon the publication of his "Atalanta in Calydon," a tragedy, he became known at once as a poet of the first rank. The extraordinary command of language evinced in this production, the mastery of versification, and the beauty of its songs and choruses made Swinburne recognized as a really great master of English verse. Of this poem it was said by an English critic, summing up the general mature comment on all of Swinburne's work:

"He is a singer and has made poetry almost as sensuously emotional and imaginative as music. . . . His verse enters the soul, not by the avenue of the eye, but by the avenue of the ear; not like the colored song of Milton or Shakespeare, Keats, or Wordsworth, but like the symphonies and sonnets, the operas and oratorios of the great musical composers. Other poetry may be read by the eye; his must be read by the ear."



ALGERNON CHARLES SWINBURNE.

(Born April 5, 1837; died April 10, 1909.)

The charm, perfect mechanism, and lyric sweetness of his verse may be seen to the full in the exquisite poem, "A Match," which has been called one of the dozen perfect poems in the language. Four stanzas are given below:

"If love were what the rose is,
And I were like the leaf,
Our lives would grow together
In sad or singing weather,
Blown fields or flowerful closes,
Green pleasure or gray grief;
If love were what the rose is,
And I were like the leaf.

"If I were what the words are,
And love were like the tune,
With double sound and single
Delight our lips would mingle,
With kisses glad as birds are
That get sweet rain at noon;
If I were what the words are,
And love were like the tune.

"If you were life, my darling,
And I your love were death,
We'd shine and snow together
Ere March made sweet the weather
With daffodil and starling
And hours of fruitful breath;
If you were life, my darling,
And I your love were death.

"If you were thrall to sorrow,
And I were page to joy,
We'd play for lives and seasons
With loving looks and treasons
And tears of night and morrow
And laughs of maid and boy;
If you were thrall to sorrow,
And I were page to joy.

The other notable poetic works of Swinburne which must not be forgotten in even the briefest sketch are: "Chastelard," a play; "Mary Stuart"; "Songs Before Sunrise"; "Erechthus," a drama on the classical model; "Marino Faliero," a dramatic poem of medieval Venice; "Tristram of Lyonesse," a long narrative poem; and "Laus Veneris."

Swinburne was buried in the little churchyard of Bonchurch, in the Isle of Wight, on April 15. Other poets may have accomplished greater things during his lifetime, and there may be some things to be censured in his methods and themes, but, says the literary critic of the *New York Evening Post*, "Algernon Charles Swinburne cannot be deprived of the honor of being the greatest master of musical words in the nineteenth century." Before his advent, said the American critic, Edmund Clarence Stedman, "no one realized the full scope of verse."

BOOKS OF OUTDOOR LIFE.

FOUR books of mild adventure have recently come from the press. The joy of the out-of-doors breathes from the pages of all of them. Scientific results are only incidental; practical achievement is subordinate. The authors of these books have written first of all stories of adventure in sections of our own country where nature is untamed and, if uncouth, yet alluring and health-giving. Mr. Sternberg¹ is one of the oldest and best-known of the investigators of fossil life. He has contributed to science some of its finest specimens from Kansas, Texas, and Oregon. Mr. Mills² in his "business hours" conducts Long's Peak Inn, in Colorado, and in his "idle moments" takes "interstate tramps." He is United States forest agent in Colorado, and he knows his territory thoroughly. The "Fish Stories"³ Mr. Holder and Professor Jordan give us they characterize as "alleged and experienced, with a little history natural and unnatural." They decline to give themselves the trouble of adducing proof of the truth of these, for, as Professor Jordan puts it in his preface, "a fish story needs no apology, and no affidavit or string of affidavits can add anything to its credibility." The various writers who contribute to the Harper book of "Adventures in Field and Forest"⁴ have told some stirring tales of out-of-door adventures in facing wild beasts and of hunting in

the wilderness. Their field has been not only the United States, but South America, the West Indies, Africa, India, and other untamed sections of the earth's surface.

Dr. Frank H. Knowlton's⁵ "Birds of the World" is the third issued of the American Nature Series which is being brought out by Holt. The entire series is, we are informed, divided into six categories, entitled, respectively: Natural history, classification of nature, functions of nature, working with nature, diversions from nature, and the philosophy of nature. The volume on birds, which is written in a plain, simple, popular style, contains sixteen colored plates and 236 illustrations. Dr. Knowlton, of the United States National Museum, is a member of many learned bodies throughout the world, including the American Ornithologists' Union. The present volume includes also a chapter on the anatomy of birds, by Frederic A. Lucas, curator-in-chief of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences, and the whole is edited by Robert Ridgway, curator of birds in the United States National Museum. The method of treatment not only includes scientific accuracy and comprehensiveness, but supplies that information which the general reader is likely to require concerning the habits and distribution of, it may be said, every known member of the bird family.

¹The Life of a Fossil Hunter. By Charles H. Sternberg. Holt. 288 pp., ill. \$1.60.

²Wild Life on the Rockies. By Enos A. Mills. Houghton Mifflin Company. 263 pp., ill. \$1.75.

³Fish Stories. By Frederick Holder and David Starr Jordan. Holt. 336 pp., ill. \$1.75.

⁴Adventures in Field and Forest. By Frank H. Spearman, Harold Martin, F. S. Palmer, William Drysdale, and others. Harpers. 212 pp., ill. 60 cents.

⁵Birds of the World. By Frank H. Knowlton, Ph.D. Holt. 873 pp., ill. \$7.

Both Mr. Roberts¹ and Mr. Thompson-Seton² have a remarkable faculty for writing fascinating animal biographies. The exactness of science and the sympathy and appeal of literary flavor characterize these little volumes, which ought to be of special interest to younger people. Mr. Roberts' volume is one story embodying various phases in the life of that wonderful little animal, the beaver. The adventures of "The Boy" and the beaver make very good reading. Mr. Thompson-Seton's story, which by the way is seductively illustrated from his own drawings, is the story of "Domino Reynard, of Goldur Town." The purpose is, he tells us, "to show the man-world how the fox-world lives," and above all "to advertise and emphasize the beautiful monogamy of the better-class fox."

A "complete handbook of practical and profitable poultry-keeping for the great army of beginners and small breeders," by R. B. Sando,³ is illustrated from photographs, most of them taken by the author. The general theme is a discussion of the question, Is there profit in raising poultry?

A copiously illustrated monograph on "The Development of the Chick," by Frank R. Lillie,⁴ is subtitled "An Introduction to Embryology." While exhaustive and painfully erudite in detail, the work is not technical in expression and is easily intelligible to the general reader as well as to the student of embryology.

Miss Kate V. Saint Maur,⁵ the author of "A Self-Supporting Home," has written a sequel to that very sensible and practical treatise, entitled "The Earth's Bounty." In the present volume are embodied the results of a rather ex-

tensive and diversified farming experience. Readers who are at all interested in practical agriculture may profit from many of the suggestions contained in this volume, and we are sure that all who read "A Self-Supporting Home" will be interested in tracing the subsequent fortunes of the author.

The scientific aspects of Luther Burbank's⁶ work in plant culture are attractively treated by President David Starr Jordan and Prof. Vernon L. Kellogg in an illustrated volume which comes to us from a San Francisco publishing house. Mr. Burbank's fame as a plant "wizard" has been so thoroughly exploited in the popular magazines and the newspapers that it is a real relief to find his work taken seriously and analyzed in a scientific spirit by men who thoroughly appreciate its possibilities.

A new edition of Professor Ganong's⁷ "Laboratory Course in Plant Physiology" has been expanded into a handbook for the use of students and teachers in botanical work. It is the hope of the author that the book may be used as a guide to self-education by ambitious teachers or students. The book has been thoroughly tested in educational work and is certainly an important addition to the equipment of any college course in botany.

Superintendent Meier's⁸ "Plant Study" is another valuable aid to the botanical student, especially in the elementary work.

Mr. Edward Step,⁹ the author of a number of volumes on particular plants of England, has written "Wayside and Woodland Ferns: a Pocket Guide to the British Ferns, Horsetails, and Club-Mosses."

¹ The House in the Water. By Charles G. D. Roberts. L. C. Page & Co. 304 pp., ill. \$1.50.

² The Biography of a Silver Fox. By Ernest Thompson-Seton. Century. 209 pp., ill. \$1.50.

³ American Poultry Culture. By R. B. Sando. New York: Outing Company. 265 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁴ The Development of the Chick. By Frank R. Lillie. Holt. 472 pp., ill. \$4.

⁵ The Earth's Bounty. By Kate V. Saint Maur. Macmillan. 430 pp., ill. \$1.75.

⁶ The Scientific Aspects of Luther Burbank's Work. By David Starr Jordan and Vernon Lyman Kellogg. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. 115 pp., ill. \$1.75.

⁷ Plant Physiology. By William F. Ganong. Holt. 265 pp., ill. \$1.75.

⁸ Plant Study and Plant Description. By W. H. D. Meier. Ginn & Co. 75 cents.

⁹ Wayside and Woodland Ferns. By Edward Step. New York: Frederick Warne & Co. 137 pp., ill. \$2.25.

OTHER BOOKS OF THE MONTH.

The Great Lakes. By James Oliver Curwood. Putnams. 227 pp., ill. \$3.50.

The Story of the Great Lakes. By Edward Channing and Marion F. Lansing. Macmillan. 398 pp., ill. \$1.50.

Of these two volumes one is largely historical, while the other is more largely concerned with the commerce and traffic of the Lakes at the present time. Many well-traveled Americans have never made the tour of our inland seas from Buffalo to Duluth or Chicago. To such we commend Mr. Curwood's entertaining description of the modern passenger traffic of the Lakes, and possibly they will be surprised by the statistics that he gives of the freight tonnage.

When Railroads Were New. By Charles Frederick Carter. Holt. 324 pp., ill. \$2.

This book is not a history of the development of railroad finance or railroad exploitation, but

the fascinating story of the struggles, the fantastic failures, and the final triumphs of the pioneer railroad builders. The author tells us that he attempts to follow the history of those railroads "which best typify the processes of evolution under characteristic circumstances up to the point where the story ceases to be romantic and begins to be commercial and commonplace." There is an introductory note by Logan G. McPherson, lecturer on transportation at Johns Hopkins University.

England and the English, from an American Point of View. By Price Collier. Scribners. 434 pp. \$1.50.

One of the most thought-provoking, stimulating, and keen analyses of the English character we have ever seen. Mr. Collier's style is very graphic and suggestive. His comparisons of English and American life and temperament cannot fail to be highly interesting and profit-

able to American readers. The sum and substance of it all, he tells us, is: "The world belongs to him who takes it, and the Englishman takes it with a confidence and nonchalance that one cannot help admiring. . . . He holds that his business in the world is not necessarily to succeed, but to continue to fail, if necessary, in good spirits." The chapter headings clearly indicate the scope and character of the book. They are: "First Impressions," "Who Are the English?" "The Land of Compromise," "English Home Life," "Are the English Dull?" "Sport," "Ireland," "An English Country Town," and "Society."

Greatness and Decline of Rome, Vol. V. By Guglielmo Ferrero. Putnams. 371 pp. \$2.50.

This fifth and last volume of Signor Ferrero's monumental work considers "The Republic of Augustus," bringing the history down to the year A. D. 14. In noticing the preceding volumes of this work as issued in the authorized English translation by Dr. Chaytor (I., "The Empire Builders"; II., "Julius Cæsar"; III., "The Fall of An Aristocracy"; and IV., "Rome and Egypt") we have expressed the pleasure and appreciation we believe the historical student cannot fail to gain from Signor Ferrero's largeness of vision, sound scholarship, sense of proportion, and power to measure life that has been by his observation of life that is. The present volume, like all the others, gives us considerable vivid interpretation of documents and presents vignette pictures of Roman life and some of the greatest personalities of Roman history. This Italian scholar certainly knows how to make history interesting. Of particular interest and historical value, we think, is the chapter entitled "The Great Social Laws of the Year 18 B. C." The translation, as in the case of the other volumes, is by the Rev. H. C. Chaytor, head master of Plymouth College.

Une Campagne de Vingt-et-Un Ans (1887-1908). By Pierre de Coubertin. Paris: Librairie de l'Éducation Physique. 220 pp.

In this earnest, straightforward description of "A Campaign of Twenty-one Years," Baron Coubertin tells the story of what he calls the battle for physical education, not only in France, but in the rest of the world as well, a battle in which he has borne such a distinguished and efficient part. In the early chapters there is a consideration of the early days of physical training in England, with affectionate tribute paid to Master Thomas Arnold, of Rugby. Baron Coubertin, however, soon passes to the activities of the movement on his native soil, and in succeeding chapters carries the story through the Olympic contests up to the fourth Olympic Games held in London last year. The volume is copiously illustrated.

Discourses and Sermons. By Cardinal Gibbons. Baltimore: John Murphy Company. 531 pp. \$1.

This is a series of simple, sincere, and earnest sermons "for Sunday and the principal festivals of the year." The volume contains

matter on every subject upon which the Catholic pastor is expected to speak to his people.

Life's Day: Outposts and Danger Signals in Health. By William Seaman Bainbridge, M.D. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company. 308 pp. \$1.35.

In this forcibly but smoothly written little volume Dr. Bainbridge has given us a really helpful manual of health. The book is made up of a series of lectures delivered at Chautauqua by Dr. Bainbridge and is really the answers to questions which have been put to this physician in the course of a long and successful practice. Special attention is paid to the critical periods of life, from infancy to old age, while at the same time the author does not advocate any fads or "movements."

America at College, As Seen by a Scots Graduate. By Robert K. Risk. Glasgow: John Smith & Son. 214 pp. 90 cents.

These observations of various American colleges and universities, frankly set forth, are both entertaining and profitable. Mr. Risk seems to have been powerfully impressed by the material resources of some of our universities, but he does not permit himself to be blinded to certain deficiencies. This canny Scot glories in the traditions of Scotland's ancient seats of learning, and he evidently believes that America has some things yet to learn. Thus he is quite ready to admit that his country has nothing at all like Cornell,—"a useful form of words," he says, "which conveys hearty compliment, and yet leaves room for mental reservations!"

The Churches and the Wage Earners. By C. Bertrand Thompson, Scribners. 229 pp. \$1.

Mr. Thompson has addressed himself to the specific problem of the gulf existing to-day between the masses of the laboring people and the churches. After a survey of the extent of this alienation, its causes and results, this writer offers a definite program under the heading "What to Do." His conclusion is that the old methods and ideas of the churches have failed and must be changed to conform with the predominant social interests of the day. In short, the churches must be thoroughly socialized. If this means that many of the old dogmas must be sacrificed, then Mr. Thompson would say, Let them go, since the preservation of religion itself is at stake.

Accounts: Their Construction and Interpretation. By William Morse Cole. Houghton Mifflin Company. 345 pp. \$2.

In this volume, which is intended for business men and students of affairs generally, Mr. Cole (assistant professor of accounting in Harvard University) maintains that "the average business man does not know what things cost him." Therefore, he says, the need of a book of this sort, in which accounting is presented as a scientific analysis and a record of business transactions. The book is divided into two general parts,—first, the principles of bookkeeping; second, the principles of accounting. There are appendices and a copious index.

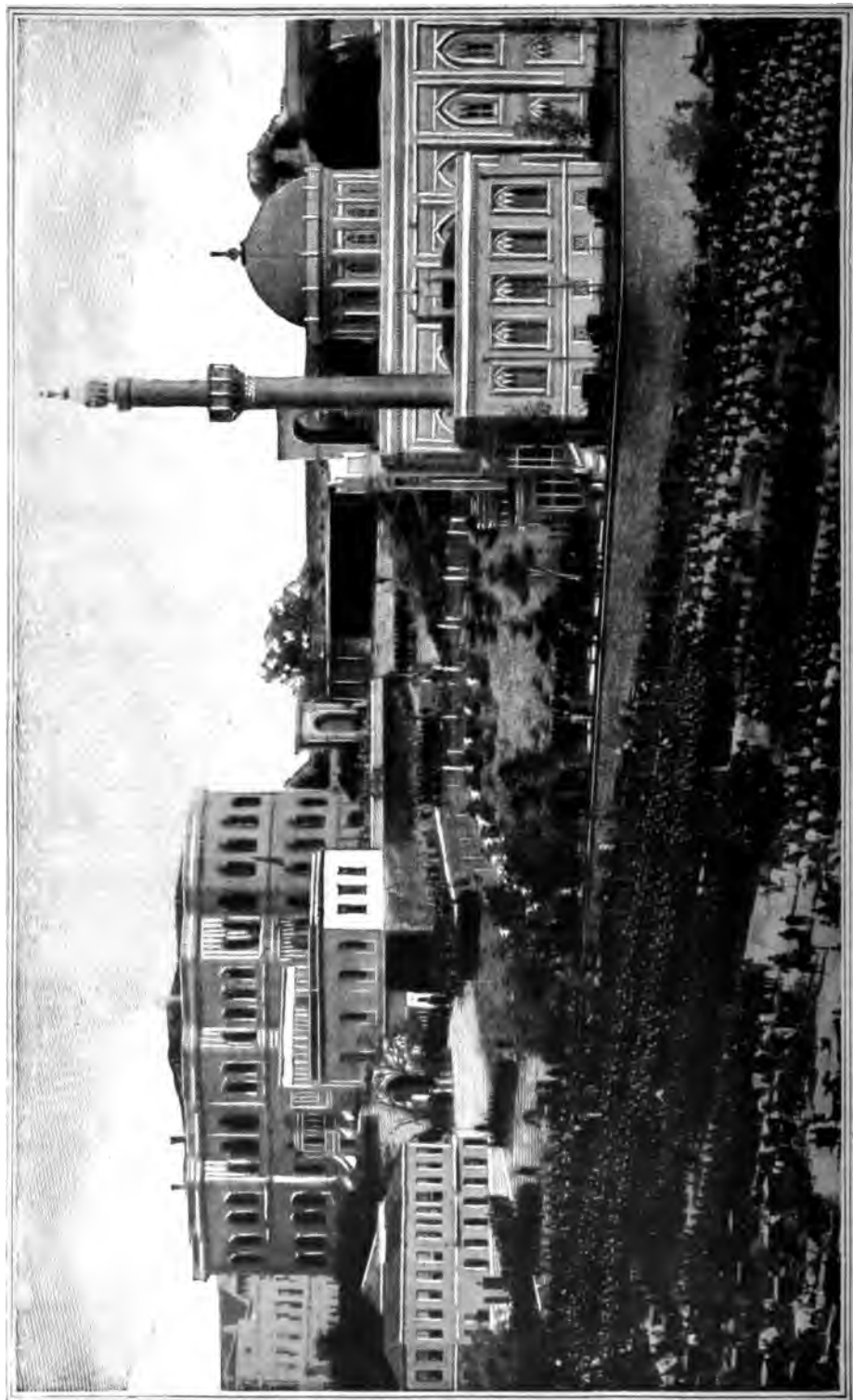
THE AMERICAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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A VIEW OF CONSTANTINOPLE LOOKING TOWARD THE YILDIZ KIOSK AND THE IMPERIAL MOSQUE.

(This view of the Imperial palace,—known as the Yildiz Kiosk, Palace of the Star,—is from a photograph taken on Friday, April 16, the day of Abdul Hamid's last Sema, or weekly service of prayer.)

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No. 6.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

*Western
Prog-
ress.*

The people of the Northwest are unusually intelligent, and they are provided with their news by an alert local press. And so they did not fail to read about the great financial panic of the autumn of 1907, and have been kept posted from time to time about the country's slow and painful recovery through the period of depression that has followed the violent attack of more than a year and a half ago. But most of these Northwestern people have been fortunate enough to read about hard times as a thing that affected others rather than themselves. The general course of prosperity has not been much checked or interrupted in the West. Crops have been good and have brought high prices. New methods of utilizing the resources of the land, such as dry-farming and the extension of irrigation, together with the successful trial of fruit and other special crops, have awakened enthusiasm and given opportunity to thousands of newcomers. Cities and towns have grown not only in population, but still more in the appointments of civilization.

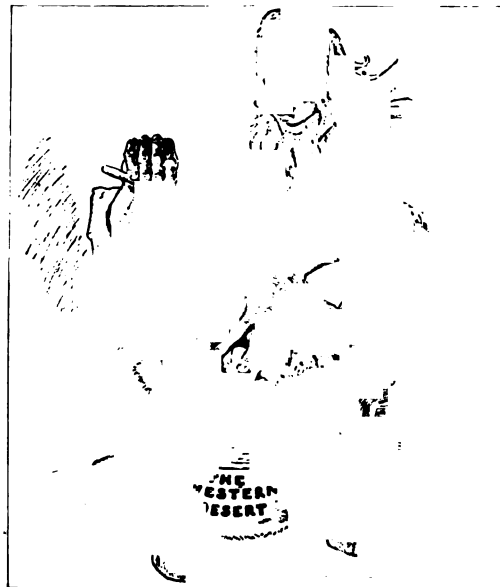
*Seattle as
a Western
Focus.*

While San Francisco has been making efforts of a prodigious sort to rebuild after the great fire, while Los Angeles has shown an unexpected power of continuous growth, and while Portland holds its reputation for solidity and conservative progress, Seattle, as the chief port on the extensive waters of Puget Sound, has moved forward toward a future of metropolitan greatness, with a swiftness and upon lines of permanence and breadth, that have, perhaps, been equaled only once or twice in the history of the United States. Seattle is now thirty-five years old and is a wealthy and handsome city of nearly 300,000 inhabitants. Chicago at the time of the great fire had about the

same population that Seattle now has, and was also thirty-five years old. But Seattle is incomparably finer and more solidly established than was Chicago at the time of the fire. There is room for several great cities on our Pacific seaboard, and it might be invidious to prophesy as to the relative importance, fifty years hence, of San Francisco, Seattle, and Los Angeles. They will all go forward, as will other seaports and Western cities; and they will have their own individual attractions and characteristics.

*The
Alaska-Yukon
Fair.*

Seattle regards its rapid recent growth as due in considerable part to the progress that Alaska has made since the discovery of gold in the



PRESTO!
(What Uncle Sam's Irriga
From the *Bee*



1906, Old Hotel Washington.
1907, Last of old Hotel Washington.

1907, Hydraulic and steam shovels at work.
1908, The new Hotel Washington.

CUTTING DOWN HILLS TO MAKE ROOM FOR THE GROWTH OF SEATTLE.

(The above group of views tells the story of the removal of Denny Hill and the erection of modern buildings in its place. The cut from the foundation of the hotel standing at the summit of the hill in the picture taken in 1906, to the foundation of the new hotel in the background of view taken in 1908, was 108 feet. The regrade work still under way in Seattle is stupendous, and the projects completed or on which work is in progress involve the removal of more dirt than any other modern project outside of the Panama Canal.)

Klondike. The commercial relations between Seattle and Alaska are as important as those between Chicago and Iowa; and they will steadily increase with the development of that interesting region. It is in recognition of this fact that the great fair that opens as this magazine appears, on June 1, is called the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition. The people of Seattle have shown remarkable pluck and energy in the creation of this exposition on comparatively short notice and with their own money. Furthermore, they are opening the fair at the time originally set for it, and June 1 finds the exhibition fully ready for visitors, which all exposition experts will acknowledge as a thing unprecedented. We are glad to pre-

sent in this number of the REVIEW an article on the exposition itself, and another on the city of Seattle. The article on the exposition shows by text and picture how remarkable and original an undertaking has been achieved by the enterprise of this young Western city, and it will stimulate in many minds a purpose to take advantage of this year's favorable railroad rates for a trip to the Pacific coast. The article on the city of Seattle is from the pen of the new Secretary of the Interior, Hon. Richard A. Ballinger, than whom no one is more competent to write of the city's general character and progress. Mr. Ballinger's record as Mayor of the city was an enviable one, and he has long been identified in a leading way with its best in-



Mr. I. A. Nadeau.
(Director-General.)

Mr. J. E. Chilberg
(President.)

Mr. Frank P. Allen, Jr.
(Director of Works.)

THREE PROMINENT OFFICIALS OF AN EXPOSITION THAT IS READY ON TIME.

terests. The city itself will be justly regarded as foremost in the group of attractions that will induce visitors to go West in this exposition year. The illustration on the opposite page shows the energy with which a site for the business center of Seattle has been prepared, inspired by the "faith that removes mountains."

*Problems
of the
Coast.*

At Seattle and all along the Western coasts of our great country the people see things in a large way and are full of hope and energy. When a single generation has witnessed the creation of an important city, with a series of transcontinental railroads making it their objective, and the ships of several lines of



A LONG VISTA OF THE MAIN COURT OF THE ALASKA-YUKON-PACIFIC EXPOSITION.

steamers entering its harbor, men are likely to be optimistic and to make plans on a bold scale. The part of the country west of the Rocky Mountains has many distinct and difficult problems to deal with, but its pioneering days are past and its future is full of promise. Its labor problem has been one of the most perplexing, and the temptation to achieve material development rapidly by importation of Asiatic labor on a large scale is an obvious one when consideration is given to the needs of those who are building railroads and irrigation works, as well as those engaged in extensive ranching, mining, and other enterprises requiring common labor. But in spite of this temptation to follow the line of least resistance and open the gates to Oriental labor, our Pacific States are resolute in their determination to develop as white communities, and to avoid the future disasters that would follow the colonization in large numbers of Japanese or Chinese workmen in the United States.

*The Secretary
of the
Interior.*

Mr. Ballinger, as Secretary of the Interior, is at the administrative center of affairs which affect the Northwest in vital ways. He understands the irrigation policy upon which the Government has entered, and can guide it with firmness and wisdom. It is only natural that so remarkable a scheme as that carried on by the Reclamation Service should, with all its magnificent possibilities, also show some defects or mistakes in its working out. Mr. Ballinger, while in sympathy with the policy as a whole, is so familiar with its details that he can promptly put his finger upon threatened abuses, and retard a too sanguine expansion. There are many questions having to do with the land laws and their administration with which Mr. Ballinger is especially familiar, not only from his long residence in the West, but also from his previous service as Commissioner of the General Land Office at Washington. The policy of a wise conservation and use of the natural resources of the country, which was so strongly proclaimed and enforced by Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Garfield, is maintained with equal firmness by Mr. Taft and Mr. Ballinger. Vast regions and their future development are vitally concerned in the application of these policies, and we shall doubtless hear much about them in the course of the next few years. The Federal Government is right in its efforts to prevent the improper acquisition of lands, forests, and min-

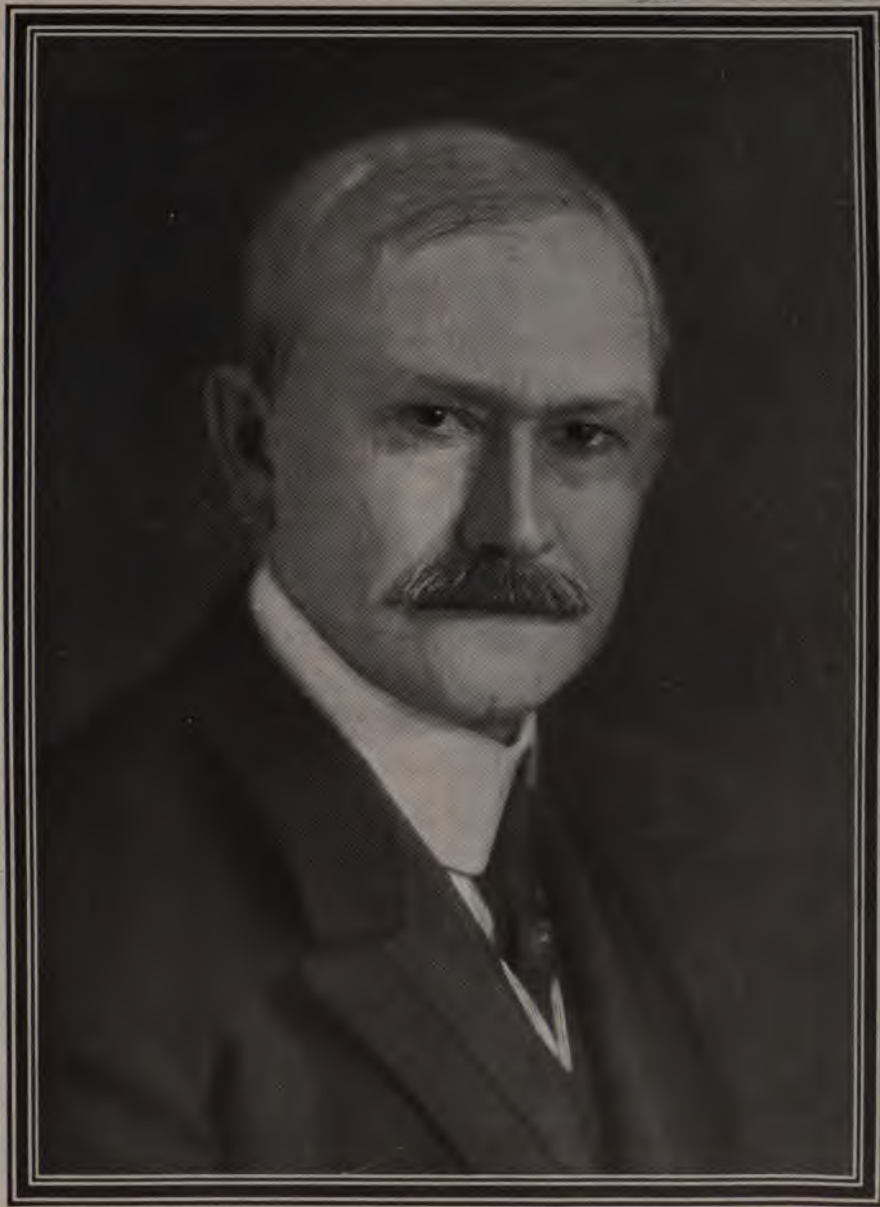
eral resources by private corporations. The Western States, on the other hand, will ultimately expect to have something to say about the administration of great areas lying within their boundaries, as against the permanent and final control by the Federal Government of these reserved stretches of the national domain. Forests, water powers, mines, grazing lands, and other sources of natural wealth are all involved in questions of principle and of practical policy. The Secretary of the Interior is already finding that these subjects in new phases place heavy responsibilities upon his shoulders; and it is evident that he may have the opportunity to lead the Government in more than one matter which will affect unborn generations.

*Lumber
Tariffs in
Dispute.*

The interest of the far Northwestern States in the tariff discussion pending at Washington illustrates what is so generally true at present that "the tariff,"—in the oft-quoted phrase of General Hancock,—“is a local issue.” The people of the States of Washington and Oregon are as much interested just now in the lumber industry as were the States of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota twenty-five years ago. The chief concern, it would seem, of this northwestern corner of the United States, as respects the tariff bill, is to prevent the final adoption of that item of the Payne measure which puts common lumber on the free list. The forests of the Pacific slope are magnificent in their density and in the great size of their fir trees. The sawmills at work in those forests are, perhaps, the largest in the world, and the industry represents so much wealth that the protest against the abolition of the Dingley tariff on lumber is not merely formal, but quite genuine and sincere. Mr. Piles, the brilliant new Senator from Washington, who is also a Seattle man by residence, delivered the most important speech of his senatorial term thus far on May 3, his subject being the rightful claims of American lumbermen to the retention of the Dingley tariff on their product.

*Forests
and Free
Lumber.*

The chief demand for free lumber comes from those Middle-Western States which do not produce a commercial supply for themselves and which desire to cheapen lumber for the consumer. At first there was a general belief that free lumber would best serve the cause of our American forest conservation. As the



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HON. RICHARD A. BALLINGER, OF SEATTLE.

(Secretary of the Interior.)

discussion has proceeded, however, the advocates of improved forestry are not demanding free lumber. It is evident that high prices for lumber would naturally stimulate a movement for the replanting of denuded areas with young trees. It is also reasonable to argue that the lumber companies themselves can better afford to replant their cleared lands, and can also utilize more care-

fully and completely the trees that they are felling, if market conditions give value to all parts of a tree and make possible the sale of lumber from certain trees which would be unmarketable if prices were considerably reduced. Forest fires, rather than the axe and the sawmill, are the chief enemies of forest conservation; and if only the forests can be preserved that are needed to protect the wa-



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HON. SAMUEL HENRY PILES,
(Senator from the State of Washington.)

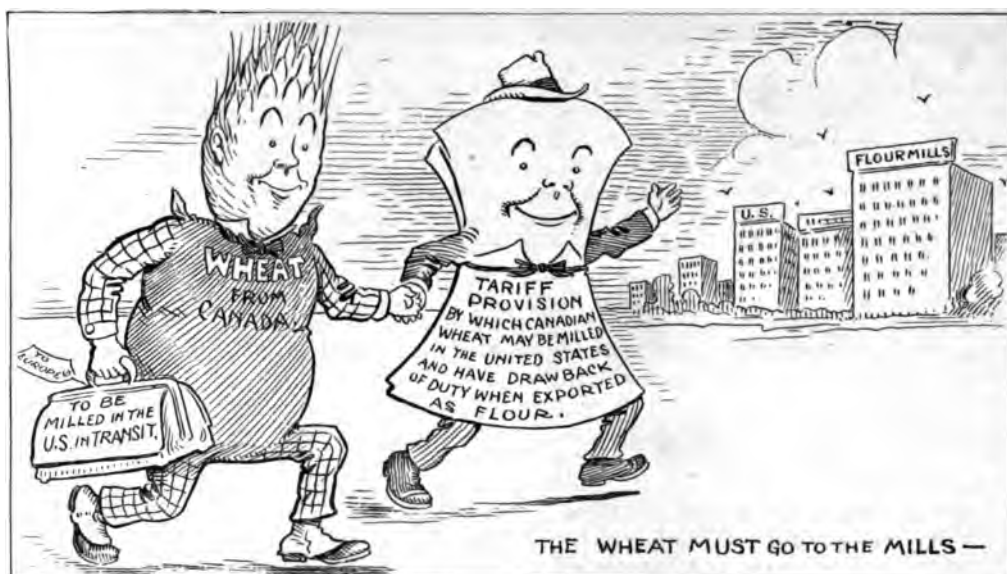
tersheds of our rivers and smaller streams,—so as to keep the valleys from being disastrously flooded and the hillside fields from being destroyed by erosion,—there need be no great fear of a failure in future of the supply of lumber and wood. The one crying need is a replanting of trees before the thin deposits of soil on rocky mountain sides are so completely washed away (as now in China) that replanting becomes impossible. Where the soil remains, new merchantable forests can be produced in thirty or forty years. It is much more important, therefore, to the future of our forests that certain timbered areas should be added to the existing State and national forest preserves, and that land taxes should be so modified as to encourage the planting of small trees on cut-over tracts, than that the tariff should be changed. This lumber question is one that Washington and Oregon care most about, as they make note of the tariff debate at Washington.

*Wheat and
"Transit
Milling."*

The agricultural Northwest is, of course, interested in the schedules relating to cereals. Now that the spring wheat crop of the Canadian Northwest is increasing so fast, the farmers of Washington, Oregon, North and South Dakota, and Minnesota have no intention of seeing the import tax on wheat removed. The only serious question relates to the so-called "drawback." Heretofore, and for many years past, there has existed a system of so-called "milling in transit." This means that the great mills at Minneapolis, Duluth, and elsewhere in the Northwest have bought Canadian wheat and exported the resulting flour to Europe, obtaining from the Government a so-called "drawback," which is virtually equivalent to the import duty on wheat. A cartoon which we reproduce herewith from the *Minneapolis Journal* makes the point that if this drawback arrangement is not maintained, the mills will "go to the wheat." From the standpoint of the northwestern part of the United States, there are many obvious advantages in having the breadstuffs of Manitoba, Alberta, and Saskatchewan reach Europe by way of our seaports. This system gives business to our railroads and also enhances the prosperity of our mills. And upon the prosperity of the mills there are many other industries dependent, in a participating sense. It is to the direct advantage of the Dakota and Minnesota wheat raisers to have the Canadian grain milled in the United States; for whatever adds to the prosperity of Duluth, Minneapolis, and other American milling points increases the home market for all kinds of farm products, and adds to the value of every acre of farm land. "Since the surplus Canadian wheat will in any case go to the European market, it ought to get there by way of our mills and our railroads if legislation can induce it to move in this direction.

*Barley as
a Typical
Case.*

The question of the tax on barley is another that the Northwestern farmers have been discussing. Through Mr. Tawney's efforts a considerable tax on Canadian barley was retained in the House bill as it was sent to the Senate. Since the barley tax is paid in the first instance by the brewers, and thus enters into the cost of making beer, the American farmers feel themselves entitled to the benefits of a discriminating rate that in many localities serves undoubtedly to put a good deal of money into their pockets.



IT'S UP TO CONGRESS TO SAY WHICH.
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

**Beet Sugar
and the
Tariff.**

The influence of the beet sugar interests of the West, and of the farming interests that have found a valuable new crop in the sugar beet, have availed to make sure that there will be a sufficiently high duty upon sugar. Although the output of the beet-sugar factories is increasing year by year quite notably, it remains true that the great bulk of the sugar consumed in the United States is cane sugar brought from the West Indies and elsewhere. Our special tariff arrangements with

Cuba give the sugar producers of that island a moderate reduction from the full Dingley rate, but Cuban sugar still pays a large tax. Porto Rico and Hawaii send their sugar free, and it is now practically agreed upon all hands that the Philippines will be allowed to send sugar here without paying duty up to a maximum of 300,000 tons a year. The American people pay a very high tax upon the sugar they consume, and, in consideration of this, the Louisiana Democrats in Congress are always gratefully willing to support

Republican protectionist tariffs. As a matter of fact, our Gulf States can never compete on equal terms in the raising of cane sugar with Cuba and the West Indies in general. Nor would it seem to be worth while to tax the American people heavily for the benefit of the infant industry of beet-sugar making but for the fact that the beet crop can be profitably developed in a scheme of farming which includes a variety of other plant and animal products. From the standpoint of the consumer alone, the profitable thing would be to annex Cuba to the free-trade zone of the United States, and develop the Cuban sugar crop with the best agricultural and mechanical methods. Heretofore the duty on sugar has been justified, not merely because of the protection it affords to the Gulf State cane-growers and the more recent beet-growers of the West, but also, and chiefly, because of the large and certain revenue it produced for the national treasury. In view of the revenue needs of the Government, this income from foreign sugar is very desirable, even though the tax is one that is paid by every family in the country and falls almost as heavily upon the poor family as upon the rich.

"Free Lists and the Revenues." In fairness to the experienced legislators at Washington, it should be said that their reluctance to disturb a tariff situation once established is due in large part to their apprecia-

tion of the fact that even the smallest change of a single schedule is seldom a simple matter, but involves as a rule a great many interests, and has bearings that are often most novel and unexpected. Our present revenue producing system is not consistent, but it is workable, because a thousand kinds of business enterprises have become adjusted to its exactions. It would be folly to forget that the principal object of revenue laws, including the tariff system, is to provide means wherewith to pay the Government's bills. From the standpoint of revenue, some of the items on the free list are very tempting to those who have to make the budget balance. For example, the Payne bill, while leaving the tax on sugar, also placed a moderate tax on tea, and by the device of a countervailing clause practically levied a considerable tax upon Brazilian coffee. There arose such a clamor against "taxing the breakfast table" that these features of the original Payne bill were abandoned. It does not follow, however, that the clamor was a wise one, or that Mr. Payne was wrong. In our opinion a moderate tax on tea and coffee would not be oppressive, has not been a burden when imposed in times past, is easily collected, and is probably not wholly passed on to the consumer. It would be a great mistake to regard it as a fixed conclusion that a wise tariff reform means the addition of various articles to the "free list," or that the phrase "free raw materials" is of necessity a statement of a principle that everybody ought to accept. A very good argument, indeed, might be made in favor of collecting some tax, however small, upon every article of import that passes through the custom-houses. The Government goes to great expense in the maintenance of harbors and in various other ways for the encouragement and protection of commerce, and a small tax might with propriety be paid upon everything imported.

Some Instances in Point.

We are not here advocating the abolition of the free list, but merely calling attention to the fact that free lists are no necessary part of a system that provides custom-houses and purports to raise half the Government's income by taxes upon commodities entering our ports from other lands. Thus the arguments brought forward by the newspaper men in favor of putting wood pulp on the free list were not directed against the idea of a moderate revenue tariff upon such materials, but had to do with a situation that high pro-



UNRECOGNIZABLE!

From the *Eagle* (New York).

tective duties had brought about. The high tariffs on paper and wood pulp had resulted in the stifling of competition here at home, and the charging of monopoly prices to consumers. If there had been a low revenue tax on white paper and wood pulp, there would never have been a demand on anybody's part to place these articles on the free list. In like manner, if anthracite coal had not been oppressively monopolized in Pennsylvania, there would not have arisen in Boston an effective demand for putting coal on the free list. It is hard to see any sound argument at the present time for depriving the Treasury of the United States of the income it should get from a moderate tax on the importation of iron ore. The abolition of a duty on iron ore would doubtless put money in the pockets of those who have speculatively obtained control of Cuban and other outside ore deposits, but it would not cheapen by any appreciable sum the cost of iron and steel products to the people of the United States. That being the case, Uncle Sam ought to keep his revenue.

*The
Tobacco
Taxes.*

A very remarkable illustration of this tendency to throw away a profitable source of public revenue without benefitting the ultimate consumer was brought to light last month by Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, in a speech analyzing the recent history of the internal revenue taxes on tobacco and their relation to the so-called tobacco trust. The taxes on tobacco were increased at the time of the war with Spain. Some time after the end of the war they were considerably reduced. The law provided that packages of tobacco should be of certain specified weights, the number of ounces to be printed on each package. When the tax was increased the law allowed the manufacturers to make a corresponding reduction in the weight of the package; and, since they continued to sell the short-weight package at the former fixed price, it is obvious that the extra tax was passed directly on to the consumer. When, however, the extra tax was remitted, the manufacturers continued to sell the short-weight package by express authority of law. Thus the consumer continued to pay the war tax, but the manufacturer,—that is to say, the tobacco trust,—kept the money, instead of passing it on to the Treasury of the United States. If the Government had not reduced the tobacco tax, the Treasury would have received scores of millions of dollars which it has lost, and



SENATOR BEVERIDGE, OF INDIANA.
(Prominent in the pending tariff debate.)

the people of the country would not have paid one penny more for their tobacco, or for the taxes on their tobacco, than they have actually been paying. Such are the assertions made in Mr. Beveridge's speech as set forth with ample statistics.

*Bad Farming
of Present
Sources.*

Mr. Beveridge was endeavoring to show that the Government had no need of seeking for new and perhaps unconstitutional sources of income till it had made a fair and reasonable attempt to get the best results out of sources already at its disposal. Some of our readers may remember that at the time of the reduction of tobacco and beer taxes after the Spanish war we protested vigorously against the abandonment of an income so properly derived and so easily collected, and one which the Government was sure to need in the near future. Almost every modern govern-

ment has found tobacco a valuable object of taxation, and no other government but ours would have remitted a tobacco tax which was well established and was not burdening the consumers. In like manner, the remission of the extra tax on beer seems to have been merely a gift of millions of dollars a year to the brewers. No one will pretend that it cheapened the retail price of the article in question. Senator Beveridge further points out the fact that high-priced cigars, which ought to be a source of large revenue, pay no more taxes than the cheap cigars that are sold to laborers. It is plain enough that the existing internal revenue system and custom-house system afford ample means for giving the Government its necessary revenue without any resort to new kinds of taxation.

An Inheritance Tax. Probably the least objectionable kind of new tax would be that which was brought forward in the Payne bill, namely, a progressive tax upon inheritances. To say that the States are already taxing inheritances does not condemn the proposal to add a federal tax. The argument lies quite the other way. The imposition of a national tax on inheritances would have a tendency to bring the State systems into harmony with that of the Federal Government, and, therefore, into harmony with one another, all of which would be desirable. Furthermore, if the States are on their own account ascertaining the facts as to the estates of deceased persons the Federal Government would have a less difficult and a less offensive task in making its moderate additional levy.

Make the Tariff Productive. From the revenue producing standpoint, the trouble with the tariff is that it falls far short of its easy possibilities as a fiscal instrument. Its high protective duties are so nearly prohibitive as to starve the Treasury, and its free list is quixotic in the vastness of its generosity. Thus we allow hundreds of millions of imports to pass through the tollgate without paying a penny for the privilege, while for other hundreds of millions we make the tolls so high that they cannot afford to come in. It is not quite complimentary to the intelligence of the American people to assert, as was so often done last month, that when the Republicans promised before election to revise the tariff, they did not necessarily mean that they would revise it downward. It was understood by everyone that the in-

attention was to reduce considerably the average rates on textiles, metallic manufactures, and highly protected goods in general. The tariff could be made to permit a considerable growth of foreign trade, with corresponding increase of revenue, and without impairment of its protectionist character.

Again the Income Tax. As for an income tax, which was proposed again in a new form last month, it is not needed from the revenue standpoint, and it was no part of the program of the Republican party for the present session. Even the assertion that theoretically an income tax is the fairest kind of a levy that can be made does not stand as a self-evident proposition. All the attendant circumstances would have to be taken into account. Conditions in the United States are very different from those in Prussia, where the income tax works more successfully, perhaps, than anywhere else. The Middle-Western Senators who have joined Senator Bailey, of Texas, and the Southern Democrats in demanding the immediate passage of an income tax, with an exemption line fixed at \$5000, must know very well that this exempted income will go fully twice as far in the purchase of comforts and conveniences for a family in Nebraska as in San Francisco, Chicago, New York, and many other places. If it is desired to reach the wealth of corporations, why not provide for federal incorporation or federal license of the large interstate commerce companies, and then levy upon them a corporation tax analogous to that which the State of New York and various other States levy upon business corporations? The inquisitorial personal income tax

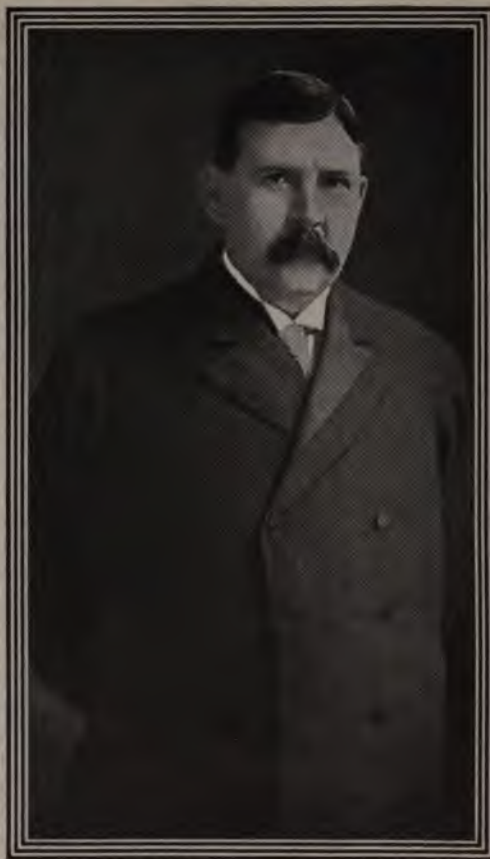


MEN OF LARGE INCOMES ARE "SEEKING THINGS"

From the *Herald* (Washington, D. C.)

has never yet appealed strongly to the American public. The exemption of incomes under \$5000 would scarcely seem a sound principle unless the taxation of the larger incomes should be levied at progressive rates. Nothing, in short, would seem more obvious than the unreadiness of the nation to have another income tax thrust upon it, as one of the accidents of tariff revision, in the face of the Constitution of the country as interpreted by the courts.

Tariff Criticism Useful. It is by no means the object of these remarks to criticise the so-called "insurgents" in the Senate for having opinions of their own upon the problems of tariff and taxation. Senator Dolliver's great speech attacking the wool schedule and, in general, exposing the absurd methods by which many of the tariff rates are fixed, was a useful speech and one that the Republican party should take to heart. Mr. Dolliver began to make high protective speeches some thirty years ago. He has become more critical and analytical with the flight of years. We are making the present tariff by the old method, which he now assails, and we shall not get anything but an old-fashioned result. But an exposure of the absurdity of this old method may help us to adopt a new and a better one, as other commercial nations have done, and it is in this that the chief value of attacks like Mr. Dolliver's must be found. With the Payne Tariff bill as a basis, it should be possible to secure a good many improvements in matters of detail. Beyond that, nothing can be done, and the country would be glad to have Congress adjourn, after having provided for a



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SENATOR DOLLIVER, OF IOWA.

(Who has brilliantly criticised the tariff bill.)

good kind of tariff commission. An able and impartial commission, with due industry, ought to help us to bring about a thorough-



THE SENATE CRITICS AND THE ALDRICH BILL.

From the *Tribune* (Chicago).

going revision of the tariff in about the year 1917.

Weeks More of Tariff Talk. Whereas it was the accepted opinion in April that the tariff would be finished and Congress adjourned by June 1, the prophets a month later had shifted the date to the first week in August. The Senate was not proceeding rapidly with its consideration of the Aldrich bill last month, and the desire to debate particular points was constantly growing for the simple reason that most of the Senators for the first time were beginning to collect information enough to feel ready for a share in the great talk. Mr. Aldrich must have coveted Mr. Cannon's rules under which debate can be limited and final votes promptly reached. Whatever may happen, the Democrats are so involved in the log-rolling that it will be difficult for them to demand a return to power as a protest against the high protectionism of what will probably be called the Payne-Aldrich tariff.

Discipline for Porto Rico. President Taft sent to Congress on May 10 a special message on Porto Rico, calling attention in calm, judicial, and statesmanlike language to the necessity for immediate legislation to amend the organic act of Porto Rico so as to provide that in the event of the legislature failing to make the necessary appropriations those of the preceding year should be continued. The President's message came as the

official reply of the American Government to the agitation, recounted in these pages last month, which has been current in Porto Rico for some time, arising from a disagreement between the House of Delegates and the Executive Council, which acts as a Senate. The delegates have repeatedly refused to pass appropriation bills unless certain measures of their own were enacted into law. President Taft believes that the power to hold up appropriations should be taken away from the House of Delegates. The willingness of these representatives of the people, says the President, "to subvert the Government in order to secure the passage of certain legislation" indicates a spirit "which has been growing from year to year in Porto Rico, which shows that too great power has been vested in the House of Delegates." The President points out the fact that since the end of Spanish rule the island has prospered greatly, and yet "in the desire of certain of their leaders for political power Porto Ricans have forgotten the generosity of the United States in its dealings with them." The present development "is only an indication that we have gone somewhat too fast in the extension of political power to them for their own good." A bill providing for the recommended legislation has been introduced and reported favorably in the House of Representatives at Washington. It would seem that in this Porto Rico situation and its outcome there can be read a caution to the Filipinos, whose legislative assembly is of such recent establishment.



THAT GREEDY BOY.

"What's the matter, William? Is he chokin'?"
 "Yep. Bit off more'n he can chew."

