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The Independent

A WEEKLY MAGAZINE

August 11, 1904

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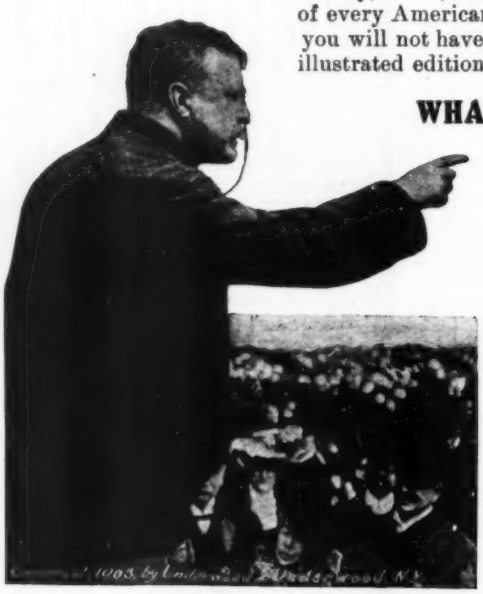

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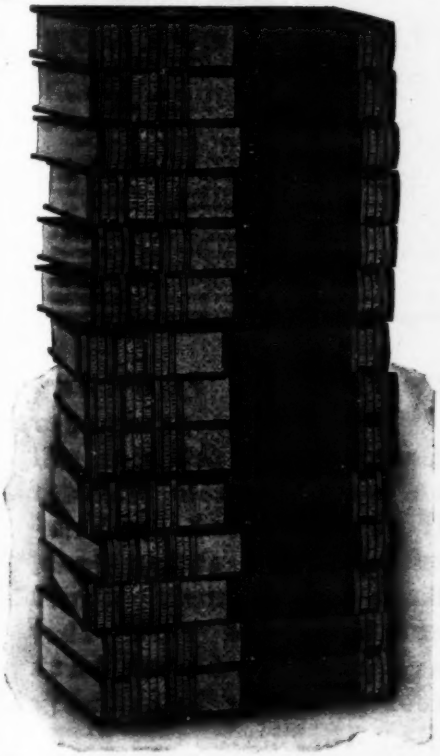

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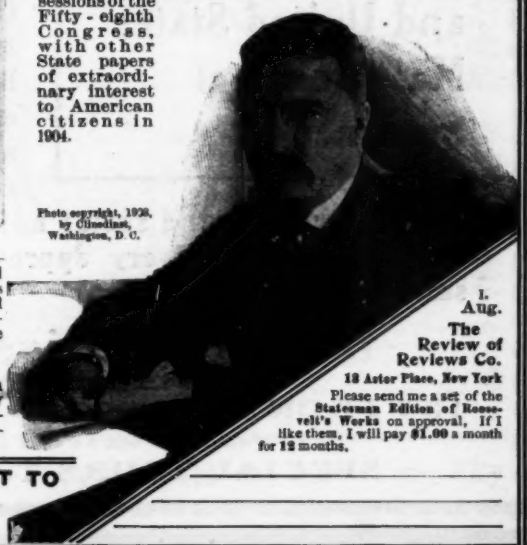

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Survey of the World

Senator Fairbanks Notified by Mr. Root

Formal notification of his nomination was given to Senator Fairbanks at his residence in Indianapolis on the 3d inst. by ex-Secretary Root and a committee. Mr. Root said that the nomination had not been the chance product of an excited hour. Nor had it been made for the purpose of conciliating possible malcontents or to swell the party's campaign fund. "No suppressions of the truth or misleading of the convention as to your principles and opinions were necessary to bring it about." Too often it had happened that the candidate for Vice-President had been selected from a faction defeated in an exciting contest for the first place, to appease their resentment, and that after election he had been antagonistic in spirit to the President; but such was not the case now. Speaking of the supreme responsibility of the Vice-President in case of succession to the Presidency, and pointing out that of the last twelve Presidents elected by the people five had died in office and been succeeded by Vice-Presidents, he directed attention to the serious obligation of a political party to nominate for this office a man having the strength of body and mind and character to enable him to endure the exhausting demands of the Presidential office and meet its great responsibilities:

"Our opponents of the Democratic party have signally failed to perform this duty. They have nominated as their candidate for the Vice-Presidency an excellent gentleman, who was born during the Presidency of James Monroe, and who before the 4th of March next will be in the eighty-second year of his age. Before the next Administration is ended he will be approaching his eighty-sixth birthday. It is no disparagement of this gentleman, for whom I believe we all have the highest respect, to say that he shares the common lot of mortals, and that the election of any man of such great age would furnish no safeguard to the American people against the disaster which would ensue upon the death of a President with a successor not competent to perform the duties of the Presidential office. It is common experience that very aged men, however bright and active they may appear for brief periods, cannot sustain long continued severe exertion. The demands of the Presidential office upon the mental and physical vitality are so great, so continuous and so exhausting as to be wholly beyond the capacity of any man of eighty-five.

"The attempt of such a man to perform the duties of the office would with practical certainty be speedily followed by a complete breakdown both of body and of mind."

As a "necessary result" of the election of Mr. Davis (in case of the President's death), "others, not chosen by the people, and we know not who, would govern in the name of a nominal successor unable himself to perform the Constitutional duties of his office; or, worse still," it might be "that serious doubt whether the Vice-President had not reached a condition of 'inability' within the meaning of the Constitution would throw the title to the office of President into dispute." On the other hand, Mr. Fairbanks was in the full strength of middle life, clearly possessing both the ability and the character to "govern wisely and strongly" if he should become President. In his brief response, the Senator expressed his approval of the monetary, economic and other policies of the platform. The party, he said, had never rendered a more important service to the country than when it established the gold standard; and it was gratifying that the convention had made frank and explicit

declaration of the party's inflexible purpose to maintain it:

"It is essential not only that the standard should be as good as the best in the world, but that the people should have the assurance that it will be so maintained. The enemies of sound money were powerful enough to suppress mention of the gold standard in the platform lately adopted by the Democratic national convention. The leader of the Democracy in two great national campaigns has declared, since the adjournment of the convention, that as soon as the election is over he will undertake to organize the forces within the Democratic party for the next national contest, for the purpose of advancing the radical policies for which his element of the party stands. He frankly says that the money question is for the present in abeyance. In view of these palpable facts, it is not the part of wisdom to abandon our vigilance in safeguarding the integrity of our money system. We must have not only a President who is unalterably committed to the gold standard, but both Houses of Congress in entire accord with him upon the subject."

The wisdom of the protective policy, he continued, found complete justification in the industrial development of the country. This policy must be maintained unimpaired. "When altered conditions make changes in the schedules desirable, their modification can be safely intrusted to the Republican party." The election of Mr. Roosevelt was "imperatively demanded by those whose success depends upon the continuance of a safe, conservative and efficient administration of public affairs." "The charges made against him in the Democratic platform," said the Senator, "find an irrefutable answer in his splendid administration, never surpassed in all the history of the republic, and never equaled by the party that seeks to discredit it."—Altho Mr. Root, in letters addressed to party leaders, has virtually declined to permit the use of his name in connection with the office of Governor of New York, there appears to be so urgent a demand for his nomination that he may not be able to resist it. On the other side there is talk about the possible nomination of Daniel S. Lamont, another ex-Secretary of War. Eugene A. Philbin, a Democrat, formerly District Attorney of New York, and Charles H. Leeds, the Democratic Mayor of Stamford, Conn., make known their purpose to vote for Mr. Roosevelt.—Some weeks ago an order was issued, assigning Brigadier-General Funston to the command of the Department of the East, with headquarters at New York. It has now been annulled. Brig.-Gen. Frederick D. Grant will take command at New York, and General Funston will go to Chicago. The assignment of the latter to the important Department of the East had excited some criticism.

Judge Parker Resigns

Judge Parker resigned the office of Chief Judge of the New York Court of Appeals on the 5th inst., after a brief session of the court, called at his request by a vote of a majority of the judges. Sixty-six decisions were handed down, and thus all the cases were completed in which his opinion and vote were required. A new Chief Judge will be appointed by Governor Odell, but will serve only until January 1st, for Judge Parker's successor will be elected in November. The names of the Executive Committee and other officers appointed by Chairman Taggart excite some interest, as indicating the influences now dominant in the management of the Democratic party. The members of the committee are William F. Sheehan (chairman), a lawyer interested as counsel and director in municipal lighting and railway corporations; August Belmont, the well-known banker, representing the Rothschilds and head of the New York Interborough Railway; John R. McLean, of Washington, owner of the Cincinnati *Enquirer;* Senator Martin, of Virginia; Col. J. M. Guffey, of Pennsylvania, owner of many coal mines and oil wells; ex-Senator James Smith, Jr., of New Jersey, banker and leather manufacturer; Timothy Ryan, lawyer, of Wisconsin. The vice-chairman is De Lancey Nicoll, formerly District Attorney of New York, and now counsel for prominent corporations, including the Consolidated Gas Company and Metropolitan Street Railway. George Foster Peabody, who takes the office of Treasurer, is a prominent banker, was the treasurer of the Palmer and Buckner Democrats, is well known in connection with philanthropic and educational interests, and is a director of many railroads and other corporations, including the American Beet Sugar and General Electric companies. There ap-

pears to be no Bryanite element in the organization, but Mr. Peabody recently remarked that the Republican party had "wholly surrendered to the so-called plutocracy." Tammany at a public meeting has formally ratified the national convention's nominations and promised to give Judge Parker an "overwhelming majority" in New York. Leader Murphy still protests, but in vain, against the placing of his foe, McCarren, at the head of the State Executive Committee.—J. A. Parker, of Nebraska, a member of the Populist Executive Committee, says that thousands of Bryan Democrats have announced their purpose to support the Populist ticket. In West Virginia, Asbury Parsons, Republican nominee for judge of the Circuit Court, gives notice that he will vote for Parker and Davis. He was formerly a Democrat. John S. Carr, Republican nominee for Presidential elector in the same State, has withdrawn from the ticket, saying that he cannot conscientiously vote for the Republican candidates.

State Conventions

Democratic conventions were held last week in several States. Ex-Senator Davis's influence was dominant in West Virginia, where, at his request, a "white man's" plank was left out of the platform, altho a large majority of the delegates were in favor of it, and he himself said: "I certainly agree with you on the white man proposition." The excluded resolution declared the destinies of the State must be shaped and controlled by the whites, and announced a fixed purpose to "preserve the social and political supremacy of our own race." In his opening address, Chairman McGraw attacked Mr. Roosevelt for "reopening the wounds of the Civil War by breaking bread under the national roof with one whom God had not made his social equal." In the Texas convention, ex-Governor Hogg expressed his admiration for Mr. Roosevelt and called Judge Parker "the lockjaw candidate." It is said that he will strive to organize a new party of farmers and laborers. A fusion of Democrats and Populists in Nebraska is said to involve the support of Mr. Bryan for the Senate. In Kansas, a fusion was reached after some delay. The Populists are now a small minority there. A few of them bolted the convention, but, conscious of their weakness, decided to make no fight. In Indiana, the Democrats nominated for Governor John W. Kern, who says many Republicans have told him they will vote for Parker and himself. The Democrats of Washington nominated ex-Senator George Turner, on a platform calling for a railroad commission and direct primaries. "The paramount issue" in that State, it says, "is whether the people are to regulate the railroads or the railroads are to regulate the people." The Republican party there is divided on the question of a railway commission. In Michigan, some expected that the Democrats would nominate Justus S. Stearns, who has twice been a prominent candidate in the Republican party for Governor as an advocate of primary reform, and who was ready to accept the convention's support. But he was beaten by Woodbridge N. Ferris, who had 412 votes to Stearns's 329. The platform calls for the direct nomination of all candidates.

The Strikes and Lockouts

Another contest between the builders of New York and the workmen of the building trades was begun at the end of last week. At the close of the memorable controversy in 1903, which caused a suspension of work on $90,000,000 worth of buildings for several months, an agreement was reached by the several unions and the Employers' Association, providing for the arbitration of every grievance and dispute, and also for the employment of union men only, when enough of them could be obtained. By this agreement the walking delegates —three of whom were sent to the penitentiary—lost much of their power. Within the last few weeks the arbitration agreement has repeatedly been violated by several of the unions. Strikes have been ordered at several large buildings for trivial causes; work on the subway has been stopped by a strike. It is admitted by certain union leaders that they desire to get rid of the arbitration agreement. After several conferences and at-

tempts to restore peace, the Building Employers' Association, on the 4th inst., gave formal notice that all the unions on strike would be locked out if they should not return to work on the following day. They did not return, and at last accounts 32,000 skilled workmen were out. Work has been stopped on the Public Library and scores of school buildings, as well as upon many large private structures. Owing to a rumor that the employers desired the "open shop," their officers deny this in public statements, saying that a large majority of them desire and prefer to deal with union labor.—During last week the Chicago packers steadily increased the number of their non-union employees, until, having about 16,000 of them, they asserted that no more unskilled workmen were needed. Among those brought to the packing houses were a considerable number of immigrants who had just arrived at New York. Not many union men have resumed work in Chicago, but in Kansas City and St. Joseph the union ranks have been broken. In Chicago skilled workmen are needed by the packers, who appear to be doing less than one-half of the normal amount of business and to be avoiding, by necessity, the utilization of by-products. At Sioux City there has been much disorder, owing to assaults upon non-union men and to a conflict of authority between the police and the sheriff's forces, the police appearing to sympathize with the strikers. At South Omaha, where the packers and local authorities asked for troops, Governor Mickey, in the garb of a laborer, joined the strikers and remained with them for several hours, accompanying them when a carload of non-union men arrived. Laying aside his disguise, he announced that no troops would be sent so long as the strikers should persist in the orderly behavior which he had witnessed. The 300,000 members of the Chicago Federation of Labor have expressed their approval of the strike and are to be assessed for a weekly contribution in support of the strikers.—A strike of 80,000 anthracite miners, for which an order was ready to be issued, appears to have been prevented. The Strike Commission's decision provided that at each mine there should be a check weighman, if a majority of the miners should ask for one, and that he should be paid by assessment upon the men. The miners held that the tax should be levied upon all the employees; the companies insisted that it should be paid only by the majority that asked for a weighman. Colonel Wright, as umpire, decided that all should pay. The companies would not accept his decision. Some say that they objected because payment of the tax by every miner would tend to connect every miner with the union. To enforce the umpire's ruling, the unions voted for a strike. Then the companies proposed that the controversy be submitted to Judge Gray. It is expected that this compromise will be accepted.—The Pullman Car Company's works are soon to be closed for lack of orders, and 6,000 men will be idle. For the same reason work has been suspended at the slate quarries in Bangor, Pa., where 2,000 men were employed. A cotton mill at Lowell, employing 1,600 hands, will be closed for a month. The Worthington Pump Company, at Elizabeth, N. J., has reduced wages by 10 per cent. At Fall River, those cotton mills which were deserted by the 25,000 employees now on strike remain closed.

Countries South of Us

Minister Bowen has addressed to President Castro a strong protest against his seizure of the property of the New York and Bermudez Asphalt Company in Venezuela. Mr. Bowen's report to the State Department shows that the pretext for the proceedings against the company was not (as originally stated) an allegation that by assisting the revolutionists the corporation had increased by $9,650,000 the cost of subduing them, but that the Government asked the court for an embargo (equivalent to an injunction) and for the appointment of a Receiver, on the ground that the company had failed to comply with certain requirements of its concession relating to the digging of canals, the dredging of rivers, and the exportation of products other than asphalt. An embargo was promptly laid by the court, and a Receiver was at once appointed. He sailed on a Venezuelan war ship for the asphalt lake before any notice of the suit or proceedings had been served on the company. This suggests

collusion between President Castro and the court. Mr. Bowen says that while the laws authorize proceedings for an embargo in the case of an ordinary lease, the same method is not really applicable to a corporation holding under a concession. The British Minister has entered protest, as bonds of the company to the amount of $1,000,000 are held in England. From unofficial sources it is intimated that when he was engaged in subduing the revolt, Castro made promises that involved a transfer of the asphalt concessions to persons or corporations that gave him assistance.—The work of the mixed commissions for the adjudication of claims against Venezuela is finished. To Italian claimants, who asked for $6,000,000, about $600,000 has been awarded.—Formal protest has been made at Washington by the Minister of Panama against the Commission's interpretation of the Canal Treaty, especially concerning the application of the Dingley tariff and the creation of a port of entry at Ancon, which, it is said, diverts trade and revenue from the port of Panama.—From Haiti, disorder is reported in Port-au-Prince and other towns, where Syrian shopkeepers have been attacked by soldiers and other natives. It is said that there are in Haiti 15,000 Syrians, who claim to be American citizens, and that the native retail merchants suffer by reason of their competition.

Opium in the Philippines

A committee was appointed at Manila in August last to inquire as to the laws and conditions governing the opium traffic in Oriental countries, and to report a plan for the control of it in the Philippines. It had been proposed by the Philippine Commission that the traffic should be a monopoly and should be sold to the highest bidder. But the Commission's bill for this solution of the problem was so vigorously opposed in this country that it was withdrawn, and provision was made for an investigation by a committee composed of Bishop Brent, Dr. Albert and Major Carter, president of the insular Board of Health. These investigators have made inquiry in China, Burmah, Siam, and Japan. They now recommend that the opium traffic be at once made a Government monopoly; that after three years the importation of opium, except for medicinal uses, be absolutely prohibited; that smokers' licenses be issued only to those persons, over twenty-one years of age, who are confirmed users of the drug; that a campaign of education against the use of opium be started in the schools; that free treatment in the Government hospitals be given to those who use the drug, and that all Chinese who violate the proposed laws and regulations be punished by deportation. — Governor Carter, of Hawaii, has been interviewed in California concerning the condition of the Hawaiian Islands. Annexation, he says, has not been a commercial success, partly because the laws by which the islands are governed are not adapted to their needs. It has cut off all their internal revenue, but the Treasury at Washington has received $6,250,000. Congress has not dredged the harbor of Honolulu, which is filling up. The land laws of the United States prevent the leasing of Government land for more than five years in a single term. Land is not taken for so short a period, owing to the time required for raising staple crops.

The Combes Administration

The address of M. Combes at Carcassonne is of especial interest, because it gives an outline of the policy of the dominant party in France, and sums up what the leader of that party regards as having been accomplished for the benefit of the country. We therefore quote in his own words the following summary:

"We have assumed the responsibility of direction of public affairs solely in order to realize a determined program, of which France already knows the main lines: before all and above all the complete secularization of our society by the complete victory of the lay spirit over the clerical spirit; in the second place, the reform of our military organization and the reduction of the duration of the service to two years; in the third place, the introduction into our financial legislation of imposts upon the revenue as corrective of the inequalities and injustices of our fiscal *régime;* in the fourth place, the passage of laws for the assistance of the workingmen and the establishment of old

age pensions for them, aims which have been always understood and which have been in a sense the object of all the laws, projects and propositions of laws of social order, which have secured or retained in the last fifteen years the solicitude of the republican assemblies.

"The ministry has devoted itself assiduously to the execution of this program. It has accomplished the first part; five hundred congregations of men and women have been surpressed, twelve thousand congregationalist establishments have been closed. The reduction of military service has been voted by both Chambers, and is only delayed for final deliberations on some questions of detail. The Government has set a day immediately after the opening of the Extraordinary Session for discussion for the impost upon the revenue. The month of January has been fixed for the debate on pensions for the laboring classes. One other question, a very important question in the relations of Church and State, presents itself together with the two first and with great urgency. Recent incidents have thrown upon it a startlingly bright light. They are of a nature to favor that solution which is wished for by the whole Republican party. If our internal policy, financial and other, defies the impartial critic, our foreign policy is the object of envy, and I may say of admiration, to the entire universe. We are not dreaming, as are others, of the glory of battle. We are not seeking warlike adventures and colonial conquests. We have the modesty to think that we are acting wisely in utilizing the territories acquired before thinking of other aggrandizement."

That M. Combes's policy still commands the support of the majority of the French people is shown by the result of the elections held a week ago to choose off the members of the General Councils of the department. There are fifteen hundred seats to fill, and the results of the election are as follows: Ministerial Republican, 841; Anti-Ministerial Republican, 312; Conservatives, 175. That is to say, "out of every four French Councillors General three are Republicans, and out of these three two are supporters of the Government."

The British Reach Lhasa

The British Mission in Tibet left the camp at Gyangtse July 14th and reached the sacred capital of Buddhism on August 3d. No effective opposition was made by the Tibetans to the British advance, altho the force had to traverse two easily defensible passes, the Karo-la, altitude 16,600 feet, and the Kamba-la, altitude 14,950 feet, and it was necessary to cross the Tsang Po River, 400 feet wide, by the old chain bridge. There was a feeble attempt to stop the British at the Karo Pass by the erection of two walls across the road 200 yards apart. A large number of Tibetan soldiers were assembled behind these and also posted on the tops of the high cliffs of reddish limestone on each side of the pass. The Gurkhas, however, climbed the precipice on the south, a hight of 1,000 feet, to the snow-cap, and cleared the crest, when the Tibetans abandoned the fortifications and, as stated in the dispatch, most of them escaped. The British loss was one native killed and one wounded. The following day the Ta Lama and other dignitaries met Colonel Younghusband at a durbar lasting three hours. The delegates refused even to consider the surrender of the Jong or castle of Nagartse, but they were informed that it was already in the possession of the Pathans, who found it unoccupied. The discussion was renewed on the next day, but was absolutely fruitless, as the Tibetans merely reiterated their threats and demands that the British retire to Gyangtse on the ground that Lhasa was a purely religious capital and did not concern itself with civil affairs. On the approach of the expedition toward Lhasa the Dalai Lama did not die of a broken heart on this profanation of the sacred city, as his followers foretold, but took refuge in a monastery eighteen miles distant, refusing to see even the highest state officials and declaring his intention of remaining in seclusion for three years. The Amban, the Chinese representative at the Tibetan court, paid a ceremonial visit to Colonel Younghusband, bringing gifts of food, and promised to assist in arriving at a settlement. The British expedition is encamped close to the private gardens of the Dalai Lama and a mile from the sacred mountain of Potala, on which stands the palace of the Dalai Lama. Since no Europeans have succeeded in entering the city for a hundred years, except Manning in 1811 and Huc and Gabet in 1846, the reports of the English correspondents will be of very great interest.

Contraband of War

The British Ambassador at St. Petersburg has protested against the inclusion by Russia of foodstuffs in the list of articles declared contraband. It is claimed that cotton should be so declared only when it is intended for the manufacture of gun cotton. The prize court at Vladivostok has adjudged the sinking of the steamer "Knight Commander" justified since an examination of the ship's papers showed that the cargo consisted largely of railroad material consigned through a Japanese port to Chemulpo, and was apparently intended for use on the military railroad from Seoul to the Yalu River in Korea. The Russian justification of the confiscation of foodstuffs, as in the case of the "Arabia" from Portland, is semi-officially stated in these words:

"Foodstuff consigned to an enemy's port in sufficient quantity to create the presumption that it is intended for the use of the Government's military or naval forces is *prima facie* contraband and sufficient to warrant holding it for the decision of a prize court. Even if consigned to private firms the burden of proof that it is not intended for the Government rests upon the consignor and consignee. If it can be proved that it is intended for non-combatants it will not be confiscated. Small consignments of foodstuff in mixed carges will be considered presumptively to be regular trade shipments, and will not be seized as contraband."

—The report of the death of the assassin of De Plehve is denied. He has refused to give his name and has not yet been identified. It is thought that M. Muravieff, Minister of Justice, will be appointed in the place of the murdered Minister of the Interior.

