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It is good advice which the New York Journal gives to the Cubans when it says to them:

Soon Cuba will be boss of itself and the Cubans will own their own lands. We say to the Cubans: Keep the lands for your descendants, and keep them public lands forever. Let the rents from them go to the government.

In that advice lies the secret to the retention by Cuba of her liberties when she shall have achieved them. If she allows individuals to own the island, the time will soon come when the masses in Cuba will be no better off under a republic of their own than they have been under the dominion of Spain. Neither will they be any more free. The old saw about writing the songs of a country would strike truer if it read: "Let me own the land of a country, and I care not who makes its laws."

No peculiar condemnation is passed upon the south when her mobs of "best citizens" are denounced as semi-civilized brutes for burning negroes at the stake; for mobs of "best citizens" at the north commit similar crimes. It is not long, for instance, since a negro was lynched by a lawless mob of Ohio's "best citizens." But, whether these outrages occur north or south, the community that tolerates them can make no just claims to civilization. The latest instance of this species of lawlessness has just occurred near Shreveport, La., where lawyers, sworn to uphold the law, actually made speeches of approval as the fagots blazed up and the fire eat into the burning flesh of the negro whose murder they were aiding and abetting. How can negroes be ex-

pected to obey law, when "best citizens" have so little respect for it?

It is neither good sense nor in good taste to criticise military officers for the management of affairs about which they are better able than civilians to form correct judgments. But the temptation is very great when our troops are fed upon winter rations, without fruit or vegetables, in a southern locality where fruit and vegetables are necessary to health and whence they are shipped daily to the north. Perhaps, however, criticism of this sort does not fall so much upon military officers, as upon the civilian sons of their fathers and nephews of their uncles who have been invested with shoulder straps through wholesale favoritism.

Newspaper report has it that President McKinley's plan of organizing a republican form of government in Cuba, a plan which contemplates the recognition of everybody living there—Spanish sympathizers included—is not approved by the insurgents. We should suppose not. Neither should it be approved by President McKinley, nor by any other American. This plan was represented not long ago by a significant cartoon in Puck. Though Puck is a professional "comic," the cartoon was not intended to be comic. It was published as a picture of what ought to be. A description of it, therefore, will assist in understanding what the papers describe as President McKinley's plan of organizing a republican government in Cuba. It represented a ballot box presided over by Uncle Sam, at which monarchists, autonomists and republicans were voting to decide whether the government should be a monarchy, a Spanish dependency, or an independent republic. That cartoon was well calcu-

lated to make an American's blood boil. And the plan attributed to President McKinley is no better. It is essentially the same.

Of course the republican form of government contemplates the right of every one, even of monarchists, to vote. But it does not contemplate the right of monarchists to vote upon the question of what form of government to establish at the close of a successful war for the establishment of the republic. The war settles that question. If what is called President McKinley's plan were put in operation, it would nullify the purpose of the war. The insurgents demand that the government to be set up at the end of the war shall be their government. In this they are right. There are but two governments in Cuba. One is the Spanish; the other is that of the Cuban republic. And unless we are fighting for one or the other, we are intruders. The United States will have no right to ignore the present Cuban republic when the Spanish troops are driven out of Cuba. By the almost unanimous vote of both houses of Congress two years ago, the Cuban republic was recognized. Both political parties in their platforms of 1896 expressed their sympathy for it in its struggle for independence. And the resolution of Congress which authorized the present war virtually recognized it in declaring that the people of Cuba "are" free and independent. This allusion could have been only to the Cuban republic. Nobody in Cuba outside of that republic either claimed or was trying to be free. This country is bound in honor, then, now that it has entered upon a war with Spain for the liberation of Cuba, to prosecute that war for the establishment of the Cuban republic. It would be scandalous if at the end of the war we helped the Spanish through civil

methods to recover what they had lost by war.

Let us for a moment put ourselves in the place of the Cubans. It will be easy. We might have been in the same situation a century ago. Suppose that at the end of the revolutionary war, France—which bore much the same relation to us that we now bear to Cuba—had insisted upon forcing us in forming our new government to cooperate with the Tories who had fought us to the bitter end. If France had done that, she would have done to us what the newspapers say President McKinley intends to do to the Cubans. The Cuban republic has a right to protest against thus having their Tories, who, even at this moment are fighting them, thrust by our government into authority in their government, when peace is declared.

One of the humors of later politics is the alacrity with which the organs of the extra good members of society resent epithets. They have devoted themselves industriously to the manufacture and dissemination of epithets supposed to be applicable to others. Who can forget the way in which all the turns were worked upon the harmless words "walking delegate"? Then there is "crank," which has done these organs so much service in the place of thought and argument. And when the plundered people of Kansas carried their grievances into politics through a third party, calling it appropriately enough the People's party, the organs of the extra-good promptly dubbed them "populists." Besides these, we have had "com-mew-nist," which did duty so long to describe any sort of social reformer whose arguments could not be answered off hand. "Socialist," as an epithet, serves the same purpose even now. But best of all is "anarchist," because to the thoughtless and ignorant it suggests violent intentions. All these terms and many more have been used abusively by the extra-good as verbal bludgeons to batter at arguments for social reform which

could not be easily answered with counter arguments. And what a good time the extra-good have had in swinging these bludgeons about. But one fine day, some fellow who had been abusively called "populist," or "com-mew-nist," or "socialist," or "anarchist," or may be all together, hit back at his tormentors with "plutocrat," and then it was suddenly discovered by the extra-good, for the first time apparently, that epithets are not arguments.