From the Sun (Baltimore).

Mr. Taft's Sayings and Doings. President Taft visited Virginia and North Carolina on the 19th and 20th of May, in order to speak at the dedication of a Pennsylvania soldiers' monument at Petersburg on one day and at the celebration of the Mecklenburg declaration of independence on the day that followed. His remarks were exceedingly felicitous, and he was welcomed by admiring audiences. Mr. Taft is so entirely free from sectional or party prejudice that he speaks everywhere with an easy and captivating sincerity. It is possible that after Congress adjourns he may visit the far Northwest and take a trip to Alaska. Without undue haste, he has been completing his list of appointments. In the matter of the North Carolina judgeship, an excellent solution was found in the selection of a Democratic member of the State Supreme Court. Mr. Robert Watchorn has not been reappointed to the office of

Commissioner of Immigration at the Port of New York, but the place has been filled by another man whose selection, like that of Mr. Watchorn, has been strictly on the ground of merit and qualification. Mr. William Williams, the new commissioner, is a New York lawyer who filled the same position for a short time in the early part of Mr. Roosevelt's administration, and whose fitness for the place is generally recognized. We mention elsewhere the selection of Mr. Straus for the ambassadorship at Constantinople, a position of great importance in view of the disturbed condition of the Turkish Empire. Mr. Taft is following the tariff discussion with close attention, and believes he will have submitted to him for his signature a tariff bill that will reasonably meet the promises made in the campaign, and will serve the needs of the country in a practical way.

*Department
Work at
Washington.*

The work of the departments progresses steadily under firm hands. Mr. Nagel has been resolute in his contention that all the bureaus of the Department of Commerce and Labor should come fully under the authority of the man who is supposed to be responsible for their results. The chief point in dispute lay in the relative authority and discretion of the Director of the Census. Mr. MacVeagh's work in the Treasury Department is that of a business man accustomed to system, who turns over the working details to his chief subordinates. Mr. Wickersham, at the head of the Department of Justice, has improved several recent occasions to make it plain that the laws against monopolies and combinations in restraint of trade will be enforced without relaxation. It is hoped by the department that the decision in the main case conducted by Mr. Kellogg against the Standard Oil Company may be rendered by the Circuit Court in time to have the questions involved carried to the Supreme Court for consideration by that tribunal at the same time with the Tobacco Trust cases, which, it is understood, the court will take up in October. These cases involve principles not yet finally passed upon, and it is desirable to have the law finally interpreted before proposals for changes in the statute are put in final and mature form. Mr. Dickinson, the Secretary of War, returning from his trip to Panama, finds the bureau chiefs in lively rebellion against the assumptions of the General Staff, and he, like Secretary Meyer, of the Navy Department, must give a good



HON. WILLIAM WILLIAMS.

(The new Commissioner of Immigration at New York.)

deal of attention to these problems of departmental and administrative organization.

*Peace
Conferences
and War Alarm.* Peace conferences, war alarms, and flying-machines were in the air last month, figuratively and literally. At Chicago on May 3 was held the first session of the second National Peace Congress. A number of speakers of international reputation made addresses setting forth the progress toward perpetual international peace and amity. Noteworthy among these addresses were those of Dr. Jacob G. Schurman, president of Cornell University; Secretary of the Interior Richard A. Ballinger; Mr. James Brown Scott, solicitor of the State Department; the German Ambassador, Count von Bernstorff; and Minister Wu Ting Fang. Dr. Scott believes that compulsory arbitration is the concrete subject of most vital importance in international relations at the present time. This principle, he declared at the conference, "defeated at the first Hague Conference, recognized in principle at the second, and incorporated in the convention for the limitation of force in



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THE BROTHER AERONAUTS, ORVILLE AND WILBUR WRIGHT, WITH THEIR SISTER, RETURNING FROM A TRIUMPHAL SOJOURN IN EUROPE.

the collection of contract debts, will, in all probability, make its appearance and be likely to triumph at the third conference." Following upon the sessions of the Chicago gathering came the regular annual meeting of the Lake Mohonk Conference on International Arbitration. Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia University, who presided, made a strong opening address, in the course of which he graphically presented what he termed the "emotional insanity" of the English people at the present moment with regard to the possibilities of war with Germany.

Airships and War Scares in England.

The "greatest obstacle to carrying forward those social and economic reforms for which every nation is crying out," Dr. Butler maintained, is "the insistence by England on what she calls the two-power naval standard." Referring to the condition of mind of the English people at present as the "storm center of the world's weather," Dr. Butler said:

The nation which, for generations has contributed so powerfully to the world's progress in all that relates to the spread of the rule of law, to the peaceful development of commerce and industry, to the advancement of letters and science, and to the spread of humanitarian ideas, appears to be possessed for the moment with the evil spirit of militarism. It is hard to reconcile the excited and exaggerated utterances of responsible statesmen in Parliament and on the platform; the loud beating of drums and the sounding of alarms in the public press, even in that portion of it most given to sobriety of judgment; and the flocking of the populace to view a tawdry and highly sensational drama of

less than third-rate importance for the sake of its contribution to their mental obsession by hobgoblins and the ghosts of national enemies and invaders, with the temperament of a nation that has acclaimed the work of Howard, Wilberforce, and Shaftesbury, whose public life was so long dominated by the lofty personality of William Ewart Gladstone, and whose real heroes to-day are the John Milton and the Charles Darwin, whose anniversaries are just now celebrated with so much sincerity and genuine appreciation.

Return of the "Flying Wrights."

While the English press is becoming hysterical over the German "scare-ship" which is always looked for above old Albion soil, and French sharpshooters are watching the frontier for fleets of invading Zeppelins, Uncle Sam is not only rejoicing in the "3000 miles of inviolate ocean" that separate him from the Old World, but is proudly welcoming back to their native shores the now internationally famous brother inventors, Wilbur and Orville Wright. After a sojourn of many months in Europe, during which they have succeeded in convincing at least three of the European governments of the practical utility of their aeroplane, these inventors return to the United States to find themselves recognized as national benefactors. The flying-machine of the Wright brothers not only really "flies," but remains in the air at the will of its pilot and subject to his guidance. We may rest assured that the United States naval and military establishments will fully recognize and take advantage of the skill and experience demonstrated by the Wright brothers

to the governments and royalties of the Old World. Early in the present month, when the Wrights have completed the demonstrations at Fort Myer, which are expected to result in the adoption of their aeroplane by the United States Army, a reception will be given in their honor, in Washington, by the Aero Club of America. Following this there will be a visit to the White House, where President Taft will present them with medals, provided by the Aero Club.

*A
Pension
Veto.*

The New York Legislature at its recent session passed a bill providing service pensions for Civil War veterans. The bill was vetoed by Governor Hughes on constitutional grounds, but in the memorandum explaining his action the Governor set forth certain considerations of State policy which have a bearing on any proposition to grant pensions from State funds for service under the federal Government. He acknowledges the splendid services rendered by the men who wore the blue in upholding and preserving the Union, but those who enlisted from New York went to the defense not only of their New York homes and property, but of the Union itself, the maintenance of which was at stake, and in the outcome the citizens of Ohio and Pennsylvania were as much under obligation to those New York soldiers who did their duty as were the citizens of the Empire State itself. In short, the service was rendered to the nation and not to the State as such. Therefore, the rewarding of such service belongs

properly to the nation, not to the State. The federal Government is the only authority that can maintain a pension system on a basis fair and equitable to all citizens alike. Had the New York bill creating a State pension system been made a law, it is probable that similar legislation would have been attempted in other States. It is fortunate that Governor Hughes was courageous and clear-headed enough to point out the fallacy involved in the proposition.

*Mr. Roosevelt's
Alleged
Exploits.*

There is reason to believe that Mr. Roosevelt is in Africa carrying out in a general way the program which was announced before he departed with his scientific associates. It is to be hoped, however, that no intelligent American reader will for a moment suppose that we are having authentic reports from day to day of Mr. Roosevelt's movements and adventures. There was just one thing that Mr. Roosevelt asked of the American press before his departure, and that was that he be allowed as a private citizen to proceed with his African plans without being followed, spied upon, or reported. All newspaper men know that the lurid tales which have been daily served up,—and which have chronicled with much detail the slaughtering of countless lions, tigers, rhinos, hippos, and other beasts, of both sexes and all ages,—are sheer inventions. Never were fakes more transparent or more impudent. Mr. Roosevelt's hunting is far away from the shaded haunts of the gentlemen of the press who prepare these daily romances, and nobody knows that this is true so well as do the managers of our respected newspapers who are displaying these tales of shambles and gore under first-page headlines every morning, and illustrating them with unnumbered cartoons. Even on his later Western hunting trips Mr. Roosevelt had the doubtful benefit of a similar response on the part of an enterprising press to a supposed public demand. We shall have to wait a good while before we get any trustworthy news about Mr. Roosevelt's experiences in the Dark Continent.



ROOSEVELT: "Oh, this is bully! Just think of poor Taft back home wrestling with Congress."
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth).

*Mr. Straus on
the Recent
Administration.*

Meanwhile these reports from Africa have doubtless been a little painful to many admirers of the former President, who do not like to think that their hero glories in mere slaughter, and who like still less to think that after having devastated the jungle for six days in the week Mr. Roosevelt declines to rest upon

the Sabbath, but must go forth on Sunday morning to slaughter mother animals in the presence of their new-born offspring. They need not worry. Mr. Roosevelt is not doing these things. Beginning on Sunday, May 23, the Rev. Dr. John Wesley Hill, of New York, was entering upon a several days' program of speeches in his well-known Methodist church in connection with the dedication of a window in memory of the Roosevelt administration. The Hon. Oscar Straus was one of the speakers on the first day. Doubtless it was a little hard for some of Mr. Straus' hearers to put out of their minds what the newspapers had told them about Mr. Roosevelt's exploits on the Sunday immediately preceding. We are all impressed by what we see in the papers, even when we know it must be false. Mr. Straus, who was a fellow member with Mr. Taft of the Roosevelt administration and who is about to depart on Mr. Taft's mandate to serve as Ambassador at Constantinople, spoke with great loyalty and deep understanding of the recent administration. From the many excellent things in Mr. Straus' address we quote the following paragraph:

The achievements of his administrations will not be limited by the seven years of his Presidency. The reforms he inaugurated, the moral forces he vitalized, the American people will not let slumber. The effect cannot be measured by the congressional acts which are on the statute books, but by the tendencies checked, the evils averted, and the far-reaching moral reconstruction initiated, whereby the legitimate functions of government were so directed as to prevent the use of power, whether by organized capital or organized labor, from being wielded against the general welfare in disregard of the rights, privileges, and opportunities of the individual citizen of this and the coming generations.

Elsewhere in this number we publish a sketch of the career of Mr. Straus. It sets forth the successful life of a man who has attained many honors; but the thing that will most impress readers is the example Mr. Straus affords of a man who has given his best thought and service to the welfare of the community.

The Anthracite Agreement.

After repeated conferences between the anthracite coal operators and the representatives of the mine workers, the controversy existing for several months was ended on April 29 by the signing of a joint agreement in President Baer's office in Philadelphia. This new agreement is to hold good for three years, ending on March 31, 1912. The peaceful

settlement of the difficulties in the anthracite field had been generally expected, the belief being that the dispute would not proceed to the point of an actual strike or a lockout. The operators, on their part, had other matters to concern them, not the least of which was their uncertainty over the expected decision of the Supreme Court regarding the commodities clause of the Hepburn act; while on the other hand the miners' union was not in a sufficiently strong position this year to push its claims with confidence. The fact that the present agreement will expire in the spring of 1912, necessitating the making of new arrangements just before a Presidential campaign, will, it is believed, put the miners in a strategic position to demand further concessions.

The Terms of a Three-Year Peace.

The new stipulations inserted in the agreement are five in number, and provide for (1) the payment of new work at rates not below those paid for old work of a similar kind; (2) the posting of union notices and the collection of dues on the company's premises; (3) the right of appeal in the case of an employee discharged for being a member of a union; (4) the consideration of disputes at the colliery by the foreman and the mine superintendent before taking them to the Conciliation Board, and (5) the issuance by the employers of statements designating the company's name, the employee's name, the colliery where employed, amount of wages, and class of work performed. This agreement was signed by the operators' committee of seven and by a committee of a like number of the miners, the latter signing, however, not as officers of the Mine Workers' union, but simply as representatives of the mine workers. Thus the chief point of contention,—that of recognition of the union,—was again denied to the miners. The officers of the union are of opinion, however, that the concessions granted are distinct advantages, tending to strengthen the union and making directly for the attainment later on of that recognition which they have long sought. The operators argue that there has, in fact, been no real concession, the provisions so termed by the miners having been for years favored by the operators themselves. However this may be, according to their own statement the operators "are gratified that peace and quiet are assured in the anthracite region for the next three years," and certainly as much may safely be said of the majority

of the mine workers, and also of the public, which is the chief party in interest.

The "Commodities Clause" Interpreted. On the first Monday in May came the long-expected decision of the United States Supreme Court on the "commodities clause" of the Hepburn railway rate act. This law, passed two years ago, forbade railroads from transporting any commodity in which they had a legal interest, direct or indirect, except timber. There is also excepted coal or other supplies destined for their own use. The ultimate purpose of the clause was to prevent injustice to independent coal miners by the charging of excessively high rates for carrying coal, which, of course, would make no difference to the owners of coal who also owned the railroad receiving the high rates, and to prevent the further growth toward monopoly that would be encouraged by the opportunity for the large railroad owners of coal to harry competitors. The commodities clause had been declared unconstitutional by a Federal Circuit Court, and the Government's attorneys had appealed to the Supreme Court. In the decision handed down on May 3 this tribunal gave a surprise to all concerned. The clause is held to be constitutional, but its provisions are interpreted in such a light as not to hamper the railroads in their present vast business of anthracite coal mining. The decision considers that Congress was within its powers of regulating commerce in enacting the clause, but holds that the wording of the Hepburn act does not prevent a railroad from carrying the coal mined and owned by another company in which the railroad has a stock interest, and, further, that even if the coal is owned directly by the railroad while it is being mined, the clause does not prohibit its carriage if the railroad owner of the coal has in good faith sold it before it is transported. The most important detail of the decision hinged on the interpretation of a "legal interest" in the coal. Congress apparently assumed that, if the Lehigh Valley Railroad owned a part or all of the stock of the Lehigh Coal Company the railroad had a legal interest in the actual coal mined by the second company. The Supreme Court denies this, although Justice Harlan dissents at this point and considers that a railroad owning a portion of the stock of a coal mining company does have a legal interest in the product of the company, and certainly so if it owns a majority of the stock of the producing concern.

The Net Result of the Decision. Thus the railroads are left free to transport their coal products as before, but the Supreme Court has affirmed the principle that Congress has full power to regulate such a dual business, and that such regulation is not, as the railroads' lawyers maintained, confiscation. Furthermore, Attorney-General Wickersham is said to have confidence that, in the light of the recent decision, Congress may, if it sees fit, amend the Hepburn act so as to prevent the roads from continuing their coal-mining activities through the ownership of stock in the producing concerns. It is probable that this prohibition will not be made unless it is obvious that the railroads are using their grasp of the situation to the injustice of independent producers and to the furtherance of their monopoly. It is undoubtedly a gain that the carriers should feel that this danger will confront them if they adopt oppressive measures.

An Optimistic Stock Market. With the gradual betterment of industrial conditions,—a betterment more obvious during the last half of May than at any time since the panic of nineteen months ago,—with the decision of the Supreme Court showing the great coal railroads a way out of their perplexity, and with the promise of fair crops for this year, there has come a remarkable rise in the price of securities on the New York market. The average price of twenty leading railroad stocks had risen by the middle of May to \$126.13 per share, within measureable distance of the highest figure of 1907, which was \$131.95. The marvelous gain in confidence since the panic is shown by the fact that these same representative railroad stocks sold on November 21, 1907, at an average price of \$81.41 per share. The shares of industrial companies show an even larger percentage of gain over panic times. The twelve leading "industrials" quoted on the Exchange sold on November 15, 1907, at an average price of \$53, as against a high price in that year of \$96.37. By May 8 last the figure had risen to \$91.56 per share. In other words, our stock market prices have risen to figures very near the highest known to this generation. Such a rapid and complete recovery after a great panic, with worldwide unsettlement and industrial depression, is very remarkable. As we go to press signs are multiplying that the stock market has again proved itself an accurate prophet of industrial happenings. The General Elec-

tric Company says its business for this year will be the largest in its history; the stock of unused copper is apparently the smallest carried at any time in two years; the railroads are giving larger orders for cars and steel rails; the prices of steel products which broke so badly less than two months ago are already stiffening up, and the still plants are working at more than 70 per cent. of their capacity; railway reports show gains on gross earnings from 5 to 25 per cent. over the corresponding months of last year, and net earnings, in many cases, of even greater betterment; bank clearings throughout the country show a very great increase indeed; and Western grain-raising States have had a good spring for plowing, and ample moisture. In the face of these cheering industrial prospects, money remains exceedingly cheap, with demand loans at less than 2 per cent. per annum and time loans at less than 3 per cent. for sixty days; so that there is the fairest opportunity for expansion.

The "Flood
of Gold"
Again.

The advocates of the theory that radically increased gold supplies must lead to high prices for commodities and for the common stocks of concerns owning commodities,—also to frequent panics and abrupt recoveries,—are pointing to the present industrial and financial situa-

tion as carrying out, to the letter, the program they have conceived. In truth, the figures of gold production and accumulation just presented by the Bureau of Statistics in Washington are startling enough. In the past twenty-five years the world has mined nearly \$6,000,000,000 worth of gold; in the entire period from the discovery of America to 1883 the gold production of the world was only \$7,000,000,000. Furthermore, the last ten years have brought \$3,400,000,000 of the precious metal,—nearly half as much as was mined in the 392 years from the landing of Columbus to 1883. The stock of gold money in the United States has increased in only ten years from \$925,000,000 to \$1,613,000,000, or 75 per cent., and about the same rate of increase as is shown in the world's total production for the last decade. We have 60 per cent. more gold than Germany, our nearest competitor; 70 per cent. more than France or Russia, and three times as much as the United Kingdom.

Collector
Loeb's Active
Work.

Collector Loeb, of the Port of New York, came into no post of routine and perfunctory duties. The New York customs revenues, amounting to \$220,000,000 annually, make the work of organization and administration always an extremely important part of the United States Treasury service, and Mr. Loeb's active and able efforts for the improvement of the revenue-collecting machinery was immediately stimulated and aided by the culmination of the investigation into the frauds in the sugar-weighting cases. In the financial settlement of this matter more than \$2,000,000 was returned by the American Sugar Refining Company to the Government in restitution of the duties on sugar that had been withheld by systematic underweighing through a period of ten years. The seven employees of the Sugar Trust directly operating the falsifying apparatus of weighing have been indicted; undoubtedly more will later be made known as to who was ultimately responsible for the matter. Collector Loeb is about to advertise for bids for automatic weighing machines built on plans and specifications originating in the Treasury Department, the use of which will do away with any chance of this kind of fraud. The new Collector has, too, promptly made effective changes in the administrative methods and personnel of the Custom House, with a view to preventing frauds such as came to light in the smuggling of Paris dress goods.



"CAUGHT WITH THE GOODS."
From the *American* (New York).

*Mexican
Pros-
perity.*

The approaching national election in Mexico would no doubt arouse more interest throughout the United States and in the rest of the world were it not morally certain that, barring his death in the meantime, that eminent patriot and statesman, General Don Porfirio Diaz, will by overwhelming majorities be again chosen chief magistrate of the republic, and on December 1, 1910, enter upon his eighth term as President. During the generation that Diaz has, it may be said, been Mexico to the rest of the world, his country has become a prosperous and well-ordered republic. In almost every respect Mexican reputation stands high. A very significant and important result of General Diaz's work, particularly to Americans, is the consolidation and elevation of the national credit. In this connection we call the attention of our readers to a careful and noteworthy analysis of Mexico's financial system and her resources, which we publish this month (on page 721) from the pen of Mr. Charles F. Speare, who by study and recent travel is peculiarly well-qualified to speak on this subject.

*The
British
Budget.*

Not for many years has there been such an interest at home and abroad in a British budget as has been shown in the financial statement made by Mr. Lloyd-George, Chancellor of the British Exchequer, in the House of Commons on April 29. Confronted with the necessity for meeting a deficit of \$80,000,000, caused chiefly by the adoption of the old-age pension system and the demand for a greater navy, the British Government has been obliged to find new sources of revenue. The new budget is devised, Mr. Lloyd-George frankly admits, to throw chiefly upon the monied classes the burden of increased taxation. Already almost on a war basis, the system of taxation in Great Britain can be increased or radically readjusted only with the greatest deliberation and care. The total budget for 1909, aggregating \$820,000,000, will be met by the regular revenues plus higher taxes on incomes, on inheritances, and on real estate, stamp taxes on real-estate deals and stock-exchange transactions, an increase in the cost of liquor licenses, and the taxes on tobacco, spirits, and automobiles. The Chancellor's financial statement, which was a very lengthy one, has been characterized as "the biggest instrument of social reform ever devised."

*Is It a
"Socialist
Document?"*

The budget proposals aroused a great deal of discussion and considerable protest against what are called their "socialistic," "red flag" features. In reply to a very bitter speech made by Mr. Balfour, the opposition leader,



MR. LLOYD-GEORGE AND HIS BUDGET.

(According to the artist of the *London Graphic*, this is the way Mr. Lloyd-George, Chancellor of the British Exchequer, looked when he entered the House of Commons on April 29, with the result of six months' hard labor under his arm.)

accusing the government of driving capital out of the country, Premier Asquith said:

Where will it fly to? It may traverse the whole civilized world, but wherever it goes it will find itself confronted by a finance minister as necessitous as Mr. Lloyd-George. It would not find rest in Germany, France, or the United States. In the last-named country they are engaged in rigging up a new tariff, and have a deficit far more formidable than anything we have

to face here. The truth is, there is not a civilized country in the world which does not find itself at this moment under stress of taking its place in the race of armaments, in providing for social reform, in developing new resources, and discovering new means of taxation. There is no country in the world where, when all the proposals of this budget have been carried into law, capital will be less exposed to chances of spoliation or insecurity than in this free-trade country.

Great Britain's financial system, including a detailed statement of revenue and expenditure for the past half-century, will be considered in an early issue of this REVIEW in an article by a competent authority.

*Birth of
a Dutch
Princess.*

It would be necessary to go back a very long stretch of history to find an occasion upon which a whole people anywhere in the world has rejoiced so sincerely and spontaneously in the birth of an heir to the throne as the Dutch nation has done over the advent (on April 30) of little Princess Juliana Louisa Emma Maria Wilhelmina, Princess of Orange, and, unless the fates should later send her a brother, heir to the throne of the Netherlands. The whole country celebrated the event with illuminations, salutes, and public fêtes, and even the rather unpopular Prince Consort, Henry, Duke of Mecklenburg-Schweren, came in for a good deal of popular admiration. Ever since her accession to the throne of the little kingdom (on November 23, 1890), Queen Wilhelmina has been perhaps the most beloved of all the monarchs of Europe. Hers, moreover, has been a figure around which the sympathy of the world has centered because of her desire for an heir, a desire which was shared with passionate anxiety by her people, but which upon more than one occasion seemed possible



QUEEN WILHELMINA, OF HOLLAND, TO WHOM A DAUGHTER, AND HEIRESS, HAS BEEN BORN.

of gratification only at the price of the Queen's death. If she had died without an heir no less a calamity than the extinction of the independence of the nation was feared by the Dutch. By the nearest line of descent the crown would pass after her to the Grand Duke William, of Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach. This would virtually make Holland an annex of the German Empire, a power which has for years looked longingly to the populous and prosperous little nation at the mouth of the Rhine, with its enormous wealth and possibilities in the case of war.

*"Syndical-
ism" in
France.*

Two facts that stand out clearly from the rather confused labor situation in France are the decision, reached on May 18, of what is known as the federal committee of the General Con-



A COUNCIL OF WAR BY THE YOUNG TURK LEADERS.

(The man in the center of the picture facing forward is Chevket Pasha, commanding general. He is talking to the Minister of War. In the middle background is seen Major Enver Bey.)

The story of the march of the "Constitutional Young Turkish Army." Constitutional army against Constantinople and its taking can be briefly told. Immediately after the triumph of the so-called "counter revolution" on April 13, which resulted in the downfall and flight of the Hilmi Pasha cabinet, the military forces in the city, all of them presumably willing to support the reactionary policy of Abdul Hamid, were under command of Nazim Pasha, who had been Kiamil's Minister of War. Tewfik Pasha became Vizier. Members of the Committee of Union and Progress then in the city were in hiding and only 65 deputies out of the more than 400 could be induced to appear in the Chamber. Enver Bey, the brilliant leader of the first revolution, was at Berlin as military attaché of the Ottoman embassy. Hearing of the developments at Constantinople he at once set out for Salonika. The next day (April 14) it was announced that the Young Turk Committee refused to recognize the new cabinet and would at once march on Constantinople. The Second and Third

Army Corps, comprising the Albanians, and the Salonikans, and other Macedonians, those regiments which have been most thoroughly Europeanized and through which the revolt of last July was consummated, set out under command of Chevket Pasha for the capital.

On April 21 they arrived at San Stefano, some twenty odd miles from the streets of Constantinople, and gradually drew their lines about the city. They came, their commander announced, to restore the constitution and put down the insurrection against the lawful government which had been sanctioned by Sultan Abdul Hamid. With his lines centering about the capital the leader of the Constitutionalists entered into negotiations with Nazim Pasha for the surrender of the city. Nazim himself, a Constitutionalist and disciplinarian, refused to regard the investing troops as enemies, and at once agreed to punish the mutineers and to co-operate with Chevket in restoring the constitution and re-establishing the authority of the officers. Many troops in the city deserted and went over to the winning side. Some 10,000, however, corrupted, it is now known, by Abdul Hamid's gold, "remained faithful" to the Sultan, and it was against these troops in two barracks and at the Yildiz Kiosk that the only active operations had to be taken. The palace itself was subdued by artillery fire. Early on the morning of April 24 the Macedonian troops, 20,000 strong, advanced with no opposition into the streets of the capital. It was early on Sunday morning, April 25, that the garrison of Yildiz Kiosk marched out in surrender to the Constitutional forces.

Downfall of Abdul Hamid. It had become evident that there could be no security or peace in the empire while Abdul Hamid remained on the throne. His complicity in the revolt was proven beyond a doubt. The troops at the Yildiz openly declared they had received his gold. Enver Bey voiced the universal opinion of the Macedonian troops when he declared that Abdul Hamid must go. "To leave him on the throne would be the death of the country. We shall spare his life, but not his sovereignty." According to Mussulman custom, however, his deposition had to await certain solemn formalities. Without the proclamation of the fetwa (or decree) of the Sheik ul Islam, religious and juristic head of the Moslem Church, no Turkish monarch can be deposed or his au-

thority legally disobeyed. While this decree was being secured Abdul Hamid was closely guarded. He was found, the accounts say, after a general stampede of his favorites from the palace, cowering in an inner room of the harem. Marched into the throne-room, he was there confronted by six representatives of the army and the parliament. To his fearfully and tearfully repeated question as to what was to be his fate no reply was vouchsafed further than that his deposition had been agreed upon and that he must, meanwhile, remain a prisoner.

*Deposing
a Turkish
Sultan.*

It took twenty-four hours to imprison the mutineers and gather into the courtyard of the military barracks all the officials, wives, and domestics of the fallen monarch. On Monday, April 26, the fetwa embodying the bill of indictment against Abdul Hamid was read. It was inscribed in the handwriting of the Sheik ul Islam, Syed Mahomed Zia-ed-Din. Its quaint phraseology sets forth, under a series of suppositions and suggestions, the high crimes and misdemeanors of a hypothetical "Imam (or religious chief) of the Moslems,"

and is, in brief, the verdict of the Turkish people upon Abdul Hamid:

Question—(1) If Zeid, an Imam of the Moslems, removes and causes to be removed from a book of the Sheriat certain questions of the law of the Sheriat, and prevents the circulation of the aforesaid book and causes it to be burned and destroyed by fire; (2) And if he expends wrongfully public treasure, but makes economies contrary to the dispositions of the Sheriat; (3) And if, after slaying and imprisoning the persons of his subjects without legal cause, and after having exiled them and committed other acts of injustice, he swears and takes an engagement to return to the way of peace, but nevertheless perjures himself; (4) And if he wilfully provokes troubles of a nature to throw all Moslem affairs into confusion; (5) And if he causes bloodshed, and the Moslems succeed in destroying the despotism of the said Zeid, and from many regions of Islam come tidings that they consider him dispossessed of the throne, and it be proved that his existence as Imam is harmful, while the country will gain peace and concord by his deposition; (6) And if, in consequence, those in whose hands is the power to bind and to loose and those who administer public affairs consider it preferable to propose that the said Zeid abdicate the throne and the Khali-fat, or if they decide to dethrone him;

May they put into practice one of these two alternatives?

Answer—*Olur.* (It is permitted.)



MACEDONIAN SOLDIERS ENTERING CONSTANTINOPLE.

This decree, read to the trembling monarch, being *de jure* and *de facto* a decree of deposition, Abdul Hamid was promptly sent off under a guard with eleven of his wives and a sufficient retinue for his comfort to Salonika. Swift justice was meted out to the chief mutineers, who, in his service, had opposed the Macedonian army, fifty or more being hanged. Abdul Hamid's favorite son, Prince Burhan-ed-Din, was arrested and imprisoned in Constantinople. A large proportion of the Sultan's treasure, aggregating more than \$8,000,000, was seized, and will be devoted to paying the Constitutional soldiers. The balance of the fallen ruler's fortune, it is believed, is in the form of stocks and bonds deposited in various British, German, and American banks.

Within an hour after Abdul Hamid's deposition, the two houses of the Turkish Parliament, meeting as a National Assembly, unanimously approved the decree of deposition prepared by the Sheik ul Islam and chose



MOHAMMED RESHAD, THE NEW SULTAN, WHO WILL REIGN AS MEHMED V.

Mohammed Reshad Effendi, brother of Abdul Hamid, to be Sultan. Twefik Pasha, a soldier rather than a statesman, at once set about forming a new ministry. He succeeded

only partially, however, and the Young Turk Committee finally, with the approval of the new Sultan, chose Hilmi Pasha to again assume the post of Grand Vizier. A new Sheik ul Islam also was appointed to succeed Zia-ed-Din. Mollah Sahib, the new head of the Moslem Church, is a distinguished theologian who has suffered considerably on account of his liberal views.

There will always, it is probable, be some disagreement as to the extent to which Abdul Hamid, the deposed Sultan, was personally responsible for the execrable régime he has always been held to represent. There are not wanting witnesses to his sincerity, his religious devotion, and his intelligent patriotism. The general verdict, however, of the student and of history itself cannot fail to lay up a heavy score against Abdul Hamid for the cruelty and savagery of his personal rule. His was undoubtedly the guilt for the Armenian massacres and the devastating, exterminating wars in Macedonia. A European diplomat who, from a residence of more than a generation in the Turkish capital, knew Abdul Hamid well, says of him in a trenchant article in a recent number of the *Fortnightly Review*:

Fear was the master instinct of his being, and his reign was bloodier, more systematically cruel, more withering to human happiness than that of most despots who have been actuated by natural ruthlessness and the violence of animal brutality.

Of his native shrewdness and diplomatic *finesse* there can be no doubt. For thirty years he held combined Europe at bay, all in the name of patriotism.

That he was the greatest enemy of his country in all history, however, and that he fully deserved the retributive justice which has been meted out to him, is dramatically set forth in an "open letter" which appeared in the *Courrier d'Orient*, of Constantinople, two days before the Macedonian soldiers entered the capital. This indictment is so strong and complete in its details that we give the full text of it here:

SIRE: You ascended the glorious throne of Osman thirty-three years ago after the sad failures of your predecessors. The country counted upon you, upon your devotion, upon your solemn promises which you had made openly in your imperial proclamation.

Nevertheless, in spite of all our hopes, we

have had nothing but deception upon deception. The reign of your Majesty will be noted in the annals of our country as one of the saddest it has known. It is you who have signed virtually all the treaties which have proved disastrous for our country. Is it necessary to enumerate them?

The Russo-Turkish war, so badly conducted by your incompetent staff, lost us all Bulgaria, Eastern Rumelia, Nisch, and Vrania, certain districts which now belong to Montenegro, the fair provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Thessaly, and a part of Epirus, the provinces of Kars, Batoum, and Ardakhan, and the district of Khoutour. It was also one of the results of that war that we lost our rights of suzerainty over Servia, Roumania, and Montenegro. It will take us seventy-five years yet to get free from our war debt to Russia.

In 1876 it would have been very easy for you to have peacefully solved the Balkan problem by establishing a small, quasi-autonomous province between the Balkan states and the Danube, but the fatuous character of your policies and the discontent of the great powers of Europe have resulted in the existence at our very gates of a state [Bulgaria] which has been enabled to hold up its head in defiance before that mighty power which crushed the eastern Roman empire and carried its standards to the very walls of Vienna.

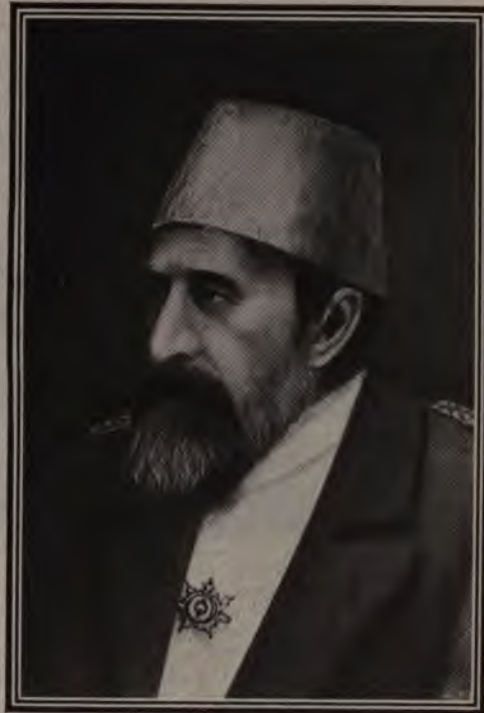
Thanks to the constant and increasing enfeeblement of our forces we have seen the most highly privileged of our provinces, Egypt, under the military occupation of the stranger. Tunis has slipped away from us, as well as Cyprus and the hinterland of Aden, and Crete is menaced from every side.

But these losses are nothing in comparison with the moral degradation which you have permitted to grow from year to year and which is indeed the most distinctive and significant characteristic of the present deplorable events. The system of spying has so corrupted the soul and abased the moral standard of the nation that all our life and energy is threatened with annihilation. The Turkish people, condemned to ignorance and deprived by your system of absolutism for the past quarter of a century of every means of enlightening itself, has been in danger of becoming nothing more than a nation of slaves.

With no system of agriculture, with no commerce, with no industry, there was left to them nothing but to revolt or to commit national suicide. They chose to revolt without violently destroying all national institutions, in the hope that you would comprehend their rights and their aspirations. But they have been once more deceived, and if the gallant army of liberation from Macedonia had not come to their aid there would have been for them no future.

Such, sire, is the balance sheet of your reign. It is for you to sum up all the losses and all the disgraces.

We hope that you will be convinced without further delay of your Majesty's total incapacity to direct the destinies of the Turkish people. Sire, the entire nation awaits for that solemn hour when you will atone by all that is within your power for a past for which you alone are responsible.



ABDUL HAMID II., THE DEPOSED TURKISH SULTAN.
(An unusual portrait, but regarded as a good likeness of Abdul Hamid in his prime.)

The Massacres in Asia Minor.

Perhaps the most significant and damning evidence of Abdul Hamid's part in the counter-revolution of April 13 at Constantinople is the fact, which has just come to light, that the outbreak in Adana, which was the precursor of so much blood and massacre through all Asia Minor, began on the morning of April 14. It is reported, also, that on that day the Vali, or governor of the province, boasted that Abdul Hamid had re-established himself in absolute power in Constantinople and that no effort would be made by the troops to stop the burning, plundering, and killing. Until the severe censorship of the authorities is raised we cannot know what actually happened nor the exact conditions at the present time in that troubled region about Alexandretta. It seems certain, however, according to reliable reports, that between 15,000 and 20,000 lives and a vast amount of property represents the loss sustained.

Measures of Justice and Relief.

The Armenians, of course, suffered the most. It is always "Kill the Armenians!" during times of riot in Turkey, as it is "Kill the



The first Christian in a Turkish Cabinet, Gabriel Nurendungian Effendi (Armenian), at present Minister of Public Works and Commerce.



The Sheik ul Islam. The Mohammedan Pope, Syed Mohammed Zia-ed-Din, who signed the Fetwa deposing Abdul Hamid. He resigned late in April.



Ahmed Risa, the typical Young Turk. The editor of the *Mech-reret*, organ of the propaganda, and former president of the first Turkish Parliament.

THE BREADTH AND TOLERANCE OF THE NEW RÉGIME IN TURKEY IS SHOWN BY ITS LEADERS.

Jews!" during similar periods in Russia. The Armenians have been accused, whether justly or not, of conspiring against the Constantinople government upon many different occasions. Whether the animosity of the Moslem to the Armenian is due to religious fanaticism or, as has been maintained by some political students, it is due to intrigue instigated by the Russian Government, which regards the Armenians as an obstacle to Russia's southward march, statistics show that since 1850 more than 135,000 Armenians have been massacred in Turkish possessions. Two American missionaries lost their lives in these latest disorders, which the Constitutional government at Constantinople seems sincerely desirous of ending. A special commission and part of an army corps of troops have been dispatched to Adana, the Turkish Parliament has appropriated \$150,000 for the relief of the sufferers, and the governor of the province will, it is announced, be court-martialed. Warships of a number of the European powers, as well as two American cruisers, have been sent to the scene of the disorders.

Mehmed V., the New Sultan. The new Sultan, Mohammed Reshad Effendi, who ascends the throne after an imprisonment in a palace for thirty years, is in his sixty-fifth

year, and the third son of Sultan Abdul Medjid. His eldest brother reigned as Murad V., but was deposed in August, 1876, on the ground of insanity, being succeeded by Abdul Hamid II. Reshad will reign as Mehmed V. Mehmed is short for Mohammed, it being considered inappropriate to adopt the Prophet's precise name. The new Padishah, according to a description of his person, which is no doubt authentic, is tall and well-proportioned, but inclined to stoop. His features are regular, but he has a hooked nose like that of Abdul Hamid. His manners are very gracious and easy, and he is exceedingly generous and kind. He is not at all fanatical, but is sincerely religious. His two wives are well-educated and they dress in the French fashion. Reshad is a man of excellent intentions but rather weak will, who has passed the greater part of his life under duress, surrounded, however, by the enervating influences of idleness, luxury, and the harem.

His Character and Promises. Reshad has, notwithstanding his long imprisonment, kept himself in touch with the progressive movements of the time and sees nothing, he declares, incompatible between political freedom and the sacred law of the Mohammedans. According to an interview



Hilmi Pasha, Grand Vizier under the new régime.



Major Enver Bey, the "hero of the Constitutional Campaign."



Chevket Pasha, commander-in-chief of the new Turkish army.

THE YOUNG TURK PREMIER AND THE BACKBONE OF THE "REFORM" ARMY.

he had after his proclamation as Sultan with the Constantinople correspondent of the *London Daily Chronicle*, the new Sultan insists that he is "on the European side of the line that divides his empire." Tell the world, he said,

I am pleased to become the first constitutional sovereign of Turkey. Doubtless my successor will improve upon me, but you may rely upon my doing my best. I also have suffered oppression, and can, therefore, enter into the feelings of my fellow sufferers. . . . I have ever been a convinced and ardent supporter of the cause of enlightenment, liberty, and progress. . . . From my earliest years, while faithful to the precepts and teachings of the Koran, I have been an advocate of a constitutional charter and parliamentary institutions. I am a firm supporter of the policy of Young Turkey, and with the full enjoyment of political freedom I see nothing incompatible with Mohammedan sacred law.

The formal accession to the throne took place May 10, when the consecration of Mehmed V. by the "Ceremony of the Sword" was performed, this ceremony taking the place of the coronation in western nations. The sword ceremony is always celebrated in the Mosque of Ayoub (Job), the most exquisite of Turkish temples, commemorating the Prophet's comrade Ayoub, who fell under the walls of Constantinople when it was first besieged by the Saracens in the seventh century. In this mosque is preserved the sword of Othman, or Osman, the founder of the dynasty, and it is by the investi-

ture of the Sultan with this time-honored weapon that he formally assumes his title and office as monarch. Mehmed V. has now been officially recognized by President Taft and most of the rulers of Europe.

Some
Turkish
Leaders.

The peaceful Turkish revolution has not been marked by any number of great leaders, although a few of the moving spirits have undoubtedly made for themselves places in the history not only of their own country but as well in the story of the development of modern Europe. Neither the outgoing nor incoming monarch can be called a leader. Indeed, there was no inspiring force in the old régime to enthuse any one man to stand at its head. Among the Young Turks,—or Constitutionalists, as they are now generally called,—the honors belong to Mahmud Chevket Pasha, commander-in-chief of the Third Army Corps (Macedonians from Salonika) and head of the Constitutional troops in their march on Constantinople, who declined the viziership and dictatorial authority because, he declared, the army was the servant, not the master of the people; Major Enver Bey, the idol of the Turkish soldiers and the real hero of the revolution of July last, which resulted in the promulgation of the Constitution; Ahmed Riza, editor of the *Mechveret*, who conducted the Young Turk propaganda for years from Paris and who afterwards became one of the most

prominent members of the Committee of Union and Progress and president of the first parliament; and Niazi Bey, the beloved disciplinarian of the European corps of the army. Not so distinct in the outlines of their patriotism, but noteworthy for the part they played in the revolution, were Kiamil Pasha, the aged first Grand Vizier under the new régime; Hilmi Pasha, who succeeded him, was deposed by the reactionary overturn in the middle of April and is now again Premier; Tewfik Pasha, minister of war under Abdul Hamid's government; and Gabriel Nurensungian Effendi, the first Christian to become a member of a Turkish ministry, who now holds the portfolio of Public Works and Commerce. It is impossible to withhold admiration from the courageous and progressive head of the Mohammedan church, the Sheik ul Islam (Syed Mahomed Zia-ed-Din), who was in the forefront of the revolutionary movement and who so ably seconded all the efforts of the Young Turk Committee. The new Sheik is also a man

of eminence and character, and has proclaimed himself fully in sympathy with the progressive views of the new leaders.

*Is Turkish
Character
Changing?*

If the Young 'Turks' campaign to Europeanize the empire has actually reached the stage of making the Turk fit to remain on the European side of the Bosphorus it has wrought a radical, far-reaching change in his nature. Ninety per cent. of the subjects of the Sultan are Moslems under the religion and government of Mohammed, which is the religion and dominion of the sword. The whole history of the race has been that of warriors who have maintained their hold upon conquered provinces by the strength of their military arm alone. For six centuries the thirty-four descendants of Othman have ruled a race of fighters and have never administered any province except in the interest of tribute. For six centuries before the time of Othman the Turk was a nomadic warrior whose exploits in Asia made him the terror of all the eastern world that dwelt in cities. The religion of Mohammed itself has been spread only by the sword.



THE MESSAGE FROM AFAR.

THE ACHILLES OF CORFU (the statue set up a year or so ago by Kaiser Wilhelm, of Germany, on the island which is almost within sight of the Turkish land): "Alas, poor Abdul Hamid, how gladly would I have aided you. But unfortunately in these days even demigods and heroes can fight constitutions only in a constitutional way."

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin)

*A Glance
Back at
History.*

When the ferocious Turks descended on western Asia they carried everything before them, and by the thirteenth century they were masters of Asia Minor, or Anatolia, as the Turks now call it, and were beginning to cast their eyes over the lands beyond the Bosphorus in Europe. In the early fourteenth century they crossed to European soil. In 1453, to the horror of all Christendom, they took Constantinople, the old city of the Byzantine Roman Empire, and thus secured a solid foothold on the continent which no single European nation or combination of powers has ever been able to shake. Before the year 1500 they had conquered all the Balkan peninsula and it was only the warlike temper of the Huns, so like them in many ways, that kept them from ravaging western Europe. Their armies conquered Macedonia, Servia, Bulgaria, part of what is now Russia, Roumania, Montenegro, Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Greece in Europe, advancing to the walls of Vienna, from which they were only hurled back by the valor of the Polish King, John Sobieski. They held sway in Asia to the boundaries of Persia, while to the southward their rule extended into Africa, subjecting Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers.



THE DOLMA-BATSCHÉ PALACE ON THE BOSPHORUS, WHERE THE NEW SULTAN WILL LIVE.

The Decline of the Turks. The decay of Turkish power began with the rise of Russia to a dominating influence in European councils. Up to the beginning of the past century, however, the Turk was a great force in European councils. In 1821 Greece became independent and seven years later Russia severely defeated the Moslem armies, and the real partition of Turkey had begun. After the war of 1878, when the victorious Russian armies were within a day's march of Constantinople, the Berlin Treaty, replacing the agreement of San Stefano and representing the compromise brought about by the jealousies and fears of combined Europe, stripped the Turk of a vast section of his European possessions, set up the independent kingdoms of Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro, extended the Greek boundary into Turkish lands, gave Bosnia and Herzegovina to Austria for administration, transferred valuable Turkish territory to Russia, and turned over to Great Britain some of the islands in the Mediterranean which had formerly owed allegiance to the Porte. For thirty years the misrule of the despot Abdul Hamid in that section known as Macedonia (the three vilayets of Kossovo, Monastir, and Salonika) was the sharpest thorn in the side of European diplomacy, while the Armenian massacres of 1895 and 1896 aroused the horror of the entire world.

The Moslem Empire Since 1878. Since the Treaty of Berlin the fate of Turkey has been the great unsolved and apparently insoluble question before the European great

powers, and the shift and play of continental *weltpolitik* has been responsible for much of the misrule of the Hamidian régime. Last autumn, as the readers of this REVIEW will remember, Bulgaria suddenly declared her independence of Turkish suzerainty and Austria-Hungary formally annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina. These events, following rapidly as they did upon the peaceful revolution of the summer before in Turkey, resulting in the promulgation of a constitution for the empire, set the continental chancelleries by the ears and involved all Europe in a diplomatic contest which threatened at one time an armed encounter. The new Turkey, under the Constitutional régime, emerges from the political turmoil of the past year with a European area equal to that of the State of Missouri and an empire in Asia still of vast extent, but in the most chaotic and unstable of political and social conditions.

Europeanizing Turkey. Of the forces and impulses which brought about the constitutional triumph among the Turks we as yet know but little. The spread of education and contact with the rest of Europe and the penetration of modern industrial and economic methods, of course, have had great weight. Much influence must be ascribed to the progress westward, from Japan through Asia, of the constitutional idea, which has all but triumphed in Persia and is yet troubling China and stirring British India. Perhaps the most significant fact in the entire ferment throughout Turkey during the past generation has

been the emergence of the idea of an Ottoman citizenship, which has apparently already permeated every nationality of that polyglot land of many creeds. Ever since the Turk entered Europe his dominions have been governed by the law of the conqueror over conquered provinces. Such administrative theory as obtained was based on religious creed rather than on any one nationality or any number of different nationalities.

An Ottoman "Citizenship." The chief result of the campaign carried on by the Young Turks since 1878 to Europeanize Turkey has been the gradual conscious growth of an Ottoman people irrespective of original race or of difference of creed. The army that took Constantinople in April presented the unusual spectacle of Moslem and Christian, Greek, Albanian, Bulgarian, and Turk marching side by side in a common cause and camping in the same tents without quarreling. Such leaders as Chevket Pasha, Enver Bey, Ahmed Riza, and others are performing wonders in reconciling the Sheriat, or religious law of Moslem, with the modern European codes and raising economic and social interests to a level with Moslem religious zeal and Oriental military caste. They have already admitted a Greek and an Armenian, both Christians, to the cabinet, for the first time in the history of Turkey. In the parliament party lines freely cut across the lines of race and religious cleavage, and the utterances of the Young Turk leaders all repudiate any intention of exalting the Moslem at the expense of any of the various "Giaour" peoples under Turkish rule. The new empire, we are promised, will take stock of social, economic, and political forces as well as of religious and racial ones in its national life.

What of the Future? With the accession of Sultan Mehmed V., Turkey stands on the threshold of a new era. Whether or not the Young Turks will be able to organize and consolidate the entire Ottoman Empire on a constitutional basis will depend not only on the way they have met the test of an effective self-restrained military organization, but upon whether they will successfully meet the more difficult test of statesmanship required by the new order of things. Mr. Oscar Straus (a sketch of whose career and achievements appears on

page 685 this month), whose appointment for the third time to represent us at Constantinople was on May 12 sent to the Senate and accepted by the Turkish Government, sees much promise in the future for a rejuvenated Turkey. He believes that recent developments in that empire are making it necessary for us Americans particularly to recast our ideas regarding the ability of the Turkish people to maintain real constitutional government.

Is Mesopotamia to Be the New Zion? Nothing is perhaps more dramatically illustrative of the change that has come over the government and political life of Turkey than the offer, made by the new Constitutional régime to the Jews of the world, to turn over to them for the establishment of their new Zion that vast region known as Mesopotamia. For years the Jewish organizations of the world, under the leadership of Israel Zangwill and the late Baron de Hirsch, tried, but vainly, to get permission from Abdul Hamid to found in Palestine colonies of Jews which should, by absorbing the Hebrew populations of Russia, Roumania, Austria-Hungary, and the rest of the world generally, virtually solve the entire Jewish question. The announcement, at the convention of the Jewish Territorial Organization in session last month in London, of the offer of the Constantinople government, has been received by Hebrews all over the world, particularly in this country, with great satisfaction. It is estimated that the region in question would support six million or more of the eight or ten million Jewish population of the globe. The enterprise would have the financial resources of more than \$100,000,000 and the active support of the Jewish Territorial Association, the Jewish Colonization Association, the Jewish German Relief Society, the French Alliance of Jews, and the organization of the Zionist movement itself. The Jewish Colonization Association has commanded, it will be remembered, of a fund of nearly \$45,000,000 left it by the late Baron de Hirsch. Whether or not the Jewish people of western lands could be induced to emigrate to a rejuvenated Palestine is an open question. To most American Hebrews the United States is, beyond any doubt, the Promised Land. Mesopotamia is no doubt to be the home, not of American, but of Eastern European Jews.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From April 21 to May 19, 1909.)

PROCEEDINGS IN CONGRESS.

April 21.—In the Senate, the reading of the Tariff bill paragraphs is begun; Mr. Cummins (Rep., Ia.) presents and discusses his income-tax provision.