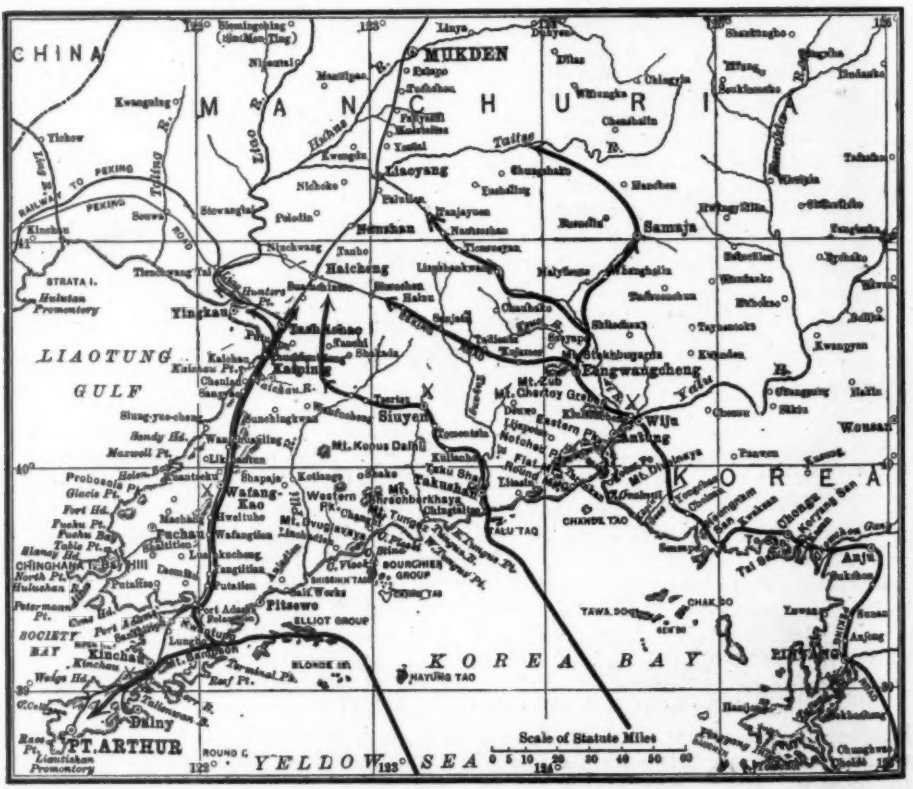
Port Arthur and Niuchwang

There was heavy fighting around Port Arthur on July 26th and the two days following, but little can be said with certainty about the results. The Japanese claim to have captured Wolf Hill, an important point in the defenses of the city, since it is near the railroad and within two miles of the main fortifications. According to General Stoessel, the Russian commandant at Port Arthur, the Japanese have been repulsed in all their assaults on the outposts with the loss of 10,000 men. The fleet assisted in the defense by bombarding the Japanese flank. The Russian loss in the fighting of the last of July is reported by him to be 1,500 men and 40 officers, killed and wounded. The Russian trenches extended over a length of 16 miles and for two days and a half these were subjected to a furious and well directed fire from the Japanese artillery. The Russians returned the fire but feebly, probably because of shortage of ammunition. When, however, the Japanese infantry charged they were met with a concentrated and very destructive fire, against which they steadily advanced for an hour. On the night of August 1st a flotilla of twelve torpedo boat destroyers, four torpedo boats and some gunboats emerged from the harbor at Port Arthur, but they were detected and driven back by the Japanese guard ships outside.—The Japanese are now in full possession of Ying-Kau and Niuchwang and have opened the port to the trade of neutral ships and individuals. Ten electric mines were removed from the Liao River. A Japanese battle ship, a cruiser, three gunboats and a torpedo boat have been sent to Niuchwang. The French consular agent there has been arrested by the Japanese on account of his vigorous protest against the detention of two sailors who claimed French protection. A large depot of army supplies has been established by the Japanese at the old Russian railroad station, guarded by 2,000 troops. The Russo-Chinese bank at Niuchwang has been taken possession of by the Japanese, but it has not yet been decided whether they will regard it as spoils of war or as neutral property.

Closing Around Liao-Yang

The movements of the past week have been rapid and momentous. Two important battles have been won by the Japanese. General Oku attacked and drove back the Russians' center at Simuchen on the south, and General Kuroki forced the pass of Yangtse on the Russian left. Since he was thus in danger of being cut off, General Kuropatkin abandoned Hai-Cheng and retreated to Liao-Yang, which is now defended by a semicircular line of fortifications at an average distance of about fifteen miles south of Liao-Yang as a center. In the capture

of Simuchen the Russian loss is estimated at 2,000. The Japanese sanitary corps buried 700 bodies found in the valleys through which the Russians retreated. The Japanese captured six guns, 570 shells, a quantity of stores and 33 prisoners. The Japanese loss was 860 men. Yangtse Pass, thirty miles east of Liao-Yang, was attacked by General Kuroki on July 29th, and Lieutenant-General Count Keller, in command of the First Siberian Army Corps, was killed by a shell in the first engagement. The Pass was strongly fortified, but was carried by the same combination of effective artillery fire and fearless charges which had been so successful previously in capturing Mao-Tien Pass. The thermometer registered 110 degrees Fahrenheit, and the soldiers suffered severely. General Kuropatkin is estimated to have about 200,000 men for the defense of Liao-Yang to withstand an equal force of Japanese. The Russian position south of Liao-Yang is a strong one. The center is at Nanshan (Anshanshan) on the railroad. On the Russian right is a level plain, where the Russian Cossack cavalry can be used with full effect, while the left flank on the east is protected from General Kuroki by a river and marsh. A line of precipitous hills fifteen miles long, stretching east and west from Nanshan, forms the Russian front. So far only small bodies of Japanese skirmishers have crossed the Taitse River, but a strong movement toward Mukden may coincide with the attack on Liao-Yang. General Kuropatkin has lost a large amount of military stores in his retreat from Kaiping and Haicheng, but Liao-Yang is a much more important base of supplies, and a defeat here would be disastrous.



Map of the Seat of War.—The Japanese have advanced beyond Haicheng and Simuchen. The Russian front is at Nanshan.

Organized Wealth and the Judiciary

BY DAVID J. BREWER, LL.D.

ASSOCIATE JUSTICE OF THE SUPREME COURT OF THE UNITED STATES

IN a recent address before the graduating class of the Albany Law School I numbered among the sources of temptation which surround the legislator the power of corporate organizations. In the possession of the corporations of the land is centered largely its wealth, and money brings power. If I remember rightly, the late Mr. Gould, in testimony given before a Committee of Congress soon after the famous "Black Friday," when asked why he sought to accumulate money, said that it was because he wanted power. I did not in my address r fer to the grosser matter of the direct purchase of a legislator's vote, but to that insidious influence which results from the power of corporations largely to affect his future political life. Not only do corporations possess enormous wealth, but in the prosecution of their business activities they have a multitude of subordinates, who, acting together, create a formidable body in the community and can largely determine political results.

Does a like temptation attend the relation of corporations to judges? We pride ourselves, and rightly, in this country upon the personal integrity of our judges. Singularly few are the instances in which the direct use of money is charged or even suspected, but it must be conceded that there are good citizens who are apprehensive that the same insidious influence which corporations sometimes exercise over legislators is also exerted over judges. We all know that electing one to judicial office does not change his character or increase his wisdom. Election is not a work of moral reformation, and the judge is substantially the same man after as before it. True there is quite a common feeling that a judge is possessed of superior wisdom. Somehow or other a community which may not think very highly of one as a practicing lawyer comes to look upon him with respect when elevated to the judicial office. It may not be wholly conscious of the change of sentiment; yet it exists. It is perhaps more a tribute to the office than to the man, tho doubtless any high-minded man (and no other is fit for a judicial office) when elected to one is impressed with a sense of his responsibility, becomes more careful of his words and actions and more keenly alive to the demands of justice. Still he is the same man that he was before election, and if then susceptible to improper influences, is in danger of yielding to like influences after his elevation. There is, however, not only in the incumbent, but in the community, a high regard for the judicial office; and in the selection of judges there is always a looking to the character of the man, almost, as one might say, an instinct, which chooses an honorable lawyer for the place.

It must also be remembered that a high-minded man on his elevation to office, even a judicial office, does not change his previously settled political convictions. If he has been a Republican before his elevation he has been one because he believed in the principles of that party, and he will naturally remain true to those principles. He does not on account of office wipe out all previous beliefs, and make his mind as it were a sort of *tabula rasa*. So it is not strange, but, on the other hand, is to be expected, that if a political question is presented, his prior convictions will largely influence his decision. I remember hearing Colonel Ingersoll deliver, after the decision of the Hayes Commission, his famous address upon "8 to 7," in which he started out in a humorous way by asesrting it to be capable of mathematical demonstration that 8 beats 7, and in the course of which he said that he himself had never doubted Justice Bradley's vote because the Justice had married a daughter of Chief Justice Hornblower, of New Jersey, who was so rabid a Whig that he was credited with having said that he believed all Democrats should be hung. But political

questions are seldom presented for judicial decision. On the contrary, if a controversy is purely political, courts are wont to declare it outside of their jurisdiction. Sometimes, however, private disputes involve the consideration of questions of a political nature, and then the early convictions of the judge on party issues may not unreasonably be expected to affect to some degree at least his decision.

There are two things which tend to minimize the possible effect of all outside influence, including therein the influence of corporate wealth and power. One is the indisposition of the American people to transfer one from judicial to political life. It is encouraging that this disposition is growing. I firmly believe in its wisdom, and should not regret even constitutional amendments forbidding any such transfer. I know there have been conspicuous instances in the past, and may be in the future, in which the selection of a judge for political life was wise, justified by the character and fitness of the man; but, as a general rule, one accepting judicial office should be impressed with the conviction that thereby his political life is ended and that the possibility of distinction and success lies wholly in his devotion to judicial service and the character of the work he does therein. Over the judicial door should be written in fadeless letters: Who enters here leaves all political hopes behind.

The second is the permanence of judicial life. We have in this country a wide variation in the rule of tenure, from that of two-year terms for some State trial judges up to the life tenure of Federal and some State judges. Even in States where the life tenure is not granted the disposition has been to increase the length of the judicial term. In New York Justices of its highest court hold for fourteen years, and in Pennsylvania for twenty-one years. There are some who consider this long tenure of judicial office as against public welfare, a sort of anachronism in republican institutions; but the surest guaranty of the permanency of republican institutions is the stability, the long tenure of judicial office. Carlyle stigmatized democracy as "shooting Niagara," regarding the passionate and hasty movements of an excited populace as sure to some time wreck established government. That which stands in the way of such a possibility, that which prevents democracy from "shooting Niagara," is the conservative influence of a stable judiciary. A legislature which reflects the popular will may be called into being at comparatively short intervals in order to express that will in statutes. But an independent judiciary holds all legislation within the fixed boundaries of constitutional amendment and prevents the hasty wrath of the people from doing themselves as well as the Government an injury. It does not prevent the popular will from being carried into effect. It only stays its action. It may be well that the wheels of a wagon or car be greased so that they may move more easily, but a wagon or car without brakes is in danger of speeding on to destruction.

It is a grievous mistake to suppose that judges are placed in office to execute the popular will. I remember that when as a Circuit Judge my convictions of constitutional limitations compelled me to decide against the wishes of some ardent Prohibitionists of my own State, Kansas, a convention of those Prohibitionists passed a resolution demanding an amendment of the National Constitution to provide for the election of judges for only the term of a single year in order that they might not stand in the way of the popular will. But the very purpose of the judicial office is, not to reflect the passing and changing thought of the populace, but to determine rights upon immutable principles of justice—principles which have passed by deliberate judgment into organic and permanent law.

Coming closer to the specific question, it is urged that corporations by their wealth and power are potent in conventions and with executives, and thus have large, if not controlling, influence in the nomination or appointment of judges; that naturally they will seek to put in judicial position those friendly, and that thus gradually they will secure a dominance over judicial decisions, making them in harmony with their interests. It is well to look a matter like this squarely in the face and consider both the possibilities and dangers. It will be perceived that the question does not imply the gross form of pecuniary corruption, but only

the insidious influence of accumulated wealth and power. It is useless to try to laugh the suggestion down as tho it were outside the range of possibilities. But is there good foundation for the suspicion?

The considerations already noticed are against it. They tend to place judges beyond the range of outside influence. Let me also notice other matters which may relieve the fears of many. Corporations generally complain that the administration of the law in the courts is unfavorable to them. There is, in fact, whether well or ill founded, a popular prejudice against corporations, and that prejudice finds expression in the verdicts of juries, which, in doubtful matters, usually favor the individual and punish the corporation. But so far as the individual and the corporation have conflicting interests, the administration of the law cannot favor each. If one is favored the other is injured. When each complains, may it not well be because there is in fact no favoritism?

Again, there is significance in the general demand for judicial honesty. While every failure of official duty offends, a failure by a judge is specially odious. No one likes to be condemned at the bar of public opinion, and least of all of that which it pronounces a heinous offense. Few covet infamy or even social ostracism, and a guilty judge is a social outlaw. The restraint of public sentiment is, therefore, a potent factor. Helpful to this is the greater publicity which now attends all official action. The press with its myriad eyes is watching every minute action, and anything which a judge may do in disregard of official duty or even in such a way as to create a suspicion of his integrity is seen and published throughout the land. He acts as never before in the full light of day, and, conscious of that, guards well his own actions.

Further, managers of corporations share in the general feeling. They are, as other men, citizens, patriots; and as citizens and patriots abhor anything like national disgrace. They are not consciously public enemies, not robber barons standing at the highways of commerce with intent to plunder every passing traveler. Their ideas of what is for the public weal may differ from those of others, but they are not Neros, ready to fiddle while Rome burns. All their interests are in the well being of the Republic, so that they, with all others, have that general longing for judicial honesty.

More than that, their interests demand it. It is a mistake to suppose that litigation is principally between individuals on the one side and corporations on the other. The great bulk of important litigation is between different corporations whose business interests or plans collide. Common sense tells their managers that they need for the settlement of their disputes the most capable and honest judges. They cannot foresee the disputes which may arise. Their safety lies in the ability and integrity of the judges, and their pecuniary interests, therefore, as well as their feelings as citizens and patriots, impel them to do what they can to place men of integrity in judicial office.

Still further, their wealth enables them to secure and the importance of their business interests requires the highest legal talent in their counsel. It is proverbial that the best lawyers are in the employ of corporations. But the great lawyer is an honest man. The old idea that trickery and deception were the weapons of the profession and that the more damnable the character the better the lawyer has passed away, and all realize that integrity is as essential to success as a lawyer as to success in any other profession or business. So if it be true, and to the extent that it is true, that corporations are instrumental in putting their counsel in judicial office, they are simply placing there men of the highest character. And such a man placed in such an office feels as keenly, if not more so than others, the obligations of justice. Indeed, the very fact that prior to his elevation he has been in the employ of corporations tends to make him careful lest any decision should be a departure from strict law in any way favorable to corporations. To use a common illustration, he is so anxious to stand up straight that he not infrequently falls over backward.

Let me narrate an incident which illustrates this. My predecessor in the office of judge of the First District Court of the State of Kansas, Hon. William C. McDowell, was a gentleman of the highest character. His most intimate friend was Hon. Samuel A. Stinson, at one time

Attorney-General, and perhaps the most brilliant man who ever came to the State. Their friendship was known to all, and after his elevation to the judicial office Judge McDowell was so apprehensive that his friendship might mislead him that he was continually deciding doubtful questions against Mr. Stinson. At the close of his judicial life the Bar of the District, who loved and were proud of Judge McDowell, prepared a suitable token of respect, and delegated Mr. Stinson to make the presentation speech. He humorously referred to the difficulties he had had by reason of the fact of the well-known friendship of the judge to himself, saying, "so persistently, your honor, have you decided against me that I feel sure that if I had filed the Ten Commandments as a declaration and subpœnaed the twelve apostles as witnesses you would have found some way to beat me."

But, after all, the surest guaranty is the growing earnestness of the demand for highest integrity in all official life. No one can compare generation with generation without being conscious of a wonderful improvement. A few centuries ago a judicial decision meant favoritism. Still later it meant corruption, and the great Lord Bacon could only plead the custom of the times in extenuation of his misconduct. All that has passed away, and now judicial corruption is a thing almost unknown. Nor is official integrity confined to judicial life. How very rare are the instances of failure? Think for one moment of the hundreds of thousands in the employ of this Government and only here and there does one prove false to his trust. We hear through the papers of every such instance and are sometimes alarmed thereby, but we seldom think of the hundreds of thousands of those who are true and of whom no mention is made. More and more is integrity in official life the rule. And it is the rule because of the increasing integrity in personal life. Officials will never be better than the people for whom they act, and as personal integrity prevails, so more and more will it become the characteristic of all official, and especially of all judicial, life. Not far off is the day when every judge in the land, from the highest to the lowest, will in his official administration realize to the fullest extent in letter and spirit the obligation which every Federal judge assumes by his oath, that "I will administer justice without respect to persons, and do equal justice to the poor and to the rich, and that I will faithfully and impartially discharge and perform all the duties incumbent on me as judge, according to the best of my abilities and understanding, agreeably to the Constitution and laws of the United States; so help me, God."

WASHINGTON, D C.

Backgrounds

BY W. H. WOODS

"THE play, the play's the thing!" Lord Hamlet, no.
The peopled and illimitable night
Hath mightier ghosts than Denmark's, and the light
That limns the upturned face of Romeo
Paints half a world of faces in its glow;
Arden hath untold lovers hid from sight
To Rosalind, and many a willing sprite
Unknown, unsummoned, waits on Prospero.
What else is watching in the dark behind?
Who knows when legions, angel, ghost, or djinn,
Shall break from out the backgrounds vast that bind
Our cramped horizon, and o'errun the scene,
Or God himself crash on us mummers blind,
And play be done, and life, life, life, begin!

BALTIMORE, MD.

The People at the Fair

BY MRS. L. H. HARRIS

[This is the second of the three articles by Mrs. Harris, whom we have sent to the Fair to give our readers the benefit of her impressions of the sights and sightseers.—EDITOR.]

WE are naïvely, youthfully self-conscious in this country, and we have a sort of universal "faternity yell" for proclaiming the fact. We "spiel" involuntarily for the same reason that a sophomore "roots" at a football game, because we are young and healthy. And Mr. Walter Page struck the American keynote recently in the following peroration about the people at the World's Fair:

"The Fair is not the main thing. It's the American people! We are great—we of this vast valley. Here we are, with our wives and children. We wear good clothes. The jayhawkers and blue jeans chaps are not any longer among us. We are clean shaven—no clodhoppers, we. . . . Nothing whatever 'phases' us. . . . We say to ourselves, 'We can do anything.' . . . The world is ours. . . . WE ARE IT."

To be sure we are "It." The only evidence to the contrary is our vernacular and the provincial way we have of proclaiming ourselves. But Mr. Page has anticipated our "Itness" at the World's Fair. The great intelligent, sober minded body of the American people have not arrived yet. He mistook our vacation legs and appetites for "Us." Two-thirds of the "clean shaven" men, short skirted women he calls the "great American people" are natives of St. Louis, at least of Missouri, come for a day's outing. This is why they brought the "kids" Mr. Page refers to so appreciatively. And, of course, they talk and ride the spinning jennies together, because they are neighbors. These are their urban earmarks. People who live in cities, work in stores, factories and breweries do not thirst so much for information as they do for amusements. When the "jayhawkers" from the villages, the "clodhoppers" from the country, the millmen from the East, the club women from the North, the "F. F. V.'s." from Virginia, and the rich prodigal sons from the West reach the Fair, the greater American people will have arrived. Then we shall learn what a magnificent achievement the Fair really is. At present those in attendance are not sufficiently interested to interpret its more serious aspects.

Still the crowd seen on the grounds really is one of the interesting features of the Fair. It flows in like a tide, twice daily, ebbs once, between 9 and 11 o'clock at night; and is seen in all its moods and moodiness on the Plaza St. Louis during the forenoon. It is usually flanked by a visiting military company, always punctuated by the blue-uniformed Jefferson Guards and continually harassed by red-coated pedlars ready to sell anything from an "official guide book" to a bracelet or a bag of sweetened popcorn. As a whole, it has no sense of things, no motive. The herd instinct seems to dominate, and it continues to thicken and whirl until the music begins in the band pavilion. Under this recalling influence the individual recovers his personal consciousness, little groups detach, and presently the mass has become spider-legged, reaching in all directions. During these early hours the students with their roller-chairs see an easy and unprofitable time; for the fat lady, who is the first to succumb, does not discover before noon that she cannot walk to and from her State building to any part of the grounds without fatigue. But once she abandons herself to the idea of helplessness, she becomes as inert and consciousless as a bale of cotton, and will require a pathetically thin-legged student of the Wisconsin University to push her from the fore end of the Pike up the noble but exhausting hill to Festival Hall without a blush, because she has paid him twenty-five cents to do it. This is business, but the last flight of steps taken

afoot would better illustrate the tenderness for which the feminine heart is noted. The corpulent gentleman is equally heavy in his demands, and is one of the most ludicrously amorphous looking spectacles to be seen on the grounds.

Many are conscientiously bent upon seeing the Exposition proper, but, as has already been intimated, the majority are seeking diversion. The Pike is uninteresting until evening, being in a sort of coma from the previous night's exertions; but at any hour of the day, when less than a hundred people are in many of the great exhibit buildings there will be five thousand in the Boer War Concession, watching a mimic battle between the English and Boer armies. That is to say, the particular class of people visiting the Fair at this time are not qualified by taste or intelligence to appreciate the magnificent display of arts, industries or invention, or they are curiously indifferent to their opportunities. And much evidence supports the latter conclusion. Even the most refined-looking element gives the impression of having brought nothing more enterprising than a vacation impulse to "have a good time."

Meanwhile the country woman, who sold butter and eggs to pay for her ticket, is seated before some painting in the Fine Arts exhibit wondering if she is looking at a masterpiece or a daub. And the elderly maiden lady delegate from some progressive female club is wearing herself out in the Government Reservation studying the naked Igorrotes. (More women than men visit this concession, and the writer saw a number of them take part in the wild dance and hound song of these dog-eating savages.) This perversity of interest is characteristic of the crowd. And not all of it is as pathetically vicarious as that of the mother who spent a week in the Electricity Building because her son is an electric engineer. "He can't leave his job, an' I'm gittin' an idea of things in here so as I kin tell him about 'em when I go home," she explained. Preachers, deacons and their attendant staff of church members are always seen collectively in the Agricultural Building, and separately on the Pike. This is not an evidence of secret depravity, but of the fact that they prudently distrust one another's judgmental dogmatism.

The people who visit the Fine Arts Buildings are of all grades and types. But the greater number are ill at ease, like strangers in a foreign country, and afraid to express an opinion. The person who really understands the ethics and values of art is so fitted to the situation in consciousness that he is not easily recognized. But the person without the remotest conception of form and color as an art is the one who really enjoys himself. He knows what pleases his fancy and is ingeniously ready to proclaim it. And what is worth noting is the fact that he frequently congregates before the right picture.

In the Anthropology Building alone is the expected class of teachers, students and antiquaries found. And this is the only place in the Fair proper where the people are genial and communicative.

Among other exhibits, however attractive, men and women stand side by side half a day without exchanging comments. But here every one joins in the conversational *mêlée*, from the school teacher bent upon acquiring biological scandal concerning the primitive races to the old grey-beards wrangling over the pedigree of Aztec relics. The cause of this cheerful animation is two-fold. First, there is the subconscious elation all feel over the evidence that they have advanced in the scale of things. Each person realizes the complimentary difference between the convolutions of his cranium and the small gourd-shaped skulls of his remote ancestors on exhibition. Second, they feel in the presence of these low-grade bones and relics that they are all descended from the same Adam-ape race. This is a very leveling sensation, and the victims instinctively recognize a common relationship which they would deny in, say, the Educational Department.