Senator Chandler, in the course of the senate debate last week on the war revenue measure, made a sharp criticism of the favorable balance of trade showing, which appears upon the surface of our treasury reports. Having figured out from the reports a balance of trade in our favor of nearly \$2,000,000,000 in ten years, and from the same sources shown that our net receipts of gold were only \$129,000,000, he wanted to know how the favorable balance had benefited us. This was a searching question. But it does not appear to have stimulated Senator Chandler himself to any excessive degree. He attempted to explain away the favorable balance by assuming that tourists spend \$100,000,000 a year abroad, making \$1,000,000,000 for the ten years, and accounting for the rest by supposing that half of it—\$500,000,000—has been paid to foreign carriers, and that the remainder has been returned to us in bonds. Thus Mr. Chandler omitted much the most important item, that of ground rents paid by American producers to foreign land owners. It is well known that a vast area of American land is owned abroad, land that has become very valuable, and from this fact it is an obvious inference that a large proportion of our exports are made up of rents, which are never balanced by imports. They are given to the foreigner outright. This is the chief item which keeps our exports in excess of our imports, and so produces a balance which is gravely described as favorable to us. That kind of fav-

orable balance of trade is enjoyed by Ireland, thanks to her absentee landlords.

About the question of favorable and unfavorable balances of trade, there clings a good deal of what for want of a better term may be described as economic superstition. It is generally understood that profit lies in exporting and loss in importing, wherefore an excess of exports over imports is called "favorable." Yet a moment's reflection should make it plain that the reverse of this is the truth. It is by receiving goods in excess of what they give out, not by giving out in excess of what they receive, that men get rich. The commonest country peddler of the fifties knew this and applied it to his business. When he swapped his wares with the farmer's wife for farm truck, he realized that the fewer wares he gave and the more truck he got—that is, the less his exports and the greater his imports—the better off he was. No professor of political economy or United States senator, his head muddled with the mere medium of exchange, could have convinced that peddler that it would improve his condition to give out his wares in excess of the farm truck he took in. And as with the peddler, so with whole peoples. Our foreign commerce does not consist in an exchange of goods for money. It consists in trading goods for goods. Money is only a medium of trade, not its object. A steady excess of exports, therefore, necessarily implies impoverishment.

This is so obvious when it is thought upon, and yet so seldom recognized by public writers and speakers, that one reads with pleasure in the Chicago Record's home study article on London as a trade center, by Seymour Eaton, that one of the reasons for the financial supremacy of London is that for almost half a century "England has been importing far more than she has been exporting." In all probability this is not merely one of the reasons; it is the one. We are apt to

attribute England's commercial greatness to her great navy and her national expansion; and so the nations of the world, our own included, are looking to imitating her in those respects. But national expansion and great navies are only outward and awkward manifestations of commercial strength. With all her navy-defended expansion, England would be as weak commercially as her neighbors, were it not for that policy of hers by means of which she has for nearly half a century maintained, and still fosters, a steady excess of imports over exports. Let England resume our policy of keeping exports in excess of imports, and her commercial greatness would soon be only a memory.

We commented, in our issue of May 14, upon a quotation from the Chicago Tribune which spoke of President Cleveland as having during his administration caused the raids on the gold reserve and set the "endless chain" in motion, thus giving an excuse for the issue of bonds over the head of congress. He had done this, it was explained, by throwing out hints to the bankers of Wall street. This reference to Cleveland was made by the Tribune's Washington bureau in connection with a suggestion that President McKinley, if congress voted against war bonds, might resort to the same "trick," as the Tribune called it. Inasmuch as the Tribune is a republican paper, and thoroughly in sympathy with the gold policy which Mr. Cleveland pursued, we treated what it said as in the nature of a confession. Since then, however, we have been positively assured by men whose testimony is unimpeachable and who make these assurances upon personal knowledge, that "Cleveland resisted all advice to issue bonds until the country was within 24 hours of a gigantic panic, worse than that of '93," and that "there is absolutely no basis for the assertion" made against the ex-president by the Tribune. We have no desire to reflect unjustly upon Mr. Cleveland or any

other man, and relying upon these assurances we withdraw all the credit we may have appeared to give to the Tribune's statement that he by the trick described or in any other way set in motion the raids upon the gold reserve.

From Texas there comes to us an entirely different criticism of our comment upon the Tribune's statement. In the course of our comment we had said of the bond issues that "Cleveland purchased gold with interest-bearing bonds issued over the head of congress under the pretended authority of an obsolete law." Our Texas critic attributes this criticism to the heat of controversy. While admitting that the law under which Cleveland acted was imperfect, he claims that it was nevertheless a real and not a pretended law, and that inasmuch as acts of congress do not expire by lapse of time unless they contain an express limitation, it cannot be called obsolete. The best way, perhaps, of disposing of this matter is to state the legal basis for the Cleveland bond issues, without any more comment than is necessary to make the point intelligible. That we shall endeavor to do.