April 22.—In the Senate, Mr. Dolliver (Rep., Ia.) and Mr. Nelson (Rep., Minn.) attack the Tariff bill on the ground that it is not downward revision; the bill is defended by Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.) . . . The House considers the conference report on the Census bill.

April 23.—In the Senate, the first reading of the Tariff bill for consideration of committee amendments is completed.

April 26.—In the Senate, Mr. Bailey (Dem., Tex.) speaks in favor of his income-tax amendment to the Tariff bill.

April 27-28.—In the Senate, the Tariff bill is discussed by Mr. Scott (Rep., W. Va.), Mr. Gore (Dem., Okla.), Mr. Simmons (Dem., N. C.), and Mr. Brown (Rep., Neb.).

April 29.—In the Senate, Mr. Rayner (Dem., Md.) denounces the protective system; Mr. Nelson (Rep., Minn.) urges that lumber be placed on the free list.

April 30.—In the Senate, Mr. McCumber (Rep., N. D.) makes a speech favoring free lumber; Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.) reports from the committee on finance additional amendments to the Tariff bill.

May 3.—In the Senate, Mr. Piles (Rep., Wash.) defends the Dingley rates on lumber and Mr. Borah (Rep., Idaho) advocates an income tax.

May 4.—In the Senate, Mr. Dolliver (Rep., Iowa) attacks the textile schedules in the Tariff bill.

May 5.—The Senate Finance Committee is sustained in its position on the Tariff bill, on a test vote, by 41 to 34.

May 6.—In the Senate, Mr. Cummins (Rep., Iowa) advocates lower duties on iron and steel.

May 7-8.—The Senate fixes the duty on lead contained in lead ore at 1½ cents per pound, the rate of the Dingley law and the Payne bill; Mr. Clapp (Rep., Minn.) speaks in favor of lower duties, and Mr. Owen (Dem., Okla.) advocates an income tax.

May 10.—A special message is received from President Taft recommending amendment of the Foraker act under which Porto Rico is governed. . . . The Senate, by a vote of 44 to 35, upholds the recommendation of the Finance Committee declining to reduce the duty on pig lead. . . . In the House, Mr. Payne (Rep., N. Y.) reports the Philippine Tariff bill from the Ways and Means Committee with amendments.

May 11.—In the Senate, Mr. Depew (Rep., N. Y.) introduces a bill for the relief of the



GOV. FRANK B. WEEKS, OF CONNECTICUT.
(Successor to Governor Lilley, who died on April 21.)

civil government of Porto Rico in the manner suggested in President Taft's message.

May 13.—The Senate, by a vote of 61 to 24, adopts the Finance Committee's recommendation that a duty of 25 cents per ton be placed on iron ore. . . . The House considers the Philippine Tariff bill.

May 14.—The Senate, by a vote of 35 to 42, defeats an amendment to the Tariff bill offered by Mr. Cummins (Rep., Iowa) to lower the duty on round iron.

May 15.—In the Senate, on motion of Mr. Aldrich (Rep., R. I.), duties on several classes of wire goods contained in the steel schedule of the Tariff bill are lowered.

May 17.—The House adopts a resolution asking the Attorney-General for information as to the absorption of the Tennessee Coal & Iron Company by the United States Steel Corporation.

May 18.—In the Senate, the amendment to the Tariff bill introduced by Mr. Stone (Dem., Mo.) to restore the Dingley rates on razors is defeated by a vote of 43 to 36.

May 19.—In the Senate, Mr. Clay (Dem., Ga.) attacks the Sugar Trust.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

April 21.—President Taft asks the Attorney-General to investigate the complaint that certain Western railroads are discriminating against Salt Lake City, Ogden, and other intermountain cities in the matter of freight rates.

April 23.—Governor Willson, of Kentucky, pardons ex-Governor W. S. Taylor and five others indicted in connection with the murder of William Goebel in 1900.

April 29.—The New York Legislature provides for the appointment of commissions to inquire into the question of extending the jurisdiction of the Public Service Commissions to include telephone and telegraph companies and into the question of direct nominations; the equal pay bill for school teachers in New York City passes the Assembly and goes to the Mayor; under an emergency message from Governor Hughes the Senate and the Assembly pass the bill providing for a graduated registration fee for automobiles.... A settlement is approved between the American Sugar Refining Company and the Government on the latter's claims for fraudulent weighing of sugar.

April 30.—The New York Legislature adjourns.

May 3.—The United States Supreme Court, in deciding the commodities clause of the rate law, sustains the Government's contention that the clause is constitutional, but holds that a carrier may own stock in a producing company and at the same time may transport the products of that company.

May 4.—The court of inquiry appointed to determine which of the negro soldiers discharged as a result of the Brownsville shooting trouble are qualified for re-enlistment begins its sessions at Washington.

May 6.—President Taft nominates Judge William M. Lanning, of Trenton, N. J., to be United States Circuit Judge for the Third Judicial Circuit.

May 7.—Rear-Admiral William P. Potter is appointed chief of the Bureau of Navigation of the Navy Department to succeed Rear-Admiral John E. Pillsbury, retired.... Indictments are returned against seven employees of the American Sugar Refining Company, charging complicity in the weighing frauds against the Government; the men are dismissed from the employ of the company.

May 8.—President Taft nominates Thomas J. Akins for postmaster of St. Louis.

May 10.—President Taft appoints Henry Groves Connor (Dem.) United States Judge for the eastern district of North Carolina.... Collector Loeb, of the Port of New York, dismisses five men from the customs service following an investigation in weighing frauds.

May 14.—President Taft creates a board to supervise purchases of supplies for the Government.... Mayor McClellan, of New York, vetoes the teachers' equal pay bill, but announces that he will appoint a commission to investigate the question of salaries.

May 15.—Colorado Springs, Colo., adopts the commission form of government under a charter which provides the recall, initiative, and referendum.... The Philippine legislature elects

Benito Legarda and Manuel Quezon delegates to Congress.... President Taft, in a letter to Governor Stubbs, of Kansas, declares that he will not permit himself to be used by any faction for the promotion of its political fortunes.

May 18.—President Taft nominates William Williams for Commissioner of Immigration at the Port of New York, William S. Washburn for Civil Service Commissioner, and Walter E. Clark for Governor of Alaska.... The Interstate Commerce Commission rules that negro passengers paying the same fare as white passengers cannot be legally discriminated against in the way of accommodations.... Attorney-General Wickersham stops the investigation of the town lot fraud cases at Muskogee, Okla., upon receipt of charges affecting the official conduct of the federal prosecutors.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

April 21.—The Young Turks organize an army to suppress the rebellion in northern Macedonia.... Premier Asquith introduces the Welsh disestablishment bill in the British House of Commons.

April 24.—The garrison of Constantinople is surrendered to the Macedonian troops; good order is established in the city; the Sultan is held virtually a prisoner in the Yildiz Kiosk.

April 27.—Abdul Hamid II. is deposed and his brother, Reshad Effendi, who will be known as Mehmed V., is proclaimed Sultan of Turkey; Ahmed Riza Bey is appointed Grand Vizier.

April 28.—Abdul Hamid, the deposed Sultan of Turkey, is removed to Salonika, where he will be kept a prisoner.

April 29.—Mr. Lloyd-George, Chancellor of the Exchequer, introduces the budget in the British House of Commons; it shows a deficit of about \$78,000,000, which will be provided chiefly by new methods of taxation.... Two hundred and fifty persons are executed after trial by court-martial in Constantinople.

April 30.—Tewfik Pasha announces the names of the Turkish cabinet of which he is Grand Vizier.

May 1.—The finance committee of the German Reichstag votes in favor of taxing the approved values of real estate between sales.... The Turkish Parliament decides to send a commission to investigate the massacres in Syria, to organize a military court to try the rioters, and to appropriate \$100,000 to relieve distress in that district.

May 3.—The Turkish cabinet resigns, but is requested by the Sultan to remain in office; thirteen leaders in the recent conspiracy are hanged.

May 5.—Hilmi Pasha is chosen Grand Vizier and Mollah Sahib, Sheikh ul Islam in the Turkish cabinet; the deputies vote \$150,000 to relieve sufferers in the Adana district.... Unionists win by a large majority in the British Parliamentary election at Stratford, the issues being tariff reform and a big navy.

May 6.—The Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones Employees' Association defies the French Government by forming itself into a syndicate or union and claiming the right to strike against the state.

May 7.—The Attorney-General of France be-

gins proceedings to dissolve unions of state employees.

May 9.—A new Persian cabinet is formed with Nasir el Mulk as premier; the Shah issues a decree granting political amnesty.

May 10.—The Czar of Russia refuses to sign the naval staff bill and to accept the cabinet's resignation, ordering the ministers to retain their posts.

May 11.—After the French Chamber of Deputies decides to postpone debate on the question of syndicates, the unions of state employees vote to strike at once; the government announces its intention to make no concessions.

May 12.—Twenty-four mutineers of the Turkish army and navy are hanged in Constantinople....The Cuban House of Representatives, by a vote of 52 to 20, passes the national lottery bill.

May 13.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 454 to 59, declares its confidence in the government in its treatment of the striking state employees.

May 14.—Leading bankers and merchants in London protest against provisions in the British budget recently introduced....A bill removing Catholic disabilities passes its second reading in the British House of Commons....The Italian ministry of marine decides to build four *Dreadnoughts* and also scout cruisers, the cost being estimated at \$52,800,000.

May 17.—The French Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 379 to 83, upholds the policy of M. Clemenceau and defeats a resolution to ask the president to prorogue parliament; the postal strike has practically collapsed....The Cuban budget of approximately \$29,000,000 involves a deficit of \$2,000,000, which it is expected to cover by the profits from the national lottery bill....The Turkish Parliament will be asked to vote \$15,000,000 to reorganize the army.

May 18.—The French Parliamentary Committee appointed to investigate reported naval scandals denounces methods of the Construction Department....Lidj Jeassu, grandson of King Menelik, is chosen heir to the throne of Abyssinia....General Stoessel and Admiral Nebogetov are released from the Russian fortress of Sts. Peter and Paul.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

April 21.—British, Italian, and German warships land bluejackets at Mersina, in Asia Minor....The Canadian cruiser *Kestrel* fires on, hits, and captures the American fishing schooner *Woodbury* off Vancouver....Russian forces gathered on the Persian border are preparing, with the consent of Great Britain, to begin a march on Tabriz.

April 22.—British and Russian diplomatic representatives at Teheran advise the Shah to restore the constitution and proclaim amnesty to all political offenders....Japan is reported as sending large bodies of troops into Manchuria....The patent treaty between the United States and Germany is ratified by the German Bundesrath.

April 23.—The independence of Bulgaria is formally recognized by the British and French ministers at Sofia....The United States cruises

Montana and *North Carolina* leave Guantanamo, Cuba, for Turkish waters.

April 24.—King Edward of Great Britain congratulates King Ferdinand on the recognition of Bulgarian independence.

April 26.—M. Zinoviev, Russian ambassador to Turkey, is recalled and General Palitzin is appointed to the post....The Russian expedition into Persia continues its march to Tabriz.

April 27.—Austria-Hungary, Germany, and Italy acknowledge the independence of Bulgaria.

April 30.—The Russian forces enter Tabriz without meeting serious opposition.



THE LATE BISHOP CHARLES B. GALLOWAY, OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH SOUTH.

(A staunch supporter of education in the South.)

May 1.—The United States Government gives formal notice of its intention to terminate special commercial agreements negotiated with foreign countries under the Dingley tariff law.

May 3.—The State Department at Washington announces the appointment of Oscar S. Straus as ambassador to Turkey (see page 685) and W. W. Rockhill as ambassador to Russia.

May 4.—Russia decides to dismantle or raze her forts on the Polish frontier....An agreement is reached between Venezuela and the French Cable Company, the government taking over the coast lines in return for a renewal of the monopoly....The Shah of Persia accepts the Russo-British proposals for reform....Diplomatic relations between the United States and Venezuela are completely re-established at an audience given by President Taft to Minister Rojas.

May 6.—A joint commission of representatives of the United States and Canada meet at St. John, N. B., to decide matters in dispute concerning the use of the St. John River, which forms part of the national boundary.

May 11.—China and Russia sign an agreement regarding the government in the railway zone in Manchuria based on the sovereignty of China and insuring protection to foreign interests.... President Taft congratulates the Shah of Persia on the re-establishment of a constitutional régime.

May 12.—Venezuela and the French Cable Company sign an agreement covering all points in dispute; direct communication with Caracas is restored.

May 13.—The Turkish Chamber of Deputies approves the Turco-Bulgarian protocol settling all claims arising through the proclamation of Bulgaria's independence.

May 15.—Representatives of British, German, and French bankers meet in Berlin and arrange a settlement of pending controversies concerning Chinese railroad concessions.

May 17.—President Taft receives Pedro Gonzales, Nicaragua's special envoy to settle the Emery claim.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

April 21.—The steamer *Admiral*, with Mr. Roosevelt and his party on board, arrives at Mombasa.... The General Confederation of Labor calls on all French unions to strike on May Day.

April 22.—From 10,000 to 15,000 Armenians are reported to have been killed in Asia Minor.... There is a fall in the price of wheat in Chicago and in the English market.... An exhibition of French and British portraits painted by the masters of the eighteenth century is opened in Paris.... Three American women missionaries send out an appeal for help from Hadjin, Asiatic Turkey, which is threatened by flames and invested by tribesmen.... Mr. Roosevelt and his party leave Mombasa for the ranch of Sir Alfred Pease on the Aphi River.

April 23.—A violent shock of earthquake is felt in Portugal; about 200 people are killed.

April 24.—President Fallières, of France, unveils a statue of Gambetta, at Nice; M. Clemenceau delivers an important speech.... Ex-President Roosevelt and his party pass their first night in camp at Kapiti Plains.

April 26.—The International Woman Suffrage Congress opens in London; delegates from seventeen countries are present.

April 27.—As a result of an explosion on the Italian submarine *Fota* at Naples eleven men are killed and eleven injured.... The first advance in finished steel prices since the open market declaration is made by the Carnegie Company.

April 28.—The body of Major l'Enfant, who planned the city of Washington, is buried in Arlington National Cemetery after services in the capitol.... The convention of the United Mine Workers, at Scranton, Pa., unanimously adopts the extension of the present agreement with the anthracite operators for three years more.... The Public Service Commission orders

all surface roads in New York City to equip their cars with wheel guards.

April 29.—The awards in the international art exhibition at Pittsburg are announced.... The agreement between the anthracite operators and their employees, for a three years' term, is signed in Philadelphia.

April 30.—A princess is born to the Queen of Holland.... A series of tornadoes through the Southern States cause the death of hundreds of persons and the destruction of millions of dollars' worth of property.... The labor unions on the Great Lakes vote almost unanimously to strike.... A bakers' strike is inaugurated on the East Side of New York City.

May 1.—In a May Day riot in Buenos Aires five persons are killed and many seriously wounded.... The body of the Emperor of China, who died in Peking in November last, begins its eighty-mile journey to the western tomb.

May 2.—Orville and Wilbur Wright arrive in London to receive the gold medal of the Aeronautical Society.... A cold wave in northwestern France seriously damages fruit crops and vineyards.... Officers and troopers of the United States Army leave Fort Myer, Va., on a thirty-day march over Grant's route in the Civil War.... The National Peace Conference meets in Chicago.

May 3.—The Aeronautical Society in London presents its gold medal to Wilbur and Orville Wright, of the United States.... A strike called in Buenos Aires as a protest against the action of the police in the May-Day riots is practically general.

May 4.—The police of Buenos Aires make 600 arrests in connection with the strike.

May 5.—The Second National Peace Conference adjourns at Chicago after passing resolutions favoring international arbitration.

May 7.—A statue of Henry Wadsworth Longfellow is unveiled at Washington, D. C.

May 8.—A strike of Chicago drivers, affecting 1000 men, goes into effect.... The American Liberian Commission arrives at Monrovia.

May 10.—The *Mauretania* breaks the Atlantic eastward record, making the run in four days, eighteen hours, and eleven minutes.... James H. Boyle and his wife, Helen Boyle, convicted of kidnapping, are sentenced for life and for twenty-five years, respectively, in the Pennsylvania penitentiary.

May 11.—An overloaded gasoline launch sinks in the Ohio River, near Pittsburg, drowning twenty passengers.... The National Episcopal Church Congress meets at Boston.... Captain Peter C. Hains, Jr., U. S. A., is found guilty of manslaughter in the first degree.

May 12.—The merging of six large coal companies, representing a capitalization of over \$35,000,000, is announced at Baltimore.... The Omaha Electric Exposition is lighted by electricity brought from a point six miles distant by wireless.... Twenty men are killed by a premature explosion of 1000 pounds of dynamite at South Bethlehem, N. Y.... A monument to Captain Henry Wirz, commander of Andersonville Prison during the Civil War, is unveiled at Andersonville, Ga.

May 13.—Forest fires in the vicinity of Vera Cruz, Mexico, render hundreds of persons homeless.... The *Chicago*, of the Générale Transatlantique Line, goes ashore near Havre.

May 14.—The National Tuberculosis Convention is held in Washington, D. C.

May 17.—The leading independent steel manufacturers announce an advance of 10 per cent. in wages, to take effect on June 1.... Captain Peter C. Hains, Jr., U. S. A., is sentenced to Sing Sing Prison for not less than eight years nor more than sixteen years.

May 18.—Dr. Charles W. Eliot retires from the presidency of Harvard University, and is succeeded in that office by Prof. A. Lawrence Lowell.

May 19.—President Taft speaks at the unveiling of a bronze shaft to General Hartranft and the Pennsylvania volunteers at Petersburg.

OBITUARY.

April 21.—Ex-United States Senator David Turpie, of Indiana, 80.... Dr. Samuel June Barrows, author, criminologist, and former member of Congress, 64.... Gov. George L. Lilley, of Connecticut, 49.

April 23.—Ex-United States Senator William M. Stewart, of Nevada, 81.... Peter Fenelon Collier, a well-known New York publisher, 60.... Col. Franklin Bartlett, a leading New York lawyer, 61.

April 24.—Charles Warren Stoddard, the author, 66.

April 26.—Principal Marcus Dods, of Edinburgh, 75.... Brig.-Gen. John D. Babcock, U. S. A., a famous Indian fighter, 62.

April 27.—Heinrich Conried, former director of the Metropolitan Opera House, New York, 54.... Olive Logan, the American author, actress, and lecturer, 70.... Ex-Congressman Joseph W. Babcock, of Wisconsin, 59.

April 28.—Ex-Gov. Frederick Holbrook, of Vermont, the oldest ex-Governor in the United States, 96.... Andrew Mason, for nearly sixty years in the Government service as an assayer, 81.... Caleb B. Tillinghast, State Librarian of Massachusetts, 66.

April 29.—Mrs. Emily P. Collins, one of the original woman suffrage champions of this country, 94.

April 30.—Theodore Minot Clark, a well-known Boston architect, 64.... Cornelius Fellows, former secretary of the Coney Island Jockey Club and president of the National Horse Show, 69.

May 2.—Dr. Manuel Amador, first president of the Panama republic, 74.... Very Rev. John Marshall Lang, chancellor and principal of Aberdeen University, 75.

May 4.—Horace St. George Voules, editor of the *London Truth*, 65.

May 6.—Hammond Lamont, editor of the *New York Nation*, 45.

May 7.—Judge Henry L. Palmer, formerly president of the Northwestern Mutual Life Insurance Company, of Milwaukee, Wis., 90.... Rev. William Allen Johnson, D.D., of the Berkeley Divinity School, 76.



THE LATE PETER F. COLLIER.

(The New York publisher.)

May 8.—Friederich von Holstein, for thirty years connected with the German foreign office, 72.... Joachim Andersen, the Danish composer and conductor.

May 9.—William L. Penfield, formerly solicitor of the Department of State, of Washington, 63.... Mrs. Augusta Evans Wilson, the story writer, 71.

May 10.—Jose Augustin Arango, secretary for foreign relations at Panama, 68.... Rev. Laurence J. Vaughan, a noted Roman Catholic priest, Shakespearean lecturer, and playwright, 45.... Charles Dunham Deshler, the literary critic, 90.

May 12.—Bishop Charles B. Galloway, of the Methodist Episcopal Church South, 60.

May 14.—J. Otis Minott, the painter of miniatures, 46.

May 15.—Gen. Victor Calderon Reyes, recently commander-in-chief of the Colombian army.

May 16.—Dr. Gerardus Hilles-Wynkoop, a prominent New York physician, 66.

May 17.—George Meredith, the English novelist, 81.

May 18.—Ex-Judge Denis O'Brien, of the New York Court of Appeals, 72.

May 19.—Henry H. Rogers, of the Standard Oil Company, 69.... Isaac Albeniz, the Spanish composer, 48.

SOME OF THE RECENT CARTOONS.



PIE, OR PRINCIPLE?

From the Sun (Baltimore).

THE cartoonists are keeping pace with the continuing efforts of Congress to revise the tariff, and most of their clever and amusing conceptions are devoted to this subject. Our department opens with a specimen from Mr. Barclay, of the Baltimore Sun,



STANDING PAT.

From the Post-Intelligencer (Seattle).



THINGS HAVE CHANGED.

"Look, Nelse! This paper was issued last October, and it's full of promises from us about this revision nonsense!"

"You know, Joseph, when the devil was sick the devil a monk would be!"

From the Sun (Baltimore).



GIVING NURSIE A BAD SCARE.

(Insurgent Republicans make trouble in the Senate for Aldrich's Tariff bill.)

From the *Saturday Globe* (Utica).

showing Senator Aldrich and Speaker Cannon at the protection pie counter. The cartoonist questions whether the Congressmen really desire a protective tariff as a matter of principle, or for the special advantage,—or "pie,"—of some favored interests. And as to "pie," the placard announces several kinds. "What'll ye have?" say Uncle Joe and Senator Aldrich, and from the look on the Congressman's face it would seem that he is not getting the kind or the quantity he wants.

The gentleman and the donkey, in the cartoon from the *Seattle Post-Intelligencer*, are supposed to represent the obstructionist methods of the Democratic party in Congress, holding up the tariff which the "revisionists" are anxious to complete. In the cartoon at the top of this page Senators Beveridge, Cummins, and Dolliver are represented as Indians threatening the life of the Aldrich tariff baby, owing to their efforts to have certain tariff provisions of the Aldrich bill amended. And while Congress is



"HEY! WAKE UP!"

From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



THE MAY POLE DANCE.

From the *Herald* (Boston).



THE NIGHTMARE OF THE TARIFF-BOOSTING CONGRESS-MAN.
From the *Daily Tribune* (Chicago).



THE BUSY WASH LADY.
From the *Pioneer-Press* (St. Paul).

tinkering with the tariff Uncle Sam's business is tied up, as is shown in the two cartoons at the bottom of page 679.

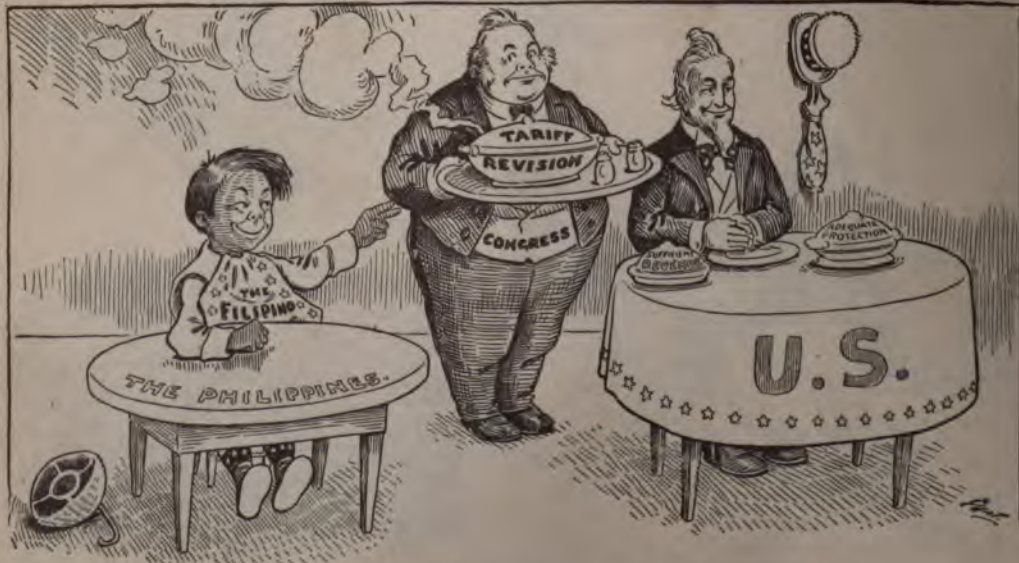
A glance at the cartoon immediately above shows that with the possibility of a veto by President Taft and of defeat in the Congressional elections of 1910 staring him in the face, the lot of the tariff-raising Congressman "is not a happy one."

Mr. Kehse, of the *Pioneer-Press*, pictures Congress as the busy wash lady whose wringer, made up of the Payne and Aldrich tariff bills, is squeezing the cash out of the "C. P." (the common people) into

the capacious trust coffers,—another way of intimating that the new tariff will be favorable to the manufacturing trusts but rather hard on the consumers.

The little Filipino at the bottom of this page is modestly requesting a small portion of tariff revision in the shape of more liberal rates between the Philippine Islands and the United States.

The fond hope that the "commodities clause" of the Hepburn act would prevent the monopolizing of the anthracite coal fields by the coal-carrying railroads seems to have been disappointed by the recent decision of the Supreme Court, as is well illustrated in the two cartoons on page 681.



THE LITTLE FELLOW: "Bring me a small order of the same."
From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



MUCH CRY AND LITTLE WOOL.
From the Herald (New York).



ANOTHER "VICTORY" FOR THE ULTIMATE CONSUMER.
From the State Journal (Columbus).



THE BASEBALL CABINET.
(President Taft's Cabinet likes to watch a ball game.)
From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle).



ANDY'S DREAM.
(Apropos of Mr. Carnegie's recent remarks and well-known position in favor of universal peace.)
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



A MATTER OF PRECEDENCE.
"Standard Oil follows the flag," says J. G. Milburn, the Standard's counsel.—*News item.*
From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle).



BWANA TUMBO.
("Bwana Tumbo," the name given to Mr. Roosevelt by the African natives, means "Big Chief," and the cartoonist here gives us his idea of Mr. Roosevelt arrayed in that character.)
From the *World* (New York).



THEY'RE ALL "WRIGHT."
(Uncle Sam welcomes back the Wright "flyers" from Europe.)
From the *Evening Mail* (New York).



IF IT ISN'T ONE, IT'S THE OTHER THAT'S RAISING A RACKET.
 (Apropos of recent troubles in Porto Rico.)
 From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle).



MESSENGERS WITH CONGRATULATIONS TO HOLLAND FROM THE NATIONS OF THE WORLD, APROPOS OF THE BIRTH OF THE LITTLE PRINCESS.
 From the *Amsterdamer* (Amsterdam).



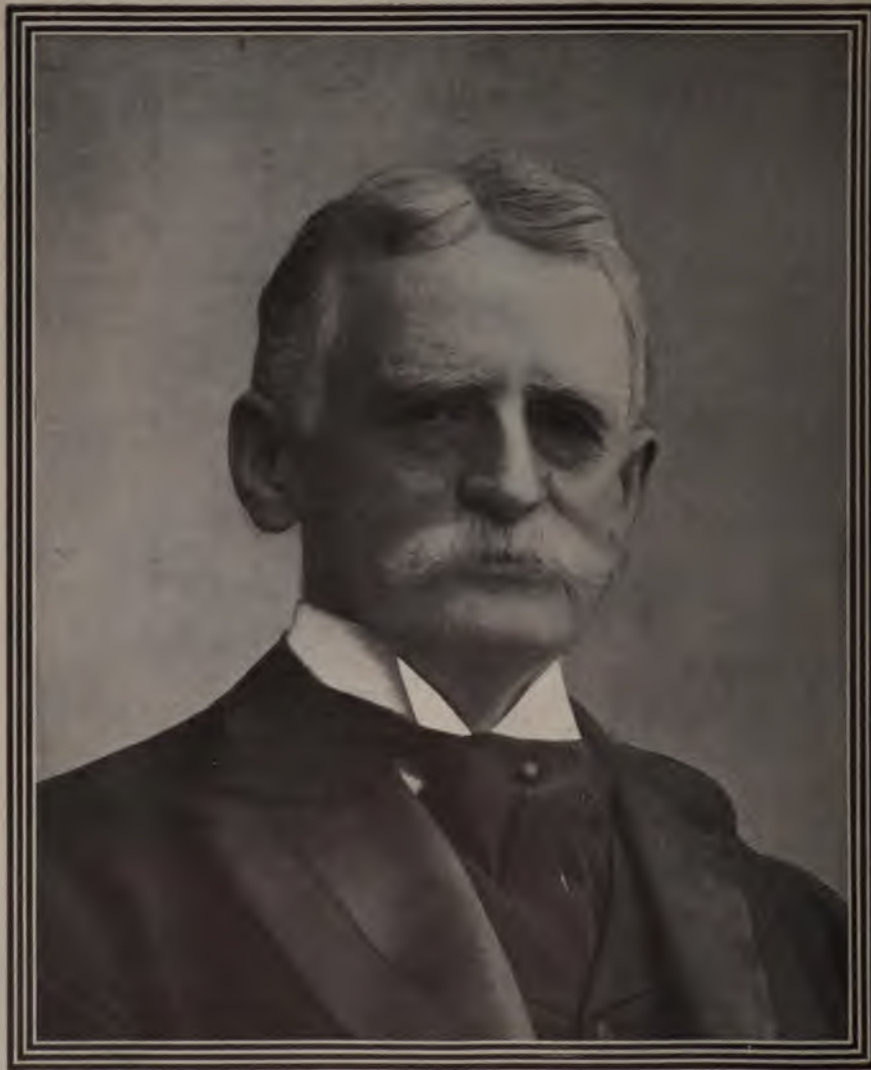
THE LITTLE DICTATOR'S PREDICAMENT.
 From the *Post-Intelligencer* (Seattle).



CHORUS OF CONSTITUTIONS OF OTHER COUNTRIES TO THE NEW TURKISH CONSTITUTION: "Cheer up, old man, we've all been through it."
 From the *Spokesman-Review* (Spokane).



DROPPING THE PILOT.
 From the *American* (New York).



Photograph by Aime Dupont.

MR. HENRY H. ROGERS.

One of the greatest of the captains of American industry, Henry H. Rogers, died suddenly from a stroke of apoplexy on May 19. Mr. Rogers was not yet seventy and had not given up his grasp of great business affairs. For nearly forty years he had been helping to build up the Standard Oil Company, of which he was vice-president and for many years managing head. He had been almost as prominently identified with copper interests, railroad building, and other lines of enterprise as with the development of the great petroleum business of America. Eight years ago we published in this magazine an article on Mr. Rogers' interesting and generous gifts to his native town of Fairhaven, Mass. Since that time these benefactions have never ceased. Although a leader in the fight of the large corporations against attacks from various quarters, Mr. Rogers was admired even by his opponents, and was greatly beloved by a wide circle of loyal friends. In his death there passes from the scene of action one of the most noteworthy personalities and one of the most typical Americans of this strenuous period of economic expansion and change.

AMBASSADOR STRAUS, THE MAN FOR THE EMERGENCY IN TURKEY.

BY LOUIS E. VAN NORMAN.

TO be called to positions of high public trust by five different American Presidents, to be a cabinet officer under one and representative at a foreign court under three others, and to stand as a delegate of the nation before such an august tribunal as the Hague Court of International Arbitration, surely this is honor and distinction for any one man. But with no solicitation on his part, to be summoned, in the name of patriotic duty and his country's need, by three different American Presidents to stand guard in the capital of Turkey at moments of danger over Christian lives and interests in the ancient land of Asia Minor, and to be the first of his race to rise to the dignity of a cabinet officer, these are indeed rare attainments. And yet such rare distinction belongs to Oscar Straus, who has just been appointed by President Taft to be our Ambassador to Turkey. President Cleveland first appointed him American Minister to Constantinople; President Harrison requested him to remain; President McKinley persuaded him to undertake the mission a second time, besides consulting him on many other important international matters; President Roosevelt appointed him Secretary of Commerce and Labor; and now President Taft has again sent him to look after our interests in the near East.

Oscar Solomon Straus, jurist, business man, author, diplomat, statesman, and public-spirited citizen, now in the fifty-ninth year of his age, exemplifies in his busy, useful life, it may be said, the ideal American career.

His father, Lazarus Straus, one of the "Forty-Eighters," who was virtually exiled from Germany because of his participation in the "Storm and Stress" period, lost his fortune and in 1852 came to this country to make a place for himself and his family in the new world. Settling in Georgia, the elder Straus built up a successful mercantile business and reared and educated his three sons, Isidor, formerly a member of Congress, and now president of the Hebrew Educational Alliance; Nathan, merchant and philanthropist, whose pure milk charities are known widely, and Oscar. The last named, the youngest of the family, prepared

himself for college in New York, graduating in 1871 from Columbia University and two years later from the law school. Afterward, as junior member of the firm of Sterne, Hudson & Straus, he was chiefly active in the investigation into railroad rebates conducted by the Hepburn Committee of the New York Legislature, for which his firm was counsel. Out of this investigation came the laws which resulted in the present Interstate Commerce Commission. This act of public service cost Mr. Straus' firm a great deal of profitable railroad business, and the young lawyer himself, broken in health, was compelled to give up the legal profession. In 1881 he joined his father and brothers in their commercial business in New York City.

The successful young merchant soon became active in New York City politics. As secretary of the reform movement in 1882 his efforts were instrumental largely in the election of William R. Grace as Mayor of New York. Later, he was prominent in the national campaign which resulted in the election of Grover Cleveland to the Presidency.

One of the last manifestations of Henry Ward Beecher's interest in national politics was his letter to President Cleveland, written early in the year 1887, urging the appointment of Mr. Straus to the American Ministry at Constantinople. In personality and attainments, wrote Mr. Beecher, Mr. Straus is eminently excellent, but "it is because he is a Hebrew that I urge his appointment, as a peculiarly fitting recognition of this remarkable people who are becoming such large contributors to American prosperity."

Mr. Cleveland also had been watching the activities of the patriotic young Hebrew merchant, and he at once offered him the Turkish mission. Mr. Straus accepted and left New York at once, reaching Constantinople at one of the most critical moments for foreigners in the history of the Turkish Empire. Through his energy and diplomacy he succeeded in having sixty American schools, closed six years before, opened for instruction. He also secured authority, under an order from the Grand Vizier, for

their continuance. This order constituted the charter of all these institutions, which have now increased to more than 500, including four colleges. He then persuaded the Sultan to grant colporteurs permission to distribute Bibles and other religious literature, the permission extending to British as well as American agents. In acknowledgment of this he received not only the thanks of the American Government and people, but a formal letter of thanks from the British Government, through Lord Salisbury. He was instrumental, moreover, under instructions from Secretary Bayard, in opening the prison doors of Palestine for hundreds of innocent Jewish political captives.

Having successfully accomplished the work for which he was sent to Constantinople, Mr. Straus asked to be relieved and to return to the United States. He acceded, however, to President Harrison's request to remain until his successor was appointed, which was done at the end of 1889. In 1897, when the Armenian massacres were horrifying the world and the lives and property of American missionaries were being sacrificed, Mr. Straus was summoned to Washington and informed by President McKinley that as "the only man in the United States who could save the situation" and obtain redress for the injury done American honor and interests, it was his patriotic duty to again represent his country in Constantinople. Again he responded to the call. As American Minister he was invested with full, more than ambassadorial, authority to master the situation. He was to be "his own Secretary of State," as far as Turkey was concerned. Inside of two years he had adjusted the claims and returned to this country.

It was during this second term at Constantinople that Mr. Straus performed a signal service to the American people and to a large section of our wards in the Philippines. It so happened that three of the leaders of the Mohammedan Moros, who had never been conquered by Spain and who were giving our military forces much trouble in the Archipelago, including two Sultans and a chief, were at Mecca paying their devotions to the Moslem shrine. Mr. Straus went directly to Sultan Abdul Hamid and appealed to him, as Padishah of the Moslem faith, to advise the Moro chiefs to place themselves under the protection of the United States Army instead of casting in their lot with Aguinaldo. The briefest of telegraphic messages from the Bosphorus to Mecca (the ap-

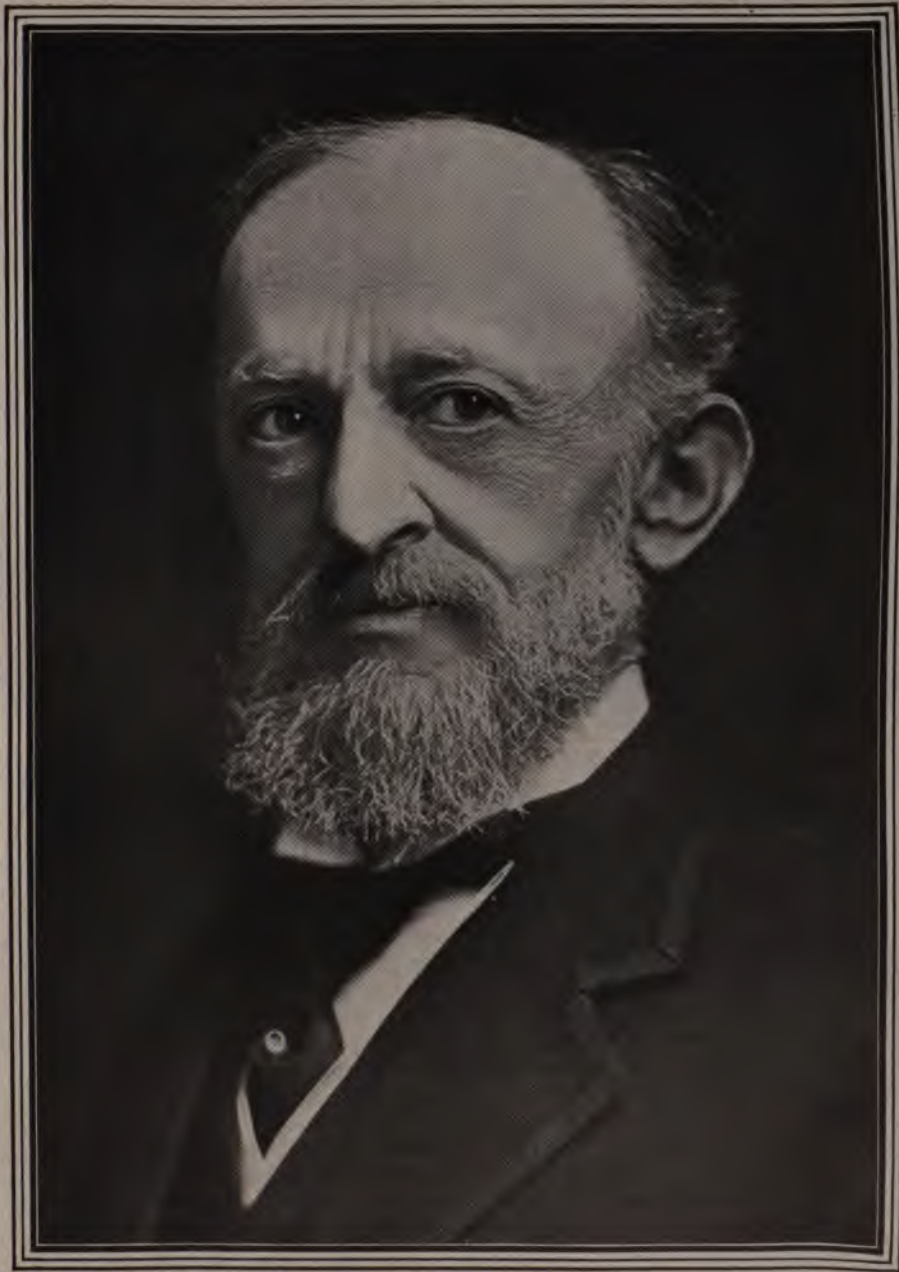
pliances of modern life work in the Turkish Empire better than most of us imagine) was sufficient. The United States had come into possession of the Sulu Archipelago and other Mohammedan lands of the Philippines without a battle. President McKinley afterwards confided to Mr. Straus his opinion that, but for the latter's efforts, it would have been necessary to send 20,000 more American troops to the Philippines.

Declining the offers of several other foreign missions, Mr. Straus returned to his private affairs and continued in business in New York until the summer of 1905, when President Roosevelt confided to him,—“in advance, so that he might get ready,”—that he was wanted for a cabinet position. The next year, having retired permanently from commercial life, Mr. Straus became Secretary of Commerce and Labor, the first Hebrew to enter the cabinet of an American President.

No better preparation, by training, education, and experience, could have been possible for such a position than that of Mr. Straus. Practice of law, the management of large business affairs, and a wide and varied experience as an employer of labor, gave him a ready equipment and a background of knowledge highly useful in the administration of his duties as head of the Department of Commerce and Labor. As a cabinet officer Mr. Straus was more than a credit to himself; he was a credit to the Roosevelt Administration.

The friendship between Mr. Straus and President Taft has been of long standing. In April, when the crisis in the Turkish Empire had become acute and the whole world was aghast at the atrocities in Asia Minor, Mr. Straus was earnestly requested by the President to again take charge of American interests at the Turkish capital. Private family interests demanded that the ex-Secretary of Commerce and Labor remain at home, but the call was urgent. In his telegram of acceptance to Secretary Knox, Mr. Straus said: "The President's tender and request to accept the Turkish ambassadorship under the conditions now existing, as stated in your letter, compel me to waive all personal considerations to accept his call to render a service to the country."

First, if possible, endeavor to put yourself in comparative economic independence. Then, with this liberty of action, give yourself up unreservedly to the public welfare and patriotic duty. This, Mr. Straus main-



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HON. OSCAR S. STRAUS, FOR THE THIRD TIME AMERICAN DIPLOMATIC REPRESENTATIVE AT CONSTANTINOPLE.

tains, has been his ideal of life. If he has a hobby it is his passion for social justice. This earnest desire has been the moving cause of the most important enterprises of his life. He presided at the first National meeting called to consider the relations of labor and capital, from which grew the National Civic Federa-

tion. Of this organization he has been vice-president as well as arbitrator in more than one dispute between labor and capital in various parts of the United States. For several years he was president of the New York Board of Trade and Transportation. He was also president of the American Social



Photograph by Cinedinst.

MRS. OSCAR S. STRAUS, WIFE OF OUR AMBASSADOR TO TURKEY.

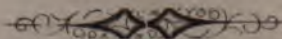
Science Association and one of the vice-presidents of the American Society of International Law. A year ago he organized the National Council of Commerce. Upon the death of ex-President Harrison Mr. Straus was appointed to the vacancy thus caused in the permanent tribunal of arbitration at The Hague. He has also been prominent in various enterprises for the uplifting of the Hebrew people throughout the world. He was one of the founders of the Young Men's Hebrew Association, and it was through him that Baron de Hirsch established his benevolent foundations in this country.

Mr. Straus is, moreover, a man of scholarly and literary tastes. He has lectured at the United States Naval College, and at Yale, Harvard, and other institutions, and three universities have conferred upon him the degree of LL.D. He is the author of a num-

ber of volumes, including "The Origin of the Republican Form of Government in the United States," "Roger Williams, the Pioneer of Religious Liberty," "The Development of Religious Liberty in the United States," "The United States Doctrine of Citizenship," and "Our Diplomacy with Reference to Our Foreign Service." The two first-named volumes are still used as textbooks in more than one American university.

American concern in the existing situation and the possible future developments in Turkey, Mr. Straus believes, is fully justified. The closeness of communication which now exists between all the nations of the world makes it inevitable that misrule in one country is immediately reflected in others. This is particularly true of the United States, which is the great haven for emigrants and refugees driven from their own lands by political and economic pressure. In addition to this there is the specific interest that the United States Government and people have in protecting the lives and property of our citizens in Turkey. American interests in the Moslem Empire, Mr. Straus insists, are specifically human as distinguished from material. We have comparatively little commerce with Turkey, but between five and six hundred missionaries in five hundred or more educational institutions. Their protection is of the highest importance. Mr. Straus is very hopeful of what the new Turkey will be. The parliamentary leaders who have brought about the recent coup he regards as very able men, and, with the reactionary Abdul Hamid out of the way, the modern spirit seems likely to take the same course in development in the new Turkey that it has taken in Japan.

Come what will, American dignity and honor will be adequately represented at Constantinople by Oscar Straus. His energy, courage, tact, and acute comprehension of the characteristics and methods of Oriental peoples, together with the broad human sympathies and the patriotic consecration of purpose that distinguished his two former terms of service at Constantinople, have demonstrated his ability to meet any situation that may arise.





THE FIRST TEN ACRES OF THE NOW FAMOUS "MINNESOTA NO. 169" WHEAT, YIELDING $31\frac{1}{2}$ BUSHELS PER ACRE.

(This fine variety was originated at the Minnesota Agricultural Experiment Station, near St. Paul, by Prof. W. M. Hays. The average yield of common kinds of seed wheat is but $13\frac{2}{3}$ bushels per acre.)

WILLET M. HAYS: EXPONENT OF THE NEW AGRICULTURE.

BY M. C. JUDD.

IN 1862, while our most efficient young men were destroying one another in sanguinary war, a congress composed of Northern men paused long enough to pass a measure to establish institutions devoted to vocational education. That the workers in our industries might increase the production of farm crops and of mechanical products, and that our farmers and other productive workers might improve their conditions, the "land-grant college" act was passed, resulting later in the establishment by each State, South as well as North, of a college of agriculture and mechanic arts. The graduates of these colleges have become a body of most efficient workers and leaders in developing our basic industries.

A NEW TYPE OF LEADERSHIP.

One of the graduates of an agricultural college to become a leader is the present Assistant Secretary of Agriculture, Willet M. Hays, of Minnesota. Iowa Agricultural College gave him his technical training. He

is one of a group of leaders who is placing American country life on a new basis. The young men now developing as teachers and research workers in our colleges, experiment stations, and departments of agriculture, and the much larger numbers who are emerging from our agricultural schools are taking the lead in conquering a new earth. They add other grains to the ear of wheat, and they cause to be produced two blades of grass where one grew before. The science which these men are developing promises nearly, if not quite, to double the value of our farm products. And it has been made plain that in two generations we must produce food and raiment for two hundred million people where we now feed and clothe less than a hundred million.

Mr. Hays had the good fortune to have graduated, and to have completed his graduate course,—as associate editor of an agricultural paper,—just at the time Congress arranged for the establishment of the system of State experiment stations in 1888. He



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

was fortunate, too, that he was chosen by the University of Minnesota to work in its experiment station and college of agriculture. Here were opened for him fields of research to which he proved peculiarly well adapted. He combines the talents of the scientist, teacher, and administrator; and his investigations in the improvement of crops by breeding, into farm management and into the cost of producing farm products, and his constructive work in devising methods of teaching farm organization as other scientific engineering subjects are taught, have given him high rank as an economist.

TRAINED TO DEAL WITH FARM PROBLEMS.

Willet M. Hays was born in 1859 on a new Iowa homestead. When twelve years old, his father having died, he and an elder brother took up the management of the mother's farm. The farm paid some profit besides sending one or the other of the boys

away from home to school every year till both were graduated. Some country school teaching sandwiched in, and work on the agricultural college experiment station helped to meet expenses and provided not a little of his training. One year in the Iowa Experiment Station, one year as associate editor of an agricultural newspaper, four years in the University of Minnesota, two years in North Dakota Agricultural College, eleven years in the University of Minnesota again, and now four years in the United States Department of Agriculture, have given many opportunities for a technical, sane, and broad view of affairs relating to the farming population of our country.

PRODUCING NEW VARIETIES OF GRAIN.

In 1889 Mr. Hays began the breeding of timothy, wheat, and other field crops. In 1887 he had demonstrated that by the methods he had devised he was able to increase the yields of standard varieties of wheat 10, 20, and even 25 per cent. In a few more years similar improvements were made with several other field crops, and some of the new varieties were grown on hundreds of thousands of acres. His unique methods were rapidly developed into a system, with a most wonderful organization of detail in selecting the seeds, planting large broods of the seeds of single mother plants, recording the performance of individual plants and of fraternity groups of plants, and in tabulating and displaying the pedigree values of the thousands of newly created pure-bred varieties. Thus corn, oats, barley, flax, and the grasses and clovers came under the master hand of this breeder.

"BREEDING" GRASS CROPS.

The resourcefulness needed to find ways to plant, make records of, select, hybridize, multiply, advertise, and distribute new varieties in working with each of a score of species of field crops is illustrated in traditions about Minnesota's experiment station. Mr. Hays' first experience in starting a field crop nursery with one plant in a hill was with timothy. The wind persisted daily in blowing, thus making it impossible to plant one tiny timothy seed by itself in hills a foot apart each way. To prevent loss of the seeds by the wind little balls of clay were, therefore, made in the laboratory and a seed placed in each. These clay balls were then planted. No one had before grown single timothy plants in hills so as to see the great stools of



HYBRID WHEATS PRODUCED BY SCIENTIFIC BREEDING METHODS.

(A promising new hybrid wheat in center, with parent varieties on either side. The result of plant breeding.)

(The two middle wheats are hybrids resulting from a cross fertilization of the two outside varieties.)

culms and heads from single seeds. The immense variation showed the young plant breeder that even grass crops could be bred like animals, comparing the breeding value of one fine-looking parent plant with the breeding power of another. Thus the very first experiment led to the development by Mr. Hays of the so-called centgener method of breeding now recognized as the most important method for many crops.

Under this centgener method the breeder first secured many superior parent plants. A hundred or more seeds of each parent were planted. The word centgener, combining the words centum and genera, simply means a hundred, more or less, of one birth, having a common parentage. By comparing the average of the progeny of the respective parent plants the power of each parent to project its own individual values into its progeny was measured, that the seeds of those relatively few parent plants which beget the best strains might be preserved and made into new pure-bred varieties. By this means the parent plants were compared in a far more vital way than by simply comparing their own yields.

The expressions, "centgener power" and "projected breeding efficiency," have incarnated this new plan of breeding into the thought of the times. This basic plan has made it possible to organize large establishments for creative work in making new strains of plants and animals. These establishments are so organized that a division of the work among technical helpers is carried out as in a factory, thus making it possible to organize establishments extensive enough to handle the necessarily large numbers of individuals of numerous species. No other breeder has done as much to emphasize the necessity of using large numbers, of working on a large scale, in efforts to secure the hundreds of millions of dollars of additional values inherent in the heredity of our plants and animals.

PLANT-BREEDING THAT PAYS.