On the Pike at night the crowd amalgamates, absorbs feverish elements and becomes eccentric. But it is alway wary, hard to take in by the "spielers'" blandishments, and the great majority never enter a "concession." Yet the soberest citizen wears a "don't care if I do!" air that is highly diverting. He finds the very proximity of dancing girls, and the Pike atmosphere generally, exhilarating. No sensible person will attempt to explain this phenomenon, but the fact is

older than David that the best of men find pleasure in vaudeville exhibitions of femininity, and saints are often unaccountably animated by the worldly life about them. And every good, conscientious man who goes on the Pike knows he is innocently liable to see a dancer before the entrance of almost any theater. His counterpart is the respectable middle-aged lady, who is always seen in the crowd on the Pike resisting the stimulating influences about her with a virtuous energy that is morbid. Her presence is no more puzzling than the good man's is. She has cultivated her moral faculties until she enjoys "resisting temptation" as she could not enjoy the most innocent amusement in the world. But her godly mistrust of her own carnal nature makes her a rock of offense to the "spieler," for the tides of his eloquence dash against her in vain. She stands on the rim of the crowd and looks sorry for him, for the people who buy tickets and for everything she sees in that gay bedlam of noise, legs and wit. And every day she goes back and stays sorry until she is too tired to enjoy the difference between herself and the wicked.

The throng is made up, indeed, of many distinct types and they all show their individuality as the day wears on. The native of St. Louis predominates. He is recognized by his proprietary air and by his cordiality. He quickens with the host instinct, he is full of information and the disposition to impart it. He speaks all the visitors' languages and two or three of his own; and he is the tutelary deity of the beer gardens and the Pike. The grumbler is the meanest man at the Fair; and where two or three people are gathered together there will he be found. His symptoms are a dissatisfied mind and a limited power of appreciation. Nothing is as good as he expected to see, and he is outraged because the managers have not provided free transportation with electric fans attached. He thinks the pictures are poor, that the Government exhibits are misleading; he is disappointed in the size of California beets, and he is ashamed of his own State building. On the whole, he wishes he had not come, and so does every one else who has suffered the affliction of his company. The country man is known by his disposition to go in the wrong direction, and by his timidity. He is bold enough to draw near and stare at the legend on the cap of a Jefferson Guard, but he will not ask for information. He can get lost on the Plaza St. Louis, and he has been known to climb the wire fence about the Fair ground, because he could not find the "Main Entrance." But the most conspicuous man at the Fair is the "delegate," religious, social, educational or political. Every crowd is badge-speckled with him. And of them all the political delegate is the best man. He is more religious in his opinions than the Christian Endeavor delegate, and he knows more about social reforms than the club woman. In the Agricultural Building he shows the earth wisdom of a born farmer, in the educational exhibits he gives a tax-gathering father's advice to any who will listen. He is at home in the streets of Jerusalem, and in the bosom of the Pike. He knows more than anybody else does, no matter how much they know, and he feels more than they possibly can on any subject. He is a sort of universal "spieler." One other type must not be overlooked—the hermit visitor. He comes through the gates alone in the morning, skirts around the crowd in the Plaza, and disappears. At intervals during the day he is seen skulking from one building to another, with the air of a man bent upon getting private information and keeping it. He may be observed high among the peaks of the Cliff Dwellers' village, but he eschews the Pike proper. Where he comes from and where he goes is a mystery. But there can be no doubt about his being a born smuggler who considers information a sort of contraband of civilization, to be got as secretly as possible.

Leg fag is a disease developed by the people at the Fair. Men and women who have toured Switzerland and climbed the Matterhorn are exhausted by a day's tramping on the grounds. One reason for this is the prevailing optical greed and insatiable curiosity. Comfortable places are provided for rest and refreshment, but many do not avail themselves of these opportunities until they are exhausted. And few of them remain long

enough in one building or at a single point of view to carry away a right impression of what they see.

Almost no negroes are seen at the Fair. The writer saw but nine during seven days spent on the grounds and in the exhibit buildings. They claim that as laborers and otherwise the managers discriminated against them, and this may account for their absence. It is reported that Booker Washington and his wife were "turned down" by every first-class restaurant on the grounds recently, and that Mrs. Washington retaliated by persuading a large and influential body of negro women to hold their convention on the outside, thus avoiding gate fees and insults.

NASHVILLE, TENN.

Some Japanese Warriors

BY J. H. DE FOREST, D.D.

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT OF THE INDEPENDENT IN JAPAN

AFTER Japan's first naval victories the question was widely raised: Will the army be able to meet successfully the soldiers of Russia? There was a half suspicion that the initial victories on sea were the result of the unpreparedness of the enemy, especially as Russia at once indignantly called it a treacherous attack. Then came long weeks while the Japanese army was marching north through Korean snows, and the Russians were pushing south into Korea, the game being which would reach Pyong-yang first. The Russians had both banks of the Yalu and every apparent advantage, yet their advance was steadily driven back and completely out of Korea, so that at last the two armies confronted each other with the Yalu between them. But the Russians had one of the strongest possible positions, their whole line commanding the Yalu River, and that renowned stronghold, Kurenjo, flanked by protecting hills, being their center. To cross the river in the face of that line of splendid defense, or to flank the enemy, was a fearful job to undertake, but even after crossing those various rivers, large and small, to storm those hills that bristled with cannon seemed a sheer impossibility even to some of the men who knew. General Myoshi, who helped take that same fort, Kurenjo, ten years ago, when the Chinese held it, was astonished to hear of its capture last May. He said: "When I stood on those hights and saw what a powerful position it was, I said no force under heavens could take it if decently defended, and yet our troops have done it in a few hours, certainly by the favor of heaven."

GENERAL K. NISHI,
Commander Second Division First Army

Yet the Japanese generals knew how to win the favor of heaven. They knew every inch of ground, and they knew every weak point of their enemy. Two of the victorious generals are from the Sendai camp, and when they left for the

Mrs. Nishi as She Appeared at the Emperor's Twenty-fifth Wedding Anniversary

front the city gave them a farewell meeting. Lieutenant-General Nishi was presented with a sword, and his brief soldier-like reply reminded me of Grant: "We shall bring safety and peace to Japan."

Born in a Samurai family of Satsuma, he early showed that love for literature and military accomplishments that distinguish the Samurai. When only eleven he was assigned a place in the household of the great Daimyo, Shimazu Saburo. Foreseeing troublous times for Japan he entered the army at twenty-one, and took part in the famous battle near Kyoto at the time of the Restoration. A little later, when the Aizu clan of the North defied the new Imperial forces, he led a band of 114 men in the rear of the Aizu castle and fought with swords until more than half of them were dead on the field. Then when the great Saigo fell out with the great Okubo and withdrew to Satsuma and organized his formidable rebellion in 1877, Nishi, like others, felt a profound sadness over the duty of fighting one who had been his beloved teacher in the arts of war. He rose to prominence from that time, and was made Major-General in 1889. His breast began to glisten with those Imperial tokens so precious to a Japanese soldier. In the Chinese war, he went victoriously through the length of Korea and down the Liaotang peninsula until his march ended in the five hours' bloody struggle at the downfall of Port Arthur. For this he was rewarded with the title of Baron, the Order of the Golden Kite, a pension of 700 yen, and later was promoted to be Lieutenant-General. He was in command of Wei-hai-wei until it was passed over to the British, "to be held as long as Russia holds Port Arthur." He is fighting under General Kuroki now, and for the recent victory at Kurenjo he has been promoted to the rank of full General.

General Nishi's Daughter

Mrs. Nishi, born in the Shogun's Court and inheriting the Samurai spirit, is a fit partner for the General. With the modesty of all these fine women, you may question her in vain about her husband's conspicuous career. While just pride of her husband's deeds is in her face, she skillfully avoids every attempt to draw out any mention of those deeds. She is, however, not unwilling, when you press for some records of his life, to bring out the books that tell the story.

MAJOR-GENERAL MATSUNAGA

MRS. MATSUNAGA

If you insist on talking about her family, she smiles as she mentions the astonishing number of children she has, eleven, and one of her girls is the wife of a captain at the front.

When Nishi was fighting Saigo, his young friend, Matsunaga, had a band of men in the same camp. He has a jolly fact that conceals a serious heart, a fat wrestler's form, and all the pluck and skill of a true Samurai. In one of the battles against Saigo he rushed ahead of orders and got close in with one of the rebel leaders, from whom he received a savage sword slash on his head. His enemy then fled. Thereupon Matsunaga, with a towel hastily tied around his head, followed, shouting: "Coward, coward, turn and fight!" He actually caught up with and slew his enemy, at which General Nogi galloped up with "Bravo! Bravo!"

After that sad civil war, Matsunaga's breast began to shine with royal tokens. He was made Colonel and placed on the Staff of the Imperial Guards. He went with Nishi to the Chinese war and led his men in that bloody battle at Niuchwang, when the snow was knee deep. It took him but thirty minutes to capture the enemy's position. Before the fight he did an act that is full of profound significance to Japanese soldiers. He carefully bathed, saying that in case he should never return he wished his enemies should find his corpse ready for burial.

General Matsunaga is popular in the army, and he is also a lovable man in his family. He has a wrestling court in his yard, where he and his boys, who adore him, tackle each other in grim earnest. When he was leaving Sendai, amid crowds of people shouting "Banzai," an American lady ventured to decorate him just above his medals with a tiny American flag. He wore it to Tokyo, where he was met by the high and mighty of

Y. FUKUSHIMA

the land, one of whom said: "What in the world have you got that flag on there for?" "That was presented me by an American lady in Sendai," was his smiling reply. And that little flag, rich with its new meaning of United States sympathy, gave real satisfaction to his military friends.

Mrs. Matsunaga, busy as she is with her large family of four boys and two girls, does not forget the soldiers. She is under training to become a regular nurse. Mrs. Nishi and she are always seen among the crowds that meet the 4.20 morning trains that are bringing home the sick and wounded from the Yalu River battles. The memories of twenty-seven of these Sendai soldiers who fell in conspicuous deeds of bravery have been honored by the Emperor with orders of the Rising Sun, which will be precious heirlooms in the homes of their descendants.

Not long ago at a reception in the United States Legation, where some of the chief military and naval men of the Empire were present, I met the famous Major-General Fukushima, who kindly sent me his photograph and a copy of his adventures, 430 pp. What made this man famous was his solitary passage on horseback through Siberia in the winter of 1893. The Russian officials were eager to assist him, and would have kept him to the usual routes, but he declined all aid, and went where men are not accustomed to go, running his chances with robbers and terrible storms and dangerous cold. There are no people more gifted in the power of observation and quicker to see through things than the Japanese. And there is no Japanese who has done Asia with such credit to Japan as the then Lieutenant-Colonel Fukushima. During his one and a half years of travel he went 9,000 miles, of which that horseback ride through Siberia capped the climax and made him a glorious hero all through Japan. The people gathered in crowds to welcome him as soon as he touched foot on his native soil, and when he reached the capital, the Emperor graciously received him and covered his bosom with brilliant insignia. He has become Major-General

REAR-ADMIRAL M. SAITO,
Vice-Minister of Marine

and is now Chief of Staff in Tokyo—one of those strategists that are moving the three armies of Japan in their victorious movements against the constantly defeated Russians.

Fukushima was with the allied armies in the Pekin rescue, where the Japanese troops impressed all the Western forces with their exceptional discipline, their superb self-control, and daring successes. And what is not so much considered, those Japanese soldiers made minute observations of the allies, and from that day they knew they had nothing to fear from meeting any of them in deadly conflict.

No one man has educated the people into belief of the vulnerable condition of Russia as Fukushima has. On the breaking out of hostilities his battle song was sung everywhere. The short, stocky soldier smiled in a depreciating manner when the translation of his poem into English was referred to. It taught the people as only a popular one sided poem can the savage characteristics of the enemy. Miss C. B. De Forest's translation is an accurate reproduction of the original:

Hail the Rising Sun, the emblem
Of our world-renowned Japan!
In the morning rays her banner
Gleams across her kingdom's span.
Great her people—love of justice
And of fellow men inbred,
With a brave and loyal service
To her great Imperial Head.

Lo, our foe a land that knows not
Truth and righteousness by name;
Lies and treachery its usage,
Plunder and rapine the same.
Guiltless babes and maidens murdered,
Burning homes that rise no more,
Witness to the Slav, whose practice
Gods and men alike abhor.

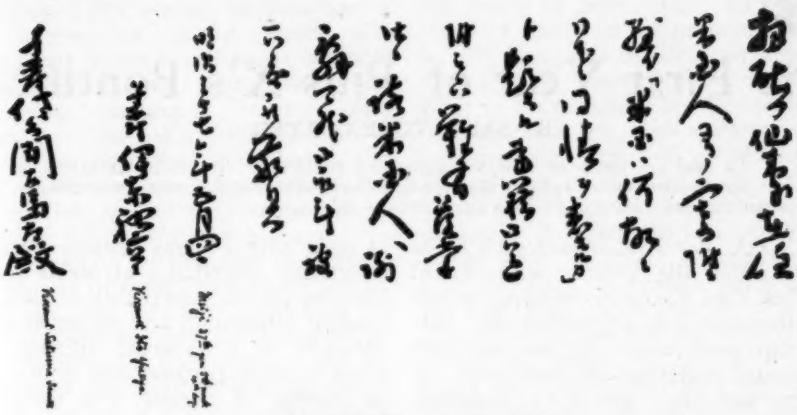
Up and forward, steeds and warriors!
March! Already spring is here.
Righteous war admits no foeman;
Joy is ours with naught to fear.
Break the ramparts of Port Arthur,
Tear the walls of Harbin down!
On the hights of Ural mountains
Float the Banner of the Sun!

Drive the Slav unto the forests;
Let him hide within their shade.
Ancient Moscow be his refuge.
There his bloody hand be stayed.
Then unto our Sovereign's glory
Praises sound and never cease,
While our hearts unite, rejoicing
In a great and world-wide peace.

ADMIRAL VISCOUNT Y. ITO,
Chief of Naval General Staff

Admiral Viscount Y. Ito, as everybody knows, is the Chief of the Naval General Staff. He it was who defeated the Chinese fleet and drove it into Wei-hai-wei. Then he wrote Admiral Ting, as an old and admiring friend, to surrender, which was done, but the unfortunate Admiral committed suicide. Here came in Ito's chivalry in that he, without consulting his superiors, returned one of the battle ships, in order to carry Admiral Ting's corpse in a fitting manner to Tientsin. The Emperor of Japan not only did not censure him for this, but rewarded him in addition to the usual high insignia with a gold watch.

It may interest the readers of THE INDEPENDENT to see the Admiral's handwriting and signature in a letter to General Sakuma, that has been given me, simply asking the General to thank a certain American for his sympathy for Japan. General S. Sakuma's name is at



Autograph Letter of Admiral Ito

the extreme left of the letter, and a trifle lower in the next line is, according to Japanese custom, the writer's title and name—Viscount Ito Yukyo.

The warriors of Japan come largely from the Sat-Cho region in the southwest. Comparatively few hail from the north, and of these the one who has reached the highest pinacle is Rear-Admiral M. Saito, for the last five years Vice-Minister of the Navy. He will be well remembered in Washington, where, as Lieutenant, he was naval *attaché* to the Japanese Legation in the days of Presidents Arthur and Cleveland. Successful in every position, and winning the warmest confidence of his superiors, on his return he was rapidly promoted and honored with appointments that placed him close to the person of the Emperor. Medals from both England and France have been conferred on him. He naturally was the one to take to the palace the glad news of Admiral Togo's victory at Port Arthur.

While briefly mentioning these prominent warriors it is impossible not to think of the lesser rank and file who are bearing the brunt of some of the most remarkable battles ever fought. In the Kurenjo charge there was Captain Makizawa leading his men with: "Let's all perish! Zemmetsu! Forward!" But he falls badly wounded, and hears his man say: "We must get him out of the battle line." At which he stands once more with lifted sword, shouting: "Fools! Forward!" and pushes on still in front until another bullet drops him never to rise again. They hear his last words of sadness: "Too bad! Not to see it through!" and leaving the body of their dear leader they are on again to victory.

Trains come every two or three days now with carloads of sick and wounded. Long rows of rough but comfortable hospitals are going up for these thousands and thousands yet to come. As the cars roll slowly into the city station, the high officials, the Red Cross nurses, the ambulance corps, wives of the military officers, headed by Mrs. Nishi and Mrs. Matsunaga, besides crowds of citizens and school boys, each with a small battle flag of Japan, meet them. Meet them in dead silence! "Why not shout glad Banzai to these victors," is a question I venture to ask. "It wouldn't do to get the boys too excited."

"While the Japanese is first of all a fighting man, a destroyer of men, the Russian is a born and bred husbandman, a keeper of men, having knowledge alone of the arts of peace." Thus writes a man in a recent American magazine. If he knew these warriors, the homes of the people here, and their history with a recent period of 280 years of peace, while Russia had about as many years of war, he would not have made that well balanced sentence above. There is no more peace loving nation anywhere than the Japanese.

SENDAI, JAPAN.

The First Year of Pius X's Pontificate

BY SALVATORE CORTESI

[A year ago last week Pius X assumed the Pontificate. The following article by our Rome correspondent sums up the year with the exception of the trouble with France, which concluded since the article was written.—EDITOR.]

NULLA *dies sine linea* begins to be said at the Vatican with regard to Pius X and his reforms, which have the object of perfecting and putting into good order all the vast and complicated ecclesiastical machinery. It is remarked that, generally speaking, Leo XIII was the Pope of great ideas, who traced new and broad ways for the Papacy, opening to it fresh horizons and vast fields, while Pius X cares for the details, perfects the mechanism, and looks to the exact accomplishment of their duties by the highest as well as the lowest members of the hierarchy.

The Catholic Church has been compared in these days to a gigantic engine, urged forward under Leo XIII for 25 years to a great speed, so that it now needs a general tightening of the many screws, which have gradually become loosened, in order to put the engine in a condition to continue its race with complete safety and all the probabilities of success. In other words, the present Pope—who is a sincere admirer of his predecessor, nothing annoying him so much as to be considered antagonistic to Leo—seems to intend to work chiefly with the object of securing the greatest possible advantage from the condition of the Church as it was left by the late Pontiff.

In what Pius X differs from other Popes is the determination with which he insists on having the reforms he establishes really carried out, without making distinction if those who have to obey are humble priests or occupy high positions in the ranks of the Church. Take, for example, the Canons of the different basilicas. They are most prominent among the clergy of the Eternal City, and formerly retained their lucrative appointments honorarily, being otherwise engaged in various often less ecclesiastical, but more profitable, employments. The Pope stopped all this at once with a *motu proprio* decreeing their daily attendance at divine service, insisting on the punctuality of each, forbidding substitutes, and emphasizing the necessity of a reverent attitude more fitted to their position and duties when in church. A prelate who under Leo XIII had obtained a dispensation to absent himself from the daily attendance in his basilica applied for a like favor to Pius X, which was refused. In a private audience later the Pope recommended assiduity in his duties as member of one of the congregations. The prelate replied, "But, Holy Father, I am also Canon of St. Peter's. What can I do? The service takes up almost the whole morning, I cannot be in two places at once, and Your Holiness has not deigned to concede me a dispensation." "The Canons," replied the Pope, severely, "must assist at the services. I will concede no dispensations on this point. For every service from which you are absent you must pay the fine."

However, to avoid a repetition of such incidents the Pope has decided henceforth never to appoint any one Canon who already occupies a lucrative office, which would prevent him from participating in the morning service. Likewise he has declared that he will no more tolerate that the Canons of St. John Lateran should use influence to be transferred from that chapter to that of St. Peter's, because of the higher prebend attached to the latter. "The Lateran," exclaimed Pius X, "is the Cathedral of the Pope, the first church in the world; so it is evident that the Canons who abandon it to pass to St. Peter's are only looking to worldly aggrandizement, which is repugnant in a servant of God."

In all these reforms, in that restoring the Gregorian chant, in religious teaching, etc., it is most remarkable to note how Pius X is consistently carrying out as Pope the ideas and principles which he

professed and advocated as Bishop and Patriarch. The reports he then sent to the Congregation of the Council, proposing and supporting changes which he is now introducing, would make very interesting reading. Among other things he then asked the abolition of fasting on Saturday, considering two days' abstinence too long a period, and as Pontiff he immediately issued the dispensation for the Universal Church. He also insisted on the necessity of reducing the number of feast days, which are too numerous and, he added, some very difficult to observe, they not being recognized by the civil authorities of the different countries; and as Pope he has set to work to decide which of them can be suppressed.

There is one undertaking of the present Pope which, if successful, will make the name of Sarto more famous than those of many of his predecessors, and he will leave one of the most important marks in the history of the Papacy. I refer to his initiative for the codification of ecclesiastic law, thus showing how he perceives with exactness the phenomenon of evolution of laws, as part of the development of society, his ambition being evidently to give to the ecclesiastic world what Justinian, in ancient times, and Napoleon, in modern days, gave to the civil world with their famous codes. The laws in use for the Church were almost all issued in the Middle Ages, when the Papacy exercised uncontrolled power and enjoyed privileges and prerogatives with the civil governments, one may say, of the world. Pius X un-

Pius X at Work with the Papal Secretary of State, Cardinal Merry del Val

derstands that these same laws are not adapted to the twentieth century in the countries where the Catholic Church is entirely separate from the State, as in England and the United States, as well as where between Church and State there is a special agreement, as in France and Portugal, or where Church and State are nominally enemies, but the State administers the patrimony for worship, and a *modus vivendi* practically exists between the two, as in Italy. The plan of the Pontiff must, therefore, mean not only the codification, but also the modernization, where possible, of canon law.

The best example of the modern ideas of the present Pope directly regards America, he having allowed Cardinal Satolli to visit the United States, which is an unprecedented step on the part of a member of the Sacred College, and a concession on the part of the Head of the Church of which there is no other example in history. Cardinals of Curia—viz., belonging to the Court of Rome—have hitherto never left the Eternal City except as Apostolic Legates, an office which dates back to the remotest centuries of the Christian era, and whose importance and authority were established by Gregory VII in the eleventh century, when he reminded kings, bishops and barons of the reverence due to these representatives of the Holy See, whose words, he said, were to be considered as coming from St. Peter himself, and that at their appearance all tribunals should cease functioning, the Legate alone having the right of first and final judgment. Gregory added that he considered the Legates the links of that immense chain which binds each kingdom and each Church to its Head, the Pontiff. Their faculties were later extended so that they were entitled to create Apostolic Protonotaries, Knights of the Golden Spur, Doctors of Divinity, etc. Geiza, King of Hungary, was coerced to obey the Apostolic Legate; Henry II of England, in 1168, went two leagues to meet the Legates sent by Alexander III, and escorted them to their palace; Henry IV, King of Castile, met, in 1473, Cardinal Borgia, afterward Pope Alexander VI, at the gates of Madrid and placed him on his right. The last Legate *a latere* sent by the Holy See to a foreign Government was Cardinal Giambattista Caprara, who went to Paris in 1801, charged by Pius VII to oversee the carrying out of the Concordat, and he remained in the same position under Emperor Napoleon I.

What a difference with Cardinal Satolli, who, to use his own words, "without a mission of any kind went to the United States as a friend to visit old friends." Contact with the American people and ideas has made Cardinal Satolli one of the most conspicuous figures in the Sacred College. He may be compared to a breath of modern life and enlightened progress, which the Pope highly appreciates.