The Cleveland bond issues were made under the authority of the third section of the resumption act of January 14, 1875, which authorized the secretary of the treasury "to issue, sell and dispose of, at not less than par in coin," a certain described character of bonds. The purpose of this authorization, as set forth in the same section, was merely to enable him to redeem greenbacks in coin. It was not at all for the purpose of enabling him to maintain a gold reserve. Under that act bonds had been issued, the proceeds of which—\$96,000,000—were not needed for redemption and were accordingly placed in the treasury by the secretary of that time, and not by congress, as a gold reserve for greenback redemption. This reserve was afterwards increased to \$100,000,000, and by act of July 12, 1882, section 12, which authorized the issue

of certificates of deposits of gold, it was provided that the issue of these certificates should be suspended "whenever the amount of gold coin and gold bullion in the treasury reserved for the redemption" of greenbacks should fall below \$100,000,000. Here is the only legal recognition of any gold reserve. Now comes the substance of the issue between ourselves and our Texas correspondent. If this bare recognition of a gold reserve, in a law having no connection with greenback redemption, operated as an extension of the bond issuing authority, so as to empower the secretary of the treasury to issue bonds for the purpose not only of redeeming greenbacks in coin, which was the extent of the original authority, but also of maintaining an otherwise non-legal reserve, then we were wrong. But if this bare recognition of the gold reserve did not extend the original power, then there was no law whatever for the Cleveland bond issues, which were distinctly not for the redemption of greenbacks in coin, but for the maintenance of a perpetual redemption fund of \$100,000,000 in gold.

Pingree, the republican governor of Michigan, resents the favoritism at Washington in the matter of military appointments. At a conference between himself and certain Michigan and Detroit officials at Detroit on the 2d relative to the question of moving the soldiers' camp to Detroit from Island lake, he said:

I've got something more important than moving the camp. This telegram instructs me to raise 1,326 privates—think of it, gentlemen—all privates. That Washington crowd proposes to furnish the brigadier generals and we'll furnish the privates. They want all the Michigan regiments which have gone to the front increased in number so that each company will be raised from 81 to 106. We have lots of bright fellows in the ranks who know more than the rich men's sons who have been made commissioned officers. Money cuts lots of figure in this scrap. Things were different in '61. It will be hard work to raise 1,326 men, or one-half that number, to work under strange officers, dudes and senators' sons. The way I feel, it

is a question whether we want any camp. The point is not where we will locate it, but will there be any camp under such conditions.

A course of reading on the French revolution and the behavior preceding it of the petty officials of France toward the common people, ought to be prescribed for policemen and police magistrates. It would be a good course, too, for that class of American labor employers who look upon their workmen as cattle. There are grave lessons in the story of the French revolution. We are reminded of some of them by the reports of the manner in which the police authorities of Philadelphia treated Edward McHugh, president of the American Longshoreman's union, when he went recently to that city of brotherly love in response to the demands of the Philadelphia branch of his organization to direct a strike which they had decided upon. According to the Philadelphia Ledger, a paper with an enviable reputation not only in Philadelphia but over the country for the truthfulness of its news reports, Mr. McHugh, who was arrested for breach of the peace and inciting to riot, had in fact committed no disorderly act and uttered no disorderly word. He had refused to be driven by the police away from a public wharf where he had gone to meet and advise with the members of the organization of which he was president. But that was within his right. He had also, according to one of the boss stevedores, induced the men to go on with their strike after they had concluded to abandon it. That, too, was within his right. But the complaint about it showed that the real animus of the charge against McHugh was not so much solicitude for peace and order as anxiety to help the boss stevedores in their dispute with their men. Yet McHugh was held in \$800 bail for breach of the peace and inciting to riot, and before his friends could be communicated with the magistrate had quit the city and left him to be imprisoned, as he was for nearly 24

hours. That all this was oppressive appears upon the face of the Ledger report; and it would be inferred by people who have come in contact with McHugh. He is one of those men whom it is impossible to think of as a law breaker. Cases like his, and they are not so few, go a long way to account for that sentiment of contempt for the law which the comfortable classes are distressed to find among working men. When the law is continually presented to workingmen as an oppressor instead of a protector, it is not remarkable that except as they may fear it they should hold it in contempt. For after all, working men are but men like the rest of us.

Thomas G. Shearman throws a bright light, in a recent letter to the New York Times, upon a hitherto unnoticed parallel between the indirect taxation of Italy and that of the United States. In Italy, he says, the poor people cannot afford to use liquor and tobacco, and so the indirect tax is put upon their bread and salt and every other article of food, clothing and necessary of life. But in this country the poor do use beer and tobacco, and our indirect taxes are loaded upon those articles of consumption. This is upon the plea for which Mr. Shearman, though he seldom uses beer and never uses tobacco, expresses his contempt, the plea that "the poor need not pay for them if they do not want to." It is at this point that Mr. Shearman brings into view his parallel between Italian and American taxation. He says: "If the poor should unanimously abandon the use of beer and tobacco as the poor Italians do, our tax laws would follow those of Italy" and "bread and salt would be taxed." The reason he gives for this is that in no other way could revenue be raised by indirect taxation. When you make your poor pay your taxes you must do it, in these later years of grace, by means of indirect taxation; and indirect taxation raises but little revenue except as it falls upon the consumption of the

poor. So long as they consume beer and tobacco, taxes on beer and tobacco are the vogue; but if they were to abandon beer and tobacco, salt and bread would have to be resorted to, or indirect taxation be abandoned.