The men now in charge of Minnesota's famous plant-breeding establishment, organized by Mr. Hays, say that with an expenditure of less than \$20,000 in 1908 the field crops of the State were made to yield an ad-

ditional \$2,000,000. This figure is based on the modestly estimated increase of the new varieties above the old kinds displaced by them of two dollars per acre on a million acres now planted to the seven new varieties of corn, wheat, oats, barley, and flax first distributed to Minnesota farmers by Mr. Hays. Ten years ago he interested the United States Department of Agriculture in his experiments, and with its aid led in the organization of co-operative plant breeding establishments at the experiment stations of several surrounding States. Numerous other State experiment stations are now following by organizing State plant-breeding establishments after the general plan adopted by Minnesota.

While Mr. Hays is widely known as a plant-breeder, he is also a leader in developing plans for creative breeding in animal improvement. In fact, his first work in the field of creating new values by breeding was in investigating animal breeding. But owing to the large expense and slow progress with large animals, which bear relatively few young at long intervals, he saw the necessity of using plants for a decade of preliminary study of how to make a breed or variety over, thereby securing large economic results. By first succeeding in securing for the farmers of the State large added yields in producing valuable new crops he was able to give a reason for asking for public funds with which to breed animals as well as plants, and to make a broad study of the science of heredity.

When the decade of work was nearly finished the scientist proved also the broad economist. Proof that a dollar would produce a hundred dollars, or 10,000 per cent. on the investment, seemed too important in its application to four billion dollars' worth of American farm crops and three billion dollars' worth of American farm animals to be ignored as a matter of statecraft. Ten to 20 per cent. of increase on seven billion dollars' worth of farm products means approximately a billion dollars annually in additional profits to American farmers, costing a mere trifle.

WORK OF THE AMERICAN BREEDERS' ASSOCIATION.

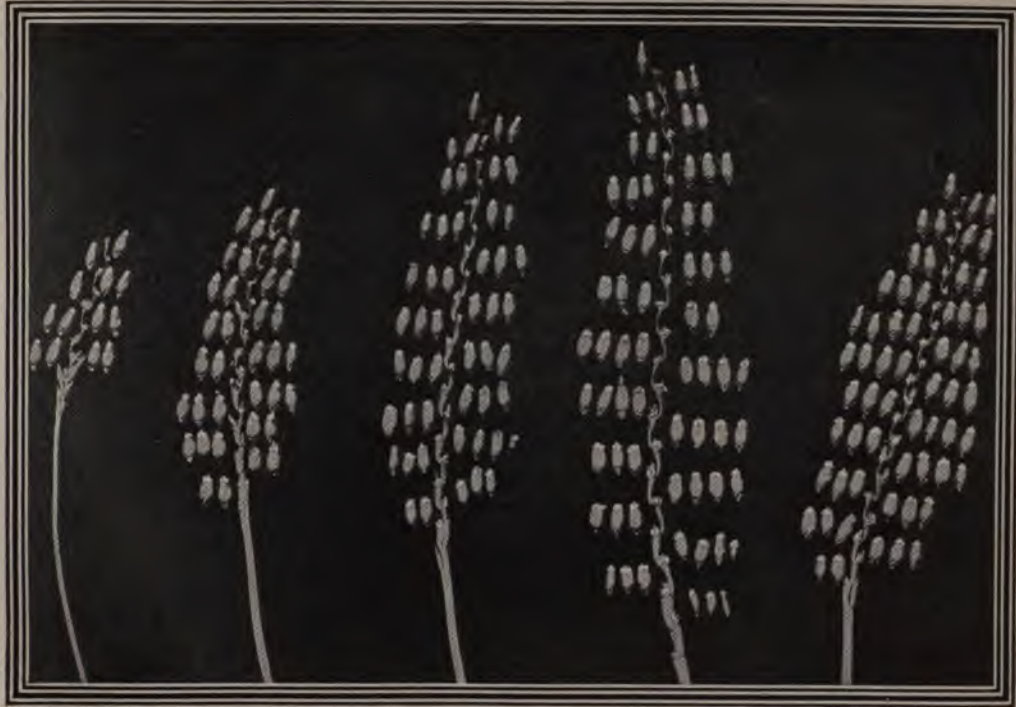
Mr. Hays' experience with legislative bodies and their need of being shown the importance of liberally providing for breeding led to the formation of a national movement to promote scientific breeding. This was centered in the American Breeders' Association,

of which he is the executive secretary. The organization has nearly fifty committees at work on the different phases of plant and animal breeding. There are committees on breeding draft horses, driving horses, saddlers, dairy cows, beef cattle, and dual purpose or double-decked cows good for both beef and milk. Other committees deal with sheep breeding, the improvement of swine, poultry, pet stock, fur-bearing animals, and game birds; and there is even a committee on eugenics which studies heredity in the *genus homo*,—with President David Starr Jordan, of Leland Stanford University, as chairman. There are committees which formulate the best plans for the breeders of wheat, of corn, and of alfalfa; and even a committee on the improvement of beans, that we may have better pole beans, better Boston baked beans,—that we may better "know beans." There are committees on plant and animal introduction and on the encouragement of the theoretical study of heredity. Some of Mr. Hays' friends have congratulated him on the successful establishment of this vigorous organization, which has affiliated the scientists, the teachers, and the practical breeders of plants and of animals in a most effective co-operative organization, and which has a most promising future of usefulness in this unique field.

THE INDUSTRIAL-SCHOOL MOVEMENT.

But bigger than a billion-dollar increase in the earnings of our farms through plant and animal improvement is the movement to carry vocational school education to nearly twenty million boys and girls. Mr. Hays is a national leader in reorganizing our rural and city schools so as to supply to all country boys agricultural training and to all city boys training in the mechanic industries, arts, and trades; and to all girls in country and in city training in the science and art of homemaking. Enthusiasts estimate that our total production, now approaching \$30,000,000,000 annually, would be increased 10 per cent., or three billion dollars annually, by a system of schools in which the agricultural and the non-agricultural industries were efficiently taught.

When it is realized that our present system of schools but poorly draws out the full powers of our boys, and that so many of our men "fiddle around" rather than become efficient producers, it may be found that the possible increase is vastly more than 10 per cent. But be that as it may, it is easy to be-



HEADS OF WHEAT THAT HAVE BEEN SHELLED TO SHOW ACTUAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SMALL AND LARGE HEADS, EMPHASIZING THE IMPORTANCE OF UNIFORMITY IN THE QUALITY OF SEED.

lieve that the efficiency of our home-making could be increased very materially if our men were trained to produce more with which to make and support homes and our women were trained to make the most out of their home-making opportunities. With better home-making a stronger social status, a higher civilization, develops all along the line. That our nation should not skimp the classes in agriculture for the farm boys, and the shop work for the town boys, nor the laboratory and practice rooms and kitchens for those who are to be the wives of our productive workers and the mothers of the next generation of our American citizens, is emphasized as never before. And college extension work, continuation schools, the classes for mothers, also the research designed to place the plain industries and the keeping of homes on a scientific basis, have no more effective champion than the subject of this sketch.

Mr. Hays sees the little rural school of such glorious and blessed memory pass away with the spinning wheel and the grain cradle. He sees in its place the consolidated rural and village school to and from which the farm youth are transported mainly in school wagons. These schools can supply far stronger

work than now in the studies common to all schools and in addition studies in agriculture and home making. Above the local schools are high schools splendidly combining the technical and the vocational school subjects, some of them veritable colleges of the people, splendidly equipped to teach agriculture, thus to supply the closing vocational courses for those who return from the secondary school to the farm or to teach the rural school. The State normal schools and the State colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts stand at the top of the system.

There is inspiration in figures. Of six million rural school pupils this educator estimates that five million live in rural communities where there is sufficient wealth to support the large consolidated rural and village school with an instructor in agriculture and another in home-making in each school. The other million live in communities too isolated or sparsely settled to make it practicable to have the consolidated rural school with its wagons with which to transport the pupils to and from school, but will adhere to the little district school.

Thirty thousand teachers of agriculture and thirty thousand teachers of home science



A VIEW OF MODERN GENEVA.
(Calvin's church occupies the acropolis.)

GENEVA AND JOHN CALVIN.

BY JOHN MARTIN VINCENT.

(Professor of European History, Johns Hopkins University.)

THE week that lies between the second and tenth of July will find the ancient city of Geneva counting the centuries of its history and celebrating the most important anniversaries in its long and varied career. The central figure in these solemnities is John Calvin, who was born on July 10, 1509, and the institutions under whose auspices the commemorations occur are the work of his hands. The church of Geneva celebrates the organizer who molded its destinies during twenty years of its infancy, while the university, for which John Calvin laid the foundations in 1559, invites the academic world to take part in the joys of its three hundred and fiftieth anniversary. On July 6 will be laid the corner-stone of a massive international monument to the Reformation.

The active participation of six or more of the great peoples of the world in this commemoration calls to mind the great signifi-

cance of Geneva in the sixteenth century. This was not because it commanded a powerful territory, for it was and always has been a diminutive country. In the days when Charles V. was the greatest German emperor and Henry VIII. was sitting on the throne of England, Geneva was a little city almost surrounded by the enemy's country. Its territory has never been much larger than it is to-day, when, as a sovereign state and member of the Swiss Confederation, its irregular boundaries, if laid out in a square, would measure but little over ten miles on each side. But this small spot became a beacon light for five great nations.

The first act in this historic drama was the fight for political independence, and in view of the most unfavorable conditions the struggle commands our admiration. With France on one side and Savoy on the other there was not even contact with the sympathetic Swiss

Confederation. From early times the dukes of Savoy had held the overlordship of Geneva and a good share of French Switzerland, but the city had acquired valuable charter privileges which the inhabitants jealously guarded. About 1515 there was serious friction with the overlord because he attempted to infringe upon these rights. Having placed in Geneva a bishop who was wholly under his influence he began to enforce his claims by arbitrary arrests. The "Sons of Geneva" rose in defense and fought valiantly for their native city. For fifteen years they sustained an intermittent contest, the political complications spreading wider and wider until at last the King of France and a part of the Swiss Confederation were found on the side of the stubborn city. It was the actual military assistance rendered by Freiburg and Bern that brought about the defeat of Savoy, but Geneva had fought its way to a position of respect. The treaty of St. Julien in 1530 was, indeed, a cessation of hostilities rather than a peace, but the basis of the political integrity of Geneva was attained. A century of vigilance was required to keep this heritage intact, but the corner-stone of freedom was laid before the revolution in religion.

Upon the ground thus cleared for action the Reformation entered into the history of Geneva. In 1532 William Farel, a French refugee who had for three years been laboring as a missionary in western Switzerland, brought to this city the doctrines of the Protestants. He was not a welcome guest, for civil and ecclesiastical authorities were both



JOHN CALVIN, 1509-1564.

(From an old print.)

against him, but for the next four years he fought his way from point to point. In the meanwhile the Bishop of Geneva had been so perniciously active in politics that the authorities interfered, declared the office vacant, and made it necessary for him to flee the city for good in 1533. This was not a revolt against doctrine, but evidence of capacity to act for themselves, and perhaps made easier the later process of change. The conversion of Geneva had many difficulties yet to encounter, but finally the government, pressed by reformers within and urged by Protestant political allies without, called in 1536 a general assembly of the people to decide. Protestantism was adopted.

It was in that same year that John Calvin, passing through the city on a journey, was seized upon by Farel to assist him in his work. Following the earnest appeal to his conscience, he gave up his scholarly ambitions and devoted himself to the organization of the church of Geneva. The materials placed in his hands were a free city, a vacated



INTERIOR OF THE "AUDITOIRE."

Here Calvin taught, the "Congregation" met, and English and Italian refugees worshiped.)

church, a popular declaration in favor of free schools, a vote for Protestant worship, and an excitable Gallic population at large.

But John Calvin had already begun his work of organization. His book on the "Institutes of the Christian Religion," issued just the year before from the press at Basel, was the first serious attempt to formulate the whole body of Protestant doctrine. This came at a most important juncture. In the distracted condition of the reformers of that time an organizer of thought was needed, and this comprehensive work, written by a youth of twenty-seven, was recognized at once as a bulwark of the faith. Regarded simply as a monument of literature, it was a most noteworthy production, for, although Calvin's theories have in many points been superseded, yet in logical argument and completeness of system the *Institutes* have never been surpassed, and in the history of doctrine they rank with Augustine and Thomas Aquinas. Calvin's first international service to Protestantism, therefore, was to solidify the grounds of conviction.

Into the midst of the political and religious turmoil of 1536 John Calvin brought a clear conception of a Christian state and an inflexible will to enforce it. The ministers

were asked by the city council to prepare a statement of belief and an ordinance for the government of the church. Both were chiefly the work of Calvin. In contrast with the existing practice in Geneva and in the reformed countries of Switzerland and Germany, he proposed to make the church itself the judge of the qualifications of its own members and the final authority on its own ceremonies. Hitherto, since every citizen was, of course, a member of the church, the city councils had decided these things, and were a last resort in cases of discipline. The government had, indeed, introduced the Reformation and was enforcing the new articles of belief, consequently it could not see things in that light. There was some difficulty in enforcing a stricter discipline of morals in the city, but the issue came when the council ordered a particular form of communion ceremony. Calvin and Farel declined, and, in 1538, were banished from Geneva.

Three years of turmoil convinced the Genevans that Calvin was the only man who could bring peace. He had settled in Strassburg, and was with considerable difficulty induced to leave an established position, but in 1541 he returned to spend the remainder of his life. The path was thorny, but in twenty years he built up a city and a church that became the admiration of the Protestant world. The discipline of morals was severe, but the reformer also developed industries, and Geneva prospered in its sobriety. The plan of administration was that for which Calvin had earlier contended. The church was the censor of morals and the judge of the fitness of its own members. The machinery of the church was used to help the government in the prevention of immorality and crime, while civil authorities meted out the secular punishments, but the right to regulate and excommunicate was no longer left to town councils and to the exigencies of politics. The duty of financial support was laid upon the state, but with no rights in the domain of spiritual things.

Here was Calvin's great contribution to the political science of his day and to the political struggles of the coming centuries. When Genevan doctrines reached Scotland and England, the most conspicuous result was a bitter war in theology, but along with and behind the insurgents came the principle of independence of church and civil authority. From this point it was a slow but not a long step to local independency among churches themselves, and how this led to political self-



THE PULPIT AND CHAIR OF CALVIN.

(The chair is now kept in the Church of St. Pierre and the pulpit in a nearby church.)

government in general is a commonplace in the history of the English-speaking nations.

Calvin's influence upon the men and nations of his own time was very great. Geneva became early a refuge for French Protestants and the Huguenots who remained at home looked to Calvin as to a bishop for counsel in matters both religious and political. His correspondence was enormous, and the effects are seen in the events of the period. By way of France the Calvinistic doctrines took possession of the Netherlands and fortified them for the struggle which brought to life the Dutch Republic. Through disciples who flocked to Geneva from England and Scotland during times of persecution the influence of Calvin upon those countries was most personal and direct. John Knox was for two years pastor to a considerable congregation of his exiled countrymen, and went back to his work in Scotland thoroughly imbued with Genevan ideas of doctrine and church government. In Germany itself a large body of theologians were influenced by Calvin's views, and in particular the authorities of the Palatinate gave his doctrine official recognition. From this region streamed a most important migration to America during the colonial period, settling in the Central and Southern States. These Germans share with the Puritans from England in the transmission of Genevan thought across the Atlantic. Poland and Hungary were so far invaded by Protestant doctrine that synods and assemblies could be formed in Calvin's lifetime. Even the Church of England, while not recognizing his theories of church and state, was profoundly affected by his theological views.

The influence of Geneva was intensified through the foundation of a seat of learning. Owing to the dangers and disturbances of the times this could not be accomplished as soon as it was desired, but on June 5, 1559, the opening exercises of the "Université et Collège de Genève" took place in the presence of the councils. It was an institution for both secondary and higher learning. Theodore de Beze was called from Lausanne to be the first rector, Calvin lectured on theological subjects, and other distinguished scholars were sought. The buildings planned by Calvin still exist in the present "Collège de St. Antoine," having been the intellectual shelter of Genevan youth from that day to this. The university became a beacon light of Protestant learning, and its registers reveal the names of many men who became distinguished in the civil and religious life of



CALVIN'S CHURCH, GENEVA.

other countries. Scholars like Hotmann and Scaliger were listed among its early professors, and the tradition of advanced learning has continued to this day. When Thomas Jefferson was laying the foundations of his University of Virginia he found that in the intellectual life of his generation the Universities of Geneva and Edinburgh were the "two eyes of Europe." As there were political troubles in Switzerland at the time, making the professors of Geneva uncertain of their tenure, he seriously contemplated the removal of that whole faculty to Virginia. The balanced sense of Washington advised against so large an importation at once, but the experiment would have been interesting. In passing we may note that Geneva at the present day, with a population of less than 150,000, maintains, of itself, not only an elaborate school system, but a university of international reputation.

Hitherto there has been no monument to Calvin or to the Reformation in Geneva. Calvin requested that his grave remain unmarked, and so faithfully was this wish carried out that even the place cannot be identified. Tradition points to a certain spot in a quiet old cemetery, but otherwise no man knoweth his sepulcher. It is natural, therefore, that the nations whose early history

owed so much to Geneva have responded to the appeal for a worthy visible testimony to the Reformation. This response is due in part to reverence for Calvin's religious views and in part to recognition of the historic significance of his career. It is the desire of the promoters of the movement to perpetuate the memory of the reformers as great historic figures, whose ideas contributed to religious and political liberty. While Calvin was no advocate of popular government, he was, in fact, the father of Puritan democracy. The Huguenots and the Puritans were sufficient unto themselves and found no need of state help in founding their church government. Fortified with Calvin's doctrines of the sovereignty of God and of law, they were equal to any political undertaking.

The monument will rest on interesting historic ground. The authorities have allotted for the purpose a portion of a public garden which was laid upon the line of a former wall of the city. In a view of Geneva dated in 1654 will be seen a strong rampart in the foreground which was built in Calvin's day as a protection against renewed threats of trouble with Savoy. In the anxiety of the time citizens, professors, and students contributed their labor to complete the defense, and the

fortification became known as the "Wall of the Reformers." This was removed in the nineteenth century and the vicinity laid out in a botanical garden and the "Promenade des Bastions." Upon the base of a portion of the ancient wall, at a point just to the right of the central gate seen in the picture, a new "Mur des Réformateurs" will be erected to serve as a background for the statuary and inscriptions. A central group of figures will represent the reformers of Geneva itself, Farel, Calvin, Knox, and Beza. On either side at regular intervals will be representative men like Coligny, of France, William the Silent, of Holland, and Oliver Cromwell, of England. The figure for America will probably be a typical Puritan father. The wall itself will be adorned with historical inscriptions and pictorial reliefs.

The site is one which lends itself admirably to architectural and natural decoration. Viewing the monument from the promenade, the spectator will have behind him the buildings of the university, founded by Calvin, but long since housed in modern quarters. Before him rise behind the monumental wall the terraced slopes of the hill on which Geneva sits, with many of its aspects unchanged from the days of the Reformation.



A VIEW OF GENEVA IN 1654, SHOWING THE CITY AS IT LOOKED IN CALVIN'S TIME.

(The wall in front was built by the reformers, citizens, students, and professors helping with their own hands. On the site of a part of this wall, removed in the nineteenth century, will be erected the monument of the Reformation in the form of a wall flanked with statuary and inscriptions. It was this wall which was attacked by the Savoyards in 1602 in the famous episode of the "Escalade.")

HOW RETURNING EMIGRANTS ARE AMERICANIZING EUROPE.

BY EDWARD A. STEINER.

IT has often been the voluntary and interesting task of the writer to follow the westward stream of emigration across the sea and along the different channels which reach our economic, social, and political life. Everywhere he has found that the fear of this unknown mass has given place to a more or less intelligent interest in it, and the emphasis to-day is not so much upon our problem as upon our opportunity. The less developed and the more uncultured this mass of immigrants, moreover, the greater is our opportunity, the less difficult is our problem.

The immigrant of the last fifteen or twenty years, it may truly be said, has not influenced our social life to any marked degree. The cosmopolitan character of our cities, even, is due, not so much to the presence of the immigrant as to the effect which European life has had upon that vast number of our countrymen, for whom a journey to the Old World forms part of the annual program. The foreign restaurants and "rathskellers" on this side the Atlantic, with their effect upon the eating and drinking habits of our people, were not established for the immigrant, but for the American people, who are certainly their most numerous and profitable customers.

On the other hand, our influence upon the cruder class of immigrants has been exceedingly marked, and when, in the year 1907, nearly 800,000 of them returned to their native countries, it became an interesting question to what degree they would influence those lands to which they returned.

Some observers of this rather remarkable phenomenon, which occurred at the time of a great business depression, have been content to record only the sums of money suddenly withdrawn from our markets. The purpose of the writer, however, in following this stream eastward, was to ascertain how the peasant countries, notably in the east of Europe, have been affected by this sudden influx of numbers of those who for years have been in touch with a life which, in many respects, was the antithesis of that which they had left.

It was this question which lured the writer across the sea, and the first phenomenon which he observed was the fact that there is not a town or village of any size between Naples in Italy and Warsaw in Russia,—the field of his observations,—to which a larger or smaller group of emigrants had not returned.

It did not take much investigation to discover this; for invariably there was a visible contrast between those who had migrated and returned, and those who had remained at home. This was most strikingly illustrated where the cultural development had been at its lowest, and where church and state had done least for the masses. Another remarkable phenomenon, yet one at second thought easily explained, is this: The returned emigrant purposely emphasizes the difference between himself and those who remain at home. He does everything and wears everything which will make him like an American, even if, while in the United States, he had scarcely moved out of his group or come in touch with our civilization. The men wear with pride our clothing, including ties and stiff collars, and when one is in doubt as to a man's relation to our life a glance at his feet is sufficient; "for by their,"—shoes,—"ye shall know them."

While one may deplore the loss of the picturesque in the peasant life of Europe, there is an ethical significance in their American garments which is really of vital importance.

The Polish peasant in his native environment is one of the laziest among European laborers. Wrapped in his sheepskin coat, summer and winter, walking barefoot the greater part of the year, and in winter putting his feet into clumsy, heavy boots which impeded his progress, he wore garments that fitted his temper. They were heavy, inexpensive, never changing, and rarely needed renewal. The American clothes he wears after being in this country are a symbol of his changed character. They mean a new standard of living, even as they mean a new standard of effort.

In America the Polish laborer has lost his

native laziness. The journey in itself has shaken him out of his lethargy, the high gearing of our industrial wheels, the pressure brought to bear upon him by the American foreman, the general atmosphere of our life charged with an invigorating ozone, and the absence of a leisure class, at least from the industrial community, have, in a few years, changed what many observers regarded as a fixed characteristic.

The Slavs and Latins are inclined to lead an easy life, and emigration is destined to have a permanent effect upon them; for the returned emigrant acts contagiously upon his community. Unbiased land-owners and manufacturers have told the writer that we have trained their workmen in industry, that we have quickened their wits, and that while wages have risen nearly 60 per cent. in almost all departments of labor the efficiency of the laborers has been correspondingly increased, most noticeably where the largest number of returned emigrants has entered the home field.

The Slavic peasants, both in Hungary and in Poland, were gradually losing their allotted land, and were socially and physically deteriorating prior to the movement to America. Indolence added to intemperance drove them into the hands of usurers, and they dropped into the landless class; thus becoming dependent upon casual labor.

BUYING BACK THE LAND.

The returned emigrant began to buy land which the large land-owners were often forced to sell; because wages had risen abnormally and laborers were often not to be had at any price. In the four years between 1899 and 1905, the land owned by peasants increased in some districts as much as 418 per cent., and taking the immigrant districts in Austro-Hungary and Russian-Poland together, the increase in four years reached the almost incredible figures of 173 per cent.

In three districts of Russian-Poland the peasants bought in those four years 14,694 acres of farm land. This, of course, means not only that money was brought back from America, but that the peasant at home has become more industrious, if not always more temperate and frugal.

The little village of Kochanoveze, in the district of Trenczin, in Hungary, out of which but few had emigrated to America, and to which only a few families had returned, has, under this new economic impulse, bought the land on which the villagers'

forefathers were serfs and on which they had worked during the harvest for 20 cents a day.

The villagers bought the whole baronial estate, including the castle, giving a mortgage for the largest part of the purchase sum; but they are now the owners of one of the finest estates in Hungary, and the mortgage drives them to work as they have never worked before. This same impulse has struck the district of Nyitra, in which the land had almost gone out of the hands of the peasants; lost by the same causes, intemperance and indolence.

NEW STANDARDS OF LIVING.

In the last five years the change has been so great as to seem incredible. Usurers have been driven out of business and the peasant's house has ceased to be a mud hut with a straw-thatched roof. In fact, that type of building has been condemned by law, at the initiative of returned emigrants.

The shop-keepers throughout the whole emigrant territory rejoice. Their stock is increased by many varieties of goods. The peasant now wants the best there is in the market, often useless luxuries, to be sure; but while he may spend his money "for that which is not bread," he wants to spend, and that means effort. As a race the Slavs need nothing more than this for their social and political salvation.

Their advance is strikingly illustrated by the following examples: The B—— Brothers are manufacturers of neckties, in Vienna. On a recent visit to their establishment I met some buyers from Hungary, one of whom, when the salesman showed him the class of goods which he had been in the habit of buying, highly colored, stiff bows of cheap cotton, said: "We have no use for such stuff. This is the tie we use"; and he pulled out an American tie of rather fine quality and the latest pattern. The writer had to promise the head of the firm of B—— Brothers to put him in touch with an American haberdasher's journal, so that he may keep himself informed as to our styles.

Still within the sphere of the economic, and yet having large ethical value, is the fact that the returned emigrant brings gold, not only in his pocket, but in his teeth. I certainly never realized the far-reaching social and ethical value of the dentist until I saw the contrast between the returned emigrant, especially between his wife and daughter and the women who had remained at home.

The emigrant woman has discovered that

gold in the teeth keeps one young, that it preserves one's charms, and is apt to keep lovers and husbands more loyal. Housekeepers in America know how readily these foreign servants sacrifice their wages upon the altar of the dentist.

Not only does dentistry keep the women young and their lovers faithful, it also keeps the men in good health and adds to their self-respect; while into regions hitherto untouched by their beneficent ministry, it has introduced toothbrushes and dentifrices.

THE GOSPEL OF FRESH AIR.

If the returned emigrant can be easily recognized by his shoes and by the gold in his teeth, his residence can be quickly discovered by the fact that day and night his house is blessed by fresh air; and perhaps more significant to the world's well-being than the American economic doctrine of the "Open Door," is the American physiological doctrine of the open window.

Pastor Holubek, of Bosacz, in Hungary, when I asked him what effect the returned emigrant had upon his parish, said: "A good effect. The returned emigrant is a new man. He carries himself differently, he commands the respect of his fellows, he treats his wife better, and he keeps the windows of his house open." The last two facts are exceedingly important, and my observations bear out his testimony. Wherever I discovered an open window, in the evening, I could with perfect assurance open the door and say: "How do you do?" And I was sure to be greeted by a still more emphatic and cordial, "How do you do?"

For some inexplicable reason, Europeans of all classes are averse to air in sleeping rooms, especially at night. Night air is supposed to hold all sorts of evils, and even the medical profession, progressive as it is, has not yet freed itself from this superstition.

INCREASED RESPECT FOR WOMEN.

Frequently I have discovered in the returned emigrant a quickening of the moral sense, especially among the men who had come in contact with the better class of American mechanics, and the discovery was as welcome as it was unexpected. It was on a Sunday's journey among the villages of the valley of the Waag. Picturesque groups were moving along the highway to and from the church and into the village and out of it.

The appearance of my companions and myself always created a great sensation, and never a greater one than on Sunday, when the peasants were at leisure. They took it as a special privilege to see "genuine Americans," and those who had been over here were quickly on the scene to air their English and to show their familiarity with our kind. It was a reciprocal pleasure; for it seemed like a breath from home to hear men talk intelligently of Hazleton, Pittsburg, Scranton, and Wilkes-Barre; moreover, it gave us a splendid opportunity to test the influence of our civilization upon them.

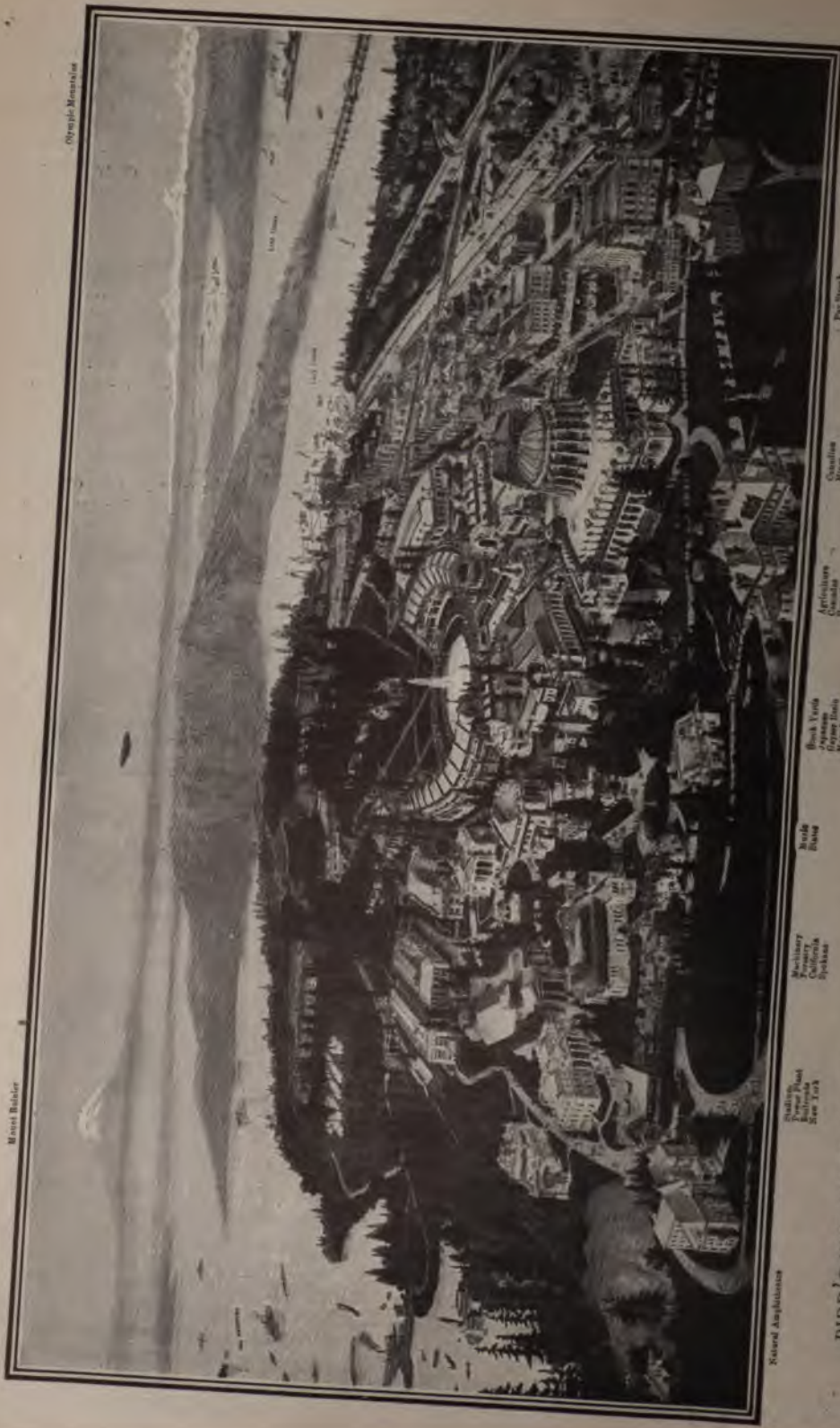
In one village a man and wife and two children came out of their home, and we could almost imagine ourselves in America; for the whole family looked as if it had just come from a grand bargain sale at one of our department stores. What seemed most delightful to us was the way in which the man spoke of his wife, and no American husband could have been more careful of her than was he; all this in striking contrast to the peasants with whom the woman is still an inferior being.

In conversation with them I took the returned emigrant as my text, and told them something of our own social order as shown in the relation of husband and wife in America; upon which one of the peasants told a very ugly and realistic story to illustrate what he thought of women. Then it was that the unexpected happened. My emigrant friend blushed,—yes, blushed,—and said: "Don't mind him. He has a dirty mouth. He may, after all, have a clean heart." The man who blushed had been five years in—Pittsburg!

So far as my observation goes, I feel certain that emigration has been of inestimable value, economical and ethical, to the three great monarchies chiefly concerned, namely: Italy, Austro-Hungary, and Russia. It has withdrawn inefficient labor, and has returned some of it capable of more and better work. It has lifted the status of the peasantry to a degree which could not have been achieved even by a revolution. It has educated its neglected masses, has lifted them to a higher standard of living, and has implanted new and vital ideals. So far as the emigrant himself as a person is concerned, I have not seen one who, if he escaped the dangers of our industrial activity, has not been bettered by his contact with us.

Mount Baker

Strawberry Mountain



Edward Appleblossom

BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE ALASKA-YUKON-PACIFIC EXPOSITION, AT SEATTLE, JUNE 1—OCTOBER 16.

Water Front
Railroads
New York

Machinery
Cannery
Stocks

Build
Ship

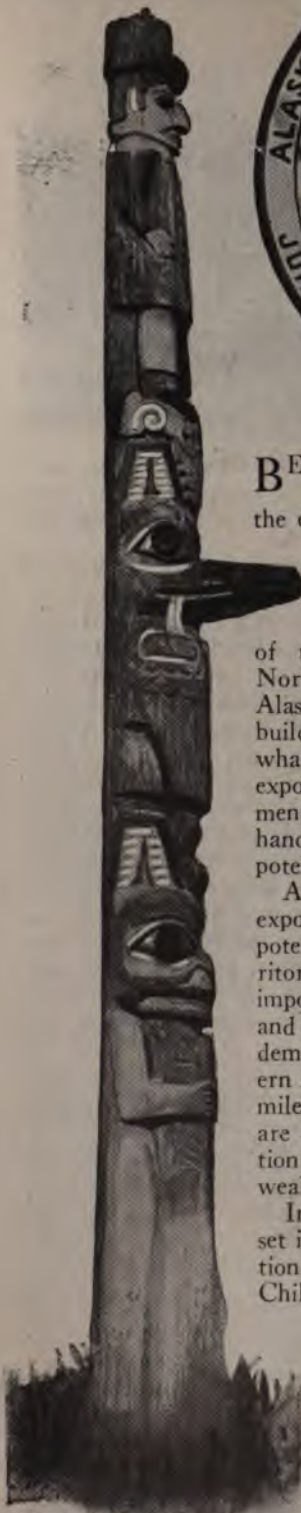
Bank York
Japan
Banks
Manufacture

Agriculture
Cattle
Poultry
Fishing

Canadian
Pacific
Government

Pay Street
Fire 100

Market
Administration



BEGINNING in 1905 with a plan to spend \$100,000 for an "Alaska Fair," the exposition that opens at Seattle on June 1, 1909, speedily expanded into a "World's Fair," costing \$10,000,000, and displaying \$50,000,000 worth of exhibits. This is typical of the way things grow in the Pacific Northwest. It is one of the reasons why the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition was worth building and will be worth seeing. It shows what is new, what is undeveloped. Other expositions have aimed to exhibit accomplishment; the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific, on the other hand, is an eye-opener to opportunity and potentiality ready for development.

As officially declared, the purposes of the exposition are: To exploit the resources and potentialities of the Alaska and Yukon territories; to make known and foster the vast importance of the trade of the Pacific Ocean and of the countries bordering thereon; to demonstrate the marvelous progress of Western America, where, within a radius of 1000 miles of Seattle, 7,500,000 persons live who are directly interested in making the exposition the true exponent of their material wealth and development.

In the main, the men who three years ago set in motion the plan for an Alaskan exposition have continued in its service. J. E. Chilberg, the president, was one of the original incorporators; so was John H. McGraw, the vice-president, and I. A. Nadeau, the director-general. But to Will H. Parry, of the finance committee, is given a large share of the credit for making the Seattle Exposition possible. In one day in October, 1906,



EAST SIDE OF THE COURT OF HONOR FROM

(From left to right: Hawaiian Building; European Exhibit Palace; Yukon Avenue leading to Nome Music Pavilion in foreground,

Mr. Parry disposed of \$500,000 worth of stock, with an over-subscription of \$126,000. Later in the same year he placed an additional \$300,000, and since that time the exposition corporation has sold \$350,000 worth of bonds. The bonds were placed during the worst days of the financial depression beginning in 1907. Mr. Parry was almost alone in his belief that these bonds could be sold in Seattle, but he accomplished what was declared to be impossible, and so secured the

resources without which the enterprise could never have gone forward.

It was not, of course, without the expenditure of tremendous energy and enthusiasm that a city of less than 300,000 people in a State containing less than 600,000 population could finance an exposition,—an undertaking that has taxed the resources of Chicago and St. Louis,—and have it ready to open on time. And no exposition has heretofore succeeded without financial assistance from the federal Government. Neighboring States have helped to some extent, California and Oregon by the appropriation of \$100,000 each, but Seattle and Washington have borne by far the greater part of the burden. At the same time the city has spent \$1,000,000 on street improvements hastened by the desire to have the city in readiness for its visitors. Even the hotel-keepers have been infected to such an extent by the "exposition spirit" that they have agreed not to raise their prices, and there is a combination of all interests to provide adequate accommodations for all who may come at normal prices. Two million people, the railroads estimate, will visit Seattle this summer.

GROUNDS AND BUILDINGS.

The site of the exposition is the campus of Washington University, occupying 250 acres, and located within twenty minutes from the heart of the city of Seattle. This location is set between two fresh-water lakes,—Lake Washington on the east and Lake Union on the west. The grounds present beautiful stretches of waterfront, sloping backward



COPSES OF RHODODENDRONS AND FIRS HEDGE IN ALL OF THE EXPOSITION BUILDINGS.



CHANDELAR AVENUE TO WASHINGTON AVENUE.

Circle; Forestry Building; Manufactures Building; a portion of Geyser Basin; Washington Avenue Canadian Building in timber beyond.)

with entrancing vistas through the stately trees scattered about the whole area. Rainier Avenue, looking along which Mt. Rainier is seen in the distance, is the axis of the exposition plan. On the west are the snow-covered Olympics, and on the east Mt. Baker towering over the white-capped Cascade Range is in plain view from the grounds.

The central or focal point of the exposition is the Court of Honor, about which are grouped buildings, statues, fountains, trees, shrubs, and flowers. At the northern end of this court are the Government buildings,—federal, Alaskan, Hawaiian, Philippine, and Fisheries,—and at the other the view opens across the water to distant Mt. Rainier. In the foreground of this lower end of the court lie the formal gardens of the exposition. In the center of the court is a circular lake 260 feet in diameter, from which plays a gigantic geyser throwing its waters 150 feet in the air. At night electricity illuminates the waters of the geyser into myriad sprays of light of every color and shade. Toward this geyser fountain flow the cascades over

six terraces. Forty thousand gallons of water tumble over these cascades every minute, and at night, illuminated from below, they become a vari-colored blaze of dazzling light.

The reason the exposition authorities have been successful in securing a plan harmonious in every detail is that grounds and buildings were planned as a whole before a single sod was turned. For the most part the exhibit buildings are of French Renaissance design,



THE EXPOSITION BUILDINGS WERE ILLUMINATED, AS SHOWN IN ILLUSTRATION, SIX WEEKS BEFORE THE OPENING.

(The electric installation is another feature of the remarkable state of preparedness that distinguishes this exposition.)



HOW THE LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTS HAVE MADE USE OF THE NATIVE FOREST COVER.

but there are some noteworthy exceptions to this rule. One of these is the Forestry Building, probably the largest log house ever built,—320 feet in length and 144 feet in width. The colonnade that runs along the front of this building is formed by 124 logs in the rough, each forty feet in length. Within is a comprehensive display of the timber resources of the Northwest and Alaska, showing every species of native tree, together with every form of lumber product made from them. Another very impressive exhibit is a one-piece flagpole, 200 feet in height, cut from a tree near Buckley, Washington. In addition to the housed exhibits of the Agricultural Building, there will be an outdoor farm and stock display. The farm will be run on model lines, illustrating in a practical way the rotation of all crops of the Northwest, as well as its orchards and dairies. A salmon cannery in full operation is a part of the fisheries exhibit.

Washington University will profit largely from

the exposition by the addition of four permanent buildings. The State appropriated \$1,000,000 for the exposition, with the proviso that \$600,000 of this sum should be used in the erection of three permanent buildings suitable for exposition uses, and capable afterwards of being transformed into college structures. The result of this far-sighted plan is that three of the largest exposition buildings,—the Auditorium, Fine Arts Palace, and Machinery Hall,—are permanent structures of stone, brick, and steel. When the exposition is over the Auditorium will become the Assembly Hall of the University; the Fine Arts Palace will be transformed into the Chemistry Department, and Machinery Hall will be the Engineering Building. Other permanent buildings that will become the property of the University are the home of the Arctic Brotherhood (to be used by the University as an Alaska-Yukon Museum) and the Emergency Hospital, which will be continued in use as a hospital for the University.

ALASKA'S PART IN THE SHOW.

Alaska-Yukon comes first in the title and inspiration of the exposition. In a vague way we have come to realize that Secretary Seward was not guilty of the "folly" of which he was accused when he paid \$7,200,000 for "The Alaska Purchase." But the balance sheet by which this purchase is marvelously justified has been seen by few. Prior to the ownership by the United States, Alaska had been a field of exploitation almost solely for its furs. Under our administration it has



MACHINERY HALL.

(One of the fireproof structures which will be given to the Washington State University.)



SOME OF THE ALASKAN "TOTEM POLES" TO BE SEEN AT THE EXPOSITION. (SEE ALSO PAGE 705.)

been developed into an empire of wealth. It is now producing in gold alone every year three times as much as we paid for it. Over \$120,000,000 worth of gold, \$80,000,000 in furs, and \$96,000,000 from its fisheries have been taken out of Alaska in the last forty years. It has developed an American population with American energy at its highest pitch. Of the \$600,000 appropriated by the federal Government for its representation at the exposition \$100,000 was allotted to the Alaska exhibit. The Alaskans themselves promptly trebled this sum in order that it might be proved beyond all question that their country was not an icebox, but a treasure chest. And they will show not merely its minerals,—gold, silver, copper, tin, lead, coal, petroleum, gypsum, marble, antimony, quicksilver, and graphite; not only its fisheries whose product has now reached the value of \$10,000,000 a year,—they will also display vegetables, fruits, and grains by way of proof that Alaska is not only a place in which money can be extracted from the ground, but



AN ATTRACTIVE PART OF THE HORTICULTURAL HALL.

a territory of vast agricultural possibilities.

James L. Farmer, special agent for the Department of the Interior, who has prepared the Alaskan exhibit, but who cannot be charged with the enthusiasm which sometimes carries away the Alaskan resident when he begins to talk of his country, says that "except in the far northern parts the climate is not nearly so severe as it is in the Dakotas, Montana, and Minnesota. There is almost no limit to the agricultural possibilities of the territory, and it should not be forgotten that Alaska has good schools and churches, and that the white man can live as comfortably and contentedly in Alaska as he can in the States." When the exposition is over we shall for the first time have, as a people, a demonstration of Alaskan possibilities as a whole.

GATEWAY TO THE PACIFIC TRADE.

There is, in a national sense, a much broader and important aspect of the exposition. Seattle, or perhaps it would be more exact to say Puget

Sound, is the natural gateway to the greatest of the world's markets for centuries to come. The natural pathway to the most promising fields of trade extension lies through Seattle to the Orient and Alaska. James J. Hill has been preaching and practicing this belief for several years. He was, in a commercial sense, ahead of his time, but the Seattle exposition will serve to fix in the minds of all Americans the importance of Pacific trade and the way to reach it.

The Far Eastern countries bordering on the Pacific, including the Philippines and Hawaii, will have the most comprehensive exhibits that they have ever attempted anywhere, and it will be possible at Seattle to find out what these countries need, as well as what they produce. Japan has grasped the commercial importance of the exposition, and not only is the official representation of the country on a most elaborate scale, but the exposition will be visited by Japanese business men in larger numbers and of more prominence and im-



A DETAIL OF THE LANDSCAPING. MUSIC PAVILION TO THE LEFT.



A VIEW OF THE MANUFACTURES BUILDING, LOOKING ACROSS CASCADE COURT.

portance than ever before journeyed to the United States.

AN OBJECT LESSON OF PROGRESS.

Seattle is in itself an impressive exhibit of the progress and possibilities of the Northwest. It has to-day a population of about 275,000, and yet the first white boy born in the city is only fifty-six years of age, and is still a resident of the place, which he has seen grow up from a collection of woodsheds to a municipality containing fifty-five square miles, with 600 miles of paved streets, 26,000 pupils in its public schools, building operations reaching \$14,000,000 a year, bank clearings of \$450,000,000 a year, an export business of over \$20,000,000, and an import business which has grown in ten years from a little over \$1,000,000 to \$18,000,000. Its harbor and docks are ready to take care of the enormous commerce now passing through its doors. It would be an almost endless task to enumerate the steamship lines that make Seattle and Puget Sound their terminus. These lines have over 300 steamers

in their service. With the East, Seattle is connected by three transcontinental railroads and will soon have two more. This is the city that was able not only to carry the enormous burden of its rapid local development but also to subscribe nearly three-quarters of a million dollars in one day for its fair, to carry through this enormous undertaking without one dollar of assistance from the United States Government, and have ready to open on time an exposition that is as beautiful as it is valuable from an educational point of view.

ATHLETIC AND ENDURANCE CONTESTS.

During the exposition Seattle will be the mecca toward which sportsmen of every bent will turn. Not only will the year's Amateur Athletic Union championships be decided in the exposition stadium,—the fair will also be the scene of contests of every sort, water and aerial, as well as track contests and automobile races. Negotiations have been completed to bring the Harvard, Yale, Cornell, and other rowing crews to



THE CALIFORNIA STATE BUILDING.

Seattle, and it is planned to hold at least one regatta each month on Lake Washington during the summer. The most interesting of the water contests is to be the long-distance power-boat race from Vancouver to Seattle, starting on June 29, for a \$500 cup. During the fair the Mountaineers' Club of Seattle will keep open house for the mountain climbers, whose opportunities in the neighborhood are limitless. The New York-Seattle automobile contest promises to be noteworthy as a demonstration of relative motor endurance over American roads. The New York to Paris race enlisted only a few cars of exceptional power. In the New York-Seattle contest, starting on June 1, cars of every sort from the smallest and least powerful to the largest cars with the highest horse-power will have a chance to show their merit under normal touring conditions.

The huge stadium of the exposition is largely the work of nature. The precipitous shores of Lake Union, looking across a succession of bays and snow-topped peaks, form the background of the amphithe-

ater floor. On the three sides, rising from the naturally level stage with a stately upward slope, are seats for 20,000 people in this huge forest theater.

HOW TO GO.

Seven railroad routes are open to the choice of those who visit the Alaska - Yukon - Pacific Exposition. The same rates are in force on all these lines, and one may go out over one line and return over another, without sacrificing the special rates.

Taking the roads in their geographical order, from north to south, the Canadian Pacific comes first. This route presents a panorama of rare beauty from the time one leaves Halifax, Nova Scotia, or intermediate points, until Seattle is reached. It traverses the beautiful lake regions of Canada, skirts the precipitous shore of Lake Superior, crosses the great plains of Western Canada, and winds for hours through the Rocky Mountains and the Cascades, until it finally reaches the Puget Sound country. A line to St. Paul is its United States connection.



HOW THE GARDENS LOOKED ON MARCH FIRST.

The Great Northern is also full of scenic interest. From St. Paul to Seattle, an ever-changing picture is unfolded to the observer, growing even more attractive and interesting as the mountain regions are approached. Skirting rapid rivers and climbing mountain passes, this road saves its finest scenery until the end, when it emerges upon Puget Sound at Everett, Washington, and continues for thirty miles along the beach to Seattle, the beautiful expanse of the Sound, with the pin-nacled Olympics in the distance.

Scenery along the Northern Pacific is practically the same as on the Great Northern, the two lines paralleling each other. Both pass through the States of Minnesota, North Dakota, Montana, Idaho, and Washington. The famous "bad lands" of the Dakotas are a unique feature, and Yellowstone Park makes a delightful and readily taken "stop-over."

The Burlington Line takes to the Northern Pacific tracks at Billings, Montana, and enters Seattle by that route. The Chicago,

Milwaukee and St. Paul is pushing construction on its transcontinental line, which may be operating into Seattle before the end of the exposition period, paralleling the Northern Pacific.

The Harriman lines care for the traffic of the South and Southwest, the Union Pacific reaching Seattle via Denver and Portland. Although not surpassing the Northern routes in attractiveness, the Southern Pacific route will attract many because it traverses California and the Southwest. Improved service will be given on all these lines this summer. The rates are uniform both east and west of Chicago, so that the deciding factor is the "stop-overs" the traveler may wish to make, or the country he prefers to see from the car window. In fact, by any route the traveler chooses he will be delighted by a lavish display of natural scenery. With the beautiful exposition for an objective point, the American traveler who decides to make a Western trip this summer or in the early fall will be amply repaid.



LOOKING DOWN ON THE FORESTRY BUILDING,—THE WASHINGTON STATE BUILDING IN THE FOREGROUND.

SEATTLE, A METROPOLIS BUILT IN A SINGLE GENERATION.

BY HON. RICHARD A. BALLINGER.

(Secretary of the Interior; Mayor of Seattle, 1904-6.)

NOTHING has brought Seattle so prominently before the American people as her courage and enterprise in bringing into existence the Alaska-Yukon-Pacific Exposition, which will be opened punctually on the first day of June of this year, and in which

the national Government and many of the States will liberally participate, and at which foreign governments will be represented. The city alone is an exhibition of the capacity and enterprise of American genius on an intensified scale. It was a bold and hazardous undertaking, three years ago, to attempt to hold an international exposition in 1909 that represented no historical event and claimed for itself no element of sentiment, but which was based solely upon business principles with the design of exploiting the resources and advantages of Alaska and the Yukon territory,—the great Northwest,—and our possessions lying in the Pacific Ocean. It required a quality of courage found only in men accustomed to great undertakings to project an exposition which required the investment of many millions of dollars and the preparation of the city to serve creditably as host, and the difficulties which lay before the prosecution of this enterprise can best be appreciated when we consider that the financial stringency of 1908 fell directly across its pathway.

A GREAT OCEAN PORT.

It is difficult for the stranger to understand the extent to which the builders of Seattle have had to struggle with Nature in order to carve out the foundations of a city on Elliott Bay. But for her tributary resources and natural commercial advantages no one would have chosen such a site for the



SEATTLE IN 1893, FROM THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY MAPS.

future metropolis of the Northwest, although when improved her numerous hills will lend a charm of beauty which no other city can claim.