Only one branch of Pius X's duties is not yet quite clear and settled: what his attitude will really be with regard to politics in Italy, France and other Catholic countries. It was supposed that his election was especially due to the desire in the majority of the Sacred College to replace a Pontiff who had been chiefly political by one who would interest himself little or not at all in politics. In his first allocution Pius X said that his program would be to "restore all things in Christ," but he added immediately after that as Christ is the Truth, his first duty would be to proclaim the truth; and, therefore, to defend truth and the Christian law, he would have to speak clearly upon certain matters and recall men to the right road in private and public life, in social as well as political questions. It was thought that the claims for the restoration of the Temporal Power would be almost abandoned, while in the same allocution he proclaimed that, "since it is necessary and of the highest interest to the Christian Commonwealth that the Sovereign Pontiff should, in his government of the Church, be not only free, but seem to be free, and under the influence of no Power whatsoever, therefore, in accordance with the demand placed upon us by holy religion, by the consciousness of our charge as well as the oath by which we are bound, we complain that in this matter the very gravest injury has been done to the Church." This, however, might have been considered as the necessity of continuing the tradition of the Papacy, if the visit of President Loubet to Rome had not offered Pius X the opportunity of issuing

one of the strongest protests since 1870 against the occupation of Rome. Nevertheless, four weeks after he allowed Cardinal Svampa, in his quality of Archbishop of Bologna, the chief town of the ex-Pontifical States after Rome, to greet King Victor Emanuel there, and sit at his board. When Patriarch of Venice he had been most energetic in organizing the clerical forces, making alliances with the Conservative elements, working together with Deputy Count Macola (who killed the Radical leader, Cavallotti, in a duel) to defeat the Liberals and anti-Clericals. It was, therefore, hoped that under his Pontificate the *non expedit* for Catholics to join in the political arena would be removed. Instead, one of his first *motu proprios*, that on Christian Democracy, established that they must have nothing to do with politics and never be made to serve political ends or parties, and must abstain from participating in any political action, this being under present circumstances forbidden to every Catholic *for reasons of the highest order*.

I have heard it irreverently said that the Pontiff Pius X seems to be continually scolding the Patriarch Sarto for what he did in politics, but a more natural explanation of the apparent contradiction is that a Pope should not be judged when his Pontificate has not yet lasted a year.

ROME, ITALY.

Topics and Talk in England

BY JUSTIN M'CARTHY

THE death of the famous man who was once President Kruger is the subject which just now chiefly occupies public attention in England. Kruger died a peaceful death in that loveliest of regions, Clarens—"sweet Clarens," as Byron calls it, near Vevey, in Switzerland—a peaceful death-scene for one who had gone through so much struggle in life. Kruger's will assuredly be regarded as one of the most peculiar and in its way picturesque figures in modern history. He was for many years the object of unmeasured hatred and also contempt on the part of a large proportion of the English people, who could see in him only a wicked enemy, an unscrupulous assailant of England's just rights, a corrupt politician, and at the same time a very ridiculous personage. As time passed on and we got farther and farther from the war, and as it began to be seen that the difficulties of England's position in South Africa were not all created by the personal action of Kruger, public opinion began to grow somewhat modified toward him, and now, perhaps, while his remains are still unburied, his career may be criticised even here in a fair spirit.

It is only just to say that there were always many influential Englishmen in political life and out of it who could render justice to the career of Kruger even when he was England's uncompromising enemy and who refused to see in him merely a sort of grotesque embodiment of all evil. But certainly during my recollection I do not think that any chief of a foreign state at war with England was ever regarded in this country with more general dislike than was poor Kruger—brave, sincere, fanatical, no doubt, fantastic in many ways, seeming sometimes like a sort of burlesque of Abraham Lincoln, but always devoted heart and soul to the cause of his country.

I met Kruger once and only once. He visited London not long before the final war and while negotiations were still going on for an arrangement of some kind, and then I met him at a public dinner, which was not given in his honor, but to which he was invited among many other guests. I was introduced to him on that occasion, but our conversation was somewhat limited in its nature, inasmuch as he could not speak any English and my acquaintance with the Dutch of the Transvaal was decidedly limited. But I re-

PRESIDENT STEPHEN J. PAUL KRUGER

member I was pleasingly impressed by the quiet simplicity of his manner and there seemed to me to be in his face and in his voice the suggestion of a great reserved force of intelligence and of resolve. It is said that his dying wish was for a burial place in Pretoria. I am glad to hear that English officialism in South Africa will raise no objection to a compliance with this latest wish on the part of England's former enemy, now dead.

A subject of much debate just now is the proposed scheme for the reorganization of the Army which was introduced a day or two ago in the House of Commons by Mr. Arnold-Forster, the War Secretary. The scheme is sure to meet with fierce opposition, more especially in military circles, and is, I should think, destined to receive but languid support from the general public. Mr. Arnold-Forster has devoted much of his life to the study of military questions and of plans for Army reorganization. Yet he does not come of a very warlike, or, at all events, a very military stock, for he belongs to the family of which the late Matthew Arnold, the celebrated poet and critic, was a member, and he is the adopted son of the late W. E. Forster, who was for a long time an active and influential supporter of that peaceful Radicalism professed by Cobden and Bright, and was never supposed to have any military tendencies except, indeed, when, in his later unlucky efforts to govern Ireland as Chief Secretary to the Lord-Lieutenant, he was endowed by some of the Irish members with the odd nickname of "Buckshot Forster," because of the attempts made during his administration to suppress Irish opinion by the rifles of the police.

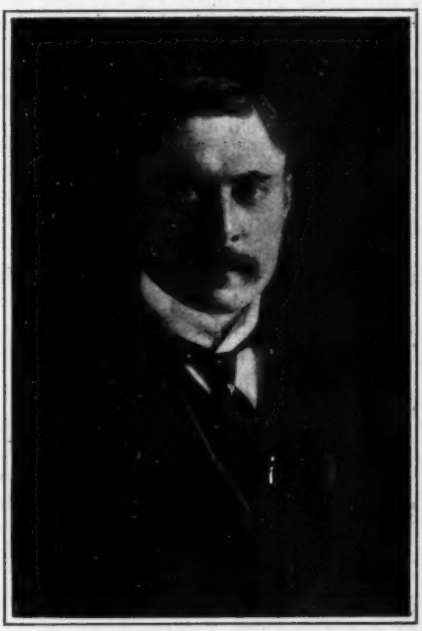
I shall not attempt to offer any definite opinion as to the merits of Mr. Arnold-Forster's scheme for Army reform, for the good reason that I have no practical acquaintance whatever with the details of such a subject and can only regard it from the point of view of an ignorant outer observer. But the scheme has at least one attractive quality for me, and that is found in the fact that it proposes to reduce in some degree the size of the Army, and while making it more effective for real emergencies, to make it less of a burden to the taxpayers and less of a menace to England's neighbors in Europe and elsewhere. I have always believed that the maintaining of a vast army is in every way harmful to the English people, not only because of the enormous taxation it involves, but also, and if possible even more, because of the constant temptation it holds out to the employment of the army in all manner of military enterprises abroad. I am strongly inclined to the belief that if we had an army, or the nucleus of an army, ample for defense but not defiance, well capable of protecting England against foreign assailants, but not large enough to stimulate the invasion and the acquisition of foreign territory, the result would be of immense advantage for the prosperity and the happiness of all the King's subjects. It will be a great time for England when her Governments make up their minds to consult first of all for the prosperity of the people who live in England, Ireland, Scotland and Wales, and not for the glory of adding new acquisitions of territory to the British Empire. Thus far, therefore, and thus far only, I am disposed at the outset to look with favorable consideration on Mr. Arnold-Forster's scheme. But I can assure the

readers of THE INDEPENDENT that I have not the faintest hope of finding my way of looking at the subject adopted by many of the critics to whom will come the task of debating the new measure in the House of Commons. I am not for "peace at any price," but I have still less inclination for war at any price.

Another subject which has been creating much talk of late in the political world is the scheme said to be entertained by the Government for the reduction of the Irish representation in the House of Commons. The impression appears to be that the Conservative administration will bring forward such a scheme next year in the event of the Conservative Government under Mr. Balfour enduring so long. The idea is that Ireland now has a larger proportion of representatives than the number of her population would warrant when that number is compared with the population of Great Britain. People who ought to know, as the phrase goes, are constantly telling me that such a scheme is in process of construction. For myself I strongly doubt whether a man of Mr. Balfour's intellect and education could ever favor such a project. The minimum of the representation of Ireland was arranged by the Act of Union, and in order to reduce it still further that part of the Act of Union must first be repealed, and I leave my readers to judge for themselves whether it would be possible to retain any part of the Act of Union if once the Government should initiate the task of repealing any of its provisions.

Then, again, while it is quite true that the population of Ireland has sadly fallen off during the last half century—fallen off as, I believe, no other civilized race has ever fallen off—it is beyond all possible dispute that the deplorable fact is one of the direct consequences of the Act of Union and the manner in which Ireland has been misgoverned and oppressed by the British Parliament at Westminster. I can hardly think it likely that any English Prime Minister could feel inclined just now to bring such a question up for public discussion. But let me say at the same time that I should not by any means feel disposed to regard with alarm or disfavor the introduction of such an administrative project. Only let the Conservative Government initiate the work of doing anything to interfere with the Act of Union and see if we Irishmen do not welcome the happy chance which such an experiment would give us! The Act of Union, I venture to think, would never survive the debate of that session. But I do not believe the present Government will give us the chance. Many of the Tories in and out of office have probably been put much out of humor by the united action with which the Irish Nationalist members under Mr. Redmond's powerful leadership have resisted all attempts to win them over or frighten them off, and these Tory members are no doubt extremely anxious to reduce by any possible means the numbers of that Irish Party. But there are some men of brains and foresight still in the Conservative Ministry, and I do not believe that these men will encourage the proposed dissection of the Act of Union.

The English public, however, cannot be said even at this critical time to be wholly absorbed in politics. There is some talk also about literature. Among the novels of the better order lately published much interest has been created by



MR ARNOLD-FOSTER,
War Secretary

the story which bears for its name "How Tyson Came Home." This is the work of Mr. William H. Rideing, a writer, I think, not altogether unknown to my readers in New York and Boston, and the book is published by Mr. John Lane. I have for many years counted myself among Mr. Rideing's personal friends and have met him often on this side of the Atlantic and the other. But I must say that I never knew he possessed so many of the best qualifications for the higher order of novel writing as are found in this remarkable story. It is a story of incident and character, of Western adventure and of English social life, and it shows itself from first to last at once brilliant and thoughtful, observant and imaginative, a faithful picture of everything it attempts to describe, and a keen anatomist of human emotion. I have heard many literary friends speak in the highest terms of this novel by an author who was previously unknown to them.

I shall not attempt to tell the story of the book and shall content myself with merely saying that it depicts for us through its earlier passages the life of a Californian gold-mine region, and in its farther chapters life in the society of London's West End. The book recalls to mind at one time the literary work of Bret Harte and at another the pictures of English social life which Thackeray gave to the world, but in neither case is there the slightest suggestion of imitation. The resemblance consists only in the fact that in the one case and in the other Mr. Rideing has entered a field already worked by Bret Harte and Thackeray, but in each field he does his own work in his own way and from his own inspiration. The pictures of a certain class of English life are, to my mind, as truthfully as they are vividly drawn. It may be taken as evidence of Mr. Rideing's success that it has brought upon him a rather savage attack from one very popular and influential daily newspaper in London, the literary critic of which denounces Mr. Rideing as an American who has drawn coarse caricatures of English society merely for the purpose of gratifying the American public. This critic evidently did not know that Mr. Rideing, like the hero of his novel, is himself an Englishman by birth. But in any case I am prepared to say that the men and women whom Tyson, young millionaire from California, met in a certain class of English West End society are not in any sense caricatures, but are faithful and lifelike portraits. Of course, Mr. Rideing never meant to suggest that these men and women who rush after and swarm around the young American millionaire in London are meant to illustrate English society in general, but they are excellent and in no sense overdrawn types of a class which does undoubtedly exist, and they need no caricature to make their presentation effective. The book, moreover, is rich in picturesque descriptions of scenery and has many passages of quiet, thoughtful and almost poetic beauty. I feel sure that Tyson has come home to a success among his English readers.

Mr. Fisher Unwin has begun the publication of a new edition of Mark Rutherford's works. The volume already issued contains the book which is described as "The Autobiography of Mark Rutherford." I may say, without unduly revealing any profound secret, that Mark Rutherford is only an adopted literary name and that the real name of the author is William Hale White. Mr. White, I may add, is the son of a late official of the House of Commons. The elder White was the author of a valuable volume embodying some of his experiences in the life of Westminster Palace. Mark Rutherford's books have always held a high place among thoughtful readers, and Mr. Fisher Unwin now hopes by issuing them in a cheap form to make them popular among all classes of readers. These books might be said to belong in a certain sense to that class of literature in which the late George Gissing made so deep a mark. But as one or two of the best of them were written before George Gissing had published anything, they cannot be accused of any want of originality and, indeed, they are artistically original in every character and every study of life. They are, in fact, studies of life in certain narrow and isolated circles; they are often melancholy and sometimes even grim, but they are full of deep thought, they take firm hold of the mind, and often touch the heart. They illus-

trate from first to last the striving of an earnest nature after the realization of all that is best in life and all that holds out hope of something better and brighter than this mere human life can be. I feel no doubt that the republication of these books will find a welcome in the United States as well as in England.

LONDON, ENGLAND.

The Electrical Theory of Solution

BY SVANTE ARRHENIUS

PROFESSOR OF PHYSICS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF STOCKHOLM

Translated by J. Livingston R. Morgan, Adjunct Professor of Physical Chemistry in Columbia University.

[The development of the theory of electrolytic dissociation is one of the most important triumphs of modern physical chemistry, and no one is better qualified to tell of it than Professor Arrhenius, because to him more than to any one else the theory owes its origin. Its bearing on scientific and practical problems we discuss editorially this week. Professor Arrhenius has recently arrived in this country for the purpose of giving some lectures. He was born near Upsala on February 19th, 1859. After finishing his studies at the university there in 1884, he studied abroad, working with Kohlrausch, Boltzman, Ostwald and van't Hoff. Later he was a teacher in physics (1891) and then (1895) professor of the same subject in the University of Stockholm. During 1897-1902 he was Rector of the University. He is a member of about twenty learned societies, and for his theory of electrolytic dissociation received, in 1902, the Davy medal of the Royal Society, and in 1903 the Nobel prize for chemistry. Besides his activity in theoretical chemistry, he has investigated the conductivity of the gases and worked with questions of cosmic physics (atmospheric electricity, polar densities, applications of Maxwell's radiation experiment to cosmic phenomena, the causes of climatic changes in geological epochs), and with medical problems (influence of atmospheric electricity upon physiological phenomena and the applications of physical chemistry to serum therapeutics). He is the author of the "Lehrbuch der Elektrochemie," Swedish 1900, German 1901, English 1902, and of the "Lehrbuch der Kosmischen Physik," 1903.—EDITOR.]

WHEN a piece of iron is thrown into the air and then falls, we know that during the time which has elapsed it has remained the same piece of iron, with all its properties unchanged except those of lesser importance, referring to its position. The observations which one makes of the motion of the piece of iron are so commonplace, so familiar from early childhood, that any one can describe them without difficulty. Consequently, it is not surprising that this phenomenon was the first to be completely studied and described. This was done by Galileo, who made it the basis of the science of mechanics.

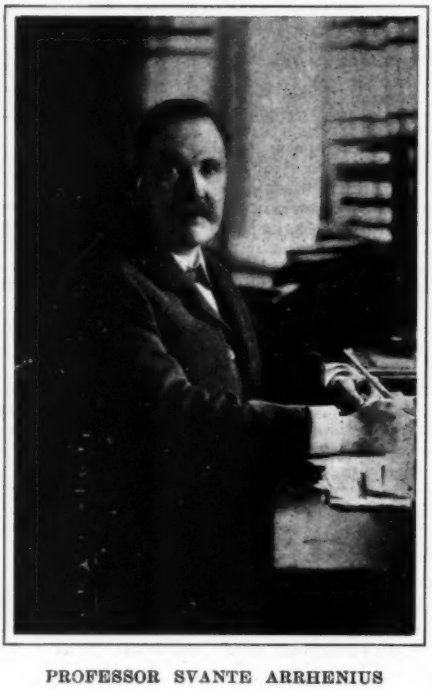
If the piece of iron is heated or electrified the behavior is somewhat more complicated, and in either case the changes induced in the piece of iron are less apparent. These changes have also been described very accurately and are considered by physical science, which has been built up gradually on, and cemented to, the foundation of the older mechanics.

Very much more apparent are the changes which take place when the piece of iron (at a high temperature) unites with the oxygen of the air. This action gives rise to an entirely new substance, black and earth like (it is the flake observed when glowing iron is hammered), which has no resemblance to polished metallic iron, and still less to gaseous oxygen.

The occurrence of actions of this kind in every day life is relatively rare, and so it is very difficult to arrange them from a general point of view. It was for this reason that those who first studied such so-called chemical processes were looked upon by the public as

dealers in magic. And it was only later, by aid of the scientific treatment of the subject, that chemistry, which may still be considered in its infancy, arose.

On account of the slight connection between chemical phenomena and the experiences of daily life, it is even more difficult to treat them in a popular way than it is physical phenomena. Notwithstanding this, at the request of the editor of THE INDEPENDENT, I will try to present briefly the idea of the theory of Electrolytic Dissociation.



PROFESSOR SVANTE ARRHENIUS

Among the substances used by the old alchemists, salts, acids and alkalies were the most important. By mixing solutions of these, they obtained instantaneously and with great regularity products with a definite composition, which also possessed the properties of salts, acids or bases. By entirely different processes—*e.g.*, by mixing hydrochloric acid and caustic soda or hydrochaloric acid and Chile saltpeter, as well as by mixing any chloride with any sodium salt—we obtain in the solution a salt which crystallizes in cubes when the solvent is removed by evaporation, and which is found to be identical with table salt. This salt, no matter how it is obtained, whether by a chemical process or by the evaporation of seawater or from a rock salt quarry, has always the same composition—viz., 39.41 per cent. sodium and 60.59 per cent. chlorine.

If we dissolve this salt in water and crystallize it out again, either by high or low temperature, or by addition of a suitable reagent, as concentrated hydrochloric acid or alcohol, we always get the same salt with the same composition.

This general result would naturally be expressed in this way: In solution the salt remains as it is, except that it is mixed with molecules of water, and so has lost its solid form. Nothing could appear more contradictory than the supposition that the salt in the water solution is decomposed, partly into sodium, partly into chlorine. We would expect, then, that by crystallizing under different external conditions table salt could be obtained which would not contain exactly 39.41 per cent. of sodium. We would also expect by this peculiar hypothesis that the solution of table salt would possess the properties of a solution of chlorine, with its characteristic odor and strong oxidizing power; such, however, is not at all the case. Further, how can we picture to ourselves a solution of sodium? If we try to dissolve sodium in water we form caustic soda, while hydrogen gas is evolved.

We cannot help wondering, then, how the mathematical physicist, Clausius, in the year 1857, could suggest that the conduction of electricity by a solution of table salt can only be explained by the assumption that certain salt molecules in the aqueous solution are decomposed into chlorine and sodium. This idea was apparently so impossible that no chemist would accept it, even when Clausius further explained that for his purpose the decomposition of but very few molecules was necessary. For this reason he modified his hypothesis to a less striking form, and assumed that an exchange of atoms takes place among the different sodium chloride molecules.

And yet we are forced now to consider that a 5 per cent. solution of table

salt *is* decomposed to the extent of 70 per cent. of its molecules into the atoms chlorine and sodium. It is, however, not ordinary chlorine and sodium, for these bodies carry upon them great charges of electricity, so that on one equivalent (= 35.5 grams) of chlorine we have 96,500 coulombs of negative, and to one equivalent (= 23.1 grams) of sodium just as much positive, electricity. The chlorine and sodium in this form are to be considered as allotropic modifications of the ordinary chlorine and sodium known before. Just as carbon can exist as lampblack and diamond, so can chlorine exist in two dissimilar forms—*i.e.*, as the green gas and as the colorless chlorine *ion*, charged with negative electricity. To these electrically charged portions of the molecule the name *ion*, as first used by Faraday, is given. In the same way we have two different forms of the element sodium—*i.e.*, metallic sodium and the ion of sodium.

These difficulties can be avoided in this way, but the constant composition offers another difficulty. Assume that we have a mixture of sugar and table salt in an aqueous solution, and that we carefully superimpose upon it a layer of pure water, avoiding mechanical mixture. The molecules of sugar and salt will go from the solution into the water. This process is called diffusion. The salt molecules go approximately four times as fast into the upper layer as do those of sugar. We obtain, then, in the lower original solution a smaller ratio of salt to sugar than was present at first, while in the upper layer the ratio is reversed. We employ diffusion in practice to purify salts from slow moving bodies.

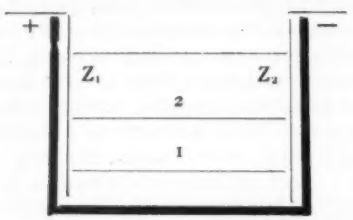
We must expect, then, that something of the same sort will take place in the sodium chloride solution in case the sodium chloride molecules are decomposed into chlorine and sodium, especially as electrical measurements cause us to conclude that the chlorine ion is one and one-half times as mobile as the sodium ion. By a like experiment, however, we observe that this action does not take place. This is explained by the fact that electricity moves with the ions. When the layer of water is placed upon the salt solution a slight excess of chlorine ions is observed in the water and a corresponding excess of sodium in the sodium salt solution. By this action, however, the water becomes negatively, the solution positively, charged, and in consequence of the repulsion of bodies charged with electricity of the same sign the chlorine ions are forced downward into the solution, the sodium ions upward into the water, so that the action of diffusion is paralyzed. Owing to the enormous charges on the ions, this action takes place in a vessel of ordinary dimensions when a ten billionth of a milligram of sodium is in excess in the salt solution. This quantity is about a billion times smaller than the smallest which we can detect by chemical methods. With an electrometer, however, it is quite easy to determine accurately the charges in the above experiment. This is a very good example of the extraordinarily valuable service done by electrical measurements in chemical investigations. Nernst, who investigated theoretically and experimentally the electromotive forces produced in this way, found that they could be calculated from the principles outlined above. That which at first was considered a difficulty in the way of the new views is thus transformed into a support.

After disposing in this way of the arguments against a dissociation of dissolved salts into ions, it is important to see what great advantages can be derived from it.

Let us recall the phenomenon which led Clausius to suggest a similar idea. When the electric current is conducted through an aqueous salt solution only the smallest electrical force is necessary to drive it through the solution. By this, according to the view accepted at the time, the molecules were broken up into ions, which then reunite. The slightest electrical force then suffices to decompose the molecules. In other words, the salt molecules are not held together at all.