And still the Dingley customs law fails to keep its appointment as a revenue raiser. The customs receipts for May, as shown by the treasury statement, were only \$13,466,534.17, whereas in May one year ago they were \$16,885,011.55 — or \$3,418,477.38 more. Why, even in May, 1895, in the first fiscal year of the Wilson law, and when times were desperately hard, customs receipts were only \$99,975.74 less than in May of the present year. What can be the matter with Mr. Dingley's revenue raiser?

Against an issue of non-interest bearing greenbacks for war purposes, it is often objected that it would be a forced loan. Yet the objectors propose issues of interest-bearing bonds. Now, how do interest-bearing bonds differ from forced loans? Only in the fact that they are not loans. Their payment is forced. Such bonds must be paid for out of taxes, and taxes are forced out of the people. What point is made, then, by objecting that a greenback issue would be a forced loan? Are loans more objectionable than outright confiscation?

A democratic paper of Louisville puts forth what it regards as a winning platform for the party, and the New York Sun endorses it. This platform has eight planks: The freedom of Cuba, the acquisition of Puerto Rico, the annexation of Hawaii, the acquisition of the Philippine Islands, the building of the Nicaraguan canal, a navy twice the size of the present one, a regular army of 100,000 men, and the militia under the drill and discipline of the regular army. Leaving out the freedom of Cuba and the construction of the canal—both non-partisan questions—and here you have a dainty dish to set before a democracy. With the addition of a

plank advocating the establishment of a large permanent debt represented by interest-bearing bonds, this platform would make a very good one for the republicans. And that suggests a question. If the democrats ought to adopt a republican platform, why not become republicans and have done with it?

NATIONAL EXPANSION.

We must be prepared, as the war with Spain draws to a close, to encounter a tremendous movement for the acquisition of new territory. In various ways, this movement is already making itself felt.

Puerto Rico, we are told, must be made a spoil of war, and as "the inhabitants are incapable of self-government" we must take permanent possession and set up there a complete colonial establishment. The Hawaiian islands have long been ours for the asking, and now the war affords an excuse to ask. Off in the far Pacific are the Philippine islands, which, having been captured, must be retained, so we are urged, if for no better purpose than as a penal colony for American convicts. All this is not only advocated by the jingo press generally, but so important a personage as Senator Elkins—and he is a very important personage when matters of this kind are under consideration, for the same reason that the vulture is of importance when carrion is a subject of dispute—gives it his enthusiastic sanction. Our foreign policy is to undergo a radical change, he says, and not merely the Philippines and Puerto Rico and Hawaii must be ours, but we must even acquire a coal-station in the Mediterranean. He would have us launched at once upon a career of national expansion in which we should rival England and throw a deep shadow over the continental nations.

But a more important personage in this connection than even Elkins, more important because as the London Daily Telegraph truly says he "is credited with shaping the policy of the administration more than any other man," has pronounced in favor of the expansion idea. Indeed, he goes beyond Elkins. He would not be satisfied with expanding our territory, but insists upon treating the

new domain as a possession—attached to the union, but not and never to be of the union. Senator M. A. Hanna, for it is to him that we refer—whom else could be meant as the man who "is credited with shaping the policy of the administration more than any other man"—was interviewed in the London Telegraph of May 11, and in the course of this interview he said that "when the time comes, our policy will be made clear, to the effect that statehood is to be restricted to the present limits of our nation and is not to be extended to territory separated from the country, even when it is so close as Cuba." Yet he was sure that new territory would be acquired and our whole foreign policy reversed.

From Mr. Hanna down to the little hangers on, it is evidently understood among all jingoes that we are to take advantage of the war—which by the way they opposed as long as they could see in it only a measure for freeing a subject and outraged people—that we are to take advantage of it to seize upon outlying territory and go into the subject and outrage business on our own account. Not exactly on our account either, but in our name and on account of the land grabbing interests which really own this country and are sighing for new countries to conquer.

This is a policy which Americans must promptly denounce before the United States is committed to it. We have gone into the war not to conquer new territory for the benefit of land grabbing "sooners." Our object is to free Cuba. Incidentally we shall be justified in driving the Spaniards off this hemisphere. So, incidentally we shall be justified in driving them out of the Philippines. And by Spaniards let us explain for the benefit of careless readers, that we mean the Spanish government. We have no hostility to Spanish men and women. They are in our eyes like all other men and women, whether Philippine islanders, Cubans or Americans, common brethren made in the image of one God. But while we may drive the Spanish government off this hemisphere and out of the Philippines, we have no right to make ourselves the proprietors of the people whom we find in any part of the world which has been claimed as Spanish

territory. For our own sake, we should be unwise to annex those more or less distant parts of the world to our own country; and alike for our own sake and for the sake of the people there, we have no right to make ourselves their masters. Not only would that be an invasion of their natural rights, but it would be in contravention of our established policy of recognizing the natural right of all communities to govern themselves.