The character of the harbor of Seattle, which is known as Elliott Bay, is well illustrated by the fact that the American fleet, in its trip around the world, sailed in under its own steam, passed in review, and came to anchor without aid. Many fleets of similar size could be accommodated within this harbor. It is likewise true that the great steamship *Minnesota*, in her trips to and from Japan and China, comes to her berth in the Seattle harbor under her own steam without assistance, which is far different from conditions in New York's harbor, and in most harbors of the world.

In truth, Puget Sound is one vast Mediterranean Sea, and furnishes innumerable harbors and facilities for commerce. Its shore line is over 1100 statute miles, independent of the Straits of San Juan de Fuca and the archipelago of islands known as the San Juan Islands. If the Pacific Ocean, as Seward predicted, is to "become the chief theater of events in the world's hereafter," Puget Sound will assuredly become the chief center of American transportation from the western coast of the continent, and the Port of Seattle the greatest port of entry for this commerce, where land and water transportation so advantageously meet.

THE CITY'S PHYSICAL FEATURES.

It is interesting to note by the contour maps of the Geological Survey what has taken place in the building of a city between and including the years 1893 and 1908. These maps also serve to show that Seattle, like New York, has her land areas somewhat like

a shoestring. Her residence growth is confined to the northward; her commercial growth, to the southward, up the Duwamish Valley, and covering the tide lands and level areas, which, by necessity, become the convenient location for her railway terminals and manufacturing district, and through which it is proposed to construct a canal into Lake Washington. A canal is also proposed to be constructed from Puget Sound through Lake Union and into Lake Washington, for deep water traffic. It will not be many years distant until one or both of these aids to commerce will be in operation. It was on the shores of Elliott Bay in



SEATTLE IN 1908.

1904 that the battleship *Nebraska* was launched,—the first great constructive effort of the city of Seattle in the way of manufacture.

Her problems have been heroically solved, and at great cost of money and energy. It is claimed that in the regrading of the streets alone over 14,000,000 cubic yards of earth have been moved or are in process of removal in order to level her hills and make convenient ways for traffic in her business section. This involves a change of grade for 21 miles of street and one-half a square mile of private property, the maximum cut being 126 feet and maximum fill 54 feet. The extent of her street improvements may be somewhat appreciated from the fact that she has constructed over 300 miles of asphaltum streets.

A RAILROAD FOCUS.

Twenty years ago, Seattle was a struggling town of the then Territory of Washington, without a direct line of railway connection with the East, or any foreign lines of ocean transportation. To-day, four transcontinental lines,—the Great Northern, North-

ern Pacific, Burlington, and Canadian Pacific,—run trains out of Chicago for Seattle, and it is a question of but a short time when other transcontinental lines will be operating to the same port. The Union Pacific and the North Coast are now under construction, and the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul has been completed, but is not yet in operation.

In ocean transportation, independent of the numerous coast lines, Seattle has direct connection with Japanese and Chinese ports and the Hawaiian Islands.

Seattle's enormous increase in traffic is illustrated by the fact that in the last twelve years her freight business has increased over 400 per cent. This increase is no more remarkable than that of her population. The last census gave Seattle about 80,000, while the next census will give her over 300,000 people.

THE GATEWAY TO ALASKA.

When we consider the vast tributary country lying to the north and embracing the Empire of Alaska, and that to the east stretching into the plains beyond the Rocky Mountains, and likewise southward, all embracing the vast possibilities of agricultural wealth and wealth of forest and of mineral, including the coal deposits of the Cascade Range, it is not difficult to estimate the resources available for the support of a great commercial metropolis destined to handle by land and sea the products of an ever-increasing people.

Alaska is Seattle's richest field of trade and commerce, and Seattle to Alaskans is an Alaskan city. The millions of gold annually produced in Alaska and the fruits of her other resources very largely filter through the avenues of trade in Seattle or are invested in the State of Washington.

INTELLECTUAL RESOURCES.

It is an inspiration to live amid lofty mountains and to be surrounded by the almost limitless expanse of ocean and plain,—to live with Nature's giant products in all their forms. Such environment tends to expand the mind and quicken the zeal of human life. All this is true of the great West and is notably true of the people of Seattle. They are broad and liberal in their views; aggressive and versatile in their endeavors, and courageous in large undertakings.

The quality of the people of a city is what determines the character of the city. The moral, intellectual, and industrial temper of



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SECOND AVENUE, LOOKING NORTH FROM YESLER WAY.

(As it appeared May 26, 1908, during the parade of the men from the Atlantic Battleship Fleet, then in Seattle harbor.)



"PIONEER PLACE," SHOWING HISTORIC INDIAN "TOTEM POLE" FROM ALASKA.
(This is the center of the lower business district.)

the people is always fundamental in determining their possibilities for progress and development. Imagine the surprise of the visitor to Seattle from the East when he is taken to the University Club and learns of the unusual number of college and university-trained men who are actively leading in the upbuilding of this young city. From this to the Rainier Club is but a step, where many of the same type of men are found,—all young captains of commerce and trade, and leaders in the business and professional life of the community. Then he is shown the commercial organizations, including the Alaska Club, each typifying the "Seattle spirit," which is known and well understood as the same spirit which made Chicago great and which lifted San Francisco from the ashes of her disaster.

In education, Seattle has within her limits a State University which, through liberal encouragement and endowment, has become one of the great seats of learning of the West. Her public schools are of the most advanced character, and art and culture find as many devotees in Seattle as in any of our American cities. Her people are constantly studying the problems of the future, and the broadening influence of opportunities surrounding their environment is a constant stimulus for progress.

Upon the street cars, in the shops, in the

factories, and upon the water front the visitor sees an alert, young, active, intelligent class of employees, superior to any to be found in Eastern cities, and as he finishes his tour of inspection he asks, "Where is your tenement district?" He is surprised to find there is none. The happy and prosperous artisan, mechanic, or laborer is, for the most part, the proud possessor of his own domicile, and is thus a better man and a better citizen.

Finally, the Sons and Daughters of the American Revolution, so numerous among her people, convince the stranger that the citizens of Seattle have been transplanted from the East, the South, and the Middle West by wise selection.

NO LONGER A "WIDE-OPEN" TOWN.

Seattle's churches and cathedrals demonstrate in their largeness the religious character of her people; her libraries and schools her intellectual strength, while the careful regulation of vice establishes their high moral tone and civic virtue. The battle for decency against vice and corruption has been decided in favor of the former. It is only during the last five years that Seattle has been a "closed town," as distinguished from a Western "wide-open town." During the early days of the excitement following the discovery of gold in the Klondike, Seattle



WASHINGTON BOULEVARD.

(Showing a portion of the boulevard system, passing through one of the parks in which the natural growth of trees and vegetation has been preserved.)

very justly had the reputation of being the most immoral city in the West, in which gambling and all forms of vice were not only permitted but encouraged by the public authorities. It was the sentiment of the business community that business flourished only when vice flourished,—that “easy money” made “easy business.” This condition has been so far reversed that Seattle is to-day governed in the most exemplary manner of any Western city. Official corruption has never played a conspicuous part in the management of the city as regards her public improvements. Few cities can boast of greater returns in value for public expenditures, and in more honest and permanent construction in public works and buildings.

The Puget Sound region has no real summer and no real winter, but the seasons blend

from autumn into spring and from spring into autumn. Such climatic conditions stimulate the highest mental and physical activities, and these conditions are due to the wholesome influence of the Japan Current, which renders the signs of the Zodiac useless. I have not mentioned the rains of the so-called winters. These, however, are no bar to outdoor industry and activities, but prevent the cheering influence of sunshine only.

MUNICIPAL IMPROVEMENTS.

Fortunate indeed is that city which in its youth possesses a progressive citizenship and competent men of broad foresight to pioneer its municipal problems. The municipal problems of street improvement, parks, and railway terminals have been unique in Seattle, as has been heretofore pointed out. Her most useful citizen in this particular has been her City Engineer, Reginald H. Thomson, who has devoted years of patient and intelligent study in securing the largest measure of improvement with the least burden to the public, and always with the design of fitting his work into the final necessities of a great metropolis. This man, not content to know all about American cities and to improve upon their public works, has carefully studied the problems of municipal improvements in European cities, and in various ways has developed those measures best adapted to Seattle's needs.



SAILING FROM SEATTLE FOR NOME, ALASKA.

(Typical scene on the Seattle waterfront during the rush to Alaska at the beginning of each season.)



Copyright, 1901, by W. P. Romans

MOUNT RAINIER.

(Tallest peak in the United States proper (altitude 14,526 feet), as seen from Seattle, with Lake Washington in the foreground. Rainier National Park, in which this mountain is located, is one of the most attractive natural recreation grounds in the world.)

PUBLIC UTILITIES.

A pure and abundant water supply contributes to the health and comfort of a city more than any other factor, next to which is a good sewage and sanitary system. Usually in cities of rapid growth, these utilities are far behind the needs of the population. Seattle has wisely struggled to keep them in advance of her demands. The source of the municipal water supply under the city's control, as now developed, is capable of supplying a city of over a million population. The entire watershed of Cedar Lake and river, in the Cascade Mountains, from which the city is supplied, is owned by the city. This insures protection against contamination. Furthermore, the water power generated below the lake, by means of a head of 615 feet, lights the city with electricity, and no American city is more generously lighted. Thus the mountains are made to labor in adding comfort to her people. The water which generates the electricity is returned to the river, which flows to the intake for the municipal water system, several miles below the power plant. The lighting plant is capable of not only supplying all public demands, but furnishes a large portion of the private consumption of electricity for domestic and manufacturing purposes at a low, competing rate with private concerns.

Seattle's street-car system is under a sin-

gle private management, and, in order to keep pace with her growth, millions have been spent in extensions of lines and in providing adequate equipment and accommodation for the rapid expansion of her population. Preparation for exposition traffic has vastly increased the burdens of this system, but no one doubts a lack of preparedness in this particular, or in that of the hotels of the city to reasonably care for the visitors to the fair. A campaign of co-operation to make the fair a success has been waged with such intelligence and persistence that the whole West is enrolled in the service of the exposition, and the great railway companies are vying with one another in friendly efforts in its exploitation.

THE SCENIC ENVIRONMENT.

The exposition is located upon the grounds of the University of the State of Washington, within the city limits, which grounds were leased by the exposition management from the University. Many of the beautiful structures which now decorate the University grounds are permanently constructed and arranged to be converted into university buildings after the close of the fair, thus furnishing much needed facilities for this institution, and saving the enormous waste so common in most expositions. Thus the University as well as Seattle secures vast lasting advantage in structures

and other improvements by virtue of the expenditures in connection with the exposition.

The natural facilities of Seattle for scenic parks and boulevards are unsurpassed, because of her natural forests and hills and rugged contour. Early in the city's history, the noted landscape engineer, Mr. Olmstead, of Boston, was employed to lay out a carefully planned scheme for the Park Board, which has largely been adhered to, resulting in the acquisition of many acres of park land and several miles of macadam boulevard, winding along the lakes and through the gorges with native timber and foliage retained in its perennial beauty. Nothing can be more picturesque than a drive on the Washington Park and Interlaken boulevards, all quite within the city proper. These boulevards connect with the exposition grounds, which, like a great amphitheatre, lie in the grounds of the State University, overlooking the beautiful expanse of the waters of Lake Washington and Lake Union, with the towering mountain in the near distance, called by Seattle people Mount Rainier, and by her neighbors in Tacoma, Mount Tacoma, but which poli-

ticians diplomatically refer to as "The Mountain." With all this, on east and west rise the snow-capped ranges of the Cascades and Olympics, making it a fitting place for Gabriel on the last day to sound his trumpet for the final call.

From Seattle it is but a day's auto drive to the foot of the Nisqually Glacier and Paradise Valley in the Mount Rainier National Park. It is but an easy drive to the Snoqualmie Falls, and likewise to the City of Tacoma, or to Lake Cushman on the west side of Puget Sound, at the foot of the Olympic Mountains.

This is an age of great cities. Most of them have grown from villages and without plans, and have had their beginnings in other generations. It is a novelty to witness the growth of a great city from first beginnings in one generation, and this is one of the characteristics of Seattle which gives her an added charm, and her modern character in great structures and facilities for comfort and for business is perhaps the most attractive feature to the stranger, and also is perhaps the reason why her people are unwilling to concede that there is any other city quite equal to Seattle.



SEATTLE IN 1879.

(The above view, looking south from a point near Second Avenue and Pike Street, shows the Seattle of thirty years ago, the area now covered by the heart of the business district. Instead of the water appearing in the background, to-day railroad terminals, warehouses, factories, and wholesale houses stand, where the tide flats have been filled in. The site of the old sawmill on the waterfront is the location of "Pioneer Place." See page 717.)

THE FINANCES OF MEXICO.

BY CHARLES F. SPEARE.

GO into any of the public markets of Mexico, whether in the City of Mexico or the small towns of the interior, and walk about among its stalls and a striking economic fact will be revealed. The unit of purchasing power of the peons, who are 50 per cent. of the 15,000,000 population of the Republic, is the centavo. One sees in these markets little mounds or piles of beans, corn, peppers; wretched scraps of meat, the *tortilla* in varied forms, all reduced to the infinitesimal measure of what the purchaser can compass from his earnings for his daily material needs. The Mexican peon lives for to-day. He spends as he makes. His pulque and cig-

business sense and men who can labor in the fields and are willing to adopt twentieth century ideas of agriculture. If she borrows foreigners must be the lenders. A call for funds at home would bring scanty subscriptions.

Knowing the conditions under which Mexico lives it is all the more remarkable that she was one of the few nations of the world last year whose receipts were larger than expenditures.

Mexico's position, from the standpoint of national debt, population, per capita debt, and foreign trade, compared with other Latin-American countries, is as follows:

	National debt.	Population.	Debt per capita.	Foreign trade.
Mexico	\$222,058,181	15,000,000	\$14.80	\$231,000,000
Brazil	542,213,359	17,000,000	31.80	495,000,000
Argentina	444,440,087	8,000,000	74.00	561,000,000
Chile	95,720,654	5,000,000	19.14	210,000,000

arette, the bullfight, the lottery and his expansive sombrero and gaudy zerapah keep him poor. He knows nothing of the savings bank, has no conception of thrift, and if he were taxed in proportion as the proletariat of other countries his condition would be embarrassing.

When one considers the proportion of peons, or Indians, to the entire population, one wonders how Mexico can develop as she does or how it is possible for her to occupy the leading position of credit among the Latin-American countries. The answer will be found mainly in the wonders that have been accomplished in the Republic through foreign occupation. The British first, then the German and American, and now the American, the Spaniard, the German, and the French have done, and are doing, most for Mexico. The peon of this generation is contributing probably 25 per cent. more than his forefathers to the upbuilding of the Republic. The Indian of the next generation, better educated through the compulsory school system, strengthened in body by knowledge of hygiene and living among sanitary conditions which the government is providing, will effect a still greater advance in the wealth of the nation. Mexico, however, must always grow from without, that is, through immigration of men with brains and

She has had the right sort of a budget now for nearly fifteen years. From chronic and hopeless indebtedness, she has been lifted out of the slough of financial despond by a wise and careful Finance Ministry. Her credit to-day is the best of any of the southern Republics. Her bonds command highest respect in the markets of the world. Nearly all of her obligations are payable in gold. Fluctuations in exchange are no longer the *bête noire* of the foreign merchant or trader in Mexico.

A little over twenty years ago the Budget Committee of the Mexican Chamber of Deputies announced that it was impossible, under existing conditions, to strike a balance between income and outgo. Politics were corrupt. There was the same shameless looting of the treasury that has occurred in later days in some of the Latin-American countries in the tropics. Even with the nation practically bankrupt the ruling Finance Minister, Gomez Farias, was then playing the precarious part of banker and preparing to loan \$8,000,000 to Portugal. The nation's bonds were selling at ruinous discounts in the markets of Europe. As late as 1893 a 6 per cent. loan went at 58¾. Defaults had been so frequent, revolutions were so common, and such little progress was being made in the internal development of the Re-

public that the future looked exceedingly unpromising. There was no continuous line of communication between the Rio Grande River and the City of Mexico; very little means of railway travel from one state to another even.

LIMANTOUR, THE WITTE OF MEXICO.

President Diaz has been wise in his selection of men. His present Finance Minister, José Yves Limantour, had his training in the troubled school of nineteenth century Mexican finances. He has the Frenchman's intellectuality and his *finesse* in financial affairs; the Spaniard's business acumen. He began his upbuilding soon after the Romero administration balked. To the foundation which he then laid he has added each year, witnessing the change from penury to sufficiency, if not national plenty, and raising a monument to himself as a financial genius. Limantour is to Mexico what Witte was to Russia. The antecedents of the two men were different, as Witte was self-made and Limantour inherited one of the largest fortunes in Mexico. The minds of the two men ran in the same groove. They had similar problems to conquer. Witte became too powerful for the Czar and his court and has descended to the mediocrity of a private banker. They call Diaz a Czar. There are numerous instances of suppression from the Palace of men with brains and force, but with political ambitions which placed them in opposition to Diaz. He has never tried to curb Limantour, however, even when his Finance Minister was a popular candidate for the Presidency. Diaz knows that the best antidote for the fever of revolution in Mexico is commercialism, whose reaction is the fever for gold. To develop Mexico on material lines has been and is Limantour's work. An intimate study of his work in the last decade will reveal him to the unprejudiced mind as one of the ablest financiers of our times.

MEXICO AS A BORROWING NATION.

The debt history of Mexico is a romantic one. The tears of many lenders have been shed over it. Millions of English gold sovereigns have been buried in the Republic. Defaults and conversions have ruined investors all over Europe. The earliest of the loans were those of 1824 and 1825, which were made in London at the rate of 6 per cent. In 1826 the so-called "English debt" for \$26,000,000 was incurred. On it interest was defaulted from 1827 to 1831. In

1846 conversion of the entire foreign debt and arrearages into a new 5 per cent. loan for \$51,000,000 was effected. This was secured by one-fifth of the customs receipts at Tampico and Vera Cruz, the duty on tobacco, and the export duty from silver on Pacific ports. War in the next year between Mexico and the United States closed the ports and cut off customs receipts. So the conversion scheme collapsed. In 1857 a second effort at conversion, known as the Payno conversion, was carried out. By 1861 the total debt of Mexico amounted to \$157,049,745, of which \$62,208,250 was foreign and \$84,841,495 internal. That year suspension of interest payments brought about the intervention of the allied powers who were the largest creditors of Mexico.

Maximilian, in 1864, raised a loan in London and Paris, which bore 6 per cent. interest and sold at 63, so low then was the Republic's credit. In 1888 we first find Germany taking a banking interest in Mexico with the house of Bleichroeder sponsor for a \$52,250,000 6 per cent. loan. The following year Mexico borrowed \$13,500,000 to secure the Tehauntepec Railroad, which promises to be one of the best investments that it has ever made, and in 1890 the Bleichroeders loaned her \$30,000,000 more. Low ebb in Mexico's credit came in 1893, with the closing of the mints in India and the silver crisis, when it was necessary to borrow \$15,000,000 to tide over the situation, and when 6 per cent. bonds went to the highest bidder at 68¾. This was the last time that Mexico was forced to sacrifice her pound of flesh to banking syndicates. Her annual surplus to-day has the respect of the money markets. When she wants to borrow she does so on good terms.

GROWTH OF THE NATIONAL CREDIT.

It was in 1893 that Mr. Limantour became Finance Minister. In 1895 Mexico substituted a credit balance for the usual annual deficit, and would have done so the year before had not extraordinary expenditures been necessary to mobilize the army from fear of an uprising in Guatamala. Since 1894-05 the surplus has amounted to \$65,000,000. Out of this \$25,000,000 have been employed in public works, and there remains a cash balance of \$40,000,000. In 1899 Minister Limantour visited Europe and succeeded in converting \$107,000,000 of 6 and 5 per cent. bonds, issued between 1888 and 1893, into \$115,000,000 of

5 per cent. bonds, which sold at 96. This loan was placed with J. P. Morgan & Co. and a syndicate of German banks. It was secured by 62 per cent. of the import and export duties of the Republic. In 1904 these bonds sold at 105, but are now quoted at 99, as the heavy decline in silver has led to some unwarranted fear about Mexico's credit. In 1904 Mexico had so far advanced above all other Latin-American countries in point of credit that she was able to borrow without security, offering a 4 per cent. bond at 89. This basis of credit was as good then as that possessed by either Russia or Japan, who were borrowing on less satisfactory terms, while the fact that the government did not give any special guarantee and the loan rested on the faith alone in Mexico to meet her obligations illustrates the long stride forward that she had taken in a decade.

THE FEDERAL REVENUES.

The revenue by which Mexico is sustained is shown in the following extract from the 1909-10 budget:

TAXES ON FOREIGN COMMERCE.	
Import duties.....	\$21,000,000
Export duties.....	210,000
Sundry port dues.....	475,000
Transit dues.....	75,000
Dues for storage and warehousing.....	32,500
Pileage dues.....	11,000
Sanitary dues.....	58,000
Consular fees.....	475,000
Other minor imposts.....	20,000
Total yield of taxes on foreign commerce.....	\$22,354,500
INTERIOR TAXES PAYABLE THROUGHOUT THE FEDERATION.	
<i>Stamp Revenue.</i>	
Sale of common stamps.....	\$6,750,000
Federal contribution.....	3,200,000
Tax on mining property.....	900,000
Internal tax on gold and silver.....	1,125,000
Tax on tobacco.....	1,400,000
Tax on alcohol.....	415,000
Tax on cotton yarn and textiles.....	1,200,000
Tax on explosives.....	75,000
Trademark and patent dues.....	22,500
Total yield of the stamp revenue.....	\$15,087,500
<i>Other Federal Internal Taxes.</i>	
Assay, melting, parting, and refining dues.....	65,000
Total yield of Federal internal taxes.....	\$15,152,500
TAXES PAYABLE IN THE FEDERAL DISTRICT AND TERRITORIES.	
Direct taxes—viz., on real estate, and professional and business licenses in the Federal District.....	\$2,840,000
Municipal taxes in the Federal District.....	2,500,000
Direct and local taxes in the Federal Territories.....	65,000
Successions and donations.....	200,000
Public registry of property and minor sources.....	38,500
Total yield of special taxes in the Federal District and Territories.....	\$5,643,500
PUBLIC SERVICES.	
Earnings of post office.....	\$2,125,000
Earnings of telegraph lines.....	1,025,000

Earnings of some Government establishments.....	\$42,500
Total yield of revenue from public services.....	\$3,192,500
REVENUE FROM THE NATION'S REAL ESTATE.	
Revenue in cash from vacant lands and other Federal properties.....	\$170,000
PROFITS FROM MINOR SOURCES.	
National lottery.....	\$465,000
Dividends on railway bonds and shares..	200,000
Payments for salaries made by corporations under Government inspection...	240,000
Returns on sundry capital, securities, rights, etc.....	850,000
Other minor sources.....	392,000
Total yield of revenue from profits and minor sources.....	\$2,117,500
RESUME.	
Taxes on foreign commerce.....	\$22,354,500
Interior taxes payable throughout the Federation.....	15,157,500
Special taxes in the Federal District and Territories.....	5,643,500
Public services.....	3,192,500
Revenue from the nation's real estate...	170,000
Profits from minor sources.....	2,117,500

Total estimated revenue for the year 1909-1910.....\$48,630,500

The proportion of taxes on Mexico's foreign commerce to taxes of an interior nature, since 1903-04, has been as follows:

	1903-04.	1907-08.
	Per cent.	Per cent.
Taxes on foreign commerce.....	43.28	49.82
Interior taxes.....	47.97	40.10

HIGH TARIFF ON IMPORTS.

The direct taxes in Mexico are not so onerous as those indirectly applied in the form of import duties. Many forms of interior taxes have been redeemed or suppressed in the past ten years. But, for a country so unimportant industrially, Mexico has an absurdly high tariff wall. The tariff provides the government with funds for operating expenses, but it has been the most important factor in increasing the cost of living of the foreign element in the Republic nearly 100 per cent. in the last fifteen years. The people who can exist on what Mexico produces lives cheaply when there is a fair crop of corn and beans and of wheat. All other commodities the Mexican Government seems to stamp either as semi-necessities or luxuries and taxes them accordingly. This tendency is increasing, and is even exaggerated when some industry rises to a competitive basis with foreign industry, as in the case of iron and steel products, which last year were placed on a new tariff list, making the export of American rails or structural steel material to Mexico prohibitive. As the table above shows, foreign commerce is paying the tax in larger proportion each year while interior taxation is diminishing. Recently the tax on meat was considerably reduced to stimulate Mexicans in the habit of eating it, and in order,

as some severe critics of Mexican Government politics claim, to help the "Meat Trust," which prospers in the Republic as it does with us. To Mexico must be given the credit of indefinitely annulling the tax on wheat on the last crop failure. Italy has illustrated a different attitude.

INTERNAL TAXES.

The commonest form of interior taxation is that of the stamp tax. This imposes no really severe burden on those whom it affects. The mining interests protest vigorously against it, claiming that the \$2,000,000 which they pay each year to the government is excessive and unjust. There are cases, it is true, where the government has exacted from mine-owners a very large part of their profits, but in a general way the laws are looked upon as equitable and in the interests of the foreign capital by which mines must be developed. All sorts of legal documents, contracts, leases, and even the receipt which the landlord gives to his tenant, carry a stamp tax. Bank notes are taxed, marriage settlements pay a tax of one pesos for every \$1000 up to \$500,000, and there is a heavy tax on donations, except for charitable purposes. Inheritances are taxed 1 pesos per \$1000 for transfers to direct descendants; 2 per cent. to those from second to eighth remove, and 3 per cent. to strangers. The railroads pay 2 per cent. on all gross receipts within the Republic, while there is a government revenue from every passenger who rides on the tramways in the cities or is jolted over the rough roads of the interior in a stagecoach. Lotteries have to give up 5 per cent. on the value of their prizes. The annual revenue of \$465,000 which the government receives from the national lottery is one of the most pitiable forms of levy on a credulous and morally unstable people. Pique, the lottery, and the bullfight are the curse of Mexico. They keep the natives poor. The effect of one is about as bad as that of the others.

In the state of Aguescalientes I came upon an agent of the lottery who made this statement: "In two years the average monthly receipts from the lottery tickets I sold were \$200. In those two years the total amount of prizes I distributed represented a gross value of \$100."

Mexico makes her post office and her telegraph lines pay. The yield of revenue from so-called "public services" and from investments in railroad and other corporations is

nearly 10 per cent. of the total national income of \$48,630,500.

LARGE LANDED ESTATES AN EVIL.

It has been said that 400 families in Mexico control the bulk of the land. We know that two, those of Terazzas and Del Rio, own between some 10,000,000 to 12,000,000 acres in the states of Chihuahua and Durango. The Terazzas estate is of 7,000,000 acres. On it a herd of 75,000 cattle is maintained. Express trains on the Central are hours in crossing it, and several railroad stations are located within its borders. These enormous "haciendas" contribute practically nothing to the support of Mexico, and, because their owners will not sub-divide them into workable units, it is difficult to obtain the proper sort of immigration on which Mexico would flourish agriculturally. It is the idea of the advanced party in Mexico to tax these lands both for the revenue which they ought to be yielding, but, more directly, to impel the "haciendas" to split up their estates. Mexico will never make much of a showing until this ancient form of land ownership is abandoned.

HOW THE GOVERNMENT DISTRIBUTES EXPENDITURES.

That Mexico has consistently regulated her expenditures to her receipts is indicated in the table below:

Year.	Receipts.	Expenses.
1895.....	\$25,256,000	\$22,500,000
1900.....	31,500,000	29,710,000
1905.....	51,000,000	39,700,000
1908.....	55,900,000	46,600,000

The largest item in the budget of expenditures for 1909-10 is the service of the public debt, which amounts to \$13,151,000. The distribution of the proposed expenditures in the coming year, of \$48,500,000, is in the following proportions, and in this connection I have also given the proportion for 1903-04:

	1903-04.	1907-08.
	Per cent.	Per cent.
Public debt.....	33.85	28.13
War.....	19.88	16.63
Finance Ministry.....	10.10	9.10
Communications and Public Works.....	11.41	15.66
Federal District.....	7.65	8.64
Legislature, Executive, and Judiciary.....	3.40	4.25
Public Instruction and Fine Arts.....	4.14	6.36
Public Health, Police, and Charities.....	2.45	3.63

These figures tell the whole story of Mexico's advance along humanitarian lines in the last five years. The record for ten years is even better. We see here how Mexico is extending the arts of peace and curbing the expenditures for war, an exam-

ple that every other nation might well follow. In all things pertaining to internal improvements, such as better roads, larger ports, more railroad lines, a more extensive system of water-works in the Federal district, new schools, asylums, improved police protection which has secured freer investment of foreign capital, the educating influence of museums and of theaters, to say nothing of the commanding scheme of irrigation which the government is fathering, the Republic has made progress and has shown liberality. Withal its departments have been well and economically administered, as the relation of expense for this account in the two periods suggests.

CURRENCY AND BANKING.

The new commercial life of Mexico and the stimulus to investment of foreign capital followed immediately after the adoption, in 1904, of the gold exchange standard. This put Mexico in a position where she could treat with foreign interests on a satisfactory basis, and it stopped at once the enormous losses among importers, owing to the unstable rates of exchange. It was a common experience for the merchant in the Republic to find himself with a handsome book profit one day and hopelessly in debt the next, when exchange fluctuated wildly and away from his original basis of negotiation. Nearly \$60,000,000 a year of foreign capital flowed into Mexico after the gold standard was accepted and only stopped with the panic.

Prior to the panic of 1907 the banks in Mexico had been running into some reckless enterprises. They were loaning out too much of their funds in mining and land ventures. The worst feature was that bank directors were allowing too large a proportion of their loans to apply to companies in which they had a personal interest. Finance Minister Limantour saw the storm approaching and bore down firmly on the bankers so that, when the crash came, their loans were 25 per cent. under those of the spring of 1907. Throughout the period of tight money last year the part that the National Bank of Mexico played in relieving the situation proved its justification. It rediscounted liberally. The total assets of the banks of issue on June 30, 1908, were \$306,700,000; of the Banks of Encouragement, \$52,350,000, and of the Mortgage Banks, \$19,260,000. The total specie holdings of all of the chartered banks was \$38,350,000.

The chief economic necessity in Mexico is greater diversification of products that may

be exported and thus create a balance of trade. To-day Mexico depends on the importation of foreign capital to counterbalance the effect of payments of \$20,000,000 per annum in interest and dividends to foreign investors. There is an abundance of minerals in the Republic. It is a mineral country. Exports of gold, silver, copper, and lead are in the ratio of two to one of products of the soil or manufactured articles; in other words, last year's shipments abroad of minerals were \$80,000,000 and of other products \$40,000,000. Year in and year out Mexico does not get from off the land enough wheat or corn or cotton to supply her own requirements. There are tens of millions of acres of highly productive soil if water could be brought to it.

AN IRRIGATION PROJECT.

This necessity has been fully realized by President Diaz and his Cabinet. Last year there was created, by an act of Congress, what is known as the Institution for Loans to Irrigation Works and for the Encouragement of Agriculture. This concern has back of it the government's guarantee of the interest on its bonds. It has recognized the immediate demand for more irrigated land which under private enterprise has increased very slowly from year to year. The project, for the present, is most prominently identified with the construction of several large storage dams in the Laguna cotton district, but there is no limit to its possibilities. Mexico produces cereals, fruits, other products of the soil, and cattle to the value of \$200,000,000, or not so much as one of our Western States.

THE GOVERNMENT AND THE RAILROADS.

No commercial conquest, however, that the Diaz administration has made compare with the control obtained over the most important railroad lines in the Republic. The story of this conquest is one of the most fascinating and romantic in the history of finance. It marks an epoch in the movement toward government regulation or control of railroad lines. Mexico's leading men were keen enough to see that the railroads of the country, controlled by foreign capital and operated by Americans, were extracting all they could from the Republic and giving back as little as was politic. They were wasteful of capital in directions that served no public good, and left them poor for those developments that were legitimate and would have been beneficial to the shippers and the

traveling public. In 1902 a start had been made through an investment of \$4,500,000 in the narrow gauge Interoceanic Railway running from the City of Mexico to Vera Cruz. A year later stock control of the National Railroad of Mexico, one of the main arteries of traffic from the American border to the City of Mexico, was obtained by giving up \$5,000,000 gold. This line was operated under government supervision three or four years before the idea was suggested of merging into one organization four separate systems, with a combined trackage of 7000 miles, or about 70 per cent. of all of the mileage in the Republic. This action was precipitated by the attempt of American interests to secure control of the Mexican Central, which was then nearly bankrupt.

Out of this idea has grown the government system of railroads which penetrates practically every part of the Republic, serving all of the important centers of traffic creation in the interior and extending its spurs to the Gulf ports and to the ports that have just been opened on the Pacific side. By what almost seems to be a process of financial legerdemain the government secured control of this vast system, with an annual earning capacity of \$30,000,000, and an authorized capitalization of \$650,000,000 at practically no outlay of money. It bartered its original investment of \$4,500,000 in the Interoceanic for stock in the National Railroad, with \$5,000,000 gold as a bonus, which gave it control of both lines, the National having previously bought a majority interest in the Interoceanic, and also controlling the International. Then, when the great merger was proposed, it still further exchanged its securities for those of the Mexican Central, and, in addition, caused to be created a large amount of common stock of the National Railways, or merger company, which it took for itself, and which gives it voting power and control. Having placed its guarantee behind one class of bonds of the new organization it demanded, as a *quid pro quo*, a block of bonds which was nearly equal in value to the amount originally invested in the Interoceanic and in the National Railroad.

It can almost be said, then, that Mexico paid not a centavo for her present railroad possessions. It is true that she gets no return from them now, and may not for years. But she will, at least, see to it that the railroads are properly administered and operated, and that when new lines are con-

structed they will go into regions that need them and not track through desert places already occupied by parallel lines. I have recently made a study of this situation in Mexico, and am convinced that the plan is one of the most ingenious as well as practicable in existence, and that it goes a long way to solve the problem of how to mutualize private investments in and state administration of railroads. The government is not meddling with the operations of its railroads. It allows the officers of them to do their work as they judge best. So far as I have been able to discover there is no suggestion of politics in the organization or of an effort to mould the views of the employees to fit any particular political body. Just how rapidly this situation will bring about the Mexicanization of the railroads is a question. I should think it would depend largely on efficiency.

MEXICO'S ECONOMIC POLICY.

The advanced position that Mexico has taken in many economic matters is one of the most encouraging facts concerning her future. There is an originality in her fiscal policies and a boldness that commands admiration. I made the suggestion to Minister Limantour that possibly Mexico was too free with guarantees. His answer, in substance, was that the Republic was well able financially to continue guaranteeing loans contracted by companies having charge of services of public and general utilities; that the guarantee was only conceded in very exceptional cases in which great benefits were to be expected, and where, in all probability, there was never any prospect that the guarantee would be more than a nominal obligation, as in the case of the bonds of the National Railways and the irrigation bonds.

Mexico is reserving her vitality for those things which will construct and not destroy. Her foreign policy does not include heavy naval expenditures; the condition of the army is most satisfactory and can be maintained from the normal resources of the nation. The population will never be burdened with taxes for huge military or naval establishments. The whole bent of the workers and thinkers who formulate the government policies is toward increasing Mexican production so as to cheapen the food supply and provide a liberal surplus for export, and to guide her railroads and utilities so as to make them most efficient and the servants of the people.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE TURKISH PRESS ON THE NEW REGIME.

CONSIDERING the severity of the censorship under which they have been oppressed for so long, and the uncertainty and strain of the past weeks throughout Turkey, the journals of Constantinople,—if we may judge from the issues that have come to this country,—are unexpectedly and refreshingly frank in their discussion of the "counter revolution" and the new régime. We have translated and reprinted in our editorial department this month an exceedingly bold "open letter" to Abdul Hamid, which appeared several days before he was deposed. Other editorial utterances in the journals printed in many different languages are scarcely less vigorous in tone. There was considerable reticence as to what was happening in Asia Minor, since this was not clearly understood even in the capital itself, and, moreover, all Constantinople was absorbed in the larger events transpiring in their immediate vicinity. As the "Army of Liberation" from Macedonia drew near the capital, however, the newspapers began to devote more and more attention to the anti-Christian outrages in Anatolia.

Among the first editorial references to the

massacres was the "leader" in the *Mizan* (Balance), one of the "Liberal Party" organs in the pay of the Sultan, the editor of which, Ahmed Mourad Bey, was afterwards court-martialed. This paper said, in part:

The movement of the soldiers, who did not attack any Christians or stores, shows their blameless intentions. It was appreciated at its true value by the Sultan, and an imperial pardon was granted. The most sacred duty for the Mussulman is to remain faithful to the "Padishah," to follow the State and Nation to respect the law, and remain attached to the "Ulemas."

This utterance, notoriously contrary to the facts in the case, was,—says the *Lloy Ottoman*,—undoubtedly "inspired by some one higher up."

With the arrival at the gates of the capital of the liberating army organs of this sort changed again their opinions, and tried "to make good," while continuing to defend the master, Abdul Hamid: Such articles were followed by others, praising the good behavior of the soldiers. A Greek paper, *Neologos* (New Word), dared to say: "The army won by this patriotic act the day of the 13th of April, just as great in its glory a

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LE COURRIER D'ORIENT

POLITIQUE ET LITTÉRAIRE

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LA FIN D'UN RÈGNE:

L'ARMÉE LIBÉRATRICE A SAUVÉ LA PATRIE:

Gloire à l'armée

CONSTANTINOPLE le 24 avril 1909

LA SULTANIE!

Il n'est pas de jour, en ces heures de crise, où l'on ne se souvienne de la Sultanie! Il n'est pas de jour, en ces heures de crise, où l'on ne se souvienne de la Sultanie! Il n'est pas de jour, en ces heures de crise, où l'on ne se souvienne de la Sultanie!

Le sultan, au lieu de se consacrer à la défense de la patrie, se livre à des excès de pouvoir. Il n'est pas de jour, en ces heures de crise, où l'on ne se souvienne de la Sultanie!

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the 24th of July was, and the population showed by its stand that it sympathized warmly with the soldiers." Another Greek paper, *Patris* (Country), says: "Although we did not wish things to come to this pass, we must look upon this military movement as justified, if we consider where the politics of the Young Turks brought us; their chauvinistic ideas were too much for the country to bear." These papers were, of course, glad to see the downfall of the Young Turks, but they were too short-sighted to realize their own situation and to see that the end of the Constitution itself was near.

How different are the words of the *Journal de Salonique* four days later, when the "avant-garde" of the Macedonian army was within sight of the city.

The triumph of the committee is greater than the one won by them, when they took the Constitution. It is unique in History with a "capital H." The day we feared and presumed came earlier than we expected, but the committee is doing its duty. Forward, Citizens! March on for Union and Progress."

Later the *Stamboul*, a Young Turkish organ, said:

The army is arriving; it is here. It is foolish to continue to fool the people by telling them that these soldiers came to promenade. They came as defenders of Liberty and of the Parliament. Nobody should fear these disciplined, able Mussulmans. . . . Be calm. Let us give the soldiers a chance to concentrate strategically. From to-day on the darkness is dissipated.

The voice of the press soon became very severe against the reactionaries and demanded the punishment of the culprits and instigators, whoever they might be. The *Hilal* (Crescent), apparently the official organ of the military commanders of the Macedonian army, declared:

Absolutism tried to regain power by lies, by bribery, and by poisoning the consciences of the people. It tried to regain lost authority by claiming its Khalifat rights. The nation, however, was not its dupe, and these latest reactionary efforts of Abdul Hamid united everybody and, as if from one mouth, a cry of vengeance and indignation arose. . . . "For you" [meaning Abdul Hamid's spies], said Hamid, "I am the Imam of this world, the Khalif, the representative of the Prophet, his sacred agent, responsible to no earthly court." . . . Let every true believer be convinced that, according to the Sheriat and sacred laws of the Koran, Abdul Hamid has never been the true Khalif of believers. We are ready to give to this assertion many opinions of high and learned ulemas. Islam's ulemas were never intimidated by his

cruelty and injustice; they preferred death rather than to be influenced by this cruel man. He was cruel, and, as the Sheriat does not admit cruelty, it cannot admit his authority. When the Emperor of Mongols, Hulagu, asked the Ulema of Bagdad an opinion on such a question, the answer was: "An unbelieving sovereign who is just is preferable to a Mussulman sovereign who is unjust."

All the journals of Constantinople in all languages published the full text of the imperial "Hatt Humayun," the first imperial edict of the new Sultan, and commented upon it in glowing terms. It is in the form of an official letter to Tewfik Pasha, then Grand Vizier, and reads:

MY ILLUSTRIOUS VIZIER, TEWFIK PASHA:

My brother, the Sultan Abdul Hamid, having been deposed from the Khalifat and Sultanat, by virtue of a fetwa, rendered by the Sheikh for reasons known to all, and by a resolution taken unanimously by the National Assembly in conformity to the wish of all our subjects, we have ascended, by the Grace of the Almighty, and according to our Constitution and the common desire of the Ottoman Nation, on the throne of our great ancestors. Considering your known capacity and patriotism we have maintained you in the dignity of Grand Vizier, and have kept in the dignity of Sheikh-ul-Islam, Zia-ed-Din Effendi.

We have confirmed the nomination of the council of ministers which you have formed and proposed, according to the Constitution. All the other functionaries are also maintained.

Our ardent desire is that all our subjects, of every class, enjoy liberty, equality, and justice; that the Sheri laws should be fully applied; that the greatness and power of our country should be consolidated, and that our country should reach rapidly the progress which belongs to it.

As our Constitution guarantees, we thank God. This sincere desire I hand myself over to God for His divine assistance, and, taking the Constitution as guide, I am confident that all the ministers, our Parliament, and all the functionaries will participate in our efforts and help in the realization of this aim.

The troubles happening in certain parts [Asia Minor] have given us much regret. As we must, above all, insure order in our country and make all differences between our subjects of every class disappear, it will be necessary, before all, to take strong measures to this effect. Our sincere desire is that an end should immediately and definitively be put to similar regrettable events; that the different races appreciating the necessity for living on friendly terms together, as it suits children of the same Fatherland, shall enjoy, without distinction, liberty, equality, and justice, and that everything should be done to strengthen our territorial and naval forces.

We also sincerely desire that, in order to insure order, justice, and good finances and to insure the extension of instruction, the execution of great public works, the betterment of commerce and agriculture, according to the progress of the present century, the laws which we lack

now should be enacted in conformity with our Constitution and our needs and in conformity with the Sheri code of our nation.

We desire that all treaties concluded with friendly powers should be confirmed by us again. We desire that our government should be re-

spected abroad, that all treaties be observed, and the friendship existing between all states and our government should be affirmed and reinforced.

That the Almighty shall give success to our efforts we pray. MEHMED V

WOMEN WORKERS FOR THE YOUNG TURKS.

AN article in the May *Atlantic Monthly* relating an interview between a woman of the Greek race and one of her Turkish sisters in Constantinople is interesting from two points of view: it gives a Turkish woman's impressions of the women of America, and shows what the women of Constantinople have actually done to help the Young Turks' movement. The writer of the article is Demetra Kenneth Brown, who has spent several years in America; and the other party to the interview is Refeka Hanoum, an intimate friend of one of the sisters of the ex-Sultan, and of whom the following description is given:

I was fortunate enough to meet the daughter of Kiamal Pasha, a woman of perhaps fifty, and, if I am not mistaken, the first woman to be initiated into the Young Turks' party. Born rich, and the daughter of a powerful pasha, life might have held for her the fortunate lot of wifehood and motherhood, had she so desired. But at the age of eighteen the young *hanoum* announced to her father that she would not marry, but would study and devote herself to helping to uplift the women of her race.

For several years Refeka Hanoum studied under different masters, and then herself became a teacher in one of the most important girls' schools in Stamboul.

After living for several years in America, "where gynocracy is at its zenith," Mrs. Brown found it "quite an experience to visit her Constantinople sisters again in their own homes":

It was the antithesis of all I had become accustomed to in the New World. Especially delightful was the repose these visits afforded me. Yet when I had been there a few days I became aware that there existed a change, not in the general air of the harems, but in the attitude of certain of the inmates. The manner of life was in most instances exactly as I remembered it; but there was an indefinable, underlying sense of unrest, a social feeling akin to the physical feeling which precedes the advent of an earthquake.

Turkish women are happier than are the Greek, Italian, French, and American women I have known. . . . To them, to be beautiful, to be good wives and good mothers sums up their ambitions, and they succeed in them as do the women of no other race.

Admitting that it sound heretical to

say so, Mrs. Brown is of the opinion that the better class of Turkish women are the superiors of American women in cultivation. "Well-educated and with more leisure, since they do not have to spend so much of the time as their 'civilized' sisters in frivolous pursuits, they give their time to reading and to thinking. The new movement took root in the minds of some of these thoughtful women, and flourished quickly."

Refeka Hanoum invited her interviewer to spend the afternoon with her,—possibly in the hope that she might be able to win her for the Young Turks' cause,—and we condense the more important of her observations.

"We were once a great nation and shall yet be one; but the women must do their share in the struggle.

"The Young Turks' party, having made war with Sultan Aziz, and having deposed Sultan Murad, brought to the throne Sultan Abdul Hamid, believing him to be favorable to reform. At first he was. He accepted the Constitution but never gave it a chance to live; and from a liberal ruler changed into a wicked autocrat, apparently conceiving his power to be based on the ignorance and superstition of his subjects.

He was, however, a man of great intelligence and tremendous will-power. It was no easy matter to depose him and place another man on his throne. Besides, he was a wonderful statesman,—if he could only be made a good ruler. The Young Turks' party knew that, in order to force the Sultan to give back the Constitution and to permit progress and freedom of thought, it was necessary that he should be "convinced," and to this end it was vital that the heads of all the departments should be enlisted in the cause, and that the adherence of the army should also be gained."

This work was done with difficulty, the Sultan being a coward, and suspecting everybody about him. The Young Turks so found that much of their propaganda could be made better by women than by men; a Refeka Hanoum was enlisted in the cause. To continue the latter's conversation with her visitor:

"You asked if one of the Sultan's sisters was of our party. She is. She was my pupil for several years. I knew that she hated her brother Murad, whom she called the "usurper." Wh

she first joined us it was solely out of hate for Abdul Hamid, but now it is different. Now she realizes what our success would mean to the country.

"After gaining her, we had more adherents in the Padishah's very harem. We have been able to outwit him and his suspicions.

"Before our women are ready to begin work they are taught political economy, the natural resources of our country, the history of other nations, and what it would mean to have a constitution and a free press.

Refeka here paused in her narrative long enough to say that it was generally supposed that Turkish women were contented with things as they were; but that the fact was that some of them had begun to want "to be elevated from a mere pleasure doll to the rank of companion." Resuming her story, she continued:

"They have been given to understand, however, that they must move without haste and without noise, and that the emancipation of women will not at once follow the regeneration of the country. They understand that they may not be striving for themselves, but only for those who are to follow them. And here is where women are superior to men: when they espouse a cause they will labor for it unselfishly,—not for their personal gain, as men do."

I could not help laughing, as I interrupted: "Refeka Hanoum, you have one thing in common with all women's rights women. While you are urging me to help you to make woman the equal of man, you convince me that what we both ought to be doing is to strive to elevate poor men to the superior plane of women."

Refeka Hanoum laughed, too. "There's something in that," she admitted. "But what I said is true, nevertheless. When women rise, it is to heights untouched by men. And that is another reason why woman should be uplifted: because she alone can help man to reach perfection."

This thought is by no means original with

Refeka Hanoum. It is held by the majority of the thinkers among the Osmanli women, though they may not be in favor of "women's rights." I know one, the first of four wives, and a fervent believer in the old régime, who told me that it is the woman's forbearance, her sweetness and forgiving disposition, which will ultimately help to make men one with their God.

"There is in the palace a Circassian of extraordinary beauty whose charm is so great that every one feels it. She had to sacrifice her reputation to the cause, and if we had saints in our religion she would be canonized after her death. All the difficult tasks inside the palace are entrusted to her, and thus she is supposed to change lovers as the year changes months. If we had chosen a woman less charming, the usurper might have become suspicious; but a woman with her beauty can easily be supposed to entrap men; and thus he only smiles when he hears that another has fallen a victim to her charms. Perhaps some day he will find out the truth. Then, if he still has the power, she will die suddenly."

One wonders, remembering the newspaper report, that the ex-Sultan, just before leaving his palace for the last time, had murdered a beautiful Circassian, whether Refeka Hanoum was not a true prophet.

On being asked how it was possible to send women into the various harems to carry on the work, the reply was that they were sold as slaves, and when their work was done they were bought back again. Sometimes these slaves are the wives and daughters of rich and powerful men. "This is the work that women have done for the Young Turks. When they shall be strong enough to act, Turkey will astonish the world." In these closing words of her interview it must be admitted that Refeka Hanoum spoke truly.

CENTENARY OF THE LONDON "QUARTERLY REVIEW."

AMONG English reviews, the *Quarterly* enjoys a most enviable reputation for dignity, age, and literary tone. The centenary of this venerable periodical, founded by John Murray second in 1809, is now being celebrated with enthusiasm by English literati, and the magazine itself has marked the occasion of its one hundredth birthday by issuing a monster special number of 480 pages, copiously illustrated. One of the seventeen special articles in this anniversary edition is a history of the publication. It is an interesting narrative, reviving many fa-

mous memories of the worthies of the past. It is accompanied with portraits of some of them, notably of Croker, Lockhart, and Southey.

It was the success of the *Edinburgh*, the "blue and yellow organ of the Whigs," that forced the Tory Party to start the *Quarterly*. The historical article pays due tribute to Lord Jeffrey's organ:

During seven stormy years, the *Edinburgh Review* had given, without adequate reply, eloquent utterance to Whig discontent. The rapid success of that *Review*, its large sale and grow-

ing popularity, showed how widespread and deep-seated were the feelings which it at once reflected and intensified. Deprived of all share in executive power, almost banished from the councils of the nation, the Whig Party found in the *Edinburgh Review* an organ hardly less potent, and more widely penetrating, than the tongue of Charles Fox. The blows which it delivered resounded far and wide; and the Tory Party had no champion at all comparable in weight and vigor to return them. It was this consideration which led to the foundation of the *Quarterly Review*.

The *Quarterly* was founded by John Murray the second, who, on September 25, 1807, wrote to Canning suggesting that as the principles of the *Edinburgh* were as radically bad as its literary contents were unquestionably good, some means equally popular ought to be adopted to counteract their dangerous tendency. Two years later the *Quarterly* made its appearance.