Such theoretical grounds are difficult to judge at their correct value. We can, however, draw further consequences from them, and then, by the aid of experiment, ascertain the truth of these. Let us assume that a part of the salt molecules are decomposed into their ions, and that it is just these ions which transport the electricity. The power of transport of these carriers of electricity de-

pends upon their amount and the velocity with which they pass through the surrounding water. Imagine a 1 per cent. solution of sulphate of zinc in a trough with plane parallel walls, two of which are lined with amalgamated zinc



plates. The figure shows this in section, Z_1 and Z_2 being the zinc plates, and 1 being the level of the solution. Connect a definite electromotive force from a galvanic cell to the plates Z_1 and Z_2. A current will then flow, the strength of which, I_1, will depend upon the driving force and the amount of ions in the solution. If water is now poured in up to the level 2 and mixed thoroughly, we know that the current strength will remain unchanged, unless the number of the ions changes with the dilution. Altho the driving force remains the same, as well as the medium (water), in which the ions move, we find that the current strength has increased somewhat; we will call it I_2. From this we conclude that the number of decomposed molecules has increased. If we pour in more water the current strength increases again, and this continues with each new addition of water. The current strength does not, however, increase to infinity, but only to a certain limit, which we may call I_∞. What does this limit mean? The simplest way of explaining it is by assuming that the limit is the point at which all molecules of zinc sulphate are decomposed.

It is now easy to calculate how many of the molecules are decomposed in the first 1 per cent. solution, for if all molecules were decomposed the current strength would have been I_∞; it is, however, only I_1. The degree of dissociation—*i.e.*, the fraction of the molecules decomposed to the total number—is $I_1 \div I_\infty$. The experiment shows this to be about 0.40.

All salts are found to behave in the same way as the zinc sulphate. Almost all, however, are decomposed to a very much greater extent than this—*e.g.*, sodium chloride in a 1 per cent. solution to about 80 per cent. The strong acids and bases, as hydrochloric acid and caustic soda, are largely dissociated, while on the other hand the weak ones, as acetic acid and ammonia, are dissociated but slightly.

Suppose the question is asked, Can we not verify these far-reaching and for chemical purposes satisfactory conclusions by help of other phenomena? Fortunately, there is a way to do it. Raoult has devised a method by which the number of molecules in a solution can be found and van't Hoff has given the method a firm theoretical foundation. According to Raoult and van't Hoff, solutions which contain the same number of molecules of dissolved substance per liter of the same solvent have the same freezing point. When we dissolve a gram molecule of alcohol (46 grams) in a liter of water in one vessel and in another a gram molecule of sodium chloride (58.6 grams), we have two solutions which, according to ordinary chemical views, contain the same number of molecules. Notwithstanding this, however, the freezing point of the sodium chloride solution is found to be almost twice as far below the freezing point of pure water as that of the alcohol solution. The two freezing points are, in fact, $-3.46°$ and $-1.89°$ C. It is necessary to dilute the salt solution about in the ratio $3.46 \div 1.89 = 1.83$, in order that its freezing point becomes $-1.89°$ C.; at this dilution we have the same number of molecules as is contained in the alcoholic solution. This abnormality can be explained by the assumption that the sodium chloride is 83 per cent. dissociated into sodium and chlorine ions, for the dissociated molecules have the same effect as two simple ones. We find nearly the same number as before, about 80 per cent., to which the sodium chloride molecules are dissociated.

The examination of the results for about ninety substances in aqueous solution shows the same good agreement; they might be analyzed by the conductivity or freezing point methods. In this way the solid foundation of the theory was laid. The consequences of the assumption are interesting. All the prop-

erties of a salt solution are made up of the properties of the water, the undissociated salt molecules and the ions. In dilute solutions the undissociated molecules are few and the properties of the salt solution, neglecting those of the water, are the sum as those of the ions. Such properties for this reason are called additive. These peculiarities of salt solutions have long been known and investigated. Such properties, for example, are the specific gravity, the compressibility, the capillarity, the viscosity, the coefficient of optical refraction, the natural rotation of the plane of polarized light, the magnetic properties and the physiological action of salt solutions. In general, as soon as a property of salt solutions is investigated it is found to be peculiar in that it is additive. In this respect the color of salt solutions is very striking, as was shown by Ostwald, and later by others. All permanganates, for example, give the same absorption spectrum. In all these very dilute solutions the same ion, MnO_4, is present to the same concentration, and consequently the absorption spectrum is identical in all cases.

In chemical reactions the change of color is often used to recognize the end-point. This phenomenon depends on the fact that all salts with the same colored ion give the same color reaction. The law can also be expanded to consider other cases where a characteristic, difficultly soluble salt is formed. Thus, for example, all chlorides give with silver nitrate a characteristic curdy precipitate of silver chloride. We say, then, silver nitrate is a reagent for chlorine. It is more correct to say that it is a reagent for chlorine ions. There are a number of organic compounds which contain chlorine but do not give silver chloride on addition of silver nitrate. This is also true for potassium chlorate ($KClO_3$), the salt which is used in "parlor" matches. This contains chlorine, but not as an ion, for its ions are potassium (K) and ClO_3 — in general, the ions of a salt are the metal, here K, and the rest of the salt, in this case ClO_3. On heating, potassium chlorate is decomposed with an evolution of gaseous oxygen, and potassium chloride remains behind; this, when dissolved, gives the reaction for the chlorine ion, so that the presence of chlorine in potassium chlorate is proven.

By expanding these ideas Ostwald has succeeded in placing the whole subject of analytical chemistry upon a rational basis, a thing which it previously lacked.

The ions show a much greater activity than other substances, and this has caused the following thesis to be formulated: It is only the ions which react chemically. Altho this law cannot be taken as perfectly general, even tho its application is wide, it does prove that the ions are very much more active chemically than any other substances.

In catalysis the ions play a very peculiar *rôle*. When an acid is added to a sugar solution the sugar is transformed into dextrose and levulose, and we say it is inverted. The progress of the inversion can be followed by aid of the polariscope. The velocity of inversion is found by this means, at constant temperature, to be dependent on the concentration of ions in the acid. Therefore, the laws of chemical activity and conductivity (or more properly ionic concentration) are parallel. Shortly after I announced this law in 1884 Ostwald verified it for certain cases, and later found it to be true for all cases.

When a number of ions are present in the same solution with undissociated molecules, they must exist together in a chemical equilibrium, to which the law of Guldberg and Waage can be applied. The results of Ostwald and Bredig for the equilibrium of weak acids with their ions and for weak bases with their ions show that the agreement with this theory is nearly perfect. I have studied more complex cases where several salts or acids, together with their ions, are present; and, again, the agreement is striking. Thus, for example, the strength of a solution of acetic acid is considerably decreased by the addition of an acetate. In the same way the partition of a base between two acids—the so-called problem of avidity—can be calculated and the values are found to agree perfectly with the results of the measurements of Thomsen and Ostwald. Finally, the solvent itself—*i.e.*, water—can be considered as a weak acid or a weak base and thus explain the phenomena of hydrolysis. Such a process is the partial decomposi-

tion of potassium cyanide in solution into caustic potash, and hydrocyanic acid. All these phenomena which were unexplained by the old chemistry can be readily explained and even calculated by the ionic theory.

Another reaction of great interest which has been explained by the ionic theory is the neutralization of an acid by a base, one of the most important of all chemical processes. It was noticed that when both acid and base are strong (in which case, according to the ionic theory, they can be regarded as completely decomposed into ions), the heat evolved amounts to 13,700 cals. per gram equivalent. This is nothing more than the heat of formation of water from its ions, $\overset{+}{H}$ and $\overset{-}{OH}$. We have, for example, in a very dilute solution caustic soda ($\overset{+}{Na} + \overset{-}{OH}$), to which is added hydrochloric acid ($\overset{+}{H} + \overset{-}{Cl}$); the reaction then is:

$$\overset{+}{Na} + \overset{-}{OH} + \overset{+}{H} + \overset{-}{Cl} = \overset{+}{Na} + \overset{-}{Cl} + HOH$$

This water is formed from the $\overset{+}{H}$ and $\overset{-}{OH}$ ions, which are independent of the nature of the acid and base. For weak acids and bases there are slight variations, which can, however, be calculated from their conductivities.

The ionic theory has thus explained a large number of the important facts of chemistry, and consequently is generally accepted. It has a particular meaning for physiological chemistry, for the fluids of the body consist of aqueous solutions of substances which to a great extent are dissociated into ions.

The ionic theory has added a new form of matter to the forms already known, this being characterized by a combination of electricity and matter. This new form plays the principal *rôle* in chemical processes. It is marvelous to observe in each additional investigation into natural phenomena how this wonderful agent, electricity, is found to govern them all. The phenomena of light are, according to Maxwell, nothing but the manifestations of electrical force, and in chemical processes electricitv plays a principal part.

Esperanto: A New International Language

BY LAZARO LUDIVIKO ZAMENHOF

[Dr. Zamenhof is the latest of those intrepid philologists who from time to time attempt to alleviate the calamity which fell upon the human race at the Tower of Babel, notwithstanding the apparently hopeless nature of their undertaking and the oblivion and contempt which have been the fate of their predecessors. "Esperanto" is, however, more promising than "Volapük," which is, or, perhaps, it is more correct to say, was, a highly inflected language, like Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, Russian, and German, while "Esperanto" goes even beyond English in being a grammarless tongue. Dr. Lamenhof was born in Bialzstock, in the department of Groduo, Russia, December 15th, 1850, and was educated at Warsaw, where he is a practicing physician. His polyglot environment impressed upon his mind at an early age the need for an international medium of intercourse, and in 1878 he had contrived his new language, which he taught to his fellow students in the preparatory school. After working on it for nine years more he considered ready to publish his first pamphlet, which he did at his own expense, since no publisher would take the risk. Our readers can judge of the appearance of the language from the example, part of a letter from the author, which we copy from *The Esperantist*, at the end of the article.—EDITOR.]

ESPERANTO is a neutral compounded language which aims at supplying men of divers nationalities with a means for mutual intercourse. Many erroneously fancy that Esperanto seeks to supplant existing tongues, whereas nothing of the kind is desired. At home and in the family circle all will ever converse in the national idiom: Esperanto will but serve them as a basis for communicating with those who are ignorant of their language.

LAZARO LUDIVIKO ZAMENHOF

In order to enjoy correspondence with foreigners it is at present necessary to learn *at least* four or five other languages. This is so difficult that it is possible of attainment to but a few persons; and these favored few can only understand a few languages. The rest of the world is for them a sealed book. On the other hand, did an international medium exist, it would only be necessary to learn this in addition to one's national tongue in order to understand and to be under stood by the whole world.

The well-informed have been working at this problem of an international language during the last two centuries. Many attempts to form such an idiom have been made, but all propositions have dwindled away to the vanishing point, for the matter was discovered to be extremely difficult. Not until the end of the nineteenth century did two systems appear which seemed to be really practicable, and which found many adherents. These were Volapük and Esperanto.

But the competition between these two systems was not of long duration, since Esperanto's great superiority over its rival was too evident to all. At the present time Volapük has long been cast aside and all friends to the cause of an international language have rallied round the Esperanto standard.

(1) Is the existence of a neutral compounded language possible?

Even now there exist, among those ignorant of the matter, many who contend that such a language cannot exist, since language is organic and cannot be created, and so on. Facts are the best witnesses to prove that this is folly. Any one who does not close his eyes on purpose can assuredly be readily convinced that such compounded languages have long been in existence, that hundreds of thousands of people belonging to different lands and nationalities correspond by them with each other and carry on the most lively oral communications on all kinds of subjects and understand each other as well as if they had been using their mother-tongue, altho not one of them knows the national language of his interlocutor. It is truly absurd to question the practicability of the language in the face of such proofs as these. It resembles the argument of a German society about the possibility of constructing locomotives when, for some years, England had been making use of railways and had found them capable of fulfilling all requirements.

(2) Why should not some extant language, such as English, be selected for the international medium?

To select for international purposes any natural language would never be possible. The self-esteem and self-preserving instincts of all nations could never permit it. The people whose language was selected would gain a truly great superiority over the rest, and would soon overwhelm all other peoples. But even should we admit that all nations could, on their own initiative, select such an already existing language, none would be the gainer, for all natural tongues are so exceedingly difficult that their mastery would only be possible to those endowed with plenty of spare time and money.

For centuries past studious youths have spent long years in learning Latin, yet are there to be found many able to make free use of this tongue? Yet had the same youths spent *but a tenth of the time* in mastering the international auxiliary every human being would now

be intelligible to his fellow. In a few weeks one can learn Esperanto sufficiently well to be able to communicate one's ideas with freedom.

(3) Would it not be doubtful wisdom to learn Esperanto to-day, as maybe to-morrow some other and superior language may put in an appearance, and displace Esperanto, with the result that we shall have to start afresh and learn another new language?

Even should one really fear that to-morrow will bring a language better than Esperanto, it would still be unwise not to learn Esperanto to-day, just as it would have been foolish to delay the construction of railways for fear of the discovery of an improved method of locomotion. But in reality we have no need to fear for Esperanto's future. All critics have come to the conclusion that the international language of the future must embody the following two requirements: (I) Its grammar must be as simple as possible. (II) Its vocabulary must consist of such root-words as are in form recognizable to the greatest part of the civilized globe, in other words, those which are to be found in the largest number of cultured languages.

These two postulates precisely illustrate the principles underlying the construction of the Esperanto language. What, therefore, could a further new language introduce?

Esperanto's entire grammar consists of but sixteen brief and simple rules, which can be mastered in half an hour. Can the possible new language submit a more simple grammar and would the world consent to reject the thoroughly elaborated, well tried and largely diffused Esperanto in favor of a new tongue, whose grammar could possibly be mastered in twenty-five minutes, instead of in thirty?

And as all words of the most international form have already been incorporated into Esperanto it follows that these words must constitute the vocabulary of this ideal language.

Let all, therefore, rest assured that, altho Esperanto may possibly at some future date be made more perfect, the elaboration of a new scheme is absolutely out of the question.

(4) What are the principal characteristics of Esperanto?

It is remarkably easy to acquire. While the study of any other language demands many years' application, one can gain a really good working knowledge of Esperanto in a few weeks. Moreover, men of education can often read this language freely after some hours' study. Take Leo Tolstoy, for example. He says:

"So great is the facility of learning Esperanto that, having received a grammar, dictionary, and an article in that language, I was able, after not more than two hours, if not to write, at any rate to read the language freely. In any event the sacrifices any speaker of a European tongue would make in devoting some time to the study of Esperanto are so small, and the results which could thereby be achieved are so enormous, if all, at least Europeans and Americans—all Christendom—should comprehend this tongue, that the attempt at least should be made."

The remarkable simplicity of the language is brought about by the fact that not only is the grammar capable of being learned in half an hour, and is free from all exceptions, but also because it also possesses divers rules by which all are able to coin other words from any given root without being forced to learn them. Thus, for example, the prefix MAL signifies absolute opposites. (*Bona*, Good, *Malbona*, Bad.) Thus, having learnt the words *Alta, Dika, Proksima, Luma, Ami, Estimi, Supre*, etc., meaning *High, Thick, Near, Light, To Love, To Esteem, Above*, etc., none need learn the opposite words *Malalta, Maldika, Malproksima, Malluma, Malami, Malestimi, Malsupre*, which signify *Low, Thin, Far, Dark, To Hate, To Despise, Below*, etc. Thus all can manufacture for themselves the opposite to any known root by making use of the prefix MAL. Also IN is used to form feminines. Knowing that *Patro, Frato, Filo, Edzo, Koko, Bovo*, etc., mean *Father, Brother, Son, Husband, Cock, Bull*, one need not learn the words *Patrino, Fratino, Filino, Edzino, Kokino, Bovino*, etc., which are represented in English by the totally different words *Mother, Sister, Daughter, Wife, Hen, Cow*, etc.

A further example is afforded by the suffix IL, which indicates an instrument by whose instrumentality an action takes place. Thus, having learnt that *Sonori, Kombi, Kudri, Plugi* mean in English

To Ring, Comb, Sew and *Plough,* we at once know that *Sonorilo, Kombilo, Kudrilo, Plugilo* mean *A Bell, Comb, Needle, Plough,* respectively. Of these affixes, which serve to simplify and abbreviate the language in such a remarkable manner, there exist about forty in Esperanto.

From every word one can form for himself the substantive, adjective, verb, adverb, participles, etc., by simply adding the requisite termination. Take, for example, the root *Mort,* which signifies the idea of *Death.* All know at once that *Morti* means *To Die, Morto, Death, Morta, Mortal,* etc., *for all nouns end in q, present infinitives in i, adjectives in o, and so on.*

It is, therefore, unnecessary to learn these parts of speech separately. One can also combine any preposition with any other word and thus obtain without study all possible shades of human thought. Thanks to this, Esperanto, in spite of its remarkable simplicity, is as rich and flexible as any existing language.

In fine, from every root-word one can form an endless array of derivatives, and that root-word is generally known to any educated civilized person, as Esperanto's vocabulary consists of such words as are used in the majority of important languages (such as *Botaniko, Direktoro, Telegrafo, Portreto, Formo,* etc.).

Nowadays Esperantists of one nationality are constantly visiting fellow students abroad. After studying the language for some days or weeks, many Esperantists have traversed the whole of Europe, which has hitherto been closed to them. At all points they meet fellow Esperantists, who receive them as brethren, and with whom they converse on whatever matter they please.

Moreover, one must also bear in mind that one can be understood in Esperanto not merely by those who already know that language, but also by those who are totally ignorant of the same! Esperanto is so constructed that, on writing anything in the language, it is comprehensible to the recipient, thanks to a compact dictionary and grammar printed in a broadsheet. This is a unique property not possessed by any national tongue. Take, as illustration, the German phrase: "*Ich weiss nicht wo ich meinen stock gelassen habe.*" (*I don't know where I have left my stick.*) On referring to a German-English dictionary we find: "*I white not where I to think story dispassionate property.*"

The last named quality of Esperanto has an incalculable practical significance, for it at once makes the whole world able to understand a solitary Esperantist. When the latter needs to write a letter to any foreign country, he no longer need seek out men who understand the language of that country and ask them to write a letter for him, but he himself writes direct in Esperanto, and incloses with the letter the broadsheet already referred to, printed, of course, in the language of the recipient. The latter is at once able to understand the letter.

In spite of its purely mathematical construction, Esperanto is agreeable to the ear withal. In sound it much resembles Italian. I will quote the following lines to illustrate this:

"En la mondon venis nova sento,
Tra la mondo iras forta voko;
Per flugilo de facila vento
Nun de loko flugu ghi al loko."

(5) What is the present condition of Esperanto?

At the present time there scarcely exists any country which does not contain many Esperantists. In a great many cities Esperanto clubs and societies exist, as well as reading circles and classes. For example, in Paris alone there are no less than thirty classes in Esperato in various parts of the city.

To those who wish to become acquainted with the present state of Esperanto in the world I recommend the brochure published by the Lyon Esperantist Group. As a result of an inquiry based on information from all Esperantist centers, this group has published "*La diffusion de l'Esperanto dans la monde.*" The committee making the inquiry consisted of the following persons: M. Cledat, head of the Literary Side of the Lyon University, Professor of Philology at the University and Director of *La Revue de Philologie Française.* Dr. Dor, Honorary Professor of the Berne University; M. Drodin, Agent de Change; M. Ferouillat, proprietor of the "Lyon Republicain;" M. Legouis, Eng-

lish professor at that university; M. Offret, Professor of Mineralogy at the said university and Vice-President of the French Mineralogical Society, as well as being the General Secretary of the Lyon Esperantist Group; M. Patricot, Director of an assurance society; M. Quinson, silk manufacturer; M. Soulier, Professor of Therapeutics at the Lyon University (Medical Side); M. Toucheboeuf, retired silk manufacturer.

Some twenty-five magazines and gazettes are now published in Esperanto, among which is one specially devoted to scientific matters, published by the well-known firm Messrs. Hachette, under the patronage of the following persons and societies: The French Physics Society, the International Society of Electricians, Professors Adelskjold (Stockholm), Appell (Paris), D'Arsonval (Paris), Baudoin de Courtenay (St. Petersburg), Berthelot (Paris), Prince Roland Bonaparte; Professors Bouchard (Paris), Becquerel (Paris), Brouardel (Paris), Deslandres (Paris), Duclaux (Paris), Förster (Berlin), Haller (Paris), Henri Poincaré (Paris), Sir W. Ramsay (London), General Sébert (Paris).

Esperanto also possesses a literature already rich, which, in addition to text-books and dictionaries in nearly all European tongues, contains a considerable number of original works and translations, including metrical translations of Shakespeare's Hamlet, Homer's Iliad, Byron's Cain, and many others. The titles of all Esperanto publications are to be found in the world-wide "Address Book of Esperantists," published by Messrs. Hachette, of Paris

While there at present exists scarcely a single important country in the civilized world which does not possess its Esperanto center and gazette, the United States of North America have hitherto formed a strange exception. In the United States, which, owing to the cosmopolitan nature of their inhabitants, is bound to play a leading part in the adoption of the international key language, there does not at present exist any central society of Esperantists. There is an Esperanto section to the St. Louis Exhibition, and it is to be hoped that this will arouse much new interest in the Esperanto cause. Pending this happy state of affairs all in the United States who wish to become identified with the movement, which has such an important bearing on the future welfare of humanity, and also those who merely wish to procure the *Complete Textbook of Esperanto in English* (*price, 40 cents*) *and The Esperantist Monthly* (*75 cents per annum*) should apply to the London Esperanto Club, 41 Outer Temple, London, W. C.

ESPERANTO.

Ankoraŭ unu cirkonstanco igis min por longa tempo prokrasti mian publikan eliron kun la lingvo: dum longa tempo restis nesolvita unu problemo, kiu havas grandegan signifon por neŭtrala lingvo. Mi sciis ke ĉiu diros al mi: "Via lingvo estos por mi utila nur tiam, kiam la tuta mondo ĝin akceptos; tial mi ne povas ĝin akcepti ĝis tiam, kiam ĝin akceptos la tuda mondo." Sed ĉar la "mondo" ne estas ebla sen antaŭaj apartaj "unuoj," la neŭtrala lingvo ne povis havi estontecon ĝis tiam, kiam prosperos fari ĝian utilon por ĉiu aparta persono sendependa de tio, ĉu jam estas la lingvo akceptita de la mondo aŭ ne.

Pri tiu ĉi problemo mi longe pensis. Fine la tiel nomataj sekretaj alfabetoj, kiuj ne postulas ke la mondo antaŭe ilin akceptu, kaj donas al tute nedediĉita adresato la eblon kompreni ĉion skribitan de vi, se vi nur transdonas al la adresato la ŝlosilon—alkondukis min al la penso aranĝi ankaŭ la lingvon en la maniero de tia "ŝlosilo," kiu, enhavante en si ne sole la tutan vortaron, sed ankaŭ la tutan gramatikon en la formo de apartaj elementoj. Tiu ĉi ŝlosilo, tute memstara kaj alfabete ordita, donus la eblon al la tute nedediĉita adresato de kia ajn nacio tuj kompreni vian Esperantan leteron.

WARSAW, RUSSIA

FREE ENGLISH TRANSLATION.

Yet another circumstance compelled me to postpone for a long time the appearance of my language; for many years another problem of immense importance to a neutral language had remained unsolved. I knew that every one would say "Your language will be of no use to me until the world at large accepts it, so I shall make no use of it until every one else does." But since the world at large is composed only of its units, my neutral language could have no future until it was of use to each separate unit independently of whether the world at large accepted it or not.

This problem I considered for a long while. At last the so-called secret alphabets, which do not necessitate any prior knowledge of them, and enable any person not in the secret to understand all that is written if you but transmit the key, gave me an idea. I arranged my language after the fashion of such a key, inserting not only the entire dictionary but also the whole grammar in the form of its separate elements. This key, entirely self-contained and alphabetically arranged, enabled any one of any nationality to understand without further ado a letter written in Esperanto.