Back of this itch for territorial expansion is as we have already intimated a hunger for land. That he who owns the land owns the people who must live upon it has come to be a well-recognized principle of monopoly. The monopolists themselves recognize it better than anyone else, and land grabbing has become the substitute throughout the civilized world for slavery. No man wants great quantities of land merely for the land. It will yield him nothing unless he works it, and he cannot work much of it himself. He wants it so as to command the labor of others by withholding land from them unless they will work upon starvation terms. When men work upon starvation terms, the employers of men can thrive. Through the ownership of land, then, the virtual ownership of men is secured. And it is in order that some of our citizens may exploit the people of Cuba, of Hawaii, of Puerto Rico and of the Philippines—not only those who are there, but those who may be colonized there from here—that this great expansion movement is being put under way; put under way not by a conscious conspiracy, perhaps, but in obedience to that impulse which runs through the sensitive nerves of monopoly as electricity through a wire.

"Expansion" is only a pretty name for monopoly. Shall we stand silently by, then, while the blood of our brothers and sons is used to fertilize the idea? Now is the time to speak, before shrewd schemers succeed in playing upon patriotic sentiments to the further undoing of American democracy.

CITIZEN SOLDIERY.

Incidental to an adverse comment last week upon the increasing demands for a large standing army, we

advocated a militia system under which every able-bodied citizen should, during a certain period of his life, be required to serve pretty much as well-disciplined national guardsmen voluntarily serve now. To the compulsory part of this proposition objection has been raised, for which reason it may be worth while to give the matter more than incidental attention.

Let it be understood at the outset that in the compulsory feature of this proposition there is nothing new. Nor is it in any sense an innovation in our country, at least in theory. In most if not all the states every able-bodied man between the ages of 18 and 45 years is theoretically a member of the militia force. Compulsory law exists, then, though it is not active; and all that is needed to carry out the proposition we make is that the law should be so improved as to put the existing militia theory into practice in a sound way. We recognize, of course, that this is no affirmative argument for the proposition. It is offered only by way of removing the kind of objection which conservative minds would most likely interpose. But affirmative arguments are not lacking.

So long as democratic governments are surrounded by hostile forces, arrangements for military defense are necessary. By the philosophical anarchist this premise might not be accepted, but by most of those whom we now address it will be. The question that arises, then, is what form these arrangements should take so as to be least objectionable from the democratic point of view and most effective in the military sense.

Broadly speaking, they may take any one of three forms. We may maintain a standing army of hirelings. We may foster the national guard system as we now know it. Or we may improve and enforce the militia law which in theory compels every able-bodied man to qualify himself for defensive military duty.

The standing army theory is incompatible with democracy. No nation can long maintain a standing army and remain democratic. The military defense of a democracy must be entrusted to citizen soldiers, to men who are not only citizens, but who

follow civil pursuits, and who in their interests, associations and thought continue to be of the masses of the people while they acquire their military training. For present purposes this point need not be argued.

Similar reasons to those which condemn a standing army, though less pronounced, also condemn the national guard. Though its membership is drawn from the masses of the people and continues in civil pursuits while in training, yet the clubbish character of the organization tends to segregate its members into a class apart. National guardsmen lose their interest in great measure in civil concerns, and acquire peculiar interests in military concerns. While they go through the motions of citizenship, and thus differ from the soldiers of a standing army, they nevertheless have the instincts of soldiers rather than of citizens. They are as a class completely out of tune with the un-uniformed herd.

Nothing is left, then, for us to do, if we are to maintain a military force at all, but to organize and train the militia. And this organization and training must be compulsory. To make it voluntary is to do what we are already doing under the national guard system. It is to establish military clubs, entirely out of harmony with popular sentiment, and as ready almost as a standing army to follow the fortunes of the first dictator who may come along. Service in war need not be made compulsory. For that we may continue to rely upon volunteers. But training must be made compulsory, so that every citizen may in time of need be a possible volunteer, and so that while in course of training none may submerge their sense of civil obligations in a distinctly military spirit.

And what is there more objectionable in this sort of compulsion than in compulsory jury duty, or the compulsory attendance of witnesses upon trials? Nothing that we can see. To concede that there are common rights to be defended, is to concede that there are defensive duties to be performed. This would justify, in defensive war, even a draft. Certainly then it justifies compulsory military training, so that the common duties of military defense may be effectively

performed by those who are drafted or volunteer.

Of course we are speaking of the rank and file. For military service in the higher offices, professional education and exclusive service are usually desirable, though the career of the principal officer of our army, Gen. Miles, goes to prove that the former at least is not always necessary. But if we had a citizen soldiery there would not be the same objection to professional officers as there is now. With a citizen soldiery to train, professional officers would have no opportunity to develop those snobbish tendencies which are so notable a feature of the military profession so long as the rank and file may be treated, not only while in the ranks, but at all other times during their term of service, as inferior beings.

A citizen soldiery is, we repeat, the military bulwark of a democratic nation. But it must be a true citizen soldiery—a soldiery composed of the whole people of the given age. Its privates must not only be taken from the citizenship, and at the expiration of their term of training return to the citizenship, but they must throughout that term be of the citizenship—the legal equals in every respect, except while actually engaged in military work, and solely with reference to military duty, of even the highest military officer in the nation. And not that alone. This citizen soldiery must be so organized that it will acquire no military instinct of the clanish species.