John Murray the second was only fifteen years old when his father died. The business was in the hands of a careless partner, whom he tolerated until he learned to walk alone. He soon became Constable's representative in London, and was, therefore, London publisher of the *Edinburgh Review* and of Walter Scott's works.

It was in this way he was brought into communication with Sir Walter Scott. Murray turned to Sir Walter in 1808, when he was smarting under a not very friendly review of "Marmion" in the *Edinburgh*. He hated its principles, and he at once joined hands with Murray the second in his venture. Sir Walter wrote four articles in the first number, about one-third of its contents. His most notable essay was that in which he paid homage to the genius of Miss Austen. He even reviewed the Waverley novels in the *Quarterly*.

GIFFORD, THE FIRST EDITOR.

By general consent Mr. Murray chose the right man when he appointed William Gifford as first editor of the *Quarterly*. He was fifty-two years old when he became editor, and he edited the magazine for fifteen years. He was a good editor, but he could never be induced to see that a *Review* should appear on the day of publication. The number due in October, 1815, was published in March, 1816; that due in January, 1816, in the following May. Numbers 57-59 (1823) were four, five, and six months late respectively. Nevertheless, the circulation went up steadily. In 1815 it reached 9000; next year it jumped to 12,000; in 1819 it attained

14,000, at a time when, according to Professor Wilson, the *Edinburgh* had sunk to half that figure.

Robert Southey, poet laureate and most rabid of Tories, was one of the most frequent contributors:

It was Scott who introduced him to the *Quarterly*, to which he soon became a regular contributor. He wrote, in all, close on a hundred articles for the *Review*, in a space of thirty years. He was well paid from the outset, a his rate of payment was soon raised to £100 an article.

THE ARTICLE THAT KILLED KEATS.

But John Wilson Croker, more than any other man, gave the *Quarterly* its standing. The chronicler deprecates the severity with which Croker has been assailed, and tells again the story of the Macaulay-Croker feud.

Croker wrote the article that killed Keats. The chronicler admits that Croker

was a thoroughly unpoetical person; and a worse choice could hardly have been made for a reviewer of the poets' poet, Keats. His notice of "Endymion" appeared in April, 1818, and is perhaps, the most notorious article ever published in the *Quarterly Review*. The article in question is a short essay of only four pages. It should be noted that the review is limited to the "Endymion." The critic confesses that he had only read the first book, and is unable to understand a word of it; he was probably right supposing that he would get no more light from the other three. The first book is enough, in his opinion, to prove three things,—that the verses mean nothing; that they are often bad verse and that they contain a number of new-fangled words, or words used in improper ways, tending to perversion of the language. . . . For the real and deeper beauties of the poem Croker had neither eye nor ear; he could only see superficial defects. He could not rise above the critical manners of his time; and the criticism of the day, if hostile, was habitually brutal.

THE SOCIAL SIDE OF THE "QUARTERLY."

Murray's drawing-room, especially in the days before the *Athenæum* was founded, and for some time afterward, was the haunt of many men distinguished in politics and letters.

There Scott and Byron first made acquaintance. There George Ticknor, fresh from Boston, met on one occasion Moore, Campbell, D'Israeli, Theodore Hook, Gifford, Humphreys, Davy, Hallam, and others. Canning, Fraser, Mackintosh, besides the regular writers in the *Review*, are enumerated by Murray himself among his habitual visitors. Mrs. Bray, the novelist, relates, in 1819, "that Mr. Murray held daily, from about three to five o'clock, a literary levée at his house." "Murray's drawing-room (says Washington Irving) is a great resort of first-rate literary characters."

NO FORTIFICATIONS FOR THE PANAMA CANAL.

WHAT is known as the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty, made with Great Britain in 1850, sets forth that

the contracting parties likewise agree that each shall enter into treaty stipulations with such of the Central American states as they deem advisable for the purpose of carrying out the great design of this convention,—namely, that of constructing and maintaining the said canal as a ship communication between the two oceans for the benefit of mankind,—on equal terms to all.

President Cleveland, in his first message to Congress, made the following reference to the canal:

Whatever highway may be constructed across the barrier dividing the two great maritime areas of the world must be for the world's benefit, a trust for mankind.

These and many similar utterances indicate that "the people of the United States, while they felt a great interest in the construction of the canal, advocated it from no selfish motive." But, says General Peter C. Hains, from whose article in the *American Journal of International Law* the foregoing excerpts have been made,

as the nation grew stronger, a less liberal spirit developed, which culminated in the policy of national ownership, as well as exclusive control and management, to the end of giving to the United States supposed military advantages. In furtherance of this idea, the construction of fortifications commanding the entrances to the canal is now advocated, and it is claimed that such construction will not be in conflict with the obligations of neutrality which we have assumed in the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty.

Another treaty, known as the Hay-Bunau-Varilla Treaty, was subsequently made with Panama (which state had seceded from the United States of Colombia), by means of which and of the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty "the United States came into possession of all the rights necessary to enable it to construct, own, manage, and protect a canal connecting the two oceans."

It is with the idea of protection for the canal that the proposal to construct fortifications is made; but General Hains shows conclusively that an enemy, in order to attack the canal with any chance of success, must provide himself with coal and supply and repair stations. These must be close to the canal, and without them any fleet would be weakened to the extent that a part of it would always be absent. Great Britain is the only nation besides ourselves that has a naval supply station near the canal; "and

Great Britain, therefore, is the only single power that we need fear."

General Hains suggests that it is not necessary to send a hostile fleet to render the canal useless: "a few resolute men landing on the coast nearby could cut an embankment or destroy a dock with a few sticks of dynamite which they could carry on their person."

It has been held that, in the absence of fortifications, an enemy in war-time might, by taking advantage of the neutral character of the canal, pass through it to attack our cities on the other side. General Hains considers that "nothing more unlikely to happen could be imagined. No naval commander, be he ever so rash, would be willing to put his fleet so completely at the mercy of his enemy." What is wanted for the protection of the canal is not forts, but "a military police strong enough to keep up a constant patrol of the weak spots."

General Hains discusses a number of hypothetical cases of attacks on the canal, and arrives at the conclusion that fortifications "add little or nothing to its defense"; and he sums up the possible and imaginary dangers thus:

First.—That the canal is liable to be damaged by a few men to such an extent that a suspension of navigation is inevitable; but that fortifications commanding the entrances will afford no protection whatever from this danger.

Second.—That the apprehended danger of a hostile fleet passing through the canal in time of war, if there be no fortifications, is imaginary.

Third.—The danger of bombardment is imaginary. The laws of nations forbid it. But if the laws of nations be defied, the locks and other accessories are so far inland as to be beyond the range of the guns of enemies outside.

Fourth.—An attack by a combined land and naval force is unlikely, but is possible. To prevent that, every place along the coast near the canal, where a landing could be made, should be occupied. To mount guns commanding the entrances to the canal will not suffice. If an attack be made by a force sufficiently strong, and it is inconceivable that it would be made by a weak one, fortifications commanding the entrances would not save it.

Fifth.—The blockade of the canal is the danger most to be feared. That can only be made effective by a naval force stronger than our own and after a battle on the sea. Great Britain is the only nation that has a naval force strong enough to blockade the canal; and she has renounced the right to do so by the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty.

Sixth.—When the canal is open to navigation it will become a coaling station for commercial as well as naval vessels. Possibly docks may

be constructed, and both should be protected, but both the coal-pile and the docks will be inland far beyond the reach of an enemy's guns on the outside. It will, therefore, be necessary for an enemy to come inside the canal to steal the one or damage the other. This will be prevented by the naval force that will always be present.

Seventh.—Fortifications commanding the entrance to the canal may be supposed to afford shelter to a defeated fleet which an open and unprotected one would not. But a victorious enemy would be compelled to enter the canal in any case to get at ours, and it is not conceivable that he would do so. The canal as a last resort could be destroyed, if necessary, to prevent its

falling into his hands. Its destruction would no more disastrous to the United States than loss of ability to use it.

That the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty was intended to neutralize the canal, and that does neutralize it, there can be not the slightest doubt; and it is equally certain that construction of fortifications commanding the entrances would violate that neutralization. As a matter affecting our national honor, therefore, we must see to it that no are constructed.

THE MOON, THE TIDES, AND THE SEASONS.

THE powerful influence exerted upon our earth in its solid as well as its liquid parts by our satellite, the moon, is becoming better known and its importance better realized. Some recent experiments and observations made by Professor Hecker, the German astronomer, in an underground chamber at Potsdam Observatory, near Berlin, have demonstrated conclusively the truth of the long-disputed contention that the apparently solid earth, responding to the influence of the sun and moon, is subject to daily oscillations analagous to the tides of the ocean. While these movements are not noticeable to the earth's inhabitants any more than is the action of the tides to those on board a ship at sea, they take place beyond a doubt. Professor Hecker has demonstrated that these land tides rise and fall during twenty-four hours to the extent of some twenty centimeters, or approximately eight inches. The French astronomer, Camille Flammarion, contends that some fixed relation can be demonstrated between this periodic land tide and the violent oscillations of the earth's bed, known as earthquakes.

Sir George H. Darwin, in a recent noteworthy speech before a scientific congress in London, commenting upon the observations of Professor Hecker, called attention to the fact that in all tidal motion, particularly that of the ocean, there is friction,—very slight and yet sufficient to act as a slow brake on the earth's rotation. This friction, due principally to the action of the moon, must have a reaction on the satellite, the effect of the reaction being to drive the moon farther and farther from the earth. Arguing backward and forward, then, Sir George went on to say that there was a time when, science believes, the moon

was very close to the earth's surface and a still earlier period, actually a part of earth's body. The combined mass spun around so fast that it broke in two and smaller body, the moon, was driven off by tidal friction to where we now see it. Referring with respect, but without comment to the suggestion of the French astronomer that the Pacific Ocean may be the hole left by the moon, Sir Charles declared that tidal friction will, in the distant future, cause the earth to spin more and more slowly and the moon to recede farther and farther until, perhaps, comes within the compelling gravitation attraction of some larger planet. Then it will permanently leave our skies. These are interesting astronomical speculations, which, perhaps, are not possible scientific demonstration. They indicate, however, how much more extensive and definite is our modern knowledge of the relations between the earth and its satellite.

A further interesting evidence of the now general recognition that the moon exercises a highly important influence upon our climate and seasons is found in the oft-repeated attempts to reform the calendar and bring our scheme of the measurement of time down to its only really rational basis, the lunar month. An interesting project for reforming the Gregorian calendar, which is observed by all the Western nations, was submitted to the recent Pan-American Scientific Congress held at Santiago, Chile. The originator of the scheme, Señor Hesse, one of the Peruvian delegates informs us that the project met with the unanimous approval of the section of mathematics at the congress. In brief, Señor Hesse's project calls for a year consisting, not of twelve months of varying number of day

as at present, but of thirteen months of exactly twenty-eight days each,—the lunar month of exactly four weeks,—each day of the week invariably falling on the same day of each month.

The thirteen lunar months calculated on this basis would aggregate 364 days. The 365th day would come, according to this scheme, between the last day of the thirteenth month (which it is proposed to call Treceember,—thirteenth), and the first day of the first month of the new year. This intercalary day would be a world-recognized holiday, not counting for dating purposes either with scientists or business men. Leap Year, moreover, would add a second holiday immediately following the first. A page of this reformed calendar is shown here.

Of course, the conservation of the worlds of commerce and science would make the adoption of such a calendar extremely difficult, if not impossible. When we remem-

Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19	20	21
22	23	24	25	26	27	28

ber that Russia, with its 150,000,000 population, still adheres to the old Julian calendar, which does not even recognize Leap Year, the difficulty would be increased. Eventually, however, some such scientific calendar will undoubtedly be adopted, just as eventually the world, it seems certain, will come around to a universal use of the metric system.

CO-OPERATIVE HOUSING IN ENGLAND.

WHAT may be termed "the housing problem" has not received in this country the attention it deserves. In the suburbs of our great cities houses for the toilers are few and far between. Within a radius of, say, twenty miles of New York, for example, are scores of suitable localities in which houses of medium size and reasonable rents are simply not to be had. The real estate speculators will tell you that they are not catering to that class of tenant. Consequently hundreds of families and thousands of children are compelled to pass their lives cooped up within city tenements, their only chance of seeing the "country" depending on a journey by trolley, "elevated," or subway to some distant park. Our British cousins have shown us the way in this matter. The Co-Partnership Tenants, Limited, with headquarters at No. 6 Bloomsbury Square, London, W. C., is a society with "co-partnership housing societies scattered all over England, some of which have been going for some years, and none of which has failed." In the *Survey* for April 3, 1909, Mr. John S. Nettlefold, of Birmingham, England, a member of the council of that city and the author of "Practical Housing," gives a sketch of the operations of Harborne Tenants, Limited, a housing society affiliated with the parent body in London.

Harborne is a suburb of Birmingham, where is being carried out a scheme of "helping the people to help themselves, instead of doing everything for them, as some impatient enthusiasts prefer to do." The policy adopted is to give not cheap houses, but good houses at a cost which will not necessitate the charging of higher rents than the people can pay. The general scheme is thus described by Mr. Nettlefold:

About fifteen months ago, fifty-three acres of land were purchased at an average price of rather less than £300 [\$1500] an acre. The land was carefully and economically planned out. The average number of houses on the whole estate works out at ten to an acre. The garden to each house is quite small, because many tenants object to being bothered with a large plot of land. For those who want more garden land, allotments are provided at the rate of £10 [\$50] an acre. Numerous small open spaces, as well as good-sized recreation grounds, are provided on the estate. The houses on either side of the roads are seventy-two feet apart, and between them runs a sixteen-foot roadway, bordered with turf margins and trees, and then gravel footpaths, which abut on the front gardens of the houses. This arrangement gives more than the usual distance between the houses, and that means more light and air to each house, while the cost of construction is about one-half that of ordinary bye-law roads, with the great advantage that tenants have something cheerful to look out upon, instead of the usual "dreary deserts of macadam."

An important saving in the cost of estate development is effected by adopting the combined drainage system. There is not a separate connection from each house to the main sewer, but "the drainage from several houses is gathered up and all conveyed to the main sewer through one connection."

With regard to the distribution of the dwellings on the estate, it appears that

the houses themselves are built in blocks of two, four, six, and eight, according to circumstances and the positions of the houses. The total rents, including rates, etc., vary from six shillings to twelve and sixpence [\$1.44 to \$3.00] a week. Building was begun on January 1, 1908. There are now nearly a hundred houses completed, and another thirty or so on the way. The applications for the houses are 50 per cent. in excess of the number of houses available.

If the interior accommodation is not quite so "roomy" as in houses of equal rents, built on the old-fashioned lines, the tenants get a full equivalent in the surroundings of their homes.

The necessary capital is obtained by the issue of "4 per cent. loan stock," in addition to which the Public Works Loans Commissioners, an English Government department, lend money, as houses are built, at 3½ (three and one-half) per cent., the loan to be repaid within thirty years.

Tenant members pay down a small sum at first and then make weekly contributions until their holding in the society amounts to £200

[\$1000], the maximum amount any one is allowed by law to hold in such societies. There is no limit to the amount of loan stock an individual may hold.

Mr. Nettlefold considers that "co-partnership housing loan stock is a thorough safe 4 per cent. investment." At the present time the Harborne Society finds that its capital costs 3.65 per cent. A sinking fund provided to allow of the houses being written off in about sixty years.

At Hereford, the Corporation has bought the land and is developing it, charging a rent to the co-operative housing society.

It is self-evident that the success of a scheme like that of the Harborne Tenants Limited, depends to a great extent on efficient tramway service.

Given good houses on the outskirts of large towns at reasonable rents, and quick, cheap trams from the center to the outskirts, a considerable proportion of those who now live in congested districts can move outside, where the land is cheaper and the air fresher. That means that for many workingmen the town will be brought to the country and the country to the town.

"Co-partnership housing," says Mr. Nettlefold, "which is founded on two great principles, association and self-help, will, combined with common-sense estate development, do more than provide better housing conditions at reasonable rents; it will make way for better men and women, for healthier and happier children."

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY IN THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS.

CONSIDERABLY less than two years ago, according to the United States Navy list, the practical development of wireless telegraph operation at that time included 782 shore and floating stations throughout the world. That total embraced 122 stations in America, the United States and possessions being credited with 66 stations and Canada with 23. The Latin-American group of Republics having wireless telegraphic service at that time included Argentina, 5 stations; Brazil, 6; Cuba, 9; Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Panama, and Uruguay, 1 each; Ecuador, Mexico, and Nicaragua, 2 each, making a total of 31 wireless telegraph stations in Latin America.

Since that time the example of the United States and Canada, as well as that of other countries, notably in Europe and the Orient, has brought about a strong impetus along the

lines of wireless telegraphy and telephony in Latin-American countries. The United States Government installation of wireless apparatus at Nome and Fort Gilbert, Alaska is one notable instance of national encouragement and utilization of the wireless system. The construction, now in progress, of a powerful long-distance wireless station at the national capital, with a mast 350 to 400 feet high and having a range of uninterrupted contact of 3000 miles, also the provision of two wireless ship equipments with a radius of 1000 miles, are other impressive instances of the onward trend of the "wireless" movement in this country.

"Nearly every seaport of importance in South and Central America has adopted the wireless," writes Russell Hastings Millwar in the April *Bulletin* of the International Bureau of the American Republics, "and

he continues, "stations for many of the inland towns have been projected and are now in course of erection." After some pertinent remarks on the hindrances and "discords" caused by the existing variety of wireless systems now in operation, and in the methods now in progress to end such retarding conditions, Mr. Millward says:

When this much desired arrangement shall have been effected, it will be possible to establish communication, through a series of relays, between any two cities of importance on the American continent. New York would then, for instance, be able to transmit a message by wireless telegraphy to Punta Arenas, Strait of Magellan, a distance of 6800 miles, with probable relays at West Indies, Para, Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo, and Bahia Blanca, via the east coast; and to Valparaiso, a distance of over 5000 miles, with probable relays at Washington, or West Indies, Colon, Guayaquil, and Iquitos, via the west coast.

The commercial value, especially on land, of wireless telegraph to Latin America was made plain to all of the republics, as it was to all the world, when the Marconi triumph of transatlantic wireless communication became a realization, even though, at the beginning, that route was restricted to international press dispatches. The possibilities almost certain then to develop have since developed beyond the most sanguine expectations of the American people and those of other vitally interested nations. The rescuing of over 1200 passengers and the whole crew of the *Republic* in January last exhibited in a most dramatic way one of the uses to humanity, outside of commerce, of perfect and even imperfect wireless work.

The problem of overcoming atmospheric disturbances, like that of securing absolute secrecy for messages, has been solved. As one result of the solution of the former of these two problems the new wireless apparatus in course of construction at Washington, D. C., will, in due course, be enabled to keep in touch, in any kind of weather, with a chain of six stations, working over distances of from 500 to 1200 miles, throughout the West Indies and Central America.

Mr. Millward, in his article, gives a concise and interesting review of recent wireless developments in several of the Latin-American republics, as summarized below:

The Argentine Government has established a number of wireless stations along the coast, which have been operated with flattering success. The Government of Bolivia has taken under consideration the equipment of several high-power wireless telegraph stations. Brazil has taken more than an active interest in wireless.

Stations have been established by both the government and private companies. The Brazilian Government has undertaken the gigantic task of connecting the Amazon territory, telegraphically, with the southern districts; but, owing to the nature of the ground to be traversed . . . slow progress is being made, and wireless telegraphy has been suggested as the only system adapted to the situation, and one which could be rapidly installed at reasonable expense. The length of this line, as contemplated, will be about 1200 miles. The Chilean Government has erected stations at the island of Juan Fernandez, over 400 miles from the coast, and Valparaiso, which have been most satisfactorily operated. A station is also to be equipped with high-power apparatus in the Strait of Magellan, probably at Punta Arenas. In Colombia a station at Santa Marta has been opened and a high-power equipment installed, and in connection with a contract made in 1906 for the management and operation of the telegraph systems of the Republic it was provided for a theoretical and practical school of instruction in wireless telegraphy to be established at Bogota. The Government of Costa Rica has established a station at Boca del Colorado, which is now open for both government and public business.

In Cuba many wireless stations have been completed, inspected by the chief signal officer, Army of Cuban Pacification, and accepted by the Cuban Government. The United States, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, and Panama have all granted the necessary licenses for the complete installation of stations. The Dominican Republic will have two stations for the purpose of conducting government business and intercommunication between ports. Guayaquil and Isla de Puna are two projected stations for Ecuador, and will be equipped with high-power apparatus. A contract was approved, under date of December 9, 1908, authorizing the establishment of a wireless telegraph station in the immediate vicinity of the city of Tegucigalpa and various substations along the coast of Honduras. Probably in no other country has the wireless been more satisfactorily operated than in Mexico. Stations are now in operation at many points.

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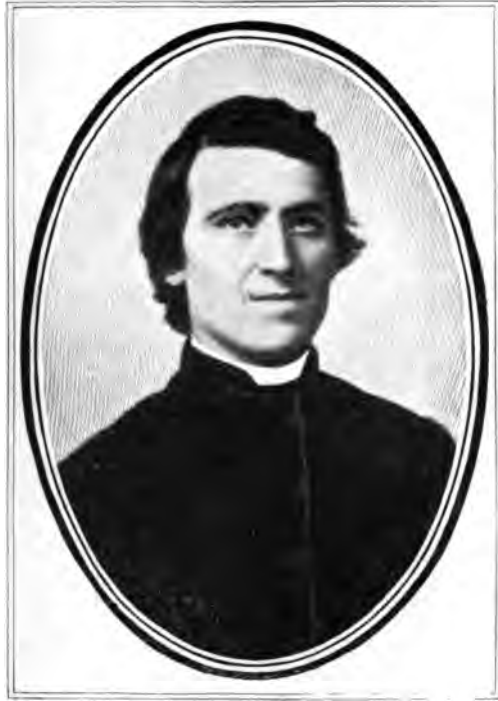
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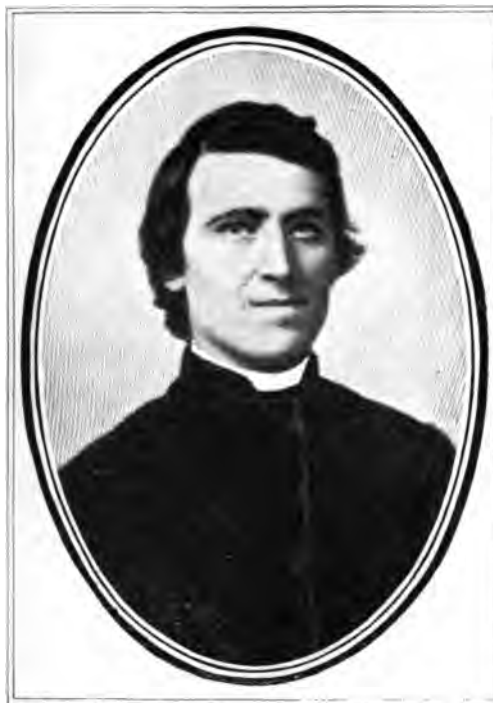
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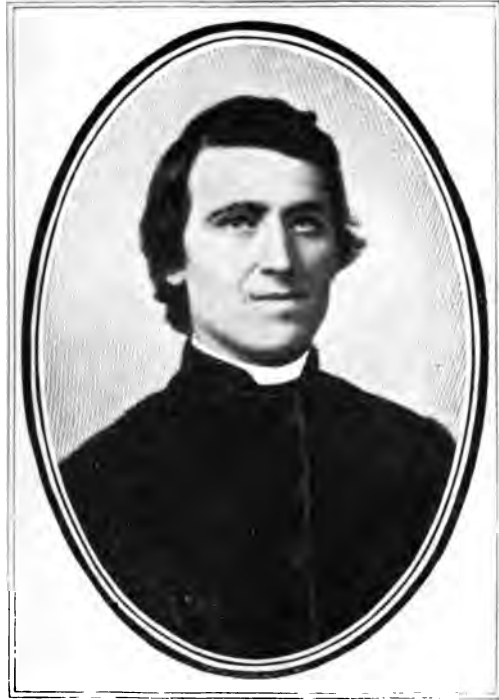
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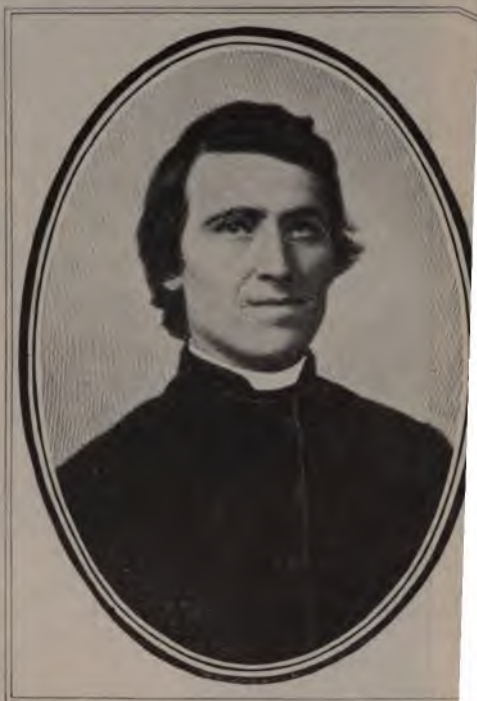
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At St. Paul the young Ireland again b

he continues, "stations for many of the inland towns have been projected and are now in course of erection." After some pertinent remarks on the hindrances and "discords" caused by the existing variety of wireless systems now in operation, and in the methods now in progress to end such retarding conditions, Mr. Millward says:

When this much desired arrangement shall have been effected, it will be possible to establish communication, through a series of relays, between any two cities of importance on the American continent. New York would then, for instance, be able to transmit a message by wireless telegraphy to Punta Arenas, Strait of Magellan, a distance of 6890 miles, with probable relays at West Indies, Para, Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo, and Bahia Blanca, via the east coast; and to Valparaiso, a distance of over 5000 miles, with probable relays at Washington, or West Indies, Colon, Guayaquil, and Iquitos, via the west coast.

The commercial value, especially on land, of wireless telegraph to Latin America was made plain to all of the republics, as it was to all the world, when the Marconi triumph of transatlantic wireless communication became a realization, even though, at the beginning, that route was restricted to international press dispatches. The possibilities almost certain then to develop have since developed beyond the most sanguine expectations of the American people and those of other vitally interested nations. The rescuing of over 1200 passengers and the whole crew of the *Republic* in January last exhibited in a most dramatic way one of the uses to humanity, outside of commerce, of perfect and even imperfect wireless work.

The problem of overcoming atmospheric disturbances, like that of securing absolute secrecy for messages, has been solved. As one result of the solution of the former of these two problems the new wireless apparatus in course of construction at Washington, D. C., will, in due course, be enabled to keep in touch, in any kind of weather, with a chain of six stations, working over distances of from 500 to 1200 miles, throughout the West Indies and Central America.

Mr. Millward, in his article, gives a concise and interesting review of recent wireless developments in several of the Latin-American republics, as summarized below:

The Argentine Government has established a number of wireless stations along the coast, which have been operated with flattering success. The Government of Bolivia has taken under consideration the equipment of several high-power wireless telegraph stations. Brazil has taken more than an active interest in wireless,

Stations have been established by both the government and private companies. The Brazilian Government has undertaken the gigantic task of connecting the Amazon territory, telegraphically, with the southern districts; but, owing to the nature of the ground to be traversed . . . slow progress is being made, and wireless telegraphy has been suggested as the only system adapted to the situation, and one which could be rapidly installed at reasonable expense. The length of this line, as contemplated, will be about 1200 miles. The Chilean Government has erected stations at the island of Juan Fernandez, over 400 miles from the coast, and Valparaiso, which have been most satisfactorily operated. A station is also to be equipped with high-power apparatus in the Strait of Magellan, probably at Punta Arenas. In Colombia a station at Santa Marta has been opened and a high-power equipment installed, and in connection with a contract made in 1906 for the management and operation of the telegraph systems of the Republic it was provided for a theoretical and practical school of instruction in wireless telegraphy to be established at Bogota. The Government of Costa Rica has established a station at Boca del Colorado, which is now open for both government and public business.

In Cuba many wireless stations have been completed, inspected by the chief signal officer, Army of Cuban Pacification, and accepted by the Cuban Government. The United States, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, and Panama have all granted the necessary licenses for the complete installation of stations. The Dominican Republic will have two stations for the purpose of conducting government business and intercommunication between ports. Guayaquil and Isla de Puna are two projected stations for Ecuador, and will be equipped with high-power apparatus. A contract was approved, under date of December 9, 1908, authorizing the establishment of a wireless telegraph station in the immediate vicinity of the city of Tegucigalpa and various substations along the coast of Honduras. Probably in no other country has the wireless been more satisfactorily operated than in Mexico. Stations are now in operation at many points.

The United States Government has installed a station with a range of over 500 miles at Swan Island, off the coast of Nicaragua. At Colon, Canal Zone, Panama, the United States Government has a high-power equipment in operation. The Peruvian Government has several stations, all open for government and public business. An appropriation of \$35,000 has been made for the establishment of extended wireless connections through the Montaña or forest region on the eastern slopes of the Andes. In Uruguay stations at Montevideo and Punta del Este have been opened for the public service. A high-power equipment is installed at Montevideo and fitted for communication with any ship or station on land without regard to the system. At Willemstad, island of Curaçao, the Netherlands Government has established a wireless station with a range of 300 miles for government and public business. This station will also be used for intercommunication with projected stations in Venezuela. The United States Navy has in operation two stations in Porto Rico, San Juan and Culebra, for government and public business.

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ARCHBISHOP IRELAND,—A PILLAR OF THE CATHOLIC CHURCH IN AMERICA.

NEARLY seventy years ago Macaulay wrote, in reviewing a history of the Popes:

The Catholic Church is still sending forth to the farthest ends of the world missionaries as zealous as those who landed in Kent with Augustine. . . . The number of her children is greater than in any former age. Her acquisitions in the New World have more than compensated for what she has lost in the Old. Her spiritual ascendancy extends over the vast countries which lie between the plains of the Missouri and Cape Horn, countries which a century hence may not improbably contain a population as large as that which now inhabits Europe.

Were the distinguished essayist still in the land of the living, the status of Roman Catholicism in the United States would furnish him with additional grounds for prognosticating a brilliant future for the Catholic Church in the Western Hemisphere. There are some who claim that by reason of the number of those who profess the faith of that Church, America should be reckoned a Catholic land. This view is expressed by Mr. John Foster Carr in the *May Outlook*:

To-day we see a great church in our midst,—the greatest of all our churches for the substance of power already won. . . . Consider the advance in Protestant America of this Catholic faith: Within a century twenty-five thousand have become some twelve, perhaps even fifteen, millions. . . . The coming Census may well show the number of its members nearly equal to those of all our other religious bodies taken together. Certainly it needs but a slight natural growth, a little further recruiting from new emigrants, and by the courtesy rights of a majority of the adherents of all religions, the United States may be called a Catholic country.

He goes on to say that undeniably Archbishop Ireland, of St. Paul, has been in large part the creator of the Catholic Church in America. Time was when this church was French; then it became "overwhelmingly Irish, with an active and important German minority"; then change followed change, "until these days of huge Catholic congresses and public honors, when all at once we have realized this strong presence of an established American Catholic Church." This church has certain distinguishing features that have astonished visiting Catholics from Europe. The most striking of these, says the *Outlook* writer, is work,—

prospering, vigorous work on so great a constructive scale that no such labors have been seen since the great ages of the friars. In Europe the days of building are past. Here, everywhere,



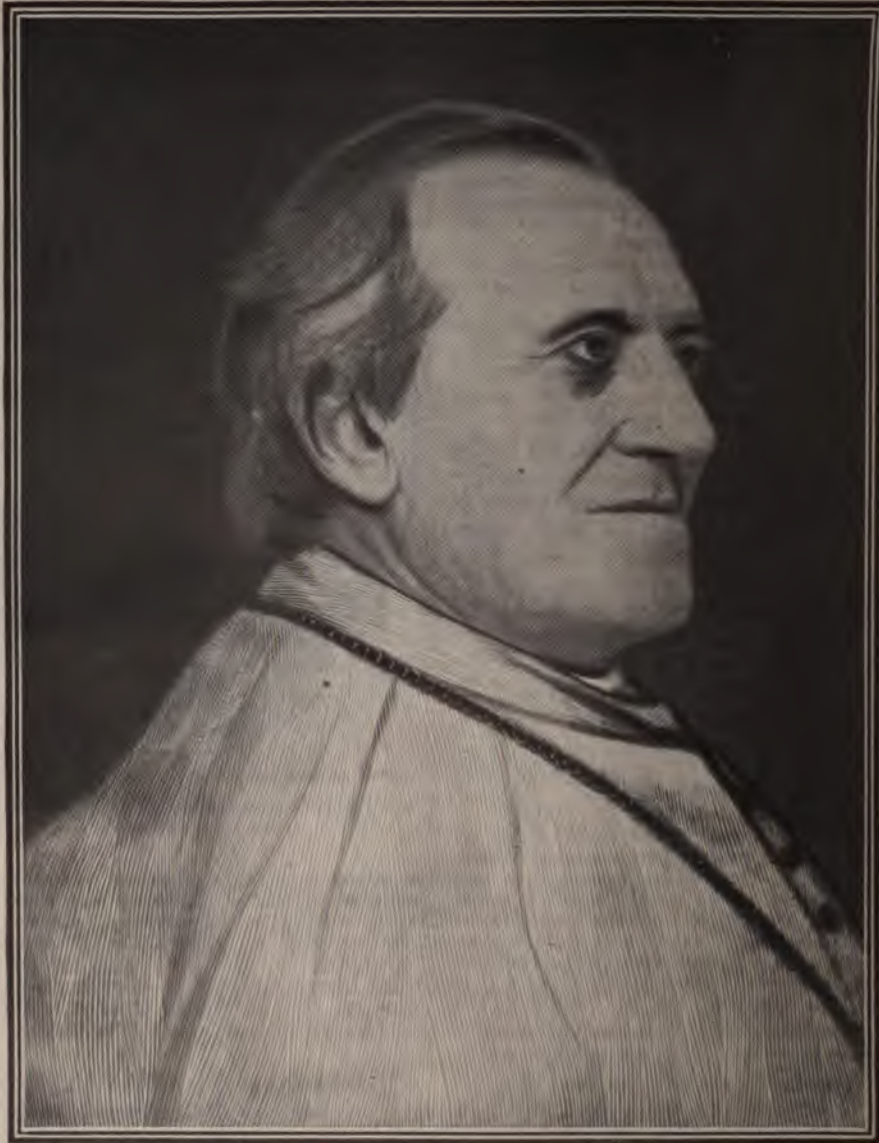
"FATHER" JOHN IRELAND, AT THE PERIOD OF CIVIL WAR.

are rising cathedrals, churches, schools, seminaries, monasteries, convents, and hospitals largely endowed by the pennies of the poor. The American business air pervades community and clerical life, and the administrative machinery of the church is limited to strict necessities. There are no idle canons or priests, and even the vicar-general of a province usually has a parish.

Of John Ireland, Archbishop of St. Paul, who has been so instrumental in bringing about such successful conditions, Mr. Carr gives some interesting biographical data.

Born among the green hills of Kilkenny, native Ireland gave him a warm and generous heart, a glowing spirit, and impetuous will for fray. His father, a carpenter, was a gaunt, firm man, alert in mind, domineering, rigorous, honest; his mother silent, hard-working, fervent in religion. The family drifted into the mid-century stream of Irish migration, and early boyhood gave memories of Boston; of altar-boy's awed and careful service in Burlington, Vt.; of a long, halting journey to Chicago and some months' schooling there at St. Mary of the Lake; then of the slow jolting by prairie schooner to Galena, and the voyage up the Mississippi by the famous *Nominee* to St. Paul.

At St. Paul the young Ireland again b



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ARCHBISHOP IRELAND, OF ST. PAUL.

came an altar-boy. He also came under the influence of Bishop Cretin.

A boy of fourteen who day after day would debate theology with the Presbyterian minister to whom he carried milk, whose one passion was reading, after chores, by the light of candles which he made of taper ends thriftily saved from the altar,—such a boy was plainly destined for the priesthood. He was keen to learn, and he was patient when there was wood to be sawed by the old bishop's lumbering treadmill. And so an aged French missionary of that day still tells how, one evening, Bishop Cretin, watching the boys at play, called to John Ireland and to the

young Thomas O'Gorman,—now the Bishop of Sioux Falls,—to come into the church. He asked if they wished to become priests, and when they told him "Yes," "Then kneel down," said he; "I am going to consecrate a seminary to the Lord." In charge of the guardian, Father Ravoux, they were soon on their way to be educated in France.

Father Ireland,—he had been ordained soon after the beginning of the Civil War,—saw service as chaplain of the Fifth Minnesota. Strict in the duties of mass and of confessional before battle, he was "far more than a priest even in those days."

Almost abandoning the officers, with boisterous good humor he threw in his lot with the men; he helped in their camp work,—forage and fires,—he wrote their letters. Squatting huddled on the ground with them, gnawing half-roasted ears of corn, he joked in their patois with the hundred French-Canadians and half-breeds of the regiment. . . . Volleying laughter in the fever tents told when he visited the sick. He turned the hot march through stifling dust into a joyous Canterbury pilgrimage.

His personal bravery was conspicuous.

At the pressing moment of Iuka he gave yeoman's help in rushing ammunition to the front. And when the assault wavered at Corinth, and a squad took to their heels, he dashed after them to stop the rout, and drove the men back to the fighting line with the loud-shouted threat that he would have every one of them shot for desertion.

Attacked by fever, he was left behind for dead, and only after a slow recovery was he able to return to St. Paul, where he took up the duties of the Cathedral pastorate. The town was "filled with relics of border turbulence and the riot of drink." The young priest started a temperance society, which, from eighty members on the first Sunday, "gradually grew into an army." He "grasped men by the hand and by the collar,—literally they say,—and drew them to

church, as the rum-sellers drew them to bar." The movement spread until the lea of it became known as the "Father Math of the West." He preached temperance and down the country, and even "carried battle back to Ireland and Great Britain."

His efforts for the purification of St. F have been unceasing. He refused to con liquor-dealers; with "one trusty helper a stout blackthorn stick he cleared and cleared the shameless dance hall"; and once, when a prize-fight was impending, he with a Supreme Court judge, roused the governor of the State from bed and "told him to his face that he would have him impeached if he allowed the infamy."

Archbishop Ireland's career in later years has become part and parcel of the history of the country and needs no recapitulation here. It is admirably summed up by Mr. Carr in the remark that

from that September in '88 when he received his pallium, Archbishop Ireland has labored with mighty Irish zeal, and in his chosen way, at a twofold stupendous task that he set his church "To make America Catholic, and to solve the Church Universal the all-absorbing problem with which religion is confronted in the present age."

THE ENGLISH MEMBER OF PARLIAMENT FOR RUSSIA

"THE M.P. for Russia" is Mr. W. T. Stead's characterization of Madame Olga Novikov, whose book of reminiscences* he reviews in the *London Review of Reviews*. Of this book, he says, he is as much the author as the editor. He explains that the book is

all about Madame Olga Novikov, the well-known Russian lady diplomatist, apostle, and journalist, who holds the most distinguished place occupied by any woman, not a queen or an empress, at present living on this planet. . . . My single aim is to render to her a tardy meed of justice in setting forth the leading part which she has played for the last 30 years in bringing about that fraternal *rapprochement* between Russia and England which was proclaimed to the world at the meeting some months ago of the King and Emperor at Reval.

For the last thirty years Mr. Stead and Mme. Novikov "have worked together in loyal comradeship to promote the great cause of Anglo-Russian friendship"; he has drawn upon his recollections of those years.

* Reminiscences and Correspondence of Madame Olga Novikov. Edited by W. T. Stead. 2 volumes, 60 portraits. Andrew Melrose.

The reason for the heading of the review is thus stated:

Whenever conversation flagged in a London drawing-room at the end of the seventies there was no more infallible specific than to mention the name of Madame Olga Novikov. Who was she, what was she doing, why was she in London? "She is the M.P. for Russia in London," said Lord Beaconsfield, and the witty Jew once spoke the truth.

Of the lady who forms the subject of the work Mr. Stead supplies the following biographical data:

Madame Novikov, born Olga Kiréev, was only daughter of a noble family in Moscow. Her mother was a beauty who inspired the poet of Pushkin and the admiration of many others. Her father was a man devoted both to the orthodox Church and to the Slavonic cause. E. Baxter, of Dundee, afterward a member of the Gladstone administration, was her father's tutor, and both father and mother were familiar with English that they wrote all their love letters in that language. Before Olga Kiréev was in her teens she could speak Russian, English, French, and German. When she was twenty years old she married Colonel, afterward General, Ivan Novikov, brother of



MADAME NOVIKOV IN 1907.
(In Russian court dress.)

well-known Eugene Novikov, Russian Ambassador at Vienna. Her only son, Alexander, or "Sasha," was born in 1862.

Mme. Novikov established her first salon in the Michel Palace at St. Petersburg, the home of the Grand Duchess Helena, where she gathered 'round her distinguished personages like Count Keyserling, of Dorpat University; Khalil Pasha, the Turkish Ambassador; Rubinstein, and Lord Napier, and Ettrick, the British Ambassador to Russia. Later, at Vienna, where her brother-in-law was Ambassador, she made the acquaintance of Count Beust,—and the two became lifelong friends. But it was in London that she found "the true field for her diplomatic activity," her first visit to England being made in 1868. In 1874, at a party given at the Russian Embassy to the then Prince of Wales, now King Edward VII., she first met Mr. Gladstone, with whom, says Mr.

Stead, "she began an acquaintance which ripened into a firm fighting alliance, the like of which, both for the courage and tenacity of the allies and the brilliant success which crowned their endeavors, is without a parallel or a precedent in English history." The alliance was made in the cause of Anglo-Russian friendship and co-operation in the liberation of the East. Eastern Europe was in a ferment. Insurrection had broken out in Herzegovina in 1875; in the following year it had spread to Bosnia; and a little later Bulgaria attempted to throw off the Turkish yoke.

The Turks, impotent to crush the rising in the Bosnian uplands, made short and terrible work of the unfortunate Bulgarians. The thoroughness of their vengeance proved their own undoing, and it was the Turkish atrocities that freed Bulgaria. Serbia and Montenegro, maddened by the spectacle of horror, declared war.

Mme. Novikov's younger and favorite brother had trained and led into battle a brigade of Servian peasants; but he had disguised his identity and, sinking his own name, Nicholas Kiréev, had assumed that of Hadji Ghiray.

Madame Novikov, who was then at Marienbad, was quite fascinated by the reports of the doings of this romantic and mysterious stranger, always the first in the front, and, like Skobelev, clad in white. Her first care in the mornings was to peruse the tidings from the Balkans. One day in July she was thunderstruck by reading in all the papers the same laconic but terrible telegram: "Hadji Ghiray is killed. It is Nicholas Kiréev."

When Mme. Novikov had somewhat recovered from the blow she wrote to all her friends: "This is all England's doing. If Mr. Disraeli had not broken up the European concert and backed up the Turks, there had been no war and my brother had not died." Mr. Gladstone at this time was writing his pamphlet on the Bulgarian atrocities; and Mr. Stead thinks there can be but little doubt that Mme. Novikov's letter "contributed much to the intense fervor and passion with which Mr. Gladstone arraigned the Turkish policy of Lord Beaconsfield." More than 100 letters from Mr. Gladstone are given in the work which Mr. Stead reviews. The following glowing tribute is paid to the patriotism of the English statesman:

We see Mr. Gladstone month after month in constant correspondence and confidential council with Madame Novikov for the avowed purpose of counter-working what he believed to be the

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policy of Lord Beaconsfield. He is time and again putting himself in the place of the Russian Ambassador and lamenting the indifference of the real Ambassador to the chances of scoring a point against the enemy. While really, although not nominally, leading the Opposition, he was in direct and indirect communication with Madame Novikov, and through her with the Russian Government, for the purpose of securing the defeat of the machinations of the British Government, which, having backed the wrong horse, had to be rescued despite itself from plunging the nation into war.

The chief interest to the statesman and the historian of this book lies in the revelation which it affords of the unflinching courage and marvelous intrepidity with which Mr. Gladstone, who before he died had been four times Prime Minister of the Queen, made alliance with Madame Novikov, who was everywhere decried as a Russian agent, for the purpose of baffling, defeating, and overthrowing the policy of the Prime Minister of the day. It is a monument more lasting than brass to Mr. Gladstone's memory, a never-failing inspiration to those who come after him to offer an uncompromising opposition to the policy of any and every government which threatens to involve Britain in war in an unholy cause.

MADAME NOVIKOV IN HISTORY.

Mr. Stead refers to the permanence of the friendships formed by Mme. Novikov, which "neither time, differences of opinion, alterations of circumstance in the least affected." This is the more noteworthy, when it is remembered that they included such opposites as Freeman and Froude, Kinglake and Thomas Carlyle. The book is illustrated by about sixty portraits of the leading men and women to whom reference is made in it. Mr. Stead quotes from the final chapter the

following estimate of Mme. Novikov's position in history:

It is Madame Novikov's peculiar and unclaim to the grateful recognition of two nations that more consistently, more persistently, more conspicuously than any other human being she maintained in both countries the course of the Anglo-Russian *entente*. And that but for the case, I am justified in claiming her right to be recognized as the real heroine of a great international *rapprochement*, the most outstanding figure of influence among all those who have contributed to replace enmity by co-operation and convert foes into friends. The current of popular passion in England, as interpreted by the majority of its newspapers and expressed by the government, was repeatedly opposed by Madame Novikov; and in every case the verdict of history has been given in favor of the cause which she defended. If in the first great crisis, the leading part in the campaign of good-will was taken by Mr. Gladstone, with half the nation at his back, she was even then his most effective ally. But in the second crisis, which arose on the fight at Penjdeh on the Afghan frontier, Madame Novikov contended almost alone. Mr. Gladstone himself was then threatening to resign, and Madame Novikov fought for peace against him. In 1885, as nine years before with Lord Beaconsfield, she had fought against Lord Beaconsfield. In the third crisis, the storm that suddenly broke up out of the Dogger Bank incident, even Henry Campbell-Bannerman lost his head for a moment, but Madame Novikov stood firm. Her life is a great record. Even from the English patriotic point of view Madame Novikov's position in all these three crises was most useful. Better than any of the passionate exponent of national pride and national interests, she divided and proclaimed that the true policy for the British Empire lay with a hearty *entente* with Russia, a policy which now, with unanimous voice, has been enthusiastically approved by the whole nation, which has opened its eyes to see the truth that Madame Novikov claimed thirty years ago.

SERVIA'S ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT.

THE war clouds which for a time hung over the inland kingdom of Serbia having at last disappeared, she will now be enabled to apply herself afresh to the development of her economic resources, attention to which was necessarily interrupted by the all-absorbing claims of the political situation. It is less than a century since Turkey was compelled to grant autonomy to Serbia, and barely thirty-one years since, by Article 34 of the Treaty of Berlin, Servian independence of the Government of the Porte was definitely established. Serbia has reason to be proud of the progress she has made. Of what other European country can it be said, as is said of Serbia in the "Statesman's Year-

Book": "There is no pauperism in the sense in which it is understood in the West; the poorest has some sort of freehold property. There are a few poor people in Belgrade, but neither their property nor their numbers has necessitated an institution like a workhouse (poor) house." Serbia began the erection of her economic edifice wisely by laying a solid foundation,—the possession of the land by the people. Prof. Militch Radovanovic of the University of Belgrade, writing of the Servian struggle for economic liberty, says in the *World's Work* (London):

Every individual, however insignificant, possesses a piece of ground, however small it be, which he cultivates himself. Every one

the material existence more or less assured. . . . Each proprietor lives on his piece of ground and cultivates it, aided by the members of his family. It is very exceptional to find cases in which it is cultivated by any third person. . . . Such an arrangement of the landed property is the foundation of the well-being of the mass of our people and of the maintenance of the healthy economic relations in our society.

The state was not satisfied to stop here: by the enactment of the Homestead law of 1873 it insured that the individuals kept their lands and assured to them complete economic independence. By this law

it was laid down that a minimum of 3.41 hectares [1 hectare = 2.471 acres] of land, with the house, tools, and utensils, as well as the necessary cattle for the working of the farm, could not be sold for private debt. It is also forbidden to the farmer to run into debt by promissory notes.

The census of 1897 showed that there were in Servia 293,924 country proprietors, and these were classified as follows:

	Pro- prieters.	Per ct.
Possessing less than 3 hectares. . . .	98,253	33.490
Possessing from 3 to 5 hectares. . . .	62,622	21.160
Possessing from 5 to 10 hectares. . . .	80,822	27.550
Possessing from 10 to 20 hectares. . . .	40,782	13.920
Possessing from 20 to 60 hectares. . . .	10,962	3.200
Possessing from 60 to 100 hectares. . . .	397	0.130
Possessing from 100 to 300 hectares. . . .	83	0.014
Possessing more than 300 hectares. . . .	3	0.001

The chief occupation of the Servians is agriculture, and this is to-day "practically the only source of the national wealth." To quote Professor Radovanovitch further:

Agriculture enjoys in Servia conditions which are very favorable to its development. The Servians are active and hard-working; the soil is suitable to the growing of cereals and various agricultural plants; it is intersected by rivers and streams, which form a fairly well-developed system, and which fertilize the soil in watering it. A considerable number of these rivers . . . have high waterfalls, and the force of their current could be profitably used in industries. . . . The vegetation is very luxuriant. The country produces successfully all kinds of grain, different commercial plants, cattle, etc.

There is an abundance of mineral wealth also; but it is altogether insufficiently worked. In Professor Radovanovitch's opinion "there is scarcely another country of so small an area (18,630 square miles) which possesses such a great variety of natural sources of wealth." The chief hindrance to the establishment of any new large industries in Servia is the lack of labor, especially of workmen possessing technical knowledge. On this point the Professor observes:

The Servian people prefer agriculture. Those who are accustomed to work in the open air decide only with difficulty to work in those

places which are generally unhealthy. . . . We are glad to introduce workmen from abroad for the few large enterprises existing in the country, and this not only for the work needing technical education, but also for simple and unskilled work.

Probably the greatest need of the country at the present time is "an adequate system of railways, to bring all the producing districts in direct communication with the main line running through Servia from north to south. This would enable the country to more than double her exports in a very short time."

All of Servia's exports are made to or through Austria-Hungary. In 1907, according to the Customs statistics, the value of raw materials exported was 71,996,274 francs, of which 90 per cent. went to the Dual Monarchy. Of Servian imports, amounting to 55,600,604 francs in 1907, 60 per cent. came from Austria-Hungary. It will readily be seen how easy it would be for Servia's powerful neighbor, by closing her frontier under any pretext, to bring about the "economic suffocation" of the little kingdom. In order to emancipate herself as far as possible from dependence upon Austro-Hungarian markets, Servia must find new *débouchés* for her export trade.