Literature

Books on the Old Testament

THE Book of Numbers is commonly considered one of the least of the books of Scripture, both in interest, in importance and in religious value. It opens with one of the dullest and most monotonous sections of the Old Testament, the census of the tribes in the wilderness of Sinai. It continues through ten chapters with descriptions of camp arrangements, rehearsal of the duties of the several Levitical families, and various laws and regulations of quite minor importance. The book has no unity of subject, and narrative and legal material are mingled in such confusion that there is no connected story, while the laws are concerned with such a variety of topics that they offer no clear view of Hebrew institutions. Nevertheless, Numbers is our sole source of information of the life of Israel in the desert, the nomadic period of Hebrew history; it contains some of the earliest fragments of poetry preserved in the Old Testament, is our chief authority on such important Hebrew institutions as the Levites and the Nazarites, and includes the story of Balaam, so interesting and important from many points of view.

A good commentary on Numbers is, therefore, very necessary. That of Professor Gray* in the International Critical Commentary will rank as one of the best in that excellent series. It is a work of ripe and thorough scholarship, and combines painstaking exactness and accurate learning with sound critical judgment and real historical insight. The author has viewed his text, not as a mere series of lexicographical puzzles, but as a document in the history of a nation. He has produced, therefore, not only a commentary which will be likely to continue as a standard for many years, but also a contribution to the study of Hebrew religion and history. The importance of the Numbers is in such points as the law of the ordeal, the Nazarite cutting of the hair, the story of the brazen serpent—reflections of some of the earliest practices of Hebrew religion—rather than in the unhistorical census figures and descriptions of camp arrangements and late priestly institutions.

The division of Numbers into documentary sources is practically the same in the commentary and in the new translation and rearrangement of the Old Testament by Professor Kent.† Previous endeavors to show the literary structure of the Old Testament by printing devices have seldom gone farther than the Hexateuch. The Student's Old Testament is to classify the entire Old Testament into six volumes, dividing it into history, prophecy, laws, etc. This first volume includes the historical portions as far as the book of Ruth. The documents are printed in parallel columns, and the text is divided into convenient sections with appropriate headings. The notes are trustworthy, tho sometimes too brief, and the introduction is excellent, presenting the facts as to the legendary character and historical untrustworthiness of much of the material clearly, but without needless offense. The translation aims first at exactness, and is somewhat literal. The book is designed for popular use, and presents the present conclusions of Old Testament scholars as to the origin and character of the first eight books of the Bible in more convenient form and at less cost than has heretofore been available.

Mrs. Thomas's history of Israel to the time of Samuel‡ is designed for children. The salient incidents are selected, and the stories are retold in a simple and interesting manner. Reproduction of famous paintings of scenes described in the text and the insertion of several beautiful poems founded on events in Israel's early history make the book attractive.

* A CRITICAL AND EXEGETICAL COMMENTARY ON NUMBERS. *By George Buchanan Gray, M.A., D.D.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.00.

† NARRATIVES OF THE BEGINNINGS OF HEBREW HISTORY. *By Charles Foster Kent, Ph.D.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.75.

‡ THE EARLY STORY OF ISRAEL. *By Evelyn L. Thomas.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 90 cents.

But, despite the purpose announced in the editor's preface to "set forth nothing inconsistent with the results of Biblical and historical criticism," the story of Israel here told is not the history of Israel as Professors Kent and Gray understand it. It is the history written by Stanley 40 years ago, not the history of Welhausen and H. P. Smith. This may be better for children, but it does not fulfil the promise made for the book in the editor's preface.

Mr. Todd's volume§ is professedly an application of the bread-and-butter theory of history to the Old Testament. It attempts to construct Hebrew history on the theory that "the two main preoccupations of man, wherever we find him, are, first, to earn his dinner, and, second, to eat it." The Israelite has been regarded as a religious man, "saying grace before meat, but caring nothing for the dinner." Such an Israelite is a "ghost," a "lifeless simulacrum" to Mr. Todd, and he proposes a history "translated from the dreams of prophets to the vitality of practical politics, in the literal meaning of that phrase," a history "made actual at every stage," in which Israel's religion is simply "the theological counterpart of the city-state of Jerusalem."

If the author had carried out his theory consistently at every point, his book would not contain the excellent interpretations of Elisha, Amos and Hosea which it offers. Mr. Todd is a suggestive writer and a man of broad powers of generalization, and his history is better than his historical principles. The conclusion that the Old Testament is "the *epos* of the Fall of Jerusalem," that that disaster and the consequences which followed form the subject of the whole, that the parallel of Jerusalem is to be sought in the city-states of the Mediterranean rather than in the world-empires of Asia, may not win favor; but many of the details in Hebrew history are described with remarkable power and vividness, and the work commands one's interest and suggests new points of view and new interpretations of many events. The book is better in details than in its larger outline, tho conjectures sometimes have too much color of facts, as in the suggestion that the Levites were descendants of the Canaanites (p. 62), that David received Hebron from the Philistines (p. 76), that the members of the early prophetic order could be known from tattooing on the face (p. 91). The argument for the importance of Elisha (p. 150) and the description of Assyria (p. 114) remind one of the best writing of George Adam Smith.

§ POLITICS AND RELIGION IN ANCIENT ISRAEL. *By Rev. J. C. Todd, M.A.* New York: The Macmillan Co. $1.50.

The Eighteenth Century*

IN the death of Sir Leslie Stephen we have lost our best contemporary critic. Cool, cautious, shrewd, reasonable, laborious, he represents, in English, criticism of the advanced and modern type, criticism historical and scientific at its best. That criticism had and still has its disadvantages. It is too exclusively explanatory, too much inclined to deal with books as phenomena which have only to be accepted and accounted for as results of something else, too negligent of the message in the pursuit of accessories and conditions. For, after all, there is a difference between scholarship and criticism; and whereas the scholar exists to restore and rehabilitate the past, the critic exists to discover and reveal what lesson it may have for the present. In this sense, therefore, if the distinction is to be made, we must recognize that there is more, perhaps, of the scholar than of the critic in Stephen's work.

It must be evident to any one who has ever attempted to read another literature than that of his own period how difficult it is to get on without some knowledge of the political and social conditions of the time. And the statement is particularly true of the literature of the eighteenth century, which is in a manner peculiarly local and occasional. At the same time there is much in that literature which is likely to be of great value to us at present if we could but read it. Its great strength, for instance, is a keen sense for intellectual order. If you are looking for mystery, illusion, wonder, you shall not find them in the eighteenth century. But you will find, instead, reason, good sense, a sharp eye for conduct

* ENGLISH LITERATURE AND SOCIETY IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY. *By Leslie Stephen.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.00.

and character. Besides, it was a literature of the whole, of all the very best there was in its time, a literature neither rustic nor provincial, but urban and urbane. It is by these qualities that eighteenth century literature is classical —by its hatred for confusion, obscurity and vagueness. Its virtues are propriety, moderation and taste. And if it has also the defects of its virtues—if it falls into commonplaceness, artificiality and dogmatism—yet it does at best offer a corrective to some of our most inveterate faults. The difficulty is to get at it properly, and that cannot be done without an understanding of the life of the time, of which the literature is, in Stephen's opinion, but a function or "by-product." This, then, is the office that the volume fulfils and, on the whole, fulfils admirably.

Literature, in the author's opinion, is mainly a mode of social activity. It consists largely in applying a set of "symbols" to the ideas which happen to be in power, and is therefore determined (as far as it is calculable, for genius is allowed to be an incalculable term) by the community in which it flourishes and particularly that part of the community which constitutes the reading public. In this way is made up "the literary organ," including public and authors with the ideas which they represent; and the problem, at least for our present critic, is to determine this literary organ for any given period. As regards the solution, the book is a sort of digest of the writer's former works—his "English Thought in the Eighteenth Century," his lives of Johnson, Pope and Swift—from the point of view of literature. In this way the volume has a body, a solidity, a compactness very rare indeed in current criticism. Some blemishes there are. He is inclined from time to time to drop into a kind of pseudo-scientific jargon. He misses, it seems to us, the right point of view for the Comedy of the Restoration, treating it like tragi-comedy and not pure comedy. But, on the whole, the performance is, in general method, an example to literary history and is likely to remain a model to English literary scholarship for many a day.

William Pepper

TOWARD the middle of the last century a company of quiet-loving Philadelphians, seeking an afternoon nap at a summer hotel, were aroused by a tremendous hubbub in the corridor. The noise maker proved to be a four year old, armed with two sticks, with which he beat on the doors of the various bedrooms, shouting the while at the top of his lungs: "No one shall sleep in this house this afternoon, I say, if I can help it!" This four year old was William Pepper. Fifty years afterward some one hearing this story of his infancy remarked: "And no one has slept in Philadelphia for years because of that same William Pepper." This story, which Professor Thorpe tells, is characteristic of the man and his life. He set out to wake up Philadelphia, and, with ceaseless and restless energy, he pounded on the door of every Philadelphian who tried to sleep, demanding his assistance in work, civic or educational, until he had levied a contribution of money, time or energy.

Professor Thorpe gives this brief *resumé* of his public work for Philadelphia: He founded the University Hospital, the Commercial Museums and the Philadelphia Free Library; he reorganized and recreated the University of Pennsylvania; he improved the city water supply; he produced an entire change in the attitude of the public mind of Philadelphia toward education and the ideals of life. To carry out his educational and other plans he raised about $10,000,000. He was himself one of the most liberal givers for these purposes and Professor Thorpe estimates his gifts at a half million of dollars, which he earned in the practice of an exacting profession.

Professor Thorpe divides his treatment of Dr. Pepper's life into three parts: Physician and Medical Writer, Educator, Citizen, in each of which aspects he follows his career chronologically. The story of his youth and ancestry is incorporated in the first part, which deals with him as physician and medical writer. In this part, commencing with his birth, we

* WILLIAM PEPPER, M.D., LL.D. *By Francis Newton Thorpe.* Philadelphia and London: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1904. Pp. 555; 6¼ x 9.

follow his life step by step to 1898, when he died, worn out, at the age of fifty-four. In the second part, "The University," returning to 1862, when he was nineteen, we follow his life on another side to his resignation of the office of provost in 1894 at the age of fifty-one, after he had held office for thirteen years. Incidents and characteristics, which give such a revelation as the book affords of the personal nature of the man, and the account of his closing years, with the struggle against increasing physical infirmities, brought on by excessive work, are included in part three, "The Citizen."

As a physician Dr. Pepper made important contributions to medical science, not by direct discovery, but by the interpretation and application of the discoveries of others. He brought together and made accessible the latest and best results. Outside of his medical writings, Dr. Pepper was the author of numerous articles on education, addresses before learned societies and the like. One address, his presidential address before the first Pan-American Medical Congress, in 1893, seems to have produced so strong an impression on the representatives from Spanish America as to win him a fame in Mexico greater, probably, than that which he enjoyed at home.

Inasmuch as his activities as physician, educator and citizen did not occupy different portions of his career, but were contemporaneous, Professor Thorpe's method of treatment of his subject is artistically faulty. Moreover, his picture is one-sided. It represents only virtues and achievements, and because there are no shadows the portrait is neither so interesting nor so true to nature as it should be. On the other hand, the very faults of the book serve to bring out most strikingly certain salient features of Dr. Pepper's life and character. There is a sense of constant rush and hurry. You seek to become acquainted with the personality of the man behind his ceaseless activities and find an engine, whirring and grinding relentlessly. There is no record of close friendships. He looks on the men and women about him as material to be used for some purpose; and as for himself—he is pushed onward by an irresistible necessity of motion; the fires have been lighted and he cannot stop. Professor Thorpe says that this insatiable need of activity was like a disease. What he achieved was wonderful; but one lays down the book with a feeling that it is not the story of a man, but of a splendid machine.

The Life of Frederic William Farrar. By his Son, Reginald Farrar. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.00.

Mr. Reginald Farrar ought, perhaps, to have announced himself as editor of the Life of his Father; for the volume presents something distinctly new in biography. Only part of it has been written by Mr. Farrar. It is a composite work, of which Mr. Farrar is editor; for nearly every one who was long in close contact with the late Dean of Canterbury at any time in his life—at school in the Isle of Man and in London; at Cambridge University; at Marlborough, as an assistant master; at Harrow in the same capacity; again at Marlborough, as Headmaster; at St. Margaret's and at Westminster Abbey, and finally at Canterbury—has contributed to the volume, and Mr. Farrar has done little more than knit together these numerous reminiscences of men and women who were associated with the Dean in his long, busy, and eminently successful life. This is not said in the least as a disparagement of the book. It was a happy idea of Mr. Farrar's to adopt this plan. It saved him much work, and the result is a better biography of Dean Farrar than perhaps could have been produced by the orthodox method, seeing that the biographer was the Dean's son; and, moreover, the plan saved Mr. Farrar from pronouncing some judgments which a son is not usually the best person to form and promulgate. This method of procedure, moreover, has another good result in a biography of a man of such strong character and varied achievements as Dean Farrar. It brings us into close personal relationship with the men and women who were his friends; and in the case of Dean Farrar it is remarkable with how many men who have achieved fame in their own particular work in life he was brought into close contact and active association. The list is too long to be quoted, but it includes

men as far remote from Dean Farrar in the later work of his life, as the late Sir Edwin Arnold, for more than forty years editorial writer on the *Daily Telegraph;* and Mr. George W. Russell, who has been so long of the *Manchester Guardian* staff; and to take two more instances at random, Professor Beesly and Judge Vernon Lushington, who were long Mr. Frederic Harrison's associates in the Positivist movement in London. Several of the contributors to this composite biography express their regret that Dean Farrar was not of the Bishop's Bench in the House of Lords. But there need be no regret that Dean Farrar was not so promoted. He brought Marlborough into front rank among English schools, and if he had gone to Halifax in 1875, when Disraeli offered him one of the richest livings in England, and had thence been called to the Bishop's Bench, it is probable that the restoration of St. Margaret's Westminster and of Canterbury Cathedral might have had to wait for many years; for men of energy and resourcefulness like Farrar are not too numerous in the Church of England. Farrar did not lack prizes even in the Church, and wherever he went—Marlborough, Harrow, St. Margaret's and Canterbury—he left rich traditions of success. Had he been promoted to the Episcopal bench he might have been put beyond the reach of publishers, who knew the selling value of his name, and might have left undone some book-making, useful perhaps, but that might have been done by men who had not the opportunities of valuable work as were always before Dean Farrar. In this event, Mr. Farrar would have been spared the task of defending some of his father's literary work from the critics.

Fort Amity. By A T. Quiller-Couch. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.

This story deals with the movement of the British upon French Canada, and opens with the storming of Fort Ticonderoga in 1758. Unlike the average historical novelist, the author considers this period in relation to what has transpired before, and with a long perspective upon the ultimate future. This results in a moderation of literary expression that will seem tame to those readers who have accustomed their imagination to the average blood heated romance of this class. The fact is, Quiller-Couch is not so much a dramatist as he is the painter of dramatic situations. He writes with that air of detachment which belongs primarily to the scholarly and philosophic mind. He regards characters and events as so much literary material to be worked up; and beneath his unimpassioned pen, the fiercest battle becomes merely an admirably drawn picture of the strife. He has no gift for creating the life illusion. Yet few writers surpass him in accuracy and delicacy of literary style.

Man and Superman: A Comedy and a Philosophy. By G. Bernard Shaw. Brentano's. $1.25.

Probably the fantastic genius of Bernard Shaw has never sparkled with greater brilliancy than in his latest play, *Man and Superman,* a modern Don Juan, as he announces it, and only such an interpretation of that hero as that author and no other is capable of creating. Instead of finding the old libertine swaggering about amidst the broken hearts of his helpless adorers, he plays now before us in what the author regards as the true *rôle,* the *rôle* of every man, in fact, who is not a poet or an artist—namely, that of the commonest quarry, hunted down by any woman who hapens to be on the spot and who wants him. And no matter how well he understands and how, when crowded into close quarters, he leaps into his automobile and drives to the wildnesses of the mountains of Spain, he is overtaken easily by the lady and led a piteous captive to the matrimonial sacrifice. It is the new woman no more than it is the old; they have always done this way from the days of the garden, only we have pretended they did not in the romances of literature, because, well—it has been more befitting to masculine dignity to have it so, in the first place, and in the second place the romances were not written in sympathy with the ordinary man, and our hero, after all, is but the ordinary. And yet here is contradiction in the argument, for he is proclaimed from the beginning to be a genius, and

to prove his right to the title is a deadly long dream of the Mozart character in the third act and a characteristically drastic "Revolutionist's Handbook" in the appendix, that he is said to have written before his capture. Its philosophy, however, is as weak as his character, since it advocates the breeding of a new race, the Superman, Nietzsche's Uebermensch, in order to save the world from democracy. But since it is avowed that the chance Superman is never recognized when met with, and since he alone is free from the wiles of women, it is an absurdity to hope for such a race, and once through with this whirlwind of cleverness, we agree with Mr. Shaw in his preface that he knows little more than the rest of us about the matter, but we are glad that we like his play, preface and appendix, all delightfully witty and paradoxical.

Christian Socialism in England. By Arthur V. Woodworth, Ph.D. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.00

This is an accurate and detailed account of two movements in the Episcopal Church in England, both inspired by Rev. F. D. Maurice, the first personally, the second through his writings. Of the first movement, which began about 1848 and was helped by Kingsley, Hughes, Ludlow and other stalwarts, much has been written before, and this book says nothing new. Of the second movement, inaugurated by Rev. Stewart Headlam in 1877 and continued more prosperously by the Christian Social Union since 1889, the writer gives a trustworthy account, rather fuller than the small volume of the movement justifies. The title of the book is misleading, tho justified by usage as to the first movement, for all the societies concerned declined to advocate Socialism. "Maurice never questioned the right of private propery so long as the owner realized his social responsibility, and the majority of the members of the Christian Social Union would undoubtedly agree with this to-day." By ignoring all religious socialistic movements outside the Episcopal Church the author shows that scornful spirit of exclusiveness which makes the Nonconformists justly rage. Since the societies he describes were certainly not Socialist and were only narrowly Christian, he would have better justified his title by describing also the Labor Churches and the social work of the Congregationalists, Methodists, Baptists and others. The Labor Churches, started by John Trevor, a Unitarian minister in Manchester, atone for their lack of theological dogma by their greater precision of economic thought. The Congregational Union and others through their Home Missionary Committees insist quite as strongly as the Christian Social Union upon the brotherhood of man, and the works of Rev. Percy Alden at Mansfield House, Canning Town, and of Rev. M. Stead at Browning House, South London, are quite as Christian and as socialistic as the List of Fair Shops, the little circulating libraries, the Sermons in Lent and the other valuable but not world-stirring activities described in this volume.

The Seiners. By J. B Connolly. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.50.

The Seiners is a novel which has caused one reviewer to rate its author with Jack London and Stewart Edward White. It is not equal to that, in spite of the fact that it is a first-rate story of open-air adventure. Its theme is the life of the Gloucester fishermen. The author has seen fit to introduce them and their affairs on shore, and this part of the story drags; but when they have put to sea and are in sight of the mackerel *The Seiners* is as jolly reading as any man could want. It is told with splendid verve, and its characters are alive and its humor delightful. There is a boat race at the end of the season, and we advise no one who cares for boat races to miss the story of the victory of the "able 'Johnnie Duncan' sailin' across the line on her side and her crew sittin' out on the keel."

The Confessions of a Club Woman. By Agnes Surbridge. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.

A novel dedicated to "The average club woman, that product of modern conditions, wherein are commingled all the virtues and some of the faults of her sex." And after careful perusal, we can imagine the fury which will fill the heart of that "average club woman" when she reads the book, which professes to portray her "as she is." It is scarcely

fair to her, whatever her faults may be, to take up a collection of absurdities from all the woman's clubs in the country in order to foist them all upon the Chicago club to which the pretty, ambitious wife of the grocer belonged. The author has industriously gleaned in the wide field of gossip, and we suspect her, like another Ruth, to have been favored with a few stray handfuls of "club stories," which some kindly Boaz has generously let fall in her way. The book resembles a recent novel by Mrs. Marie Van Vorst in its manifest special pleading, and its exaggeration of the dangers of such an innocent plaything as a "literary club" in the hands of the modern Minerva.

Literary Notes

THEISM Under Natural Law, by Edward Softly. New York: Thomas Whittaker, $1.50. This book is not likely to find favor with either theist or atheist. It will neither please the one nor convince the other.

....The Transfigured Sackcloth, by the Rev. W. L. Watkinson. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co,. $1.25. This volume is a series of sermons, and is on a par with the other books by Mr. Watkinson. It is to be commended without reserve.

....Poultney Bigelow has just completed the fourth volume of his "German Struggle for Liberty," and has left Munich for a second cruise down the Danube, in order, as he says, "to pump in some ozone against my winter lecturing in Boston University."

...."The Financial Red Book of America," published by the Financial Directory Association, 25 West Broadway, New York, aims to contain the names and addresses, classified by cities and States, of all men and women in the United States worth over $300,000. We note several errors and omissions, but not more than is inevitable in so difficult a compilation.

....The great interest awakened within the last few years in genealogical research is resulting in the publication of many excellent family histories, and among the best of these, both in form and completeness, is that on the Barclays. This is a volume of 474 large octavo pages, entitled "The Barclays of New York: Who They Are and Who They Are Not, and Some Other Barclays," by R. Burnham Moffat, and published by R. G. Cooke, New York. $5.00. The index of related families will give an interest to others not of the name.

Pebbles

WHEN you borrow an umbrella, for heaven's sake, why don't you return it?—*Atchison Globe.*

FROM A PHYSICIAN'S STANDPOINT.

He who eats and runs away
Will have dys-pep-si-a some day.
—*Baltimore American.*

....There's nothing so deficient in a sense of humor as the editor of a comic magazine—many of them seem positively unable to ever take a joke.—*Life.*

....A girl may come home from her vacation boasting nineteen proposals in two weeks, and still have spent no time with more than one man.—*Harper's Bazar.*

....*Gardener:* "This here is a tobacco plant in full flower." *Lady:* "How very interesting! And how long will it be before the cigars are ripe?"—*New Yorker.*

....*She:* "Do you really enjoy whist. Mr. Finesse?" *He:* "Do I enjoy it? Not at all, madam; not at all. I play a distinctly scientific game."—*Boston Transcript.*

....*Employer:* "Yes, I advertised for a strong boy. Think you will fill the bill?" *Applicant:* "Well, I just finished lickin' nineteen other applicants out in de hall."—*Philadelphia Inquirer.*

....A: "I don't hear you talking about your vegetable gardens any more. Don't these heavy rains suit you?" B: "Well, they enable us to raise some things successfully." A: "What, for instance?" B: "Umbrellas, mostly."—*Philadelphia Press.*

...."Do you not sometimes have soulful yearnings which you long to convey in words, but cannot?" asked the sentimental girl. "Yes, indeed," replied the young man. "I was once dreadfully anxious to send home for money and I didn't have the price of a telegram."—*Stray Stories.*

....*Unreliable: Edyth:* "So your engagement with Tom has been declared off, eh?" *Mayme:* "Yes. He promised to return the lock of my hair that adorns his locket, but he has failed to do so." *Edyth:* "Well, I never did have much faith in those alleged hair restorers."—*Chicago News.*

....THE STRATEGY OF SAMUEL.—*Proud Father:* "I tell you, sir, that boy of mine will be a wonder!" *Friend* (wearily): "What wonderful thing has he done now?" *Proud Father:* "Why, the other day he ate all the preserves in the pantry. I overheard him say, as he smeared the cat's face with the stuff: 'I'm sorry, Tom, to do this, but I can't have the old folks suspect me.'"—*Smart Set.*

Editorials

The Irish-American Vote

JUST as the negro vote has been solidly Republican, so the Irish vote has been solidly Democratic. A Democratic negro has been as rare as a speckled blackbird, and a Republican Irishman about as scarce as snakes in Ireland. Why the negroes should avoid the Democratic Party is plain enough; records, platforms and candidates settle it. But why should not an Irishman be a Republican?