Such a citizen soldiery is impossible without a system of compulsory military training—not like that of Germany in a standing army, but as part of or supplementary to concurrent civil duties. If we are to have a military arm at all, we must choose between a militia system perfected along these lines, and the extinction of democracy through a standing army of hirelings or through the hardly less dangerous and much less effective system of military clubs which we call the national guard.

THE PRICE OF WHEAT.

Leiter's speculations in wheat have brought down upon him the anathema of many a man who has found, in obedience to the rule that the price

of wheat governs the price of bread, that with the rise in the price of wheat, upon which our farmers were congratulated, the price of bread also rose, upon which, however, city workers were for good cause not congratulated. In connection with these speculations of Leiter's we are now asked to explain whether they really did raise the price of wheat?

This is not a question which anyone can answer with authority, but one to be thought out, and which can be thought out by anybody capable of thinking at all. The simplest way of proceeding for that purpose is to construct in the imagination a miniature commercial world, divested as much as possible of the complexities which make the main question so tangling to the mind, and then, after putting an imaginary Leiter into it, to set him at work with his speculations and in imagination watch the result. Let us, then, imagine a village which has been so completely McKinleyized and Dingleyated, that it lives wholly unto itself, bringing no products in from other places, and as a necessary consequence—assuming that no foreigner has a mortgage on it—sending out none.

Suppose now that Leiter is one of the inhabitants of this Protection Utopia, and that he undertakes to corner the wheat produced from the village farms. If he has money enough, or his credit is strong enough, he will be able to cause a scarcity sufficient to raise the price of wheat in the village. This much is obvious. But what if the protection policy of the village were so far moderated as to let in wheat produced anywhere in the county? Then Mr. Leiter's money and credit would have to be very much extended to enable him to influence prices. If the modification were broad enough to admit all the wheat of the state, he would have to control still more money or credit. If of the nation, still more. And if of the world, enormously more. It is reasonable to suppose that in the latter case and under ordinary conditions, he could not make his corner strong enough to affect the price at all.

Now let us bring in another element. Let us imagine the wheat crop of the world to be in some degree

diminished by natural causes. If only slightly diminished, the misfortune would not add much to Leiter's power to make a corner. But the greater this diminution, the stronger, relatively, would he be; and if the diminution were so great as to leave no wheat in the world except the product of the Protection Utopia we have imagined, his power of making a corner would be what it was when no wheat was admitted from without into the village.

Under certain circumstances, then, and to some degree, a speculator can raise the price of wheat by cornering it—the less extensive the field of production which he must take into account, the greater being his possibilities of success.

Whether Leiter succeeded in thus raising the price of wheat to any degree at all depends upon the circumstances under which he operated. The most significant of these circumstances is the fact that for two years the wheat crops of the world have been short. Wheat, therefore, would have risen in price even if there had been no Leiter to speculate in it. It would have done so under the influence of the normal laws of trade. Thus an opportunity was made for Leiter, and he availed himself of it. Knowing that wheat would rise from natural causes, he began to corner it. Other speculators did the same, and so aided him, though the magnitude of his operations centered attention upon him alone. His speculations, then, tended to reduce the wheat supply below the point to which nature had diminished it, and so to further enhance its price. Another factor contributed to a still greater augmentation. The exact supply of wheat being unknown, and the possibilities of an early future supply being in even greater doubt, the rumors which speculators put afloat as to scarcity operated with much force. Leiter's speculations, therefore, would seem to have been a powerful factor in raising the price of wheat above the level to which the natural scarcity would have raised it. They intensified the scarcity.

But the influence of speculation is only momentary. If Mr. Leiter had been operating in the Protective Utopia which we have imagined, though he might with a corner have

held wheat for a time above the price which the degree of scarcity there would have lifted it, he could have done so only for a time. As soon as the village market had begun to adjust itself to the scarcity his ability to maintain a fictitious price would have become increasingly difficult, until from timidity or loss of financial power he would have let go of his corner. The price of wheat would thus have found its normal point as certainly as water released by the breaking of a dam will find its normal level.

That this is true in its application to the wheat market of the world, Mr. Leiter himself seems to have discovered. Able to hold prices above the normal level for a little while, he was at last obliged to let go. Whether he was submerged in the downward rush or not, is unknown. It is also unimportant. If he escaped, that was because he saw the inevitable before it was discovered by other speculators on the bull side.

Our conclusions as to the influence which Mr. Leiter exerted in connection with the rise in the price of wheat may be briefly summarized. He could not have raised the price a penny but for the natural scarcity. He took advantage of that scarcity to attempt a corner which did raise the price higher than it would otherwise have gone; but this excess of price was and in the nature of things could be only temporary. As soon as the natural currents of commerce began to adjust themselves to the natural scarcity of wheat, the price of that commodity shot like a pickerel for a frog toward the point which measured the level of the prevailing natural scarcity. Leiter could no more have prevented this had he tried than he could navigate a catboat with a fire bellows.