The Austrian Viewpoint.

The first stage of the Balkan crisis was ended when the European powers agreed to recognize Bulgarian independence and Austria's *de facto* annexation of the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. The second stage came to an end in March when, under pressure from the rest of Europe, the Servian Government surrendered to the demands of Austria-Hungary and agreed to make no claims for territorial compensation arising out of the annexation of the two provinces. A highly important question now presents itself: What are the intentions of Austria-Hungary toward her "defeated" neighbor, and what are to be the future relations of the two countries? From a series of "leaders" in the semi-officially inspired journal, the *Neue Freie Presse*, of Vienna, and a careful analysis of the situation running through several numbers of the *Revue de Paris* (the latter series probably also inspired from Vienna) we gather the following as the substance of the Austrian official view:

In annexing Bosnia and Herzegovina, Austria-Hungary did not endanger in the slightest degree the political or territorial integrity of Servia. Baron von Aehrenthal some time ago officially notified all the European chancelleries, including that at Belgrade, that the annexation

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of the two provinces is meant simply as a vindication of her claims and rights therein. To the Servian Minister he declared courteously but firmly that the intentions of his country were to continue the good relations with Servia without change. The Austrian Foreign Minister, moreover, declares himself ready to grant to Servia the largest and fullest concessions and privileges possible in the new commercial treaty between the two countries. He disclaimed utterly and firmly any thought on the part of the Austro-Hungarian Government, or of any representative Austro-Hungarian opinion, to absorb any part of Servian territory. It never has been, declared Baron von Aehrenthal, and certainly it would not now be, to Austria's interest to increase her territory by any doubtful acquisitions. As an independent kingdom Servia is much more pleasant and useful a neighbor than she would be as a part of the Austro-Hungarian realm. For the past thirty years, the Austrian Foreign Minister has laid it down, a strong political influence in the Servian capital has been satisfactory to the Viennese Government, enabling the Austro-Hungarian Foreign Office to carry out its own Balkan policy based on the principle of free competition. Servia, far from being Austria-Hungary's humble servant in politics, owes to her great neighbor support and assistance during several periods of storm and stress. The existing commercial treaty, which will be modified in Servian interests, has opened to the Servian people all Austria-Hungary as their market. One-third of all the imports of Servia comes from Austria-Hungary. Both countries have many common historical and racial traditions and more than one common

political interest in the present and the future. They cannot afford to fight.

Immediately after the agreement between the two nations Baron von Aehrenthal of negotiations with Servia for a new commercial treaty, and the completion of these negotiations is announced as we go to press.

As to the plight of Servia the writer the *Neue Freie Presse* says:

Servia has undoubtedly suffered a great political. She has lost most of her profits among the Slavs of the Balkans. She has suffered economically by having her frontier closed to the markets of Austria-Hungary. Her efforts to open a passageway for her commerce Salonika have failed because of the hostility of the Turks. Her entire campaign has been a failure largely because of the hot-headedness of her rulers and political leaders and by through the desertion of her "best and reliable friend on the Neva."

The most significant provisions of the commercial treaty just concluded between two countries, as they interest the rest of the world, include: the concession of the privilege to Servia to build with Italian and French money the Danube-Adriatic Rail by which the Servians get an access to the sea and at least partial commercial independence and a revision and reform of sanitary regulations for the cattle trade across the Danube.

DEVELOPMENTS IN CHINA.

THE month of November, 1908, was an eventful and anxious one for the inhabitants of the Middle Kingdom. On the thirteenth the foreign diplomats in Peking received an imperial edict couched in the following terms:

It is the excellent will of Tsu-hsi-kuan-yu-k'ang-i-chao-yu-chuang-ch'eng-shou-kung-ch'ing-hsien-chung-hsi, the Great Empress Dowager, that Tsai Feng, Prince of Chün, be appointed Prince Regent (She Chang-wang).

On the fifteenth the baby Emperor, P'u I., announced his own succession, in an edict which read in part:

I have the honor to inform your excellency that on the 21st day of the 10th moon [November 14, 1908] at the Yuk'ö [5.17 p.m.] the late Emperor ascended on the Dragon to be a guest on high. We have received the command of Tsu-hsi, etc., the Great Empress Dowager, to enter on the succession as Emperor. We lamented to heaven and earth. We stretched out our hands, wailing our insufficiency. . . .

At 1.03 p.m., November 14 (according to an edict of the following day), the great Em-

press Dowager herself "took the fairy and ascended to the far country." Prince Chün, the Regent, was left in absolute control, and the citizens of Peking were wondering what was to happen next.

Miss Eleanor Franklin Egan, who was in Peking at this time, narrates in the *Everybody's* her endeavors to secure information concerning the men in whose hands the destinies of the Chinese Empire lay. She reads:

"Who is this Prince Chün?" I inquired of one of the best-informed men in Peking.

"Prince Chün," he answered, "is the brother of the late Emperor Kuang Hsü, and nephew of the Great Dowager, whom she has been educating during the past six years or more for the position he now occupies."

"What do you mean by educating him?" I asked.

"For one thing," he replied, "whenever an opportunity offered to have him come in contact with foreigners, she appointed him as her representative or the representative of the government."

"Do you regard him as a strong man?"

"Among the younger generation of princes



THE GREAT CHINESE STATESMAN, YÜAN SHIH-KAI, RECENTLY DISMISSED FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

there is none stronger, none better prepared to occupy the position."

"In what way?"

"In character, in mental ability, in his experience with the diplomatic body, in his contact with his own governmental educational institutions, as well as those of the missionaries which he has visited; in his knowledge of the system of railroads and mines which the Chinese have built and opened; and, finally, through his trip to Germany to apologize for the murder of the German Minister, Baron von Ketteler. He is the first man China has ever had upon the throne who is well acquainted with the outside world."

Under a set of laws issued by the Grand Secretariat on December 13, 1908, "the government of the nation, military and civil, the dismissal and appointment of officials and their promotion and degradation are all left to the determination and decision of the Prince Regent." The new Empress Dowager, not being an Empress Mother, will wield no power, and "will live out her useless life in the narrow confines of the palace, awaiting her turn to take 'the fairy ride and ascend to the far country.'"

Besides selecting a successor to the throne, the late Empress Dowager chose the men to

control the various governmental boards. As the active head of the Wai Wu Pu, or Board of Foreign Affairs, she had selected Yüan Shih-kai, "a man who had proved himself to be a staunch friend of reform, and one upon whom China and the world could rely for sane and enlightened judgment in all governmental affairs." Miss Egan asked one of the diplomats in Peking for his opinion of the great viceroy. He answered her indirectly:

"Governor Yüan was of humble origin. . . . As a boy he studied the Chinese classics and such foreign books as had been translated into the Chinese language; but he has never studied a foreign tongue nor visited a foreign country. And this, I think, is the first element of his greatness,—that without any knowledge of foreign language, law, literature, science of government, or the history and progress of civilization, he has occupied the highest and most responsible positions in the gift of the empire, has steered the ship of state on a straight course between the shoals of conservatism on the one hand and radical reform on the other, until he has brought her near to the harbor of a safe and progressive policy."

On two occasions Yüan Shih-kai placed his own life in jeopardy by refusing to carry out instructions involving murder, which he received from the late Emperor and the late Empress Dowager, respectively. He was regarded as "the man of the hour" in China. The *Far Eastern Review* of December 19, 1908, said editorially of him:

His Excellency is one of the ablest of China's officials . . . and above all never a breath of suspicion of his absolute honesty and trustworthiness has ever been breathed.

He had risen to be President of the Board of Foreign Affairs and Grand Councillor, and had received the distinction of the Yellow Jacket. The consternation can be imagined when it was learned "that with the dawn of the New Year Yüan had been removed from office and was presumably fleeing for his very life."

Miss Egan found Yüan's successor to be "conservatively liberal." This gentleman, Liang Tun-yen, graduated from Yale in 1883; "but, with all his enlightenment, he is not at all enthusiastic about the modernization of ancient China."

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He will not accept motor cars, and hopes that nobody will try to introduce street railways into Peking. . . . Nor is he in favor of the adoption of constitutional government, declaring that China is not a country in which it will prove a practical experiment because of the extent of the empire and the dense ignorance of the mass of the population as to government in any form.

The dismissal of Yüan Shih-kai forms the subject of a paper by Mr. Herbert E. House in the *Independent* of April 1. This writer is of opinion that the deposition of the statesman is "purely a matter of personal hatred,

jealousy, and revenge, the results of ev which occurred in October, 1908."

Early events after the Regent came into po indicated that he was not hostile to Yüan; his dismissal is, by every sign, due to influe brought to bear upon the Regent by Kang Wei and his associates.

There is no mistaking the fact that march of reform in China has been reta by the enforced retirement of Yüan; but the other hand, it may transpire that t "are just as good men awaiting the op tunity to reveal themselves."

HOW JAPAN STUDIES CHINA.

IN a previous issue of this magazine it was noted that Count Okuma, a veteran statesman of Japan, regretted that his countrymen made no earnest efforts to study China. Yet, according to the reports of the Toa-dobun-kwai, or the "East Asia Allied-Culture Society," Japan seems to be doing commendable work in the way of acquainting herself with the conditions in China. This society was organized some ten years ago under the auspices of the leading publicists of the Mikado's empire, and with the endorsement and co-operation of a few influential Chinese mandarins. Its main object and its work are clearly described in its report for the past year, published in the *Monthly Journal of the Toa-dobun-kwai*. According to its secretary, who prepared the report, the work of the society may be classified under three heads, namely, (1) the publication of literature on China, (2) educational work, and (3) investigation into the economic conditions in China.

As to the publication work, the society, besides bringing out a monthly journal, has published a number of valuable books of such nature as would hardly be published by private publishers.

Of these books, the following are particularly mentioned:

(1) "Treaties and Conventions With or Concerning China," which gives not only diplomatic documents, but also historical events leading to their existence; (2) "The Trade in China," a work of five volumes dealing with Chinese commercial customs, commercial geography, money and banking, and articles of trade; (3) the translation of the Russian author Pozdnev's celebrated book on "Mongolia and the Mongolians," which is considered to be the best work on the subject, and (4) "A Comprehensive Book on Economic Conditions in China," consisting of

twelve volumes and filling some eleven hundred pages.

As to the educational work, we are informed that the society maintains two schools, one each in Shanghai and Tokio.

The school in Tokio is devoted to the instruction of Chinese students in the Japanese language, while that in Shanghai aims to teach Chinese language to Japanese students. In either school it has been the principle to restrict the number of students so that the instructor might be able to exert their wholesome influence upon their pupils and look after their welfare. Thorough instruction, and not large rollment, is the end sought by these schools. The school in Tokio has annually been graduating fifty to sixty Chinese students, and at present has some 200 students. It instructs Chinese in elementary knowledge through the medium of the Japanese language. After graduation, the society sees to it that they complete their studies in higher Japanese institutions. None of the graduates has so far returned to China without spending several years more in higher seats of learning which Japan could offer. In regard to the school in Shanghai, we are informed that it has at present 280 students, who are all Japanese. The society has been limiting the volume of annual enrollment to eighty students, although there has always been much larger numbers of applicants. Up to date, it has turned out 370 graduates, thoroughly versed in the Chinese dialects. All students in this school were all educated at various higher institutions in Japan; they come to this Shanghai school to learn the various dialects of China in order that they might be better prepared to pursue their special work in the Celestial Empire. After graduation, they are distributed through the eighteen provinces of China proper as well as Manchuria. Some of them are engaged in mercantile business, others in scientific pursuit or educational work.

It is by the co-operation of these graduates that the society is enabled to carry out thoroughgoing investigations into economic conditions in China. Whatever line of p

profession they may follow in China they are requested and are willing to submit from time to time to the editorial committee of the society carefully prepared reports on various subjects concerning the commerce and industries of China. It is thus that the society has been issuing a series of voluminous "Re-

ports on Economic Conditions in China." Besides having published the above mentioned "Comprehensive Book on Economic Conditions in China," the secretary states that the society is also preparing a more comprehensive book on the same subject which, when completed, will fill no less than 60,000 pages.

THE ITALIAN FARMER IN AMERICA.

OWING to Lieutenant Petrosino's death in Sicily and the activities of the Black Handers in America, the Italian immigrant has been under a cloud of late. It is pleasant, therefore, to hear something good concerning him, as, for example, when one reads in an article in the *Survey* (New York) for May 1 a paragraph like the following:

The consensus of opinion gathered from the largest employers of Italian farm laborers throughout the United States is that, barring the Chinese, they rank above all other nationalities coming to this country.

Miss Alice Bennett, the writer of the article in question, states that of all the Italians

who come to America 60 per cent. are *contadini* or farmers. Of these a large number never get employment on the land at all, owing to "a lack of information in Italy pointing explicitly to where opportunity awaits the efficient farmer."

The *contadino* comes to friends in one of the overcrowded cities, and, with only five or ten dollars capital, he must take the first job that offers. Thus the man who would be invaluable as a farmer becomes a parasite and menace to the city. His health suffers from the overcrowding, lack of outdoor life, and change of diet.

On the other hand, immigrants who in Italy had been trained to trades have on their arrival in the United States been sent into the country. There is consequently waste of good material, to arrest which some scheme is urgently needed.

In Italy agriculture is chiefly devoted to grapes, olives, fruit, and vegetables; it is natural, therefore, that the *contadino* in America should be found associated with vineyards. Miss Bennett gives the following interesting example of a successful Italian agricultural colony:

About fifteen years ago Christenzo Seragosa, a Sicilian, drifted to Fredonia, Chautauqua County, N. Y., as a day laborer. He applied at a canning factory for work for himself and a friend from Buffalo. They were accepted, but owing to a prejudice against Italians they were unable to secure a house within two miles of the factory. Undaunted they moved in, and by the end of the year had made themselves so well liked that the numerous Sicilian families that followed found no difficulty in securing houses. The factory attracted them only as a means to an end: what really drew them was the outlying land suited to grape culture. All that they could save from their wages was invested in land and planted out to vineyards. Now there are 1200 Italians in Fredonia, many of them owning large vineyards. Nearly all have cottages with gardens attached. Their places are well kept, and they have raised the standard of farming in that vicinity.—Americans have to hustle to keep up with them. Land which sold ten years ago for \$50 and \$75 an acre cannot now be bought for less than \$250.

Three hundred Italian children are in the



AT THE NORTH CAROLINA FARM COLONY.

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grammar schools, ten in the Normal College, and two have received diplomas in Buffalo: one is a lawyer, the other is a physician. A Roman Catholic church has been built. The foundation was dug and the mason work done free by men of the colony. Fifteen years ago the only industry in Fredonia was the canning factory. Now there are two canneries, six wine cellars, and a macaroni factory.

The most prosperous member of the colony . . . owns 127 acres of vineyard . . . in a normal year his output is 15,000 gallons of wine, besides about ninety tons of grapes.

An instance of a successful market-garden venture is that of seven men under the leadership of Dominico Condanti at Sheepshead Bay, who cultivated an area of about two acres. Miss Bennett says:

They fenced it round with wire netting, dug a well, bought garden utensils, seeds, and a horse and wagon; finally, they built a stall from which to sell their product. At the end of seven months, after deducting all outlay, including living expenses, they were about sixty-five dollars to the good.

In one respect the Italian *contadino* is at a disadvantage: he knows comparatively nothing of the use of live stock, especially

horses and cows. It has been suggested therefore, that a training school be established

to teach Italians the use of machinery and care of live stock. With this school there should be associated a bureau of information which would co-operate with the authorities at Island. The duties of this bureau should select immigrants adapted to agriculture, furnish information about desirable locations, act as a clearing house and distributing station. . . . The school should become self-sustaining at the end of three years.

Miss Bennett thinks the Italian is bound to become popular with the farmer's wife, as he relieves her of all the drudgery which has been used to associate with the "man,"—he prefers to cook his own food his own way. His diet is largely spaghetti, and vegetables.

In regard to the training school she

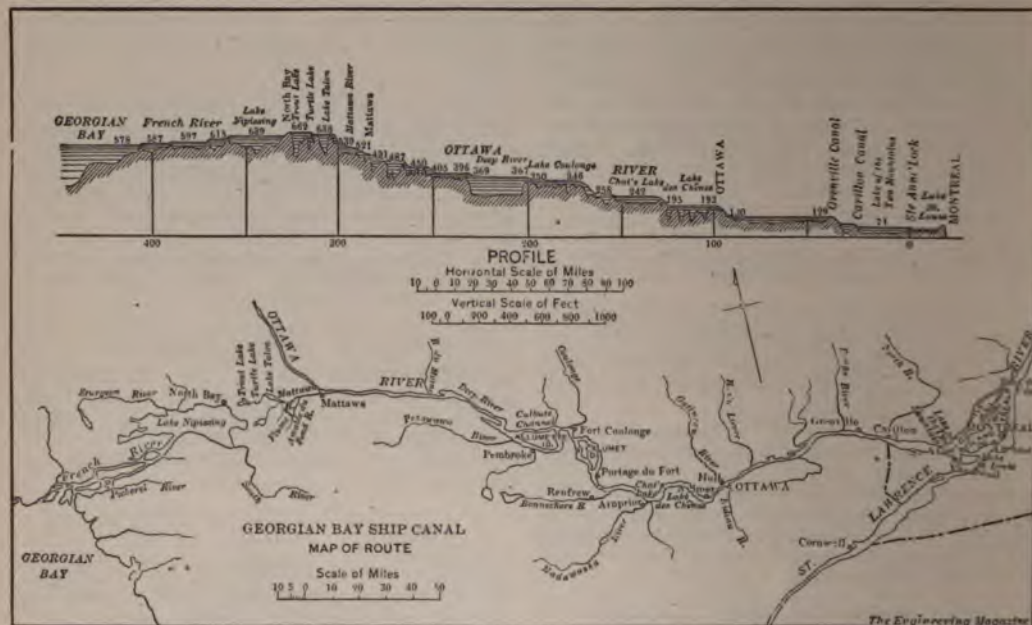
Why could there not be one corner in school sacred to some of the old arts and say, those gorgeous brocades . . . Sicilian embroidery, or Venetian glass. Surely such an experiment would be well while in this crude, new world of ours.

CANADA'S NEW INLAND WATERWAY PROJECT.

IT is not in ocean-joining alone that the canal builders have been busy of late. In almost every country in which facilities for transportation are of prime importance inland waterways have been constructed, improved, or projected. On the other side of the Atlantic, France, Germany, Austria, and Italy all have canal projects under consideration, while on our own continent our neighbor Canada is to the fore with a project to connect Montreal by water with Georgian Bay, the length of the proposed waterway being 440 miles. The route follows that taken by Champlain and his companions when, after he had founded Quebec in 1608, they worked their way westward. At that time hostile Iroquois held the St. Lawrence River route, so the great explorer found himself compelled to advance by way of the Ottawa; and it was not until 1613 that he had reached as far inland as the present town of Pembroke, completing two years later his journey to Georgian Bay and thence by the Trent to Lake Ontario. The economic and physical features of the Georgian Bay canal are discussed by Mr. J. G. G. Kerry in the *Engineering Magazine*, and he pertinently remarks:

If any question is asked regarding the date at which the improvement of the routes of such evident importance is being undertaken, it can be readily answered. In the present decade Canada has had no transportation facilities of the highest order between the upper lakes and the Atlantic north and her northwest have lain unoccupied save by the trapper and the fur trader; practically no all-Canadian traffic has floated on her inland seas. . . . The unpromising hostility of the United States prevented its Western people from benefiting in any way by these great waterways, the Canadian tariff laws making the handling of Canadian import trade via Montreal a commercial impossibility.

Canal projects as a rule develop slowly and the Georgian Bay canal is no exception. Seventy-two years ago the merchant of Ottawa sent out an expedition to study the possibilities of the route, and they returned with a favorable report. The improvement of the St. Lawrence route was, however, occupying public interest, and nothing was done in regard to the Georgian Bay section. Various surveys were made from that time, until, as the result of steady agitation the Canadian Government ordered a complete survey of the whole route and a preliminary report was laid before Parliament.



PLAN AND PROFILE OF THE PROJECTED ROUTE OF THE GEORGIAN BAY SHIP CANAL.

July of last year. The canal, as now projected, is "to bring the lake carrier to a point where she can trans-ship directly into the ocean liner." As stated above, the total length of the proposed waterway will be 440 miles. Of this distance 410 miles will be either lake or canalized river. The route is thus described by Mr. Kerry:

A mental picture of the route, then, will show between Montreal and Ottawa, or, say one-fourth of the length, a broad, placid river, broken by three groups of rapids. . . . This section has been navigable for nearly eighty years, and the present enterprise will merely enlarge the scale of the navigation. For 100 miles further to the westward the route still follows the Ottawa River. . . . The third section from the Ottawa River to the Georgian Bay runs through a succession of pools with high, rocky banks. . . . The cut across the divide between the French and Ottawa Rivers is three and one-half miles long, and a stretch of three miles of canal is projected in the valley of the Mattawa River. . . . From the foot of the Lake of Two Mountains, out of which the Ottawa flows to its final discharge into the St. Lawrence, two routes are projected: one following Lake St. Louis and the St. Lawrence to Montreal; the other the valley of the Back River or Rivière des Prairies. . . . Locks of the ordinary type are to be used, the dimensions of the lock chambers being 650 feet by 65 feet by 22 feet on the miter sills. . . . Forty-five main dams will be required in all, not including those that may be built for regulating the discharge of tributary streams.

The Canadian Government has already advertised for tenders for the first of the dams which are to control the waters of the Ottawa.

It is intended to make a deep-water summit reach by flooding the series of small lakes, Trout, Talon, and Turtle, that lie at the headwaters of the Mattawa River. . . . The total lockage from the Georgian Bay up to the summit level is ninety-nine feet, and the lockage down to Montreal 659 feet,—twenty-seven locks in all. . . .

Though the estimated cost is \$100,000,000, the canal is regarded "as a fairly simple piece of construction."

The question to-day is not one of engineering but of economics: will the canal pay? On this head Mr. Kerry writes:

The time has now come when the Canadian publicist has ceased to look to the United States as the source of the traffic which his works are to handle. The growth of the settlement along the north shores of the Great Lakes, the rapidly increasing output of the prairie Provinces, and the diminishing importance of the United States as an exporter of heavy foodstuffs have combined to create conditions which had no existence in the past. . . . England is still the great purchasing market, and the returns to the Canadian farmer and shipper are determined by prices ruling in Liverpool and London. Every reduction in the cost of transportation means, therefore, an increased price at the farm.

Mr. Kerry is a firm believer in the wis-

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dom of building of the canal, but he does not think the grain traffic from Western Canada will be a predominating item in the traffic returns. The work is necessary to the development of the region through which the canal is projected.

Of the wealth and possibilities of that region we have abundant evidence. The Sault Ste. Marie traffic has grown on the coal and iron south of the Great Lakes at a rate beyond all prediction; but who knows what wealth lies to

the north of those waters? . . . T also the possibility of building up also great valley with its water powers, its mineral deposits, and its wealth of tin manufacturing region unequaled on the continent. To this valley, which has raw material in such abundance tributary to it, cheap and cheap transportation are necessary, and the advance in the demand for power for manufacturing and the growth of the demand for every staple, there seems no doubt that the Canadian people are economically justified in developing the Ottawa waters

THE DAY OF THE "DREADNOUGHT."

COULD the latest type of battleship speak, she might truthfully say: "*Veni, vidi, vici.*" Never was victory more complete. In spite of criticism of her supposed dangers and defects as a fighting unit; in spite of her enormous cost; in spite of huge national deficits, which under ordinary circumstances would have precluded even the mere proposal to expend additional millions,—in the face of all these obstacles the *Dreadnought* has made her way; and to-day there is not a single naval power the whole world over that does not hail her Queen Paramount. According to Mr. Archibald S. Hurd, writing in *Cassier's Magazine* for May, "there will

this year be either built or under construction or authorized, no fewer than seventy which may be regarded as belonging to the *Dreadnought* era, each representing an average expenditure of two million dollars, and, therefore, aggregating a total outlay of about £140,000,000 (\$700,000,000). The first American battleship of this type, the *North Dakota*, was launched at Quincy, Mass., on November 10, 1908. The type to which this latest type of sea-fighting vessel has been adopted by the nations may be gauged from the following figures, showing the number of ships of the *Dreadnought* type, under building, or projected:



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THE LATEST UNITED STATES "DREADNOUGHT" OF 26,000 TONS DISPLACEMENT.

(Length, 545 feet; beam, 92 feet; draft, 29 feet; horse-power, 33,000; speed, 21 knots; coal capacity, 3000 tons; armament, twelve 12-inch and sixteen 5-inch; armor—belt and barbets 11-inch, sides 8-inch; complement, 1100 officers and men.)

Great Britain.....	18
Germany.....	13
United States.....	8
Japan.....	8
France.....	6
Brazil.....	3
Italy.....	2
Russia.....	4
China.....	3
Chile.....	2
Argentina.....	3

The *Dreadnought* may be aptly defined as "the all-big-gun ship"; and the *Cassier's* writer gives an interesting account of the various steps in her evolution. It is less than four years since the first ship of this type was laid down. The world waited breathlessly to learn the monster's secret.

October, 1905, was the date when the keel plate of the British *Dreadnought* was placed in position at Portsmouth Dockyard under circumstances of unprecedented secrecy. . . . The mystery which surrounded the commencement of this vessel caused other naval powers to hesitate before carrying out plans of construction which had already been prepared. For about twelve months no new armored ships were laid down in any other country in the world. At last, brief details of the *Dreadnought* design began to leak out, and it was discovered that the secret of the ship lay mainly in a thorough-going adoption of the all-big-gun principle.

The new ship was, in fact, the representative of "the natural sequence in the British story of the evolution of the modern battleship." The typical British man-of-war had for many years been a vessel "mounting four 12-inch guns in two barbets, with a dozen 6-inch guns in casemates and a large number of 12 and 3 pounders for repelling the attacks of torpedo craft." The next step was represented by "ships of the *King Edward VII.* class, in which the secondary armament was reduced and the ship was given eight heavy weapons instead of four." Displacement was increased from 15,000 to 16,350 tons, and the new type was fully approved by the British naval authorities. In this type the armament consisted of four 12-inch guns and ten of 9.2-inch. At this juncture a change took place in the constitution of the British Board of Admiralty. Sir John Fisher becoming First Sea Lord, he promptly formed a committee, which laid down the general characteristics of the *Dreadnought*: "medium caliber guns were eliminated, and all the weight available for gun power was devoted to the mounting of 12-inch weapons of 45 calibers instead of 12-inch in association with 9.2-inch guns." Fitted with water-tube boilers and Parson's marine turbines, the *Dreadnought* was planned for a speed of 21 knots.

It will be remembered that the new battle-

ship was severely criticised by Admiral Mahan, who claimed that

it was never justifiable to increase the speed of a battleship at the expense of the equivalent weight in gun power, and that it was a mistake in particular to substitute heavy turret guns such as the 12-inch for the equivalent weight of the usual intermediate guns.

Admiral Mahan had based his objections on certain conclusions drawn from the battle of the Sea of Japan; but Commander William Sims, of the U. S. N., showed that "much of the information upon which Admiral Mahan had based his conclusions was in error to a greater or less degree."

Commander Sims pointed out that turrets are now for the first time being designed practically invulnerable to all but heavy projectiles. This development . . . enables all the gunnery personnel to be so protected that they cannot be materially injured by small-caliber guns. By eliminating the secondary battery the designers have been able to give guns and gunners increased protection and, at the same time, mount more weapons capable of giving knock-out blows at long ranges. . . . By mounting one type only of big gun, it was possible to simplify fire control and enable the officers to obtain the maximum efficiency.

One by one the other naval powers have fallen into line. No adherents have been found for the medium-sized battleship; and "the argument that it is unwise to place too many eggs in one basket in view of the development of the power of torpedo and mine has made no converts." Throughout the world the all-big-gun ship of great displacement and high speed has been adopted; and, in the opinion of the writer under review, the new type of boat has "come to stay." In Germany, the Marine Office passed at one step from the design of 15,000 tons to one of approximately 18,000. Germany has thirteen of the new type of ships building or authorized, but only four of them have yet taken the water. Meanwhile, Great Britain has practically complete seven *Dreadnoughts*, and three others have been launched.

The United States has also adopted the all-big-gun principle. Four of her battleships now under construction have a displacement of 20,000 tons each and a speed of 21 knots. The increased tonnage "has been equally distributed between speed, protection, and gun-power." Two more authorized during the present year will, it is understood, displace about 26,000 tons each and will be the largest battleships hitherto planned by any naval power. Each ship will carry ten 12-inch guns.

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MALARIA,—THE GREAT DESTROYER.

THAT "malaria has probably killed more human beings than all the wars that have ever devastated the globe" is the statement put forth by Dr. Woods Hutchinson in the *Outing Magazine* for May. He says also that whereas "other great infections attack man usually where he is strongest and most numerous, malaria, on the contrary, lies in wait for him where he is weakest and most scattered, upon the frontiers of civilization and the borders of the wilderness." The disease is encountered "upon the prairies or even the tundras of the North, or by the jungles and swamps of the Equator."

The "chills and fever," "fevonager," "mylary," that chattered the teeth and racked the joints of the pioneer from Michigan to Mississippi, was one and the same plague with the deadly "jungle fever," "African fever," "black fever" of the tropics, from Panama to Singapore. Hardly a generation ago along the advancing front of civilization in the Middle West the whole life of the community was colored with a malarial tinge and the taste of quinine was as familiar as that of sugar. To this day over something like three-quarters of these United States, the South, Middle West, and Far West, if you feel headache and bilious and "run down," you sum it all up saying that you are "feeling malarious." Dwellers upon the rich bottom lands expected to shake every spring and fall with almost the same regularity as they put on and shed their winter clothing.

Certain students of tropical disease and conditions hold "that no small part of that apathy and indifference which steal over the mind and body of the white colonist in the tropics, numbing even his moral sense and alternating with furious outbursts of what the French have termed 'tropical wrath,' is the deadly work of malaria." And, to come nearer home,

there can be little question that the baneful, persistent influence of malaria has had much to do with both the degeneracy of the Southern "cracker," or "mean white," and those wild outbursts of primitive ferocity in all classes which take the form of White Cap raids and lynching mobs.

The sovereign remedy for malaria has been for nearly three hundred years,—since the Countess Chinchona brought back from Peru to Europe a package of Peruvian bark,—quinine, which, suitably administered, cured 90 per cent. of all cases. Just how it did it the doctors could not tell; but they were content with the knowledge of the mere fact itself. In 1880, however, the explanation was forthcoming. In that year

Laveran, a French army surgeon at Algeria, announced the discovery in of malarial patients of an organism since rightly borne his name, the *He Laveran*. This organism, of all curious burrowed into and found a home in red corpuscles of the blood. At period eight hours it ripened a crop of s would burst out of the corpuscles, throughout the blood and the tissue body and producing the famous parox accounted for the most curious and w feature of the disease,—namely, its i character,—chill and fever one day, a day of comparative health, followed l chill day, and so on as long as the continued.

Other forms of the organism w to account for quartan ague, autu larial fevers, and for the classic ague. Further, it was discovered organism "was an animal, instead c like all the other hitherto known b teria and other disease germs." Bei mal, it was probable that the plasm conveyed into the human body by s animal; and naturally the insects pected. In 1895 Dr. Donald Ro Indian Medical Service, "discov positively identified the plasmodiu going a cycle of its development i of the mosquito." Dr. Ross "att communicate the disease to birds an by allowing infected mosquitoes to l but was unsuccessful."

Two Italian investigators, Big Grassi, saw that the problem

was one for human experiment. . . . teers were called for and promptly off selves. . . . They allowed themse bitten by infected mosquitoes, and wit varying from six to ten days eight them developed the disease.

The only genus of mosquito th malaria is the *Anopheles*, and this is just before and after sundown, w well known, is the very time wh most likely to "git mylary into the How to exterminate the malaria-cz now the question.

It was first found that while the quired no air for their development, wiggled up to the surface and inhaled curious little tubes developed for thi oddly enough from their tail ends. If of film could be spread over the surf water, through which the larvæ could air, they would suffocate. The well-kn erty of oil in skimming over water w two or three stagnant pools were tr

it, and, to the delight of the experimenters, not a single larva was able to develop.

So much for the larvæ. But what of the eggs?

They require no air, and it was found impossible to poison them without simply saturating the water with powerful poisons; but an unexpected ally was at hand. . . . One day an enthusiastic student brought home a number of eggs of different species and put them into his laboratory aquarium. . . . The next morning when he went to look at them they had totally disappeared. . . . Overlooking a most contented twinkle in the corner of the eyes of the minnows that inhabited the aquarium, he went

out and collected another series. This time the minnows were ready for him, and before his astonished eyes promptly pounced on the raft of eggs and swallowed them whole. Here was the answer at once. Mosquitoes would not develop freely where fish had free access.

On the filling up or kerosening of the breeding places of the *Anopheles*, Dr. Hutchinson says: "It is a good thing to begin with your own backyard, including the water-butt, any puddles or open cesspools, or cisterns, and any ornamental water gardens or lily ponds. These latter should be stocked with fish or slightly oiled occasionally."

DANGERS LURKING IN WOOD-PILES.

THIS heading has not, as might at first glance be supposed, any reference to the proverbial "nigger," but it is the title of a paper contributed to the *North American Review* for May by Mr. Louis Windmüller on the subject of fire-losses in the United States. Individuals who take out fire-policies know to their cost that premiums are nearly ten times greater in the United States than in Europe; but they do not realize that these high premiums are necessary to reimburse the underwriters for losses paid by them. As Mr. Windmüller remarks:

It is known that fires occur more frequently in New York City than in London; but that the value of property annually destroyed is tenfold greater here than it is abroad is not adequately appreciated. Losses by fire equal twenty-five cents *per capita* of the population in France and Germany, thirty cents in Great Britain, and three dollars in this country, an annual aggregation of two hundred and fifty million dollars.

Of course, the main cause of this disproportionate showing against this country is "the inflammable material and flimsy composition of the greater part of our structures." But even the so-called "solid" buildings have proved in many notable instances to be practically worthless as regards protection from fire. Instances cited are the great fire in Chicago in 1871, where the destroyed warehouses were of iron and limestone; the conflagration in Boston thirteen months later, when 700 "fireproof" buildings, with solid walls of granite and iron, were consumed; and the Baltimore fire of 1904.

As regards methods of building, too, America compares unfavorably with Europe, especially with Germany.

In Germany the construction of buildings is

considered a more responsible vocation than it is elsewhere; architects cannot obtain the requisite license until they have graduated from a German university; they must obey the laws of their respective communities, and are liable for the proper performance of their contractors' duties.

The "Baupolizei," as the German Building Department is called, first requires that there be submitted to it, for approval, the plans of a proposed structure, with a copy of the contractor's specifications. The height must conform to the width of the street, the architecture to surrounding styles. After the municipal arbiter has passed the plans they must be submitted to the Councillor of State. When he also has approved them ground for the foundation may be broken. From that day until the "roof is raised" it remains under constant surveillance. Every part must conform strictly to the regulations; inspectors visit the structure while it is in course of erection almost daily and test the strength of every beam and of every stanchion. Oak may not be replaced by chestnut, nor pine by basswood; the framework must be filled with plaster to make it permanently solid; no ornament which may prejudice safety is permissible. The state authorities must approve the final report of municipal inspectors before the owner may take possession of his property.

Germans build deliberately, generally for their own occupancy. A majority of our houses are erected to be sold at the first opportunity; when the owner has disposed of them their fate ceases to interest him. And the completion of buildings we erect for occupancy by ourselves or by prospective tenants is hastened so as to render them productive at the earliest moment.

Laxity in the observance of the building rules of the National Board of American Fire Underwriters is largely responsible for many of our fires and for the great loss of property which the latter entail.

Mr. Windmüller has a good word to say for the steel "skyscraper," in the light of experiences at the Baltimore fire of 1904 and of the earthquake at San Francisco in 1906;

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

and of contrivances to diminish the fire danger he considers the automatic sprinkler equipment the most practicable. Severe restrictions should be placed on the storage of combustibles, and violators of the rules should be punished.

Fire insurance is one of the things "they manage better in France."

A fire policy in France insures not alone the client who pays for it, but it covers the property of his neighbors as well, because in case of a fire he is compelled to pay his neighbors' loss. This risk, called "*Le risque du voisin*," makes French householders very careful.

Mr. Windmüller fears our fire waste will continue unless efforts are made to substitute fireproof material for timber in the construction of our dwellings. We reproduce his observations on concrete:

In hardness and durability concrete equals, if it does not surpass, the best stone. When tim-

ber became scarce, it was used as a substitute by the ancient Greeks and Romans. The continued existence of the ruins of their temples erected several thousand years ago proves the strength of the substance.

The supply of good American cement concrete is inexhaustible. Large buildings have been erected of it in many cities, and suburbs at a lower cost than that of other material which could have been obtained from abroad. This is especially true of the Pacific coast. Some of the finest villas are built of concrete in Buenos Aires in Argentina. Concrete is proved to be proof against moderate earthquakes. A great part of San Francisco has been built of reinforced concrete.

Passenger-barges of concrete ply on the coast of France and Italy. Small dwelling houses of concrete have proven to be too expensive, but Mr. Edison and others are making experiments which, if successful, will bring about a good concrete suburban home within the reach of the poor. Should they not succeed, ingenuity must find some other substitute for timber.

MODJESKA AS AN INTERPRETER OF SHAKESPEARE

MANY biographical and eulogistic articles upon the late Polish-American actress, Helena Modjeska, appear in the Polish monthly, weekly, and daily press of both Europe and this country. The writers dwell upon her intense self-sacrificing patriotism and the charm of her personality. They all agree, further, that there is something in the Polish history and temperament that made her a particularly sympathetic and effective interpreter of Shakespearean rôles. The entire Polish nation, says the Milwaukee *Kuryer Ilustrowany* (*Illustrated Courier*), honors Modjeska not only as an artist of genius, but as one of the most eminent patriots. Commenting upon her success in Shakespeare the *Zgoda* (Chicago) points out the fact that "for many long years the genius of this Polish woman was the best interpreter of Shakespeare, the greatest dramatic poet of all nations and all ages." On this point the editorial continues:

The genius of Shakespeare and the genius of Modjeska appeared worthily side by side on the stage. The grandest female figures sketched with the pen of the great Englishman revived under the touch of the great Polish woman and charmed the spectators. People have frequently reflected why it was that a woman should have been sought in the Polish nation who would be adequate to the gigantic task of the perfect recreation of Shakespeare's characters. The answer is an easy one. Shakespeare was an English poet merely in speech; in his soul and genius he belonged to the whole world. The tragic

figures that he created are types beloved by all peoples. Who, therefore, possesses the efficiency for the incarnation of those types, if not the ingenious daughter of the Polish nation, the entire life of which for the last hundred years has been one great tragedy?

The verdict of Warsaw upon Modjeska's art is worth quoting, because the Polish metropolis is noted for its refined taste in all matters of art production. The *Tygodnik Ilustrowany*, of the 15th (Illustrated Weekly), has a long, interesting article on Modjeska, written by Czesławski, in the course of which the critic

As the interpreter of such rôles as "Mary Stuart," Sophocles's "Antigone," "Macbeth," "Adrienne Lecouvreur," "Feuillet's "Delilah," Dumas' "Princess Nora," the Lady Palatine of Slowacki's "Zepa," Angela of Fredro's "Maiden," "Countess Idalia" of Slowacki's "Dejanira,"—to mention simply the principal ones—will remain the example of a noble charm, simplicity, distinction, and graceful, remarkable elocution, of a lyricism sincere, full of feeling, of majesty, and of great devotion for the work she was interpreting were the cardinal characteristics of her art, the charm of which London yielded to her in the time, and which blazoned her name throughout the world. She conquered by her incomparable womanly charm, her plastic art, her feeling, as well as the sublimity of her conception, free as well from pathos as from naturalism. . . . In her sphere, in the boisterous arena, she was a worthy and distinguished representative of the Polish nation.

title, more than the memory of the illustrious actress,—whose art, from the nature of things, like every virtuosity of art, has vanished without a trace for posterity,—this title let us surround with honor and let us not suffer it to be forgotten. For the life of our nation to-day

endures and develops only solely in the deeds and the soul of its representatives. And a representative,—even though without the mandate of the Polish nation,—is every one of us, on our own, or on a foreign soil. This Modjeska remembered ever and everywhere.

INFLUENCES SHAPING SPANISH-AMERICAN LITERATURE.

IN an article on the literary movement in Spanish-America which appears in *Nuestro Tiempo* (Madrid), Señor Manuel Ugarte notes the gradual emancipation of Latin-American authors from the influence of European models. Regarding this, he writes:

A curious phenomenon could be observed in Spanish America during the last twenty years of the nineteenth century. From the mass of the people, lacking both literary and traditional culture, from the common herd of those whose sole passion was their newly awakened passion for speculation and the acquisition of wealth, arose here and there by a spontaneous evolution, the subtle, refined, and sometimes slightly morbid intellects, which transplanted to their rather rude and primitive environment the ripest product of century-old civilizations. It is evident that decadent forms and symbolism could not permanently take root in a land where the exuberance of youth demanded above all sincerity and vigor. The mere fact, however, that this literature was able to maintain itself for ten years and still possesses a certain prestige in a region where the first timid beginnings of literature were exclusively under the influence of the classicism of Latin professors, or the facile romanticism of old-fashioned melodrama, is a fact that reveals a wonderful power of assimilation and improvisation in the writers of this school.

These young authors, whose minds had just been awakened to a contemplation of wider intellectual perspectives, were so thoroughly saturated with European literature, and so fresh from the study of European models, that they could scarcely escape falling under the spell of French art, an art which exerted and still exerts a preponderant influence in South America.

Parisian writers molded the minds of the new generations, and it cannot be denied that this spirit of imitation had its advantages for Hispano-American authors, as it lent variety to their style, color to their phrase, and order to their composition, rejuvenating, in this way, the grandiloquent and over-ceremonious tradition of Old Castile. It is to France that we owe the inestimable qualities which, grafted on the old Spanish tree, will make the Hispano-American literature thoroughly individual and worthy to be compared with any other.

Nevertheless, Señor Ugarte admits that

certain disadvantages resulted from this tendency to copy French models, since the writers of New Spain were frequently induced to take over, not only the form, but also the substance of the French originals, thus producing works which were merely indifferent imitations, and were quite out of touch with the life about them. This, however, was only a transitional stage, and is giving place to a truly national literature. Señor Ugarte then proceeds to explain the causes of this new development:

It was not possible that the minds of these writers could remain blind and mute in the face of the untrammelled nature, the strange contrasts, and the new aspects about them. Alongside of those who only breathed the atmosphere wafted over to them from across the Atlantic, there began to arise those who felt the fascination of the solitary plains, of the aboriginal types, and of the exotic life which all conspire to give to new countries an atmosphere all their own. A fecund idea diffused itself through Latin America, from one extremity to the other,—namely, the idea that it was necessary to utilize the artistic elements with which the land abounds, to voice the soul of the race, to discover and exploit the mines of beauty, just as we had discovered and exploited the mines of gold. It was then that a development began, timid and feeble at first, toward what is now becoming a national literature.

The difficulty of the enterprise, and the great efforts requisite for the creation of new literary types and formulas, concludes this Spanish writer, give to the productions of the group a certain *naïveté* and artlessness that has caused some to treat them lightly.

It was no longer sufficient simply to rearrange what had already been written or thought, it was necessary to invent, in their entirety, descriptions of new landscapes, and of heroes sprung from the native soil, and also to find a synthesis for types of character portrayed for the first time by the writer's pen. For this reason, in judging this new Hispano-American literature, we must free ourselves from narrow canons and bear in mind that those who cultivate it are not giving a final touch to a figure transmitted to them by a hundred generations, but are fashioning out, in a rude block of stone, the first outline and the primary traits of a statue never before executed.

FINANCE AND BUSINESS.

NOTES ON APPLIED ECONOMICS OF THE MON

PEACE THROUGH INTERNATIONAL INVESTMENT.

IF the Turkish Government had been as upset a hundred years ago as it became last month, a general European wrangle over the booty might have been inevitable.

The change has come financially. The economists call it "enlightened self-interest." The reader can see it work on the greatest stock exchange in the world,—the London,—where four issues, about \$300,000,000, of Turkish bonds are constantly bought and sold.

Neither is the principal market for Turkish bank and other shares in Constantinople, but on the Bourse of Paris. Furthermore, French investors have put two-and-a-half billion dollars into Russian bonds.

Here is a financial chain that ties three world powers together against any fourth that might start on a course calculated to depreciate the price of Russian and Turkish bonds.

Thus the evil of war will some day kill itself,—through investment.

When enough thrifty Germans hold English "Consols," railway stocks, and English South African mining stocks,—when enough English investors hold stocks in German iron works and shipping companies,—the British budget will not need to contain the item of more than \$312,000,000 for Army and Navy,—upward of \$7,000,000 more than last year. And that capital, now unproductively locked up, will be at work for the improvement of both nations.

Personally, international investment can be made, not a sacrifice, but a form of insurance. It has come to mean this to the Frenchman and Englishman particularly, and to the Swiss, Dutch, and Belgian,—none of whom have a new, fertile country like our own at hand with investment opportunities.

An English investment list is at hand, with its record for ten years. The most gilt-edged of the lot,—the British Government Consolidated stock,—has declined about 25

per cent., while the Turkish 4s has nearly even. The Japanese 5s had drop in 1904, but are about back again. The same is true of the Italian Railway 3s. An American bank stock is worth 25 per cent. more.

LOSING GOLD AND MAKING MONEY

FEW items sound less interesting to the public at large than news like that of May 18: "Paris, Rotterdam, and London. America will take more than \$100,000,000 of gold this week. This makes a total for January 1 of almost \$50,000,000."

Yet such reports tell of the draining of the very life blood of American enterprise. When they are coupled with the figures that show bank notes now circulating at a record of \$690,000,000,—\$100,000,000 more than two years ago, just before the panic,—if they reveal the cause of that strain, and for all any one knows, of more than \$100,000,000 too many bank notes and too little gold for them.

As reverse examples: The Bank of Hungary during April took in \$100,000,000 of additional gold, but increased its bank notes not at all. The Bank of France has the largest store of gold in its history. The great central banks of Europe are stocked with gold also. It is cheap now, and it is being bought against the time when it will be dear.

The trouble is that in America more than 17,000 banking corporations are out to make a living. What can be done against the scientific conduct of banking and finance,—each nation with a pivot central bank, either public, or semi-public, or under government control?

Naturally, they are not going to use three-quarters of their reserves, as the Bank of France, or two-thirds, like the German Reichsbank, simply because that is the scientific thing to do. They are going to lend credit at lower and lower rates.

Or, if they are national banks, they are going to buy more Government bonds

more notes against them, and make the profits which, by technical paradox accrue to national banks, in greater proportion with a low interest rate than with a high one.

Bills are to be introduced into the next Congress to modify the system which makes American banking the financial tool of Europe.

BUSINESS MEN WATCHING THE CROPS.

BEHIND the burst of business optimism, around the middle of last month, lurked solicitude as to the greatest unknown factor,—the crops.

Surprise was felt at the effect of the steel price cuts, made February 23. They had not only created so much more buying that the big Steel Corporation's production increased 11 per cent., reaching 70 per cent. of normal, the best since October, 1907,—but even prices had since improved. Thus the president of the Corporation expected early prosperity,—*"with an average crop."*

The same day James J. Hill prophesied as to wheat, "an average full good crop," and found "no need to worry over business." The new wheat, however, is almost a month late, and below 1908 in condition.

There is increased planting of corn and oats, and reports from cotton in general are good. Finally, the International Harvester Company, that farming barometer, reported "normal business."

Other signs on May 15 were cheerful. Building for April was computed at 73 per cent. more than for 1908 and 20 per cent. more even than for 1907. Bank clearings, even outside of the speculative center, were one-sixth more than the same week last year. April railroad earnings had been 13 per cent. ahead.

The immediate test, after all, is the orders unfilled by industrial concerns. Reports on the 15th showed the leading smelting, electric supply, leather, rubber, oil, and corn products companies making large gains.

PAINT AND OTHER RAILROAD PURCHASES.

THE railroads are the heaviest consumers of paint. This fact is interesting beyond the paint trade, if considered as an instance of the real meaning, to American manufacturers and merchants in general, of an announcement that such-and-such a railroad has "successfully floated a several million-dollar

bond issue." Railroads played the largest part in the \$200,000,000 new securities started in April.

After all, "high finance" gets little of this money,—only about 2 or 3 per cent., if the road has good credit. Nor will all the rest go to the steel-rail or the engine-and-car people, by any means; nor even to labor and what labor consumes. There is still the item of supplies.

As for the instance of paint: Think of the dozen buildings at every station, of the signal towers, fence posts and signal posts, switch towers, gates, cattle pens, section houses, besides the engines, cars, and other "stock" freshly coated every year on the up-to-date roads.

The Pennsylvania lines east of Pittsburg alone had, last year, as objects to be painted, not only the multitudinous buildings and the 4138 locomotives and 164,084 cars,—but also a dozen steam ferryboats, 34 tugboats, 5 steam lighters, and 263 barges.

THE BRASS BED AND THE COPPER MINE.

WHAT becomes of all the copper? Especially in New England, where many families draw part of their income from the dividends of copper mines by the Great Lakes, there has been anxiety as to the enormous output. Until lately there has been little sign of the stringing of enough new wires for the trolley lines, electric power, electric light, telegraph and telephone companies to play the part in copper consumption they did before the 1907 crisis put a stop to most new construction.

Last month the hint was given by William A. Paine, president of "Copper Range," and identified with half-a-dozen other successful mines, that it is not generally appreciated how much copper is taken by new demands,—as in the brass beds popular only a few years since.

How long since were there subway cars in New York to be sheathed with copper? modern office buildings to be walled, faced, roofed, and ornamented with copper sheets, cornices, and grille work? automobiles and motor cars to use more than 10,000,000 pounds a year, largely in the form of brass? railroad terminals like the Pennsylvania's in New York City, which alone has already bought 1,000,000 pounds?

From the brass tube in the high pressure locomotive boiler to the little brass clips so convenient with office papers, this copper

FINANCE AND BUSINESS.

alloy is called for in an increasing number of million pounds every year.

On the 10th of last month were published the April figures for the United States, Canada, and Mexico,—at the record-breaking rate of 3,785,809 pounds a day. This copper boom has been going on for eighteen months. The big mines have been running at 100 per cent. capacity. Yet the increase in the "stocks of copper on hand" for April was less than a million pounds. In former months this year it ranged from nine to twenty-two millions.

"POPULAR" BOOKS ABOUT CORPORATION AFFAIRS.