A reason given is that the Irish were compelled to go into the Democratic Party at the time of the "American" "Knownothing" party in the fifties, when a large Irish immigration had been coming into this country. The principles of that secret party, with its lodges, were to shut out the Irish Catholics and put none but native Americans in office. That was the time when a mob burned down a convent in Charleston, Mass., the blackened ruins of which were left as a monument of bigotry. Such was the doctrine of the party, but it was in good measure a policy and a blind on the part of the Free-Soilers who joined it to kill the Whig party, and this they completely did; so that while the Silver-gray, mossback Whigs remained a while as a remnant, and finally joined the Democratic Party, the bulk of them, with all the old Free-soilers, made up the new Republican Party. Thus there being no Whig Party, and the Knownothings like wild fire capturing the States, the Irish were compelled to join the Democratic Party, and there they have remained.

But the War came on when the Republican Party was in power, and the Irish Catholics did grand work in the army, and no one could suspect the Republican Party any longer of hostility to the Irish Catholics. Then when the Plumed Knight, James G. Blaine, was the candidate in 1884, a certain number of the Irish followed his banner, and perhaps more would have done so but for the Burchardism of "Rum, Romanism and Rebellion." The crowding of the Irish in the cities, with their clannishness, has kept them almost wholly in their old party.

And yet there has been some reason why the better and more progressive class of Irishmen should escape the Democratic Party. The rule of Irish Tammany has been a discredit to the race, and some have resented the reputation. It is well known that the most progressive ecclesiastic in the Catholic Church, Archbishop Ireland, is a Republican, and there are Catholic papers which seem to be quite as sympathetic with the same party, but they are such as venture on a certain independence as well as intelligence.

Surprising and interesting in this relation is the present attitude of *The Pilot*, of Boston. That paper is the oldest and most influential organ of Catholic and Irish-American opinion in the United States. Further, it has been edited by laymen and not by priests, while always quite loyal to the Church. Its editors have numbered some of the most distinguished Irish-Americans, including Thomas Darcy Magee, of the Canadian Ministry, and John Boyle O'Reilly; and now it is edited with equal ability by James Jeffrey Roche, the well-known author and poet. The paper has been generally Democratic; but while Republican journals have lost courage on the question of justice and equal privilege for all races in our country, *The Pilot* has maintained a record of real conviction which has been our unfailing admiration.

Now comes the surprise and, we believe, the omen of good. *The Pilot*, for seventy years the unfailing champion of the Democratic Party, gives its present tribute to President Roosevelt. A subscriber asks whether its personal admiration for President Roosevelt is to be placed above the platform and candidate of the Democracy. The editor thus reminds the aforesaid subscriber:

> "Mr. Roosevelt's direct interposition saved a member of 'A Subscriber's' family from being deprived of his livelihood by the proscriptive action of an official who would have discriminated unjustly against a candidate because he was a Catholic."

The Pilot says this act is typical of Mr. Roosevelt's impartiality; that for twenty years he has been in public service, and no man can point to a single act of his, public or private, influenced by prejudice of race or creed or color, "except prejudice in favor of the poor, the oppressed or the despised." It asks its readers to remember past and present history. In Massachusetts a Knownothing Governor insulted them by driving every Irishman out of the militia, and a dozen years later the Democratic machine made that man its leader. It concludes:

"We say: Forgive your enemies, but do not forget them. Pray for them, but do not vote for them.

"We say: Be grateful to your friends, AND DO NOT FORGET THEM.

"That is why people with long memories have a warm place in their hearts for Theodore Roosevelt—no fair-weather friend, no favorer of any class or creed or race, but a just man and a safe one to trust, in storm or calm."

Boston now belongs to Americans of the second and third generation from the Irish of 1853. They elect Mayor and Common Council. Things have changed since Governor Gardner's time. There is a different Irish-American, and not a few of his class will follow Theodore Roosevelt.

Bishop Potter's Saloon

THIS is the argument: the saloon is the poor man's club; therefore let Christianity make the saloon attractive, respectable, Christian. In England a company of men have established public houses with that view, and they have brought the institution to this city, and Bishop Potter is its prophet. One has been started in a populous quarter, and the Bishop and his associates went down to its installation, or perhaps dedication, and gave it their religious blessing. It is to be different from the ordinary saloon in that it will have a churchly color.

We do not expect saloons to be abolished in our big cities for many years. We believe with Bishop Potter that so long as saloons exist it is better to have about them as few of the adjuncts of vice as possible. We respect Bishop Potter's purpose and hope in this new venture of his. We observe that people who know saloons are not a unit in its hopefulness, but we prefer a decent saloon to one that is all vice.

Now what is this sort of semi-religious saloon? A representative of THE INDEPENDENT has visited it. He tells us that it is cleanly and attractive, perhaps no more than many others, but yet an agreeable place to sit down at a table or stand at the bar. On the day he visited it the bar was crowded with visitors drinking all sorts of alcoholic liquors that might be wanted, beer, whisky, gin, brandy—all of them, and all presumably of what is called good quality—that is, full strength, not diluted with water. At the tables one could get a full pint of beer for five cents, more than would usually be had at a saloon. There were soft drinks, not much called for. Then the lunch was excellent, two thick slices of bread making a sandwich of various meats, as good as at Delmonico's, and for five cents, a comfortably sufficient lunch. This was the room for the men, airy and pleasant.

There was also a room for the women, for they were not allowed in this barroom. In their room there was only a full supply of soda water and such soft drinks, and beer in plenty. Just why women should not be allowed the same privileges of the stronger drinks that men may have is not clear.

We make no more particular objection against Bishop Potter's style of saloon than against any other; indeed, it is probably a better sort. The chief advantage we see to it is that it is promised that only five per cent. profit, which is itself an excellent profit, shall be given to the society that invests it, and that all further profits shall go to establish other similar saloons. There may be, then, a certain advantage in the assurance that the barkeepers will not try hard to persuade patrons to booze. But we suppose there is need for very little of that, anyway. There is no rule against treating, and, indeed, no restriction not found in any well managed saloon. Drunken people are not allowed to remain, and we suppose that if women are invited, children are not. And yet our representative saw four boys less than fourteen years old supplied with liquor.

We see no hopeful advantage in this saloon. It is about on a par with others

of the better class run for profit. It is no better club than others, and these are as good as the patrons want. It is desirable that saloons shall be clean, quiet and free from immorality. But more and more communities are finding that what they want is fewer rather than more saloons. Cities will long demand them, but local option is shutting them out of very large sections of the country. We are not sorry that Bishop Potter should try his experiment, but we do not see any probability that it will prove a permanent moral force in the community. The best club is the home club. Well trained men choose it.

Justice Brewer's Suggested Constitutional Amendment

JUSTICE BREWER must have very strong convictions on the importance of protecting in every way the independence of the judiciary, or he would not have suggested in the article which we print this week that it would be well if a constitutional amendment should forbid the transfer of judges to political life. He is speaking of the indisposition of the American people to transfer one from judicial to political life, and he says:

"It is encouraging that this disposition is growing. I firmly believe in its wisdom, and should not regret even constitutional amendments forbidding any such transfer. I know there have been conspicuous instances in the past, and may be in the future, in which the selection of a judge for political life was wise, justified by the character and fitness of the man; but as a general rule one accepting judicial office should be impressed by the conviction that thereby his political life is ended, and that the possibility of distinction and success lies wholly in his devotion to judicial service and the character of the work he does therein. Over the judicial door should be written in fadeless letters: Who enters here leaves all political hopes behind."

This is a very suggestive utterance. When these words were written Justice Brewer knew that the Democratic nomination for the Presidency was likely to go, or had already gone, to the Chief Justice of the highest court in the most populous State in the Union. It is impossible that he did not have the nomination of Judge Parker in mind, either as an act to be condemned, or as one of the rare exceptions that have not proved unfortunate to a rule which ought nevertheless to be absolute. We do not in the slightest question—and we are sure Justice Brewer does not—the perfect integrity of Judge Parker; and yet it is clear that in such a case Justice Brewer would not have thought it consistent with his own sense of the importance of maintaining judicial independence that he should himself either consider or accept such a nomination. He would have the door to political aspirations absolutely closed by a constitutional amendment, fearing that some taint of suspicion might otherwise attach to decisions having a political bearing.

Justice Brewer's rule is a right one, whatever may be the exceptions. But it is a rule difficult to maintain where the judiciary is elective, and nearly impossible where judges of lower courts are elected for a short term. In such States as New York or Pennsylvania, where judges of higher courts are elected for a term of fourteen or twenty years, the very length of the term practically takes them out of politics and removes the major part of the temptation for them to have a re-election in mind when rendering decisions that have a political side.

But the danger of a judge tampering with his conscience in hopes of re-election or of appointment to a higher judicial position is not what Justice Brewer has in mind. That danger cannot be prevented so long as judges are human and are elected by popular vote. What he would guard against is the chance that judges' opinions may be warped by a desire to secure some high legislative or executive position. A judge may want to be a United States Senator, a Governor or a President. There may come before him a case that concerns a strike or affects a popular labor union or an unpopular corporation, and the judge may know that a decision one way will please capitalists or will displease an army of laboring votes. Being a man and not an angel, he may be influenced by his hopes of a more lucrative or more distinguished office to give a decision in the way his interests lie, and may do this almost unconsciously. It is easy for one to deceive himself. Every man has handy

an opiate for his conscience if he will look for it. A few such cases in which personal interest stains the judicial ermine might destroy the reverence of the people for our courts, which are, and should remain, the bulwark of our free institutions.

In what we say we would not definitely condemn Judge Parker for allowing his candidacy and accepting his nomination. We simply say that, as a rule, it is not safe for judges to have an eye out for politics, in search of office by vote of the people. Judge Parker may be all right, but there are a multitude of other judges, some of whom are not as firm as he in their principles. We have had cases of late in Alaska, Montana and in Florida in which judges have been deemed not to hold the scales of justice quite true. We wish that his backers had been more sensitive to the proprieties and had not put Judge Parker in a position which he cannot well defend.

The Wedding of Two Sciences

TWENTY-ONE years ago a candidate for the doctor's degree at the University of Upsala presented in his thesis the results of an investigation which could not conveniently be placed in any of the pigeonholes by which we classify knowledge. The chemical faculty refused to accept it on the ground that it was work in physics; the physicists rejected it for the reason that it was chemical. As a result of this disagreement one of the most original pieces of research work ever presented to a university was finally passed with the mild commendation "*non sine laude*," "not without praise."

The theory of electrolytic dissociation which the young Arrhenius embodied in this dissertation was in fact a foundation stone of a new science, which since then is being rapidly built up to fill the gap between chemistry and physics. Chemists and physicists had worked largely independent of each other, using different methods and speaking different languages. Now the chemists have been obliged to study higher mathematics and the physicists, who formerly disdained to consider anything smaller than the molecule, are talking of particles a thousand times smaller than the atom.

This marriage of the two sciences, of which Professor Arrhenius was one of the officiating clergymen, has already resulted in numerous and promising offspring. The use of electrical conceptions for the interpretation of chemical facts has thrown light on many well known and formerly inexplicable processes, and has also served as a guide to the investigation of new phenomena, such as radioactivity. The earliest substances prepared by the alchemists were acids, alkalies and salts, and it might be assumed that since they had been longest studied they would have been most thoroughly understood. The contrary was, however, the case. There was nothing more mysterious in chemistry than what occurs when salt is dissolved in water.

As an example of the confusion, we may consider one of the commonest of chemical analyses, that of a mineral water. If the same mineral water or solution of salts were given to two chemists they might bring in very different reports. One chemist might report, for instance, that the water contained sodium sulphate and potassium chloride, and the other might say it contained potassium sulphate and sodium chloride; two very different compounds. The reason of this apparent contradiction was that the four parts of the substances in solution, the potassium and sodium parts (positive ions) and the sulphate and chloride parts (negative ions) were determined separately, and chemists were in dispute as to how they were paired off in the water. The electrolytic theory of solution settles the question by showing that both sides were right, or, if you please, neither was right, for it is proved that while in solution in the water the positive and negative halves of the salts are not joined together at all for the most part, and it depends merely on the mode of evaporation which salts are left when the water is taken off.

As Professor Arrhenius explains on page 321 of this issue, the reason why a solution of a salt conducts electricity, while pure water or a solution of sugar does not, is because the salt is separated into positive and negative parts, called ions. But flames and metals also conduct electricity, therefore matter in a hot or metallic state contains ions. But air under the influence of the Röntgen or

x-rays becomes a conductor, so it, too, must be ionized. Certain minerals were found which gave off similar rays; these were found to consist in part of minute corpuscles charged with electricity, or, as some are beginning to say, corpuscles of electricity. And now the electrical theory in further development is proffering us explanations of the constitution of matter, and of phenomena of gravitation and inertia. The mystery of chemical valence, or the elective affinity of the atoms, seems to be yielding to the same master key. Catalysis, now beginning to be understood, is put to commercial use, as in the new process for the manufacture of sulphuric acid, and earns its millions each year. Professor Mathews gives us an electrical theory of the transmission of sensation by nerves. Professor Loeb substitutes osmotic pressure for the male factor in the fertilization of starfishes. We read of poisoning of platinum by arsenic, and of the bad influence on metals of stimulants and narcotics, such as chloroform, alcohol and strychnine. On the other hand, we hear of rays, some of them attracted by magnets or gravitation, given off by the contracting muscle and the thinking brain.

The artificial distinctions between the sciences, even between the biological and physical, are vanishing. Modern science, like Napoleon, is an eradicator of boundaries. The long standing deadlock between the physicists and the geologists as to the age of the earth is broken by new theories of the sun's heat, and the expectation of life of the solar system is extended far beyond the limits set by the previous calculations of cosmical actuaries.

In many of the lines of investigation here mentioned Professor Arrhenius had had a part. Not more by his experimental skill than by the originality of his suggestions and the daring sweep of his imagination he is having an important influence in the recent unprecedented advance of science. As the *Popular Science Monthly* says:

"In Arrhenius we have a man who has received the Nobel prize before he was forty-five, and whose scientific work ranges from salt solutions to comets and from glacial periods to the typhoid bacillus. Such a record lends little support to the belief that a scientific man must be a narrow specialist if he is to attain eminence."

On the Making of Crimes

Of the making of many crimes there is no end. The making of crime is a pursuit to be distinguished from the committing of crime. Society collectively, and through the authority of the state, makes crime by enacting that certain acts or negligences shall be known and stigmatized as criminal and punished by certain penalties. Individuals commit crime by becoming guilty of the acts or negligences so stigmatized and punished.

A certain fondness of civilized communities for making crimes has seriously impaired the scientific value of criminal statistics. When it appears from official reports that crime is increasing or decreasing we cannot always be sure that the moral habits of the population are deteriorating or improving. Crime may be increasing rapidly when a people is becoming better behaved. Acts that a few years or a generation before were looked upon as innocent may have been made criminal.

There is a large class of well-meaning persons in every community who think that a short cut to the millennium is through the making of crime. Whatever they don't happen to like they wish to penalize. Their dearest wish is to make everybody else think and behave as they do, so that all may live together like a happy family, in a "perfectly lovely" world.

There are other men and women, not quite so sanguine or so zealous, who yet think that we ought to enlarge the category of crime and be strenuous in enforcing the criminal law. A remarkably interesting article by a serious minded writer of this class is contributed to the *Atlantic Monthly* of August, under the title "Unpunished Commercial Crime." It is a graphic account of the shameful prevalence of fraud, adulteration, bribery and graft in American business, and a plea for a vigorous enforcement of the criminal law against these forms of wickedness. It proposes a remedy for a great evil which thousands of minds will seize upon as obvious and necessary. Yet it is fallacious and dangerous, and its

mischievous philosophy cannot be too promptly or too plainly exposed.

Perhaps it is true, as Mr. George W. Alger, the writer of the article in question, assumes, that fraud in its modern forms is a more serious menace to the social order than are the elementary crimes of violence characteristic of primitive communities; and perhaps it is so dangerous because it is "highly contagious"—a "moral epidemic." But to admit so much is not by any means to answer affirmatively the question-begging question, "Should not the criminal courts perform the functions of health boards in preserving the community from moral epidemics?"

Physical contagion and moral contagion are two different things. Against physical contagion the conscious will, the moral sturdiness of the innocent party "exposed" do not avail. Moral epidemics spread only through the conscious and guilty participation of infected and imitative minds. When a smallpox patient runs amuck, those whom he jostles on the street are not his accomplices. When janitors and seamstresses and country elders buy the worthless shares of salted gold mines that offer a 25 per cent. dividend the first year, they do it because, like faro dealers and other gamblers, they expect to get something for nothing; and from the beginning of time the man and woman that have tried to get through life on a something for nothing basis have been *participes criminis* in all the rascality that has been "doing."

There are two all-sufficient reasons why criminal prosecution is not the expedient remedy for every patent or ingenious manifestation of fraud. The first is that the mass of mankind must learn by experience to look out for itself. A community actually and effectively protected by the criminal law against all manner of frauds would be a community of feeble-minded.

The second reason is that the true and effective penalty for fraud, so far from being that which the criminal courts can inflict by way of fine or imprisonment, is that which individuals should be able to inflict incidentally while looking after their own interests. The fraudulent promoter, the bogus advertiser, the trademark thief, should be unable to escape the payment of damages awarded at civil law, except by remaining the rest of his life too poor to pay them. Damages are evaded to-day by conveyances of property, by bankruptcy, and by advantage taken of the corporate form of organization. A verdict for damages where fraud has been proven should stand against the defendant for life or until paid, a first lien on prosperity subsequent to bankruptcy. It should stand against each of the individual officers and directors of a corporation as well as against the corporation.

Civilization is as yet far from going in the best way about its business of civilizing men. There is too much reliance on crime-making, and far too little effort to provide for injured parties that swift and sure redress of their wrongs which, in all ages, has been the most effective restraint upon wrongdoers and the most practical kind of justice.

For Competitors Abroad

In a statement concerning the work of the Merchant Marine Commission, Chairman Gallinger says the testimony everywhere has been that "it costs from 30 to 60 per cent. more to build ships in this country than abroad." The Commission is now on the Pacific Coast. At Seattle, the agent of an American company, whose steamships are in competition on the Pacific with those of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company and other foreign corporations, testified that the boats of these foreign lines were built in Great Britain. "The average cost of them," he added, "was at least 40 per cent. less than if they had been built in the United States." Others have asserted that the cost of construction is greater by at least 25 per cent. in this country than in foreign shipyards.

An important element in the cost of making such ships is the price paid for the steel used in the hull and other parts of the vessel.

American manufacturers of steel plates for ships are selling them to the English shipbuilders at only a little more than half the price which they compel our own shipbuilders to pay.

Testifying before the Commission in Cleveland, Vice-President Wallace, of the

American Shipbuilding Company, said he had been told by an agent of the United States Steel Corporation that the Corporation was selling to shipbuilders at Belfast, for $24 per ton, delivered, steel ship plates for which the price in this country at the mills in Pennsylvania was $32. Since he testified, the export price of such plates appears to have declined. The following may be found in the trade reports of the New York *Journal of Commerce*, on the 30th ult.:

"One of the most interesting features of the steel situation is an important sale of several thousand tons of steel plates for export, the price of £5, delivered at Newcastle-on-the-Tyne, netting the mills about 90 cents per hundred f.o.b. Pittsburg. It should be remembered that sales are made in the English market by the gross ton; allowing $3.50 freight rate and a slight allowance for insurance, this price would net the mills $20 per gross, or $18 per net ton, or 90 cents per hundred, against $1.60 per hundred for domestic business."

For these plates, delivered, the English shipbuilder is paying something less than $22 per net ton, and the manufacturer is receiving $18, at Pittsburg, where American shipbuilders are required to pay $32. The price for such plates, delivered at New York, for home consumption, is about $36.

Thus, if the cost of construction depended entirely upon the cost of the steel, it would be greater by 63 per cent. in a New York yard than on the Tyne, provided that both builders used American steel plates at current prices. Which is quite interesting.

It may be that those steamships of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company, of which Agent Waterhouse spoke to the Commission at Seattle, steamships constructed in British yards at a cost "at least 40 per cent. less than if they had been built in the United States," were made of exported American steel delivered at the British yard for $22, when the price at an American yard was not less than $36. It may be that the competition of the Canadian Pacific Railway Company with American ships was promoted in this way, as its competition with American railways has been promoted by the sale to it of many thousands of tons of American rails for $21¼ per ton, delivered at Montreal, altho parallel railways on this side of the boundary were required to pay $28, taking the goods at Pittsburg.

We have sometimes thought that it must be difficult for the gentlemen who control the policy of the selling companies to reconcile with their patriotism, and also with their interest in American shipping, these sales of material to competing foreign shipbuilders and steamship companies and railways. For example, when we look at the list of the great Steel Corporation's directors we see there the name of Mr. Clement A. Griscom, owner of steamship lines, president of the International Navigation Company, and a director of the Cramp Shipbuilding Company. Is there any one more familiar with the argument that subsidies are needed because, for one reason, the cost of making ships is less in foreign yards than in our own? It has seemed to us that every report of a sale of ship plates by the Steel Corporation to a British shipbuilder, at a price less by 30 or 40 per cent. than the price that American shipbuilders are required to pay, must wring Mr. Griscom's heart.

And there are other directors—among them Mr. Morgan, Mr. Rockefeller, Mr. Rogers, Mr. Schwab, Mr. Frick and Mr. Marshall Field,—some of them directly and largely interested in ocean shipping, and all supporters of the policy of protection for American industry and enterprise, a policy with which this discrimination in favor of foreigners appears to be sharply at variance. Some, perhaps all, of them have supported the appeal to Congress for subsidies, and have approved the use of the argument that help was needed to enable our shipbuilders and steamship companies to overcome the lower cost of construction in foreign yards. Why is it that they give aid and comfort to the foreign yards by selling steel to them at $22, while they make our own shipbuilders pay $36 for it? Why do they give these foreign builders such an advantage over their fellow countrymen in the same industry at home? We frankly admit that we cannot answer these questions. Bearing in mind the patriotism and Americanism of these gentlemen, we should think that they would prefer to discriminate in favor of their own people.

The United Free Church of Scotland

"THINGS have been happening" during the past week which we are free to say gave us either a great shock or a sense of the ridiculous so prodigious that we have not yet seen the whole of the joke. Have the Lords been on a lark?

It seems that the court of final appeal in Great Britain has decided that when more than 1,100 ministers and nearly 300,000 communicants of the Free Church of Scotland agreed to coalesce with the United Presbyterian Church they contravened some principle or did something to the "Fundamentals."

This union was effected between the two great bodies of Presbyterians in October, 1900, and was opposed by less than thirty ministers and the communicants of as many churches, chiefly in the scattered parishes of the Highlands. These few dissentients have carried their case from court to court to be defeated in every appeal, until they came to the highest court—the House of Lords—which reversed all other decisions and gave these two dozen men a right to call themselves the Free Church of Scotland, and also gave them control over the Church's property as it existed in 1900, to the value of about $20,000,000.

One or two historic facts may account for the present condition of things, and perhaps may suggest a remedy. At the time of the union in 1900 a writer in *Blackwood's Magazine* said that "the great mass of the laity of the Free Church has never been enthusiastic in the cause" of union. He affirmed that both "stolid indifference and dogged opposition had to be overcome," and that the end was not attained "without wheedling here and bullying there, that need not be detailed." At the same time *The Spectator* drew attention to the fact that the United Presbyterian Church, which took definite shape in 1847, was made up of different bodies which had seceded at different times on slightly different grounds, but that one broad principle actuated them all—namely, "Voluntaryism"—self-supporting churches, voluntary contributions for all purposes, and total independence of the secular government.