NEWS

As we went to press last week the situation in the West Indies was too vaguely known to permit of a definite report. On the one side it was rumored that Com. Schley had ground the principal Spanish fort at the entrance to Santiago harbor to dust, while on the other the Madrid senate was formally expressing its satisfac-

tion with the brilliant victories of the Spanish fleet. Before the expiration of the week, however, it was learned that the bombardment which had given rise to the conflicting accounts and filled the air with rumors, had been merely an attempt by Com. Schley, on the 31st, to unmask hidden batteries, and while feeling the strength of the fortifications, to test the skill of the Spanish gunners.

Only two hostile maneuvers were made on this occasion by the American squadron. These were participated in by the Massachusetts, the New Orleans, and the Iowa. The Massachusetts led, firing several shells as she passed the harbor, two of which struck and exploded upon the Spanish flagship, the Cristobal Colon, as she lay at anchor in the channel with her broadside exposed. The shore batteries replied by firing at the Massachusetts until she was out of range, but without hitting her. Then they turned their guns upon the New Orleans, which followed the Massachusetts and in passing poured shell into the fortifications. She silenced one of the land batteries. The Iowa came next, throwing three shells into the main battery of Castle Morro and one into the lighthouse. Then the same ships bore down upon the harbor a second time at about 4,000 yards from the shore, firing as they passed. After that they withdrew, none of them having been struck and nobody on the American side having been injured. Com. Schley's official report was brief and to the effect that he had made a satisfactory reconnoissance to develop fortifications with their character, and that the reconnoissance had demonstrated the presence in the harbor of the Spanish fleet.

No sooner had Schley's official report straightened out the rumors regarding the bombardment on the 31st than rumors of another bombardment began to pour in. This was said to have taken place on the 3d, and as most of the rumors were of Spanish origin it was made to appear to have been disastrous to the Americans. Among the catastrophes so reported was the sinking of what was called the American cruiser Merrimac. This vessel, it was said, had made a dash to force the harbor, but was blown up and sunk, and an officer, an engineer and six seamen were taken prisoners. The event was heralded from Madrid as a brilliant victory for the Spanish

forces at Santiago. But this Spanish victory also proved to have been a successful maneuver on the part of the Americans to hold the Spanish fleet in the harbor.

The maneuver was as bold as it proved successful. Admiral Sampson with his squadron had joined Com. Schley and assumed command of the entire fleet before Santiago. The presence in the harbor of the Spanish squadron under Cervera had been demonstrated on the 31st by Com. Schley, and the important problem now was how to keep it there. A movement similar to Dewey's was out of the question. The harbor channel is narrow and was thoroughly mined. An assault, therefore, would have involved useless sacrifice of life. That at any rate was the judgment of the American authorities. Yet, unless an assault were made, Cervera might slip out in a storm or under cover of a fog and once more play hide and seek with the American navy. At this juncture Lieut. R. P. Hobson proposed a plan for placing a vessel lengthwise across the narrowest part of the channel and sinking her. He was authorized by Admiral Sampson to carry out the plan. For this purpose the Merrimac, an old freighter which was in use as a collier, was placed under Hobson's command and a volunteer crew of six men called for. Volunteers were warned that the enterprise involved certain death to all who engaged in it, but 4,000 came forward. Those chosen were Daniel Montague, of New York; George Clarette, of Lowell, Mass.; Osborn Deignan, of Stuart, Iowa; George F. Phillips, of Cambridgeport, Mass., and Francis Kelly, of Boston, Mass. Coxswain Clausen, of the New York, slipped aboard the Merrimac without permission and went with the others. The early morning of the 3d, between moon-set and sun-rise, was selected for the work, and under cover of darkness the Merrimac passed the outer fortifications of Santiago and the outer line of mines without incident. Then she was discovered and fire was opened upon her, but to no effect. Arriving at the appointed place, she was swung into position across the channel, and then Lieut. Hobson blew a hole in her bow with dynamite. She sank instantly, in exactly the position he had planned. The channel was thus effectually obstructed. Cervera cannot come out of the harbor, nor can any deep draft vessel go in, while the Merrimac lies there; and

no operations can be carried on to remove the obstruction without exposure to the American guns. Hobson's undertaking was completely successful.

After sinking the Merrimac, Hobson and his crew made an effort to return to the American fleet in a yawl, but it was now light and the Spanish batteries were pouring a hot fire upon them. Every life would have been lost had this effort been persisted in. So the yawl was turned toward the Spanish flagship, and the lieutenant and his crew surrendered. Admiral Cervera sent word to Admiral Sampson, under flag of truce, complimenting the prisoners on their courage, and offering to exchange them. He gave assurance of their good treatment meanwhile. It was reported on the 7th that Hobson and his crew were in the custody of the Spanish commander in chief at Santiago, and were treated as Spanish soldiers of equal rank.