SEVERAL books on finance and business have lately appeared in more "popular" and widely intelligible form than would have been thought advisable only a few years ago.

A monumental legal work, yet so clear as to be of benefit to the managers of every corporation, large or small, is Machen's¹ summary of the modern law of corporations.

The topics are practical ones,—how to issue stocks, create mortgages, decide the liabilities and disabilities of directors, and so on for more than two thousand pages. No space is given to the law of corporation vs. public, State, or Constitution. In its field, the book is the broadest, most inclusive, and helpful that we have seen.

Any director, for instance, of any company can here, without previous legal knowledge, learn his responsibilities, and what constitutes "negligence" and what does not,—as in supervising the accounts of his bookkeeper and other clerks. The legal authorities in support of each concise statement are given at length for the reference of the profession. And the chapters on "Bonds and Mortgages" could be read with profit by every careful investor.

Last month was born a new general investment reference work, "Gibson's Manual,"² compact, and offered at a lower price than most manuals. It is peculiarly handy from the point of view of quick reference to the history of earnings, dividends, and prices of the most widely handled stocks.

Another manual, older, but last re-appearing for the most part in new Stevens' "Copper Handbook" for This has become the standard of wherever copper mines are worked vested in. The first 267 pages are clopedia of copper, its uses, geologic mineralogy, with tables of statistic bulk of the book is an alphabetical mining companies,—6767 in number

Above all, the work is frank,— ingly so. The plain-spoken remarks eral hundred companies pronounced lent or incompetent, or both, will an investor his money if read in tim interesting that seven preceding ed this work have appeared without a l

Not a manual, but a commen- genious, painstaking, and authoritati bulkier "Analyses of Railroad Invest by John Moody, also published las This is the first of what proposes series of annual numbers, revised up

It is by far the completest book o —really an appraisal of American stocks, bonds, and notes from the of their holders, sellers, and purcha

It will be a guide to all recipie nearly \$800,000,000 paid annually railroads in the form of interest a dends,—a sum equal to almost \$10 a every American man, woman, and ch

This sum, however, is less than 5 on the total invested capital.

By the expedient, simple but enta mense labor, of reducing every ir item of income and expense to a basis, the author provides direct com as to safety of principal and interest all the bonds and stocks of more t American railroads, involving 90 j of the stock capitalization of the to 000 miles in this country.

The bond ratings are unique fo of this character. Though of merely opinions, they come from o soundest sources, and have the merit presented along with the facts that to them.

As to bonds, it is remarkable tl erick Lownhaupt's recent work on ment Bonds"⁵ is reported to be continuous and adequate book on ject. Treatment of such a broad fi be general in a work so brief.) Lownhaupt has displayed accuracy : ciseness. To get the "swing" of curity, and to remove prejudices

¹ Machen on Corporations. By Arthur W. Machen, Jr., of the Baltimore Bar. Little, Brown. 2 vols., octavo. Law canvas. 2032 pp. \$12.

² Gibson Pub. Co. 9 x 11½. 401 pp. \$5.

³ Horace J. Stevens, Houghton, Mich. Octavo. 1500 pp. \$5.

⁴ Analyses Pub. Co. 9 x 11½. 551 pp. \$12.50.

⁵ Putnam, Octavo. 249 pp. \$1.75.

against any one issue or variety, a reading of this work is recommended to the business man, banker, or investor.

THE INVESTMENTS OF A COLLEGE.

MANAGERS of funds for education, other trustees, and all investors indeed, can see how the thing ought to be done by reading the latest report of the treasurer of Amherst College.

The endowment of some \$1,800,000,—small compared with many other institutions, for instance,—has been divided among no less than 165 stocks, bonds, and notes, besides savings bank deposits and ten different pieces of real estate.

Only half a dozen securities showed losses, —an elevator bond, the stocks of two national banks and an investment company being paid off in instalments; another investment company stock, a water bond, and a telephone bond.

Only half a dozen of the rest were not income producing,—two railroad bonds in default, probably temporary, and four stocks, two of them in new manufacturing enterprises not yet dividend paying.

The selections have benefited by the experience of Amherst alumni distinguished in finance. Otherwise the result would not have been so fortunate of the purchase of forty-one railroad bonds, many yielding 5 and even 6 per cent.

Even more striking is the record of the forty-three miscellaneous bonds held, only one of which is now in reorganization. These range from local mill bonds to power bonds in the Rocky Mountains and coal bonds in Mexico.

For the rest, three State bonds, six water bonds, sixteen different notes, and ten different real estate properties (half of them income producing), fifteen national bank stocks, nine manufacturing stocks, twenty railroad stocks (all "high" producers, by the way), and half a dozen "miscellaneous," reflect an accurate understanding of the distribution principle.

At the time many of the railroad bonds were bought they were by no means the standard seasoned propositions they now are. Other contemporary bonds have, indeed, fallen by the way. It might have been less fortunate for the college if its money had gone into one group of railroads, or the railroads of one section,—or into railroad securities exclusively.

STOCKS AND "GUARANTEES"

PERHAPS the majority who do not get what they want out of Wall Street do not know what they want.

Last month, when the Supreme Court decided the long-argued "Commodities Clause," there was excitement in the stocks of several coal-transporting roads,—principally in Reading. Dollars were marked on and off its price in so many minutes. Conservative newspaper readers shook their heads again over the fluctuations of "Wall Street stocks."

But another stock, whose holders get their dividend checks from the treasurer of the self-same corporation, was not affected at all. In fact, during the entire slump in prices from the "high" of 1906 to the "low" of 1907, it changed only \$12 a share! It has already recovered most of that drop, and was lately quoted at \$62 per share of \$50 par value. At that price it pays the purchaser 4.4 per cent.

In this same period, the other stock of the same company, "Reading common," fell \$94 a share, New York Central \$67, Chicago & Northwestern \$115, Northern Pacific \$132, and so on.

The steady stock is the Mine Hill and Schuylkill Haven, guaranteed by the Reading, and used here as a good example of its class.

The word "guarantee" is flung around so loosely,—especially by the irresponsible promoters who so easily "guarantee 50 per cent. dividends within a year,"—that it has no exact meaning to the public; unfortunately so, because the real "guaranteed stock" ranks with sound bonds, and has the particular convenience of coming in \$100, and sometimes, \$50 pieces.

A "guarantee," in finance, is the undertaking of one person to be responsible for the debts of another. Thus it is a legal impossibility, as so often stated, that a company "guarantees" so much per cent. on *its own* stock.

But as the big American railroad systems were formed, many a smaller road was taken over on lease, through a guarantee of a certain dividend on its stock by the central company.

Obviously, the worth of a guarantee depends on two things,—the ability of the company that does the guaranteeing, and the value to it of the smaller company.

With the Schuylkill stock, both factors are

high. The Reading has good credit. Its three classes of stock, which receive their dividend only after the checks are sent for the Schuylkill stock, are appraised in the open market at about \$170,000,000. And the Schuylkill Haven, with only 136 miles of total track, contains nevertheless an essential part of the main line of its twenty-times bigger lessor, through the rich coal fields between Mauch Chunk and Shamokin. So no one doubts the fulfillment of the Reading Company's lease of the road for 999 years from 1896.

Here, then, is an opportunity for \$62 or multiples thereof, combining valuable privileges. The investor's money never comes due. He nor his heirs will never have to reinvest. There are no coupons to tear off; checks are regularly mailed to any address indicated.

Any one of seventy-five more guaranteed stocks are frequently quoted in the papers. A dozen brokers are always ready to sell, and, what is more important, to buy a share or more of them at a price reasonably close to the last quotation,—knowing they can be quickly turned over to old-fashioned investors, or to some insurance company, college, or hospital.

The pick of such stocks, like Morris & Essex, guaranteed by the Lackawanna, and Old Colony, guaranteed by the New Haven, yield little over $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Of the latter, \$12,000,000, for instance, is held by New Englanders, who average only 22 shares apiece. They die, but rarely sell.

There are plenty of higher yields. One is from the Manhattan Elevated stock, guaranteed by the New York subway company,—about 5 per cent. Yet the subway company is paying 9 per cent. on its own stock.

All guaranteed stocks are tax free in New York, Connecticut, and Rhode Island. Several are tax free in other States.

THE SWING OF BOND PRICES.

THE merchant, the salesman, and the trader all may welcome last month's activity in "middle" class bonds. It shows the confidence of the capitalists, people who are apt to see things first. Three millions of French money has just gone into a trolley line near Spokane. The financial papers are full of offerings, many highly successful, of bonds to improve not only power companies, water works, and other "utilities," but ice, lumber, and many industrial concerns.

Less than a year and a half ago, the first financial comment appeared in the magazine, the country was of financial fright. It was agreed by the best informed, and stated often in the columns, that the best place for money was in the best bonds.

By last month the price movement had reversed itself. Several of the most prominent bankers, with the best reputations for conservatism, were going out before they leap, were going out as favoring the middle class bonds,—the offerings of the well-managed electric trolley company, or the prosperous railroad, which average perhaps 5 per cent.

By no means was this intended to commend bonds of inferior safety to those dependent on the income, or their yield. They might profit by choosing short-term notes of safety equal to the long-term "savings bank" bonds. In one to five years when the former come due, there are more favorable opportunities of buying the latter. Yet these are nowhere near the highest price for ten years past,—up to their January, 1902, price.

Take three typical gilt-edge first class bonds, 4 per cent., representing old road bonds: Atchison, B. & O., and C., B. & N. In January, 1908, they were at about 95, 96, 97 respectively. They average a couple of points a year. Here is a difference of six per cent. principal of the most gilt-edged American railroad securities, in less than a year and a half.

Now few private investors want a 4 per cent. bond which costs them more than 5 per cent. par. It is the big institutions,—trust companies, savings banks, and others, who have no alternative is to lend money at $1\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.,—who purchase such securities, and get them only $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. perhaps.

The lesson is a wide one. The earnings of trolley lines for 1908 were 10 per cent. in these columns last month. The earnings of a small railroad, which like the trolley bonds sell on a basis of 5 per cent. so, may be equally desirable for the business or professional man, who can furnish a higher income from a certain amount of an investor's capital.

Such bonds can be found which are not because there is less behind them than the portion, but because they are less known. This does not unfit them for permanent investment,—provided the person to whom they are known are the right people.

A FEW REPRESENTATIVE NOVELS OF THE SEASON.

IT is perhaps not easy to write a story of American life,—of life in the twentieth century Chicago,—which shall be pre-eminently and almost exclusively a love story with subordinate interests so minor that they only serve to emphasize the "love" quality of the tale. Yet this is what Susan Glaspell has done in "The Glory of the Conquered."¹ It is the story of the kind of love that changes the face of the world, that overrides the impossible, and that lifts defeat into victory. There is something unusually appealing about the scientific



SUSAN GLASPELL.
(Author of "The Glory of the Conquered.")

professor at the university and his artist wife, whose noble passion lifts the story, despite some faults of style, into the class of great novels.

Just a few weeks before her death Elinor Macartney Lane read the last proofs of her novel "Katrine,"² the first she had published

¹The Glory of the Conquered. By Susan Glaspell. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company. 376 pp. \$1.50.

²Katrine. By Elinor Macartney Lane. Harpers. 315 pp., ill. \$1.50.

since her brilliant story, "Nancy Stair," which appeared some years ago. "Katrine" is really a romance of a woman's triumph and a man's awakening to the stern realities of life. It is beautifully told, and the viewpoint throughout the book is an exalted one.

It is seldom, we think, that the story of a woman's whole life, from childhood through to its natural end, is conceived in such a big way and carried out with such dramatic intensity as Miss Alice Brown has done in her "Story of Thyrsa."³ This little New England girl of appealing originality, with an ambitious thirst for knowledge, suffers in her early girlhood a tragic and terrible wrong. This, however, only serves to strengthen her character, and the story leaves her developed through trial and sorrow into a noble woman of a peculiar and original charm to the reader.

Another of René Bazin's sweet, wholesome stories of rural France which has recently been issued is "This, My Son"⁴ ("Les Noëliets"). It is a slightly new, attractive version of the old theme of the difference of attitude toward life of father and son. The new generation scorns the old, and having gone its own way comes back to the old folks for the comfort afforded by the old ideals. The translation is by Dr. A. S. Rappoport, and is very smoothly done.

To give a book vogue in this country no farther commendation is needed than the statement that it was written by the author of "Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch." Mrs. Rice's new story, "Mr. Opp,"⁵ became famous as a magazine serial, and was in great demand from the day of its issue in book form. "Mr. Opp" is a Kentuckian of varied experience, unlimited but ineffective ambition, unselfish devotion to others, and a quaint manner of speech,—a combination of characteristics such as never before appeared in fiction, we venture to say. Whether any "Mr. Opps" have ever crossed the stage of real life we are not prepared either to affirm or deny, but nine readers out of ten will be convinced, we feel sure, that such apparently futile lives are after all worth while.

"The Hand-Made Gentleman"⁶ is another "Eben Holden," as regards the types from which the principal characters are drawn, the environment (rural New York), and the homely dialect and humor. Mr. Bachelier's hand has not lost its cunning; the new story is quite as effective as anything that the author has done. All the people in it are Americans,—not emancipated from their native crudities and provincialisms, but thoroughly typical of a generation that has passed off the stage.

³The Story of Thyrsa. By Alice Brown. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 327 pp. \$1.35.

⁴This, My Son. By René Bazin. Scribners. 307 pp. \$1.25.

⁵Mr. Opp. By Alice Hegan Rice. Century Company. 326 pp., ill. \$1.

⁶The Hand-Made Gentleman. By Irving Bachelier. Harpers. 332 pp. \$1.50.

A FEW REPRESENTATIVE NOVELS OF THE SEAS

A novel of undeniable power is "The Inner Shrine,"¹ but even if it were of mediocre quality the circumstances connected with its appearance would soon have placed it among the season's "best sellers." Anonymous novels are rarely published in this country, and the fact that this one first appeared as a serial in a leading magazine attracted to it an unusual amount of attention. "The Inner Shrine" is an international novel, its scene being shifted from Paris to New York. The heroine is the French wife of a young American resident of Paris, whose death, early in the story, leads to a series of incidents marking a remarkable transformation (for it is nothing less) in the character of his widow. The plot is skillfully developed, and the style serves to heighten the interest of the narrative. The critics seem inclined to ascribe the authorship to a woman.

Mr. Charles Belmont Davis, author of "The Stage Door," has a well-developed gift as a



ALICE HEGAN RICE.

(Whose new novel, "Mr. Opp," has just appeared.)

writer of short stories,—a gift that is displayed to advantage in a volume of magazine tales entitled "The Lodger Overhead and Others."² Mr. Davis seems to enjoy placing his heroines in difficult and unconventional situations, from which he extricates them with unvarying success. Occasionally the proprieties get a jolt, but serious disaster is always averted.

The two mystery stories of the spring are the work of women,—"The Man in Lower Ten,"³ by Mary Roberts Rinehart, and "Love's

Privilege,"⁴ by Stella M. Durr are exceedingly ingenious. To refer in their proper sequence the intellect of a Sherlock Holmes reader will weary in the attempt "The Man in Lower Ten" "Privilege," this is the story that



ALICE BROWN.

(Who has won much praise for "The Story of Thyrs")

dollar prize in a Chicago newspaper. About 3500 solutions of the riddle were offered, of which only about one hundred were even approximately correct.

A certain dash and daring makes attractive even the dark, wild disorder, the lust of political violence of human sex love, in the treatment given by Mr. Justin McCarthy to a number of the famous, orators of the city republics during the Middle Ages in Italy. The "Gorgeous Borgias,"⁵ is a vignette of the wild disorder, the lust of political violence of human sex love, in which stands the desperado, whose father was Pope Alexander VI. McCarthy knows how to tell a story with considerable allowance for the characters leave in the mouth of the tale itself is a good one.

Variety of scene, sympathetic and shrewd psychological insight c

¹ The Inner Shrine. Harpers. 365 pp. \$1.50

² The Lodger Overhead and Others. By Charles Belmont Davis. Scribners. 370 pp., ill. \$1.50.

³ The Man in Lower Ten. By Mary Roberts Rinehart. Bobbs-Merrill. 372 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁴ Love's Privilege. By Stella M. Durr. Harpers. 375 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁵ The Gorgeous Borgias. By Justin McCarthy. Harpers. 324 pp. \$1.50.



J. J. BELL.

(Whose novel, "Whither Thou Goest," is in the same vein as his preceding book, "Wee Macgregor.")

"Dromina"¹ a very entertaining tale. The author, John Ayscough, has made a marvelous combination of French kings, bands of gypsies, Irish priests and peasants, popes and cardinals, and representatives of noble houses of France and Italy.

"Whither Thou Goest,"² the latest romance of the author of "Wee Macgregor" (J. J. Bell), is full of that genial humor and kindly philosophy applied to things of everyday life that made his other stories so attractive. A rather naive, unselfish girl, a quaint Scotch character whom the reader cannot fail to like, receives late in life the "heart benediction" of a man's love, which, however, brings with it a great sorrow. The life of this girl is the story.

Marion Crawford's posthumous story, "The White Sister,"³ is typical of the novelist's work. The tale takes up the fortunes of Saracinesca, a hero known to readers of Mr. Crawford's earlier story to which his name was given and now become a grave and reverend monsignor of the Holy Church. "The White Sister" reveals even more distinctly than his former novels the author's intimate knowledge of the Roman Catholic Church and the workings of its institutions.

A swiftly moving story of the Pacific North-

¹ Dromina. By John Ayscough. Putnam. 477 pp. \$1.50.

² Whither Thou Goest. By J. J. Bell. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company. 364 pp. \$1.20.

³ The White Sister. By Francis Marion Crawford. Macmillan. 335 pp. \$1.50.

west in the 50's of the past century, with its heroine the daughter of an American soldier and a Yakima Indian maiden, is Ada Woodruff Anderson's tale, "The Strain of White."⁴ There ought to be a special news interest just now in this spirited account of the Puget Sound country and the plains of the upper Colorado, culminating as it does in the account of an Indian attack on the city of Seattle.

There is undoubtedly more truth than is pleasant in Mr. David Graham Phillips' latest novel, "The Fashionable Adventures of Joshua Craig."⁵ Mr. Phillips' view of American society in this book, as in other preceding ones, is unrelenting. He portrays Joshua Craig as a bull-in-the-china-shop young Westerner, uncouth and unconventional, who by sheer force of physical strength and will wins the office and the woman he wants. The story is more vigorous than entertaining.

Another strong story of Dartmoor is Mr. Phillipotts' "Three Brothers."⁶ While perhaps not so strong in its literary handling as his preceding works, this story is worthy of Mr. Phillipotts' reputation. In it we have the village life with its love-making, its tragedies, and all the quaint philosophy and gossip of the village folk

JOHN AYSCOUGH.
(Author of "Dromina.")

which has always charmed us in the novels by this author.

Judging by his work up to the present, Leonid Andreyev is a story-teller whose power and

⁴ The Strain of White. By Ada Woodruff Anderson. Little, Brown & Co. 300 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁵ The Fashionable Adventures of Joshua Craig. By David Graham Phillips. D. Appleton & Co. 365 pp., ill. \$1.50.

⁶ The Three Brothers. By Eden Phillipotts. Macmillan. 480 pp. \$1.50.

keenness of analysis entitle him to be spoken of with Tolstoi, Turgeniev, and Dostoyevski. The first long story by this Russian novelist to be translated into English, "The Seven Who Were Hanged,"¹ had already created a literary and political sensation in Russia. It is a powerful study of seven persons, two of them women, who have been condemned to death for connection with revolutionary disturbances. It is, of course, a protest against the reign of terror in Russia, but it is also a powerful indictment of capital punishment. Andreyev's style is marked by vigorous, appealing sympathy. The translation, by Herman Bernstein, seems to be very well done.

The scene of Judge Grant's new story, "The Chippendales,"² is laid in Boston. Like the author's earlier novels, it analyzes modern American society mercilessly and fascinates the reader by the intensity of its realism. The action is dramatic and the plot convincing. Because it is a study of real people its humor is appealing and its grasp of human frailties both amusing and instructive.

A breezy, alert story of love, adventure, and revolution in a Latin-American republic is Mr. Richard Harding Davis' latest novel, "The White Mice."³ A typical American youth, son of a millionaire father, gets himself mixed up in a revolution and a love affair at the same time and, incidentally, makes us thoroughly like him and the girl for whom he performs such prodigies of valor.

¹ The Seven Who Were Hanged. By Leonid Andreyev. New York: Oglvie Publishing Company. 190 pp., por. \$1.

² The Chippendales. By Robert Grant. Scribners. 602 pp. \$1.50.

³ The White Mice. By Richard Harding Davis. Scribners. 309 pp., ill. \$1.50.



Courtesy of the N. Y. Times.

LEONID ANDREYEV.

(A translation of whose novel, "The Seven Who Were Hanged," has just been published in this country.)

OTHER RECENT BOOKS—BIOGRAPHY, TRAVEL, THE DRAMA.

BIOGRAPHY AND REMINISCENCE.

Of the writing of books about Walt Whitman,¹ there is apparently no end. Most of these, however, are so tinctured with prejudice, either for or against the subject, that it is refreshing to read the sober, sedate, and impartial appraisal given by Mr. George Rice Carpenter in his biography of the poet which has just appeared in the English Men of Letters series. There is a calmness about Mr. Carpenter's treatment of Whitman which is refreshing.

A welcome addition to the Lincolniana of the anniversary season is Mr. Francis Grierson's "Valley of Shadows,"² or, as he subtitles it, "Recollections of the Lincoln Country from 1858 to 1863." The volume is full of "stories" and personal incidents connected with Lincoln and Lincoln's country. Mr. Grierson, looking back as he does upon a long life of literary effort spent in both Europe and the United States,

cannot "withhold the greatest respect and admiration from the work done by the influential preachers and politicians of the ante-bellum days in Illinois," which "afterwards made for the spiritual side of life." It was out of these "silences" on the prairies, he maintains, that came "the voice of the great preacher and prophet" of the war of secession.

A useful biographical work, which tells the life-story of a remarkably versatile genius, is "The Life of Sir Isaac Pitman,"³ the inventor of phonography, which has just been completed by Alfred Baker. It may be said that slightly undue emphasis is laid upon minor incidents in the life of this inventor. The general story, however, was well worth telling. A series of appendices contains reproductions from some of Sir Isaac's early pamphlets and periodical works on the subject, besides including a bibliography of books on the subject of "shorthand."

Starting out with the intention of editing a

¹ Walt Whitman. By George R. Carpenter. Macmillan. 175 pp. 75 cents.

² The Valley of Shadows. By Francis Grierson. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 278 pp. \$2.

³ The Life of Sir Isaac Pitman. By Alfred Baker. New York: Isaac Pitman and Sons. 392 pp., ill. \$2.



SAINTE-BEUVE, THE GREATEST OF FRENCH CRITICS

(This portrait, an unusual one, appears as frontispiece to Professor Harper's recent critical biography.)

long-planned volume of recollections of Rossetti. Mr. Hall Caine gradually evolved a fascinating autobiography under the title of "My Story."¹ But he does more in this volume than lay bare the development of his own literary consciousness and the progress of his career as a writer. Mr. Caine gives us also a series of illuminating sidelights upon most of the best known characters of English fiction during the past half-century,—besides Rossetti, Dickens, Collins, Ruskin, Blackmore, Buchanan, Watts-Dunton, William Morris, Swinburne, Coleridge, Arnold, and Browning. All these he knew, and about all of them he tells us highly characteristic and interesting stories. We see his own development set forth from the days of his early youth in the Isle of Man to the days of affluence and world fame which have belonged now for a decade to the author of "The Manxman" and "The Christian."

There is a great deal that is stimulating to the literary taste as well as to the admiration for keen psychological analysis in almost everything that Mr. James Huneker writes,—quite in line with his preceding works, although perhaps even more subtle in his latest volume, which he has entitled "Egoists."² In this "Book of Supermen" we find keen analytical character sketches of Stendhal, Baudelaire, Flaubert, Anatole France, Huysmans, Barrès, Nietzsche, Blake, Ibsen, Stirner, and Ernest Hello,—all these masters standing for the individualistic idea.

A bulky volume, rather loosely put together,

¹ My Story. By Hall Caine. Appletons. 402 pp., ill. \$2.

² Egoists: A Book of Supermen. By James Huneker. Scribners. 372 pp., ill. \$1.50.

on the celebrities of Irish history,³ edited by Thomas W. H. Fitzgerald, contains a popular history of ancient and modern Ireland, with biographical notices of celebrated characters of Irish birth or extraction. There are excellent full-page portraits of the characters considered.

The most striking fact in the long perspective of Spanish history, we are informed by Miss Clara Crawford Perkins, in her two-volume history, "The Builders of Spain,"⁴ is that "the Spanish native stock has produced no rulers, and that from even before the dawn of history it has been continuously ruled by alien peoples who have successively stamped their own individuality upon it." These volumes are copiously illustrated with portraits and views. They divide up the history of Spanish civilization into four great periods, all of them under non-native Spanish rulers,—Rome, 206 B. C. to 477 A. D.; the Visigoths, 477 to 711; the Arabs and Moors, 711 to 1492; and the Christian kings (of French, Austrian, and other foreign blood), 1492 to the present.

It has come to be recognized that Sainte-Beuve⁵ was not only one of the "intellectual triumvirate of modern France" (sharing honors with Taine and Renan), but that he was one of the very greatest literary critics, in the broad sense, of the world's entire literature. A comprehensive statement of the man and his methods in brief compass cannot fail to be useful and valuable to students of literature and the general



SIR ISAAC PITMAN.

(A biography of the inventor of shorthand has been published recently.)

³ Ireland and Her People. Vol. I. By Thomas W. H. Fitzgerald. Chicago: Fitzgerald Book Company. 430 pp., ill.

⁴ Builders of Spain. By Clara Crawford Perkins. Holt. 2 vols., 616 pp., ill. \$5.

⁵ Sainte-Beuve. By George McLean Harper. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 389 pp., por. \$1.50

A FEW REPRESENTATIVE NOVELS OF THE SEASON

reader. Dr. George McLean Harper, professor of English literature at Princeton, who has been at work for some time on a series of works on French literature, has in this study of Sainte-Beuve given us a compact and coherent analysis. In his preceding work, "Masters of French Literature," Dr. Harper gave an excellent foundation for a study of the literature of the French republic.

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

There always seems to be room for another book on Ireland, particularly on travel in the Emerald Isle. Sooner or later it was to be expected that William Eleroy Curtis would give us a book on Ireland and the Irish. In the



EMPRESS ISABELLA, WIFE OF CHARLES V.

(From the painting by Titian. This queen, says Clara C. Perkins, in her "Builders of Spain," was the most beautiful Portuguese lady of history.)

volume, "One Irish Summer,"¹ which is so entertainingly written and capably illustrated, Mr. Curtis discourses pleasantly and informingly upon the well-known features of Irish life and scenery, and relates many pleasant little instances of personal experience.

Three years' residence in Mexico and many long horseback tours over all sections of the republic have furnished the basis for Mr. Stanton Davis Kirkham's "Mexican Trails."² Special attention is paid to the Mexican Indian, whose life has excited the admiration of Mr. Kirkham. The volume is illustrated from original photographs by the author.

¹ One Irish Summer. By William E. Curtis. New York: Duffield & Co. 482 pp., ill. \$3.50.

² Mexican Trails. By Stanton Davis Kirkham. Putnam. 293 pp., ill. \$1.75.



BRIAN BORU, FIRST KING OF

(From an old print, frontispiece to "Her People." This represents the king after his victory at Clontarf.)



STENDHAL (HENRY BEYLE)

(From a crayon portrait by Edouard Manet as a frontispiece to James Huneker's "Stendhal.")



HERZEGOVINIAN WOMEN AT A BAKER'S SHOP IN RAGUSA.

(Frontispiece to "The Shores of the Adriatic.")

A useful little brochure for American travelers in Italy is Sr. Tombolini Luigi's "Sistine Chapel."¹ Every traveler who has visited the Eternal City knows the difficulties experienced in understanding the arrangements and system in the famous Sistine Chapel. This little booklet, by a critic and guide of many years' experience, cannot fail to be useful even to those who devote but a passing half-hour to the great chapel of Renaissance art.

Travelers and students who are interested in that marvelous, unfamiliar region on the east shore of the Adriatic Sea will find a great deal that is new and fascinating in Mr. F. Hamilton Jackson's book, "The Shores of the Adriatic."² The striking things in medieval survival in custom and costume, much of the finest of the scenery, architecture, and decorative arts, are pictured from photograph and sketch in this attractive volume, which devotes itself exclusively to the Austrian side, including Istria and Dalmatia. The volume is complementary to that dealing with the Italian side which was published a year or more ago.

On an isolated estate in north Italy there lived for many years during the past century the widowed Countess Pisani, "a woman of exceptional brilliancy, beauty, and charm,—a loving and vital presence." A constant visitor to this estate was Margaret Symonds (Mrs. W. W.

¹ The Sistine Chapel. By Tombolini Luigi, Rome. 103 pp., 50 cents.

² The Shores of the Adriatic. Vol. II. By F. Hamilton Jackson. Dutton, 420 pp., \$6.

Vaughan), daughter of John Addington Symonds, and the story of the economic struggle of Countess Pisani to make a living from the "Doge's Farm"³ was told in a small volume issued some time ago under the title "The Doge's Farm." A new and enlarged edition of the book, with many artistic illustrations, has just appeared.

An engaging description of a journey across the continent of Africa, with some pictures based on photographs, is told by Mr. John M. Springer in his book, "The Heart of Central Africa."⁴ There is an introduction to this volume by Bishop J. C. Hartzell.

Apparently there is always room for another book about the art history of Siena.⁵ Mr. Ferdinand Schevill, however, has given us something more than an art history in his recently issued volume, which he has sub-titled "The Story of a Medieval Commune." Siena of the Middle Ages, he tells us, in spite of its narrow limits, was a nation, and "had a distinctive soul as certainly as any nation which plays a rôle on the political stage of our own day."



ALVISE PISANI, DOGE OF VENICE.

(From an old painting reproduced as frontispiece to Margaret Symonds' book, "Days Spent on a Doge's Farm.")

"The Playground of Europe,"⁶ by Sir Leslie Stephen, now appears for the first time with an

³ Days Spent on a Doge's Farm. By Margaret Symonds. Century Company, 288 pp., ill., \$2.50.

⁴ The Heart of Central Africa. By John M. Springer. Cincinnati: Jennings & Graham, 223 pp., ill., \$1.

⁵ Siena. By Ferdinand Schevill. Scribners, 432 pp., ill., \$2.50.

⁶ The Playground of Europe. By Leslie Stephen. Putnam, 267 pp., ill., \$1.50.

A FEW REPRESENTATIVE NOVELS OF THE SEAS

American publisher's imprint. This work has long been recognized as foremost among the many attempts at Alpine description in the English language. If the gifted author had ever climbed some of the loftier peaks of the Western Hemisphere, he would, we may be sure, have written an account of the experience that would be worth reading; for he is a true mountaineer as well as a master of delightful English.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

The viewpoint of Mr. Percy MacKaye's writings on the drama ("The Playhouse and the Play"¹) is not the usual one. Mr. MacKaye does not think of the problems of the drama as



THE TAMINA GORGE AT RAGATZ.

(Frontispiece, reduced, of "The Playground of Europe.")

primarily questions of dramatic art; he regards them rather as questions which concern the opportunities for dramatic art properly to exist and to mature. In other words, so far as the drama in America is concerned, these questions are primarily civic questions. The end toward which Mr. MacKaye is working is the building up of a permanently endowed theatrical institution, dedicated solely to dramatic art as a civic agency in the democracy. The present volume seeks to clear the ground for such a work. It discusses general principles, leaving the elaboration of the structure to later consideration.

Mr. Walter Prichard Eaton,² dramatic critic of the *New York Sun*, has gathered up in a single volume many criticisms of recent stage productions which he has contributed to that

¹ *The Playhouse and the Play*. By Percy MacKaye. Macmillan. 210 pp. \$1.25.

² *The American Stage of To-day*. By Walter Prichard Eaton. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 338 pp. \$1.50.



"YOUNG AFRICA."

(From a photograph taken by J. and reproduced in his book, "The Africa.")

journal. Many of the plays that to be popular favorites during the find in these pages sympathetic.

An American engineer, Mr. Y hard,³ had thought it worth while book to the subject of the safety from fire and panic, as well as their comfort and sanitation, practical suggestions which, if construction of our American play undoubtedly add greatly to the goers, to say nothing of the heroes and audiences.

The steady progress of the Shakespearean literature was rudely weeks since by Mark Twain's chure, "Is Shakespeare Dead? strictly the Baconian argument of the considerations argued will the adherents of the Baconian theories of their contention. Mr. not go so far as to assert that known as Shakespeare's were Francis Bacon, but he holds that

³ *Theaters: Their Safety from Their Comfort and Healthfulness*. Gerhard. New York: Published by pp. \$1.

⁴ *Is Shakespeare Dead?* By M pers. 150 pp. \$1.25.

REDRES

Van de
Abuyfen ende Faulken in de
Colonie van Bentstelaers-wijck.



AMSTERDAM.

Gedrukt by Thunis Iacobz, Woonende in de Wolbe-
 Straet in de Wijk van Josephus/ Anno 1643.

TITLE PAGE OF AN OLD BROCHURE, SHOWING DUTCH
 SHIP.

(Reproduced from "The Story of New Netherland,"
 by William Elliot Griffis.)

have been written by the native of Stratford whom we know as Shakespeare, and that the one man of the time who may be believed to have possessed the ability to write them was Bacon. The argument abounds in humor, but is not for that reason the less convincing.

Although Mark Twain makes much of the fact that the world has been in ignorance from Shakespeare's time to our own regarding the events of his life, Mr. Sidney Lee has written an elaborate "Life of William Shakespeare,"¹ based upon the most scholarly research, in which he seriously proceeds upon the assumption that the author of the plays was the Stratford Shakespeare and that the facts of his life are all interesting for that reason. In the new edition of this life, just published, Mr. Lee sets forth certain newly discovered references to Shakespeare which he deems of great importance. Of course, the vast majority of the students of the Bard of Stratford, of whom there are many both in this country and in England, will accept Mr. Lee's conclusions; but whether they be accepted

¹ A Life of William Shakespeare. By Sidney Lee. Macmillan. 495 pp., ill. \$2.25.

or not, it is an important service to have arranged in this orderly way practically all the evidences that we have of the existence of such a personality.

In the series known as the "Old Spelling Shakespeare," we now have the play "All's Well That Ends Well,"² edited by W. G. Boswell-Stone, with an introduction by Prof. F. W. Clarke. In this series the works of Shakespeare are presented in the spelling of the best quarto and folio text, the whole forming a portion of the Shakespeare Library, edited by Prof. I. Gollancz.

An extra volume of the Lamb Shakespeare for the Young is entitled "An Evening with Shakespeare,"³ comprising an entertainment of readings, tableaux, and songs set to the old tunes. This entertainment is suitable for performances by adults, as well as by children.

The Harpers have republished the late Algernon Charles Swinburne's papers on "King Lear," "Othello," and "Richard II."⁴ Swinburne held high rank, not only as a poet, but as a Shakespearean student. His criticisms of the plays of Shakespeare are original and of marked analytic power.

Accompanying the Temple Shakespeare⁵ there is a pocket lexicon and concordance, limited, however, to those words which, since Shakespeare's time, have fallen into disuse or undergone a change of meaning, together with others used by him which had more than one signification.

THE DUTCH IN AMERICA.

The approaching celebration of the Hudson tercentenary makes particularly interesting reading Dr. William Elliot Griffis' little volume on the Dutch in America.⁶ In his stimulating preface Dr. Griffis, who admittedly knows almost as much as there is to be known about Holland and the Dutch, tells us that "despite official documents, book titles, and memorial tablets" there never was any such place or state as the New Netherlands, no admiral named "van Tromp, no Dutch clergyman known as "Dominie," no word "schnapps" in the Dutchman's vocabulary. The earliest Dutchmen on this continent did not smoke tobacco, he tells us further, nor did they associate Santa Claus with Christmas. Moreover, they were not fat, nor old, nor stupid; but young, lithe, alert, and venturesome. And, finally, "not one of them ever pronounced the syllable 'dam' in 'Amsterdam' or 'Rotterdam,' as though he was swearing in English."

² All's Well That Ends Well. Edited by W. G. Boswell-Stone. New York: Duffield & Co., 94 pp. \$1.

³ An Evening with Shakespeare. By T. Maskell Hardy. New York: Duffield & Co. 119 pp., ill. 80 cents.

⁴ Three Plays of Shakespeare. By Algernon Charles Swinburne. Harpers. 85 pp. 75 cents.

⁵ A Pocket Lexicon and Concordance to the Temple Shakespeare. Macmillan. 274 pp., ill. 45 cents.

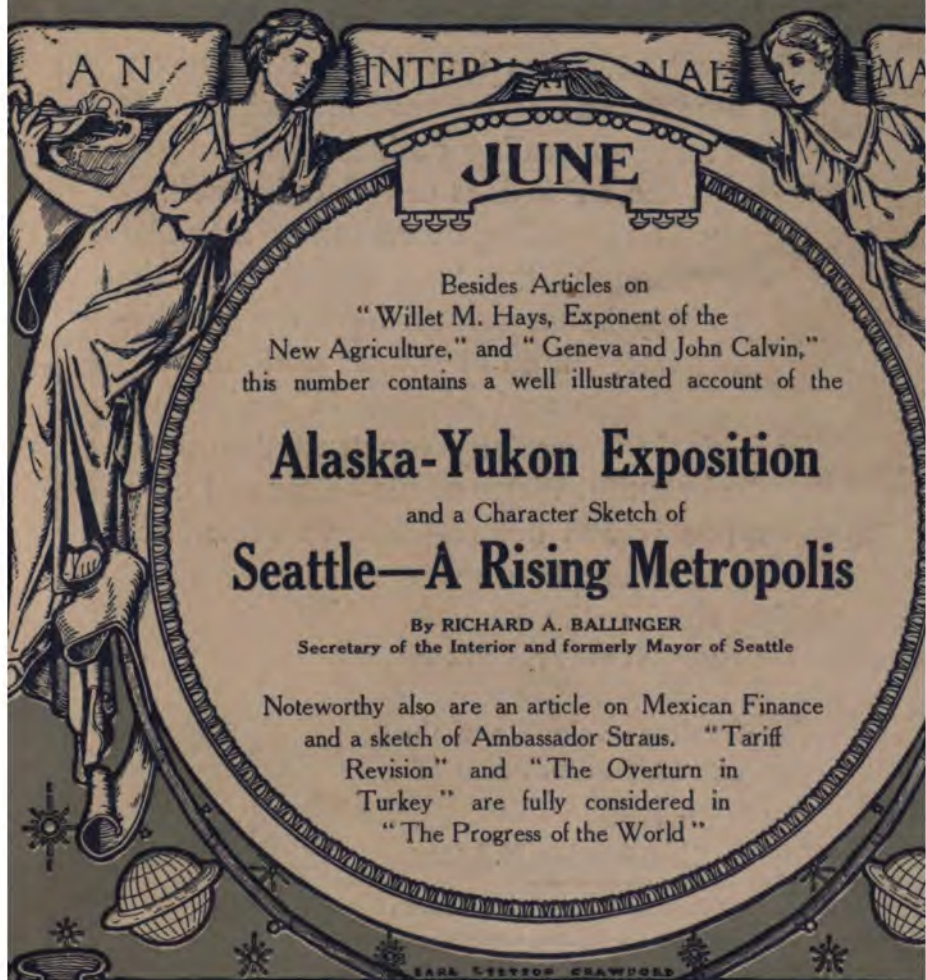
⁶ The Story of New Netherland. By William Elliot Griffis. Houghton Mifflin Company. 232 pp., ill. \$1.25.



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JUNE

Besides Articles on
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By RICHARD A. BALLINGER
Secretary of the Interior and formerly Mayor of Seattle

Noteworthy also are an article on Mexican Finance
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Revision" and "The Overturn in
Turkey" are fully considered in
"The Progress of the World"

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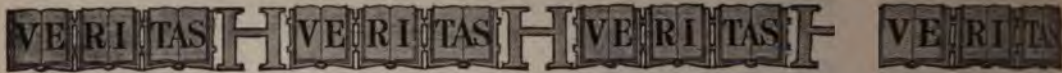
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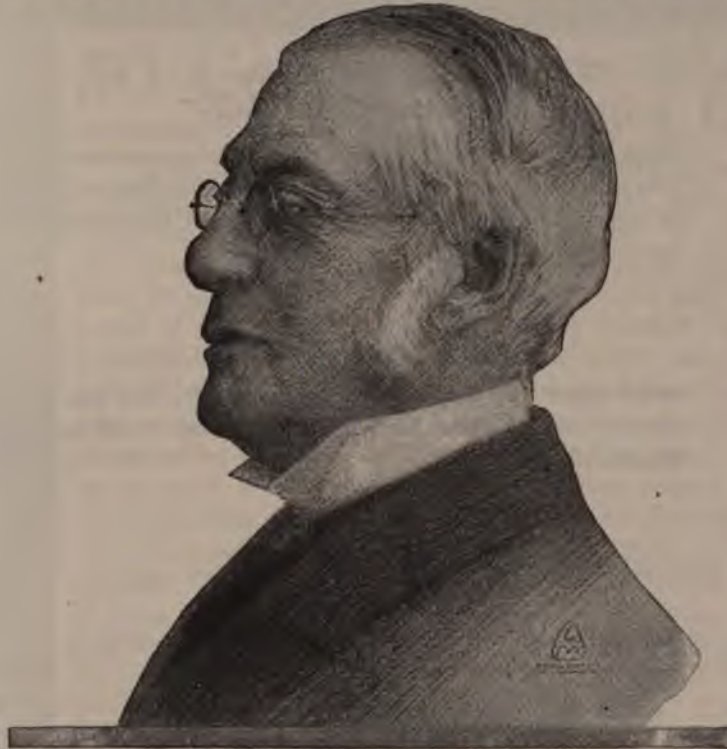
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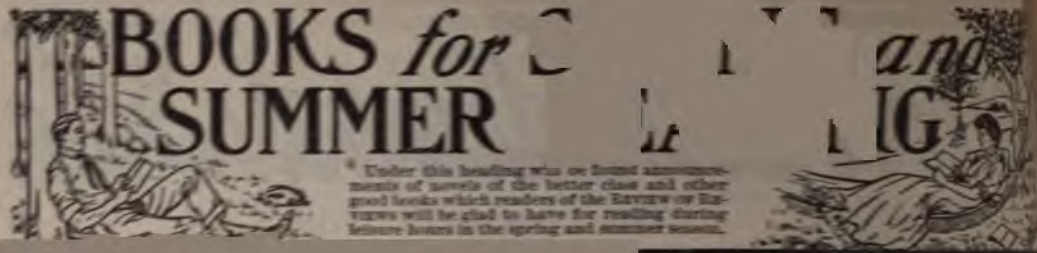
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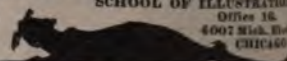
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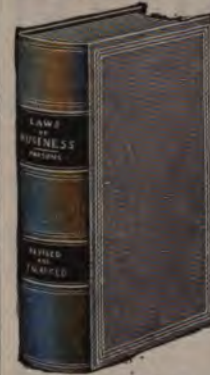
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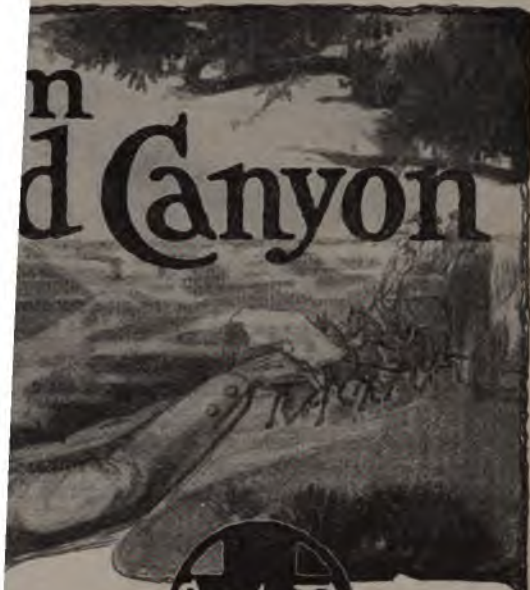
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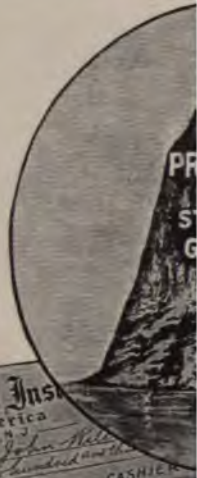
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To-day few people realize and value the influence of pleasant sounds. They are in a hurry to get up to the top of the page of sight. We get up to the top of the page and read ourselves to sleep with a magazine or novel. Hence the nervous trouble, restlessness, and unhappiness of the modern age are deafened by the roar and rush of modern civilization. We know little about the vibrations, and have less time to seek them.

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(The constructors of these mediæval instruments were the ancestors of the modern violin-makers. The body of the violin is a board,—the "soul" of the violin, as it is called,—the strangely cut-in "waists," queer sound

ATER THAN SCIENCE.

t dull workaday folks have been inspired to
t flights of imagination and sentiment by the
l whispering stillness of a summer night?

, The sounds that help are musical. The
e shortest way to get at their heart is to study
the soul of stringed instruments, the highest
e type used in music. This "soul" is the
e soundboard.

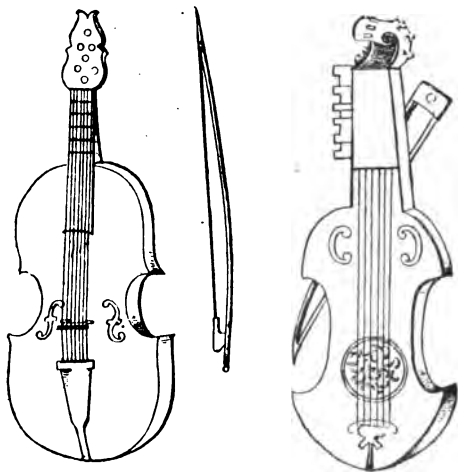
:- Pluck the finest wire or even gut string
s stretched between two ordinary posts. Then
e put it into a fine violin or piano and play it.

One operation produced but a twang; the
y other gives a thrilling tone. For it is mech-
e anism plus a "soul,"—a sounding board to
; vibrate in sympathy.

e Once the winged god Mercury stumbled
e on a tortoise-shell. The entrails of the beast
e had dried in the sun and twanged. Here was
:- the first soundboard. The inventive Greek
:- from this devised his lyre. So fable runs.

:- Certainly, the advantage of a sounding
o board made of *wood* was known to Pythag-
oras, in the sixth century before Christ. He
discovered the secret of vibrating a string
over a wooden board and changing its tune
e by means of a movable bridge. This was
about the same thing as the "monochord,"
a familiar during two thousand years more,
l. under one name or another.

o Pass on to the fifteenth century A. D.,
of when some bright troubadour or artisan dis-



IN,—ATTEMPTS THAT FAILED.

ents did not understand that the secret of the sound-
ano—lay in its *arch*, as well as its other curves. Hence
te. Contrast with the flowing lines of the Stradivarius.)

WHERE ART

Without the sounding board, the bass strings would simply buzz.

Now when they began to make America, in the days of the old the "sounding board" was liable to become concave to the strings convex, thereby ruining the tone.

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That question cannot be answered by the methods of Helmholtz, Tyndall, and many other renowned physicists have tried to reduce to a formula what happens when an air wave strikes a soundboard. The ingenious Chaldin got some light on the subject by putting fine sand on the surfaces, and watching its movement. He and his follower, Schofhaeuti, led by the immense guidance in the delicate arrangement of the diagonal ribs across the soundboard, and the bridges that carry the strings.

But the superiority of one soundboard over another is, after all, a matter of experience. Naturally, people who *have been* playing longest, most intelligently, and with the greatest freedom from consideration of expense, and with greatest love for those who excel.

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Isotta won the 25 mile Stock Car race at Glens Falls.

Isotta won the 100 mile race at Elkwood Park on a mile track. Car driven by A. J. Poole.

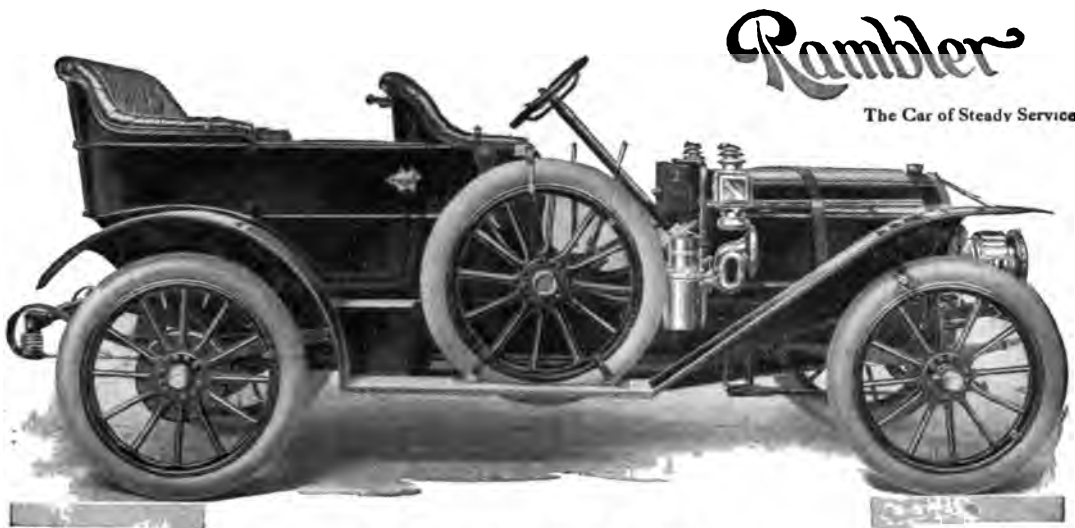
H.P. Isotta won the Stock Car race at Lowell, Mass., 250 miles per hour. Lewis Strang driving.

H.P. Isotta won the Motor Parkway Sweepstakes for stock cars averaging 64.5 miles per hour. A new American record was set by Lytle in this race. This record has since been beaten at Savannah, but still stands the American record for this race.

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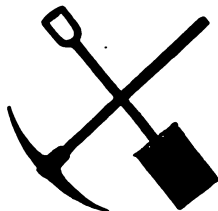
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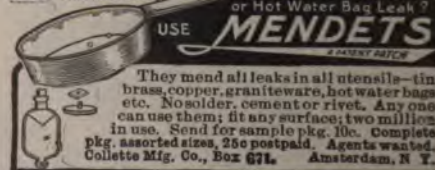
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Read and see for

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