On the other hand, the great Disruption of 1843, which called into being the Free Church of Scotland, led by Dr. Chalmers and nearly 500 other ministers with their congregations, was based entirely on other grounds. A Church established and endowed was not condemned nor regarded as undesirable. The things condemned were the tendencies to Erastianism in the Church, the interference of the civil power in affairs which they regarded as spiritual and matters of conscience, and the attempt of the magistrate to dictate to the Church in questions of government and administration. These things were found intolerable, and they led to one of the most remarkable religious movements of the last or any other century.

The Free Church was modeled in some respects after the Established Church in Scotland, and the ministers and members felt the necessity of providing a substitute for the support which the Established Church gave; and hence, as *The Spectator* says, "came the splendid scheme of the Sustentation Fund, which was to provide a substitute for the support which the Establishment had given."

Now it seems that the House of Lords must have imagined that this principle was relinquished when in 1900 the Free Church was united to a Church to which Voluntaryism is as the breath of life. But whether this is so, or not, it seems to us that a remedy is found for the present condition of things in the very enactments of the Free Church law of 1887. By the authority of the General Assembly in 1887, among the "Important Documents" concerning the Practice of the Free Church of Scotland, we find the following:

> "That the property of each place of worship be vested in trustees chosen by the congregation to be held for the congregation in communion with the Free Church as attested to be so by the Moderator and Clerk of the General Assembly." . . .
>
> "That in the event of a certain proportion of the ministers and elders—members of the church courts—separating from the general body and claiming still to be the true *bona fide* representatives of the original protesters of 1843, and to be carrying out the objects of the Protest more faithfully than the majority; then, whatever the Courts of Law may deter-

mine as to which of the contending parties is to be held to be the Free Church, it shall be competent for each congregation by a majority of its members in full communion, to decide that question for itself, so far as the possession and use of their place of worship and other property are concerned, with or without compensation to the minority; such compensation to be settled by arbitration."

Surely if this law of the Church is to apply to a minority, it should apply with greater force to what is practically the whole body of the Church; that is, supposing that its ministers and communicants have really separated themselves from the Free Church, we think it might also apply to the few dissentients who have raised such a storm that we are told "all Scotland is stirred."

If the Free Church by its action in 1900 did in any way depart from the traditions of 1843, and followed the general trend of religious thought, it has proved itself capable of providing virile men for its ministry and professorships; and during the last sixty years it has brought forth the strongest and the best men in the Presbyterian Church. We sincerely trust that religious matters in Scotland will be left henceforth for the Scotch to deal with, for assuredly they understand them best. Whatever may be the law, the Lords have done great injustice.

The Dilatory Turk

Very likely the Turkish Government thought it was not honor but money the Yankee nation wanted in the way of demands, and so Turkey managed two years ago to pay the less than $100,000 due for losses of buildings burned by Turkish soldiers at Harpût, saving their face by adding the sum to what was due to the Cramps for a war vessel. Also they yielded the medical examination of students at Beirût. But the chief demands were never allowed—namely, the same privileges of American citizens establishing schools that were allowed to the English, French, German and Russians. It is not right or dignified that Americans cannot get the same rights in Turkey that other people can get, and our Government means at last to see why. For years the Turkish Government has delayed and refused until patience has ceased to be a virtue. It is now reported that we will send a squadron to Smyrna by way of a hint that we do not want to be forgotten, and that Turkey should consider the duty of acting like a civilized Power. Mr. Leishman, our Minister, is refused satisfactory audience on all excuses year after year, and now, when it is granted, further delay is made. There must be diplomatic pressure of some effective sort.

Georgia Repudiation

Georgia is one of the States that have repudiated their bonds. For this reason Georgia bonds are not listed on the New York Stock Exchange. Is it not about time for the State of Georgia, rich and strong, to remove that stigma from itself? It was not financial inability, but political prejudice, that was the occasion of the repudiation. As ex-Governor Bullock says in a recent letter to the Atlanta *Constitution*, the bonds were authorized by the Legislature of 1868-70. For them the State received a good and valid consideration. The railroads built with them are in operation to-day. Those railroads opened the great belt of Southeast Georgia, before that time returned as wild land, now teeming with population and productive industry. The State is collecting in taxes on what were then "wild lands," and on the roads themselves, more than money enough to pay the interest on the liability which she repudiates. The State held, under the Constitution of 1868, a first lien on all this railroad property and was absolutely protected. It is thirty-five years since this honest debt was repudiated by a malignant partisan hate which did not stop at the disgrace of the State. It is 27 years since Georgia adopted a new constitution which expressly forbids her courts ever to hear or determine the legality of those obligations. It will require a constitutional amendment to correct that wrong, but by this time the people of Georgia ought to be able to give serious thought to this matter and to take steps to do what is not political but financial justice.

Tibet At last the British are in Lhasa, and will stay there until the Tibetans are ready to make a treaty of commerce. Just how far the expedition had a purely diplomatic purpose, to straighten out a treaty, and how far it was intended enhance British control in Tibet as against the advance of Russia, is not clear. On this matter the wisest differ. It cannot be denied that Lord Curzon has done much to advance British prestige in the countries about. He has established British influence in the Persian Gulf and Arabia; he has extended the territory of Aden, and the British are predominant in Muscat. In Afghanistan the British again possess an influence superior to that of Russia, and a telegraph line from Persia to Calcutta is to pass through Afghanistan. Now the British control will be supreme in Tibet, and very likely a British Resident will be stationed, with a suitable guard, in Lhasa. But this must be said on the other side, that Lord Curzon has not the affection of his Indian subjects. The great and expensive Durbar left heart burnings in many rajah courts, and the more intelligent natives are beginning to complain that nothing is done to enlarge the governmental sphere of the people themselves. They ask whether always the Hindus are to be a subject people, and they are studying the capacities of other Asiatic people, the Japanese and the Filipinos.

Danish and Norwegian Our English Bible became so the standard that the English language has become one single thing the whole world over, on all continents and islands. The Bible made one language out of what was a variety of dialects. The same was done for the German language by Luther's Version, and yet a reverse situation occurs in some other countries. as, for example, in Scandinavia. Several revised versions have been made during the last century in Norway, and now the revised Version of the New Testament has been received within a few months with general satisfaction by laymen and clergy, and the Version was necessary because the Danish used in Norway, which is sometimes called the "Norwegian," has developed more and more away from the mother tongue, both in lexicon and grammar. The Dano-Norwegian is so distinct from Danish proper that the whole Version of the Bible has acquired a markedly unnational as well as archaic coloring in Norway. The present great undertaking of the complete Version of the Bible, which began over half a century ago, may now be regarded as marking a period in the development of the national and religious life of Norway, and also of its language. It seems unfortunate, however, that the three countries of Scandinavia cannot manage to have and maintain one and the same language.

The British Parliament meets in Westminster Palace. The House of Lords has been discussing the incomplete decorations. The scheme of the original decoration was architectural, and it was then changed to paintings and mosaics, but this was suspended long ago. Two niches for statues of Marlborough and Wellington have been vacant for forty years. Great panels for pictures incased in elaborate stone are covered with dirty red flock paper. When this was complained of the paper was changed for green, simply clean. There is a chimney-piece in the central hall half concealed by a refreshment bar covered with sandwiches and ginger beer. A staircase, once called the Hall of Poets, has the word "Shakespeare" in large gold letters over a sheet of red paper. Under these sheets are entombed frescoes that once adorned the wall, but they have perished, altho they might be restored. Only one of the frescoes in the Poets' Hall survives, and in front of that has been erected a telephone-box. "They order this matter better in France," said Laurence Sterne.

Chinese geographical names, which seem to us so barbarous, are not so meaningless as they appear. Thus *ling* means a pass; so Motien-ling is the sky-scraper pass; Ta-ling, the great pass. *River* is *ho* in North China, and *kiang* in South China; thus Liao-ho, distant river. *Chiao* is a *bridge;* thus the locality of a great contest is Tashi-chiao, the great

stone bridge. *Hai* is the *sea,* as in Haicheng, where *cheng* means *castle* or *city,* the city of the sea, altho the city is now thirty miles inland. *Wan* is bay, as in Ta-lien-wan, where *ta* means *great,* and *lien extended,* thus the greatly extended bay. *Tien* is a *shop* or *inn,* as in Laozetien, the gentleman's inn. One may, however, easily mistake the meaning of a name. Thus Kolien-sheng simply reproduces the name of Admiral Colinson, after whom the cape is named.

We said that it would be better if the Catholic Church had only a dozen theological seminaries, instead of 75. We are told by *The Pilot* that there are only 71, with an average of 57 students each. We venture to say that 71 is 59 too many. Each seminary ought to have not less than five profesors of theological studies, besides teachers of preparatory studies; and we do not believe there are in the Church 375 competent professors of Church history, dogmatics, morals, casuistry and Scripture. Our intelligent and exact contemporary tells us that there are 179 Catholic colleges for boys, not 197. We will not dispute the 18 difference. We wish most of them had been named academies.

It is something more than amusing that the official "Directory of Officers of the United States Army, Navy and Marine Corps, officials of the civil government and foreign consuls in the city of Manila and suburbs," published by the Adjutant-General, should have led the list of "Diplomatic and Consular Representatives" with the names of Archbishop Harty and Apostolic Delegate Guidi, followed by the names of their secretaries, after which come the consuls. They are not consuls; they represent no foreign power. It is a reprehensible survival of the ideas of the Spanish rule to put them there. Archbishop Harty is no foreigner; he is an American. We would not have his Church thought of as foreign.

A memorial to Jacob Abbott, of "Rolla Books," "Jonas Books," "Lucy Books," "Young Christian" fame, is projected in the way of the purchase and preservation of his residence in Farmington, Maine, where he long had a school for boys, and also one in Boston. There must be some of the old pupils of this boys' philosopher living who will be glad to help this memorial through his son, the Rev. Edward Abbott, D.D., of Cambridge.

We like the dignified "Declaration" of the bishops of the African M. E. Church that their Ethiopian mission work in South Africa has no political object, but solely a religious one. It is addressed to a suspicious Government and people, promises loyalty and obedience to Government, with no politics, and solely civilization, education and Christianization. We have been sorry to see the hostility of good men who ought to have a more charitable view.

We remember an admirable sermon on law and order preached several years ago in Greenville, Miss., by an Episcopal clergyman, the Rev. Quincy Ewing. He is now in a church in Birmingham, Ala., and in a discourse lately he made the extraordinary statement that more men are slaughtered in Jefferson County, Ala., in one year than in all Great Britain, with its forty million people, and no punishment for the murderers. Is that a test of comparative civilization?

Kipling's last poem, "Things and the Man," might be more easily understandable of the common people if the poet had not handicapped himself with the task of repeating the same three rhyming syllables in all the five eight-line verses. It needs interpreting, but it suggests that Mr. Kipling is not likely to be in sympathy with the next Parliament.

Panama does not propose to waste the ten millions which the Republic has received from the United States, nor to have a debt. She has put six millions in mortgages in this city, and has money to lend. A new nation has new ways. But how about her share of the Colombian debt?

Financial

Cotton and the Weevil

A RECORD-BREAKING crop of cotton is foreshadowed by the latest report of the Department of Agriculture. At the end of last month the average condition of the growing plant was 91.6, against an annual average of 82.7 for the ten years preceding. As there is an increase of acreage, an estimate of 12,000,000 bales appears to be warranted by the situation. Up to this time, the largest commercial crop has been about 11,200,000 bales. The value of last year's crop exceeded $525,000,000.

Dr. O. F. Cook, of the Agricultural Department, who discovered the Guatemalan ant that kills boll-weevils, has made an interesting report concerning his experiments at Victoria, Tex., with this insect, which, it is hoped, will check the weevils' ravages in the cotton fields. A loss of $20,000,000 worth of cotton last year, on account of the weevils' activity, has stimulated inquiry for a remedy. Dr. Cook brought up from Guatemala about 4,000 ants, in 89 colonies. He finds that they burrow from one to three feet into the ground, making passageways one-quarter of an inch in diameter, and chambers about three-fourths of an inch high. In addition to the chambers inhabited by them there is one in which the hard parts (heads, legs, wings and other fragments) of slaughtered weevils and other insects are packed away. It remains to be seen whether they will survive the floods to which much of the level cotton land of Texas is subject. These ants know how to sting the weevils at the only points where their armor is vulnerable. They are long-lived insects; an ant queen has been known to live for fifteen years, and a worker for six. Dr. Cook summarizes the results of his investigation by saying that this ant does attack and kill the boll-weevils, and thus "permits the regular harvesting of a crop of cotton even under conditions favorable to the weevil;" that it is carnivorous and predaceous; that it injures no form of vegetation and takes from the cotton plant nothing except the nectar secreted on the leaves and floral envelopes; that its habits and temperament are such that it is "readily capable of domestication, transportation and colonization in the cotton fields of Texas." He does not yet know whether it will survive the winter climate of the State.

A TESTIMONIAL has recently been presented to John M. Holcombe, Vice-President of the Phœnix Mutual Life Insurance Company, to mark the thirtieth anniversary of his service with the company.

....Redmond & Co. and J. & W. Seligman & Co. offer to investors, at 97½ and interest, $1,500,000 of the first and refunding mortgage 4½ per cent. sinking fund guaranteed gold bonds of the Connecticut Railway & Lighting Company, due in 1951 and redeemable at 105 and accrued interest. The company owns 175 miles of electric road in thickly settled parts of the State. Interest is guaranteed by the United Gas Improvement Company, of Philadelphia.

....The will of George H. Laflin, a Chicago pioneer, provides for the distribution of $2,000,000 and contains the following advice to his heirs:

"I would advise all my children to be prudent in their investments, and not to purchase anything simply because it is cheap, but to remember that a long-time security, drawing a low rate of interest, is often more desirable than an investment which draws a high rate of interest. I would also advise them not to purchase anything which they cannot pay for in full at the time of the purchase, as more men are ruined by speculation than in any other way. I also advise them not to sign any note or bond, and to look well to all transfers of real estate, and not to incumber any real estate, except for the purpose of improving same."

....Dividends announced:

Amer. Chicle Co., Common, 1 per cent., payable August 20th.

Union Pac. R.R., Preferred, $2.00 per share, payable October 1st.

Union Pac. R.R., Common, $2.00 per share, payable October 1st.

Niles-Bement-Pond Co., Preferred, 1¾ per cent., payable August 15th.

Niles-Bement-Pond Co., Common, 1½ per cent., payable September 15th.

Niles-Bement-Pond Co., Common, 1½ per cent., payable December 15th.

Insurance

Some Spanish Insurance Companies in the United States

ENGLISH offices are by no means the only foreign insurance companies to compete with domestic concerns for fire, life and marine business in this country. We have had French, German and Russian companies for some time, but more recently, according to *The London Review*, several Spanish companies have entered the field. Repressive legislation has operated to discourage many foreign companies, but the best of them survive both harassing legislation and burdensome taxation.

The Spanish companies are not so generally known as are some of the other European companies, but some of them deserve more general recognition. Possibly the best known Spanish company now operating in the United States is La Estrella. This company was founded in Cartagena under very powerful auspices. The shareholders were to a considerable extent shareholders in the Bank of Cartagena, which bank, under the circumstances, naturally became the company's bankers. La Estrella, altho a young company, had a great reputation in Cartagena and did a large marine and fire business, but its life business was moderate. The company, it is reported from London, has been prudently conducted. The marine business done has been entirely satisfactory, but, in view of the large present year conflagrations in the United States, its fire business has not been quite so profitable. The company is, however, not worse off in this respect than are many equally respectable offices that have lately hazarded their fortunes in the American field. The head office of La Estrella was lately removed from Cartagena to Madrid.

Another Spanish company doing United States business is La Polar. This company has, perhaps, spent money somewhat extravagantly in its life branch in an effort to obtain business. La Polar has the assistance of the Bank of Bilbao in its attempt at recovery.

Another Spanish company operating here is the Union & Fenix Español. This is an old joint stock company which has been established for more than 30 years. Its reputation is excellent, especially as a fire company. It is prompt and punctual in the settlement of its losses. The concern has only just begun doing a life business, in which it has not yet displayed any particular energy.

There are about twenty offices in Spain doing a life business, among which number there are some "wildcats." The Union & Fenix Español, however, is not among this ferocious breed, but is an eminently respectable company. The company's recent balance sheet shows a total of some 14½ million pesetas, a peseta being worth a little less than twenty cents.

The total funds of the Union & Fenix Español are nearly 15 million pesetas, excluding, it would appear, the property of the concern in Paris, valued at 7 million pesetas. The Union & Fenix Español during its 30 years' experience has paid nearly 100 million pesetas in losses, roughly equal to about $20,000,000.

THE colt "Highball," who broke the cannon bone of his leg at the Brighton Beach track last month, was insured by his owners with Messrs. Lloyd, of London, England, for $25,000.

....The University of Michigan, which began a summer school at Ann Arbor on June 27th, has just closed. A feature of the program was Professor Glover's course in "The Theory of Annuities and Insurance."

....During the past year the Provident Savings Life Assurance Society wrote assurance amounting to $42,000,000, and there was an increase in payments to policy holders as well as in income, assets and surplus. Under the presidency of Edward W. Scott the progress of the Provident Savings Life Assurance Society has been notable, and the officers of the company report a most gratifying progress during the six months ending July 1st. The assets are $7,310,138. The reserve fund and all other liabilities amount to $6,279,139, leaving a net surplus of $1,030,999.

READING NOTICE

REDUCED RATES TO BOSTON

Via Pennsylvania Railroad, Account G.A.R. National Encampment

On account of the National Encampment, G. A. R., at Boston, Mass., August 15 to 20, 1904, the Pennsylvania Railroad Company will sell excursion tickets to Boston, Mass., from all stations on its lines from August 13 to 15, inclusive, at greatly reduced rates. These tickets will be good for return passage, to leave Boston not earlier than August 16, nor later than August 20, inclusive, when executed by Joint Agent at Boston.

Upon deposit of ticket with Joint Agent on or before August 20, and payment of fifty cents, an extension of return limit may be secured to leave Boston to September 30, inclusive.—*Adv.*

DIVIDENDS AND MEETINGS.

AMERICAN CHICLE COMPANY.

New York, July 22nd, 1904.

A dividend of 1% on the Common Stock of this company has been declared, payable August 20th next, to all common stockholders of record at noon on Saturday, August 13th. Transfer books for common stock will close at 12 noon, August 13th, and reopen August 22nd, at 10 A.M.

HENRY ROWLEY, Treasurer.

WESTINGHOUSE ELECTRIC AND MANUFACTURING COMPANY.

120 Broadway, New York, August 2, 1904.

In order to permit the stockholders of record at the close of the books of this Company, to avail themselves of the privilege of subscribing to the additional Assenting Stock as per circular dated August 2d, mailed to the stockholders, it was, at a meeting of the Board of Directors held this day,

RESOLVED, That the Transfer Books of the Preferred, Assenting and Non-Assenting stock of the Company be closed at the close of business on Monday, August 8th, 1904, and opened at 10 a.m., Tuesday, August 16th, 1904.

T. W. SIEMON, Treasurer.

INTERNATIONAL PAPER COMPANY.

30 Broad Street,

New York, July 20, 1904.

Notice is hereby given that, for the purpose of holding the annual meeting of this Company at Corinth, New York, August 24th, 1904, the transfer books of both the preferred and common stock will be closed August 1st, 1904, and reopened on the morning of August 25th, 1904.

By order of the Board of Directors. E. W. HYDE, Secretary.

UNION PACIFIC RAILROAD CO.

A DIVIDEND OF TWO DOLLARS ($2.00) per share, on both the Preferred and Common Stock of this Company, has been declared, payable at the Treasurer's Office, 120 Broadway, New York, N. Y., on and after Oct. 1st, 1904, to Stockholders of record at the close of business Aug. 31, 1904.

The stock transfer books will be closed at 3 o'clock P. M. on August 31, 1904, and will be reopened at 10 A. M. on October 12, 1904, the day after the date fixed for the annual meeting of stockholders.

Stockholders who have not already done so are requested to promptly file mailing orders for dividends with the undersigned, from whom blank orders can be had on application.

FREDERIC V. S. CROSBY, Treasurer.

NILES-BEMENT-POND COMPANY.

New York, August 3, 1904.

The Board of Directors of Niles-Bement-Pond Company has this day declared a quarterly dividend of ONE AND ONE-HALF PER CENT. upon the preferred stock of the Company, payable August 15th, 1904.

The transfer books will close at 3 P. M. August 8th and will reopen at 10 A. M. August 16th.

CHARLES L. CORNELL, Treasurer.

NILES-BEMENT-POND COMPANY.

New York, August 3, 1904.

The Board of Directors of Niles-Bement-Pond Company has this day declared a semiannual dividend of THREE PER CENT. upon the common stock of the Company, payable as follows: One and one-half per cent. September 15th, 1904; one and one-half per cent. December 15th, 1904.

The transfer books will close at 3 P. M. September 10th and December 10th, and will reopen at 10 A. M. September 16th and December 16th, respectively.

CHARLES L. CORNELL, Treasurer.

FINANCIAL

RICHARD DELAFIELD, Pres't, STUYVESANT FISH, Vice-Pres't, GILBERT G. THORNE, Vice-Pres't, JOHN C. McKEON, Vice-Pres't, JOHN C. VAN CLEAF, Vice-Pres't, EDWARD J. BALDWIN, Cashier, WILLIAM O. JONES, Ass't Cashier, FREDERICK O. FOXCROFT, Ass't Cashier, WILLIAM A. MAIN, Ass't Cashier, MAURICE H. EWER, Ass't Cashier.

The National Park Bank of New York

ORGANIZED 1856.

Capital and Surplus, $10,000,000

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Home Office Established 1871 Iowa Falls, Iowa.

OLD FASHIONED

BUT STILL IN THE FASHION.

It is an ever new and interesting story to hear how one can be entirely made over by a change of food.

"For two years I was troubled with what my physician said was the old fashioned dyspepsia.

"There was nothing I could eat but 20 or 30 minutes later I would be spitting my food up in quantities until I would be very faint and weak. This went on from day to day until I was terribly wasted away and without any prospects of being helped.

"One day I was advised by an old lady to try Grape-Nuts and cream, leaving off all fatty food. I had no confidence that Grape-Nuts would do all she said for me as I had tried so many things without any help. But it was so simple I thought I would give it a trial, she insisted so.

"Well, I ate some for breakfast and pretty soon the lady called to see her 'patient' as she called me and asked if I had tried her advice.

"'Glad you did, child, do you feel some better?'

"'No,' I said, 'I do not know as I do, the only difference I can see is I have no sour stomach and, come to think of it, I haven't spit up your four teaspoons of Grape-Nuts yet.'

"Nor did I ever have any trouble with Grape-Nuts then or any other time for this food always stays down and my stomach digests it perfectly; I soon got strong and well again and bless that old lady every time I see her.

"Once an invalid of 98 pounds I now weigh 125 pounds and feel strong and well and it is due entirely and only to having found the proper food in Grape-Nuts." Name given by Postum Co., Battle Creek, Mich.

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1137 Broadway, New York.

Incorporated 1853.

United States Trust Company of New York,

45 and 47 Wall Street.

CAPITAL,	**$2,000,000.00**
SURPLUS AND UNDIVIDED PROFITS,	**$12,250,114.79**

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