The Merrimac episode having been fully explained, a new set of rumors began to get afloat. These related to a bombardment of Santiago on the 6th. The first reports came as usual from Spanish sources. Such as had been received from these sources on the 7th told of rumored attacks upon the harbor fortifications, resulting in the killing of three Spanish officers and three men on the Reina Mercedes, and the wounding of 17. They also told vaguely of a land battle on the same day, the 6th, in which five Spanish officers were wounded, and 22 men were killed and wounded. Considerable loss of life among the Americans in the land fight was also reported. But nothing was said of results. From Hayti and Jamaica, however, on the 7th the news was more specific. Santiago was reported from there as being at the mercy of the Americans, most of her protecting forts having been demolished and her batteries being in ruins. The Reina Mercedes, it was said, had been riddled, and the Marie Teresa severely damaged. These reports also spoke of a land fight, but added the information that the Spanish were driven back, though at considerable loss of American life. The landing appeared from these reports to have been at Baiquiri, east of Aguaadores, near the station of the railroad connecting with Santiago.

The only authentic news of the affair of the 6th which had been re-

ceived in this country on the 7th, was Admiral Sampson's official report. That was very brief and had been written apparently before the land engagement. It read:

"Bombarded forts at Santiago 7:30 to 10 a. m., to-day, June 6. Silenced works quickly without injury of any kind, though within 2,000 yards."

The most important part of this dispatch, to the reader who is not in the secret of the bombardment, is the fact that the American vessels could fight within such close range of the Spanish as 2,000 yards without suffering damage. It indicates either that the Spanish have inadequate armament or suffer from inefficient marksmanship.

Reports reached here on the 8th from Cape Haytien, of a bombardment of Cainamera, in the Bay of Guantanamo, a few miles east from Santiago; but bad cable communication leaves details in doubt as this is written.

Along with the rumors of fighting on the Cuban coast had come rumors for several days of the embarkation of troops from Tampa for a land campaign in Cuba. Besides the less specific of these rumors, which were abundant, it was reported on the 4th that 100,000 troops had sailed from Tampa to Cuba on that day; and on the 5th that 5,000 had been landed at Punta Cabrera, six miles west of Santiago harbor, and that others were being landed daily. The latter report was confirmed on the 6th, with the added information that a juncture had been effected between the Americans and Gen. Garcia. On the same day it was also reported that 26,000 had just embarked—20,000 from Tampa and 6,000 from Mobile. Owing to the censorship it is impossible to say even now whether there was any foundation for these reports. The probability is, however, that no troops except Cubans left American shores prior to the 8th, when, as reported on the 9th, 27,000 men—infantry, cavalry, artillery, engineers and signal corps—sailed from Tampa. The infantry consisted of the Fifth army corps, composed wholly of regulars except in the First brigade of the First division which includes the Seventy-first New York volunteers, and the First brigade of the Second division, which includes the Second Massachusetts volunteers. Eight volunteer regiments—Thirty-second Michigan, First and Fifth Ohio, Second New

York, First District of Columbia, Fifth Maryland, One Hundred and Fifty-seventh Indiana and Third Pennsylvania—were attached to, rather than incorporated in the Fifth corps, and accompanied it on the expedition. Gen. Shafter was in command.

It was reported on the 4th that all cable communication between Cuba and the outer world had been cut off by the Americans, but this report appears to have been unfounded. Dispatches still find their way from Havana and Santiago. On the 7th, however, it was given out that the cable between Cuba and Hayti, which had not been working for two days, was supposed to be cut. Cable communication between these points was partially restored, however, on the 8th, but soon after the report of the bombardment of Cainamera, mentioned above, had been received at Cape Haytien by means of the cable, it again ceased to work.

Mingled with the conflicting rumors about the operations in the West Indies, were occasional rumors as to the Cadiz fleet. According to these that ubiquitous collection of Spanish ships was at Cadiz, Spain, on the 3d. It was off Martinique, in the West Indies, and back again to Cadiz, on the 4th. On the 6th it had just returned to Cadiz after completing a series of trial maneuvers, notwithstanding that on the same day it was a week out from Cadiz, Cuba bound. Yet no concern was felt about this fleet at Washington on the 7th, for the authorities were assured of its detention at Cadiz for want of both coal and ammunition. On the 8th it had been ordered to sail from Cadiz to Cuba in a fortnight. Interspersed with the accounts of these bewildering maneuvers there came from Madrid on the 6th two explanations of the detention of the fleet at Cadiz. One was that it is detained because the Spanish government fears a revolt in the southern provinces at the first decisive defeat; and the other that both the minister of marine and Admiral Camara, who commands the fleet, have assured the government that it would be madness to send out to battle a fleet in the bad condition of this one.

There did appear on the 8th reason to suppose that some Spanish warship are at large in Cuban waters. A report reached Key West on that day

that an American scout ship had on the 7th sighted a Spanish squadron, consisting of one large cruiser, two small cruisers and a torpedo boat, off Cardenas, Cuba.

Since the 4th, rumors of political disturbances in Santo Domingo have been prevalent. At one time the president was said to have been assassinated in a revolutionary outbreak; at another the revolutionists were reported as put down; and at a later time still it was said that a second revolution had broken out in which also the president had been assassinated. As we write there is no trustworthy information upon the subject.

The report of last week, published on page 9 of The Public that the Alfonso XIII., the Spanish troop ship, had been captured by the St. Paul, was denied from Madrid on the 2d, it being claimed that she was then landing her cargo at Puerto Rico. This denial had a startling confirmation early in the present week, when the Alfonso XIII. gave the Yale, formerly the Paris, a lively chase.

Word has just been received of a fierce battle on the 22d at Jiguani, in Santiago province, between 1,000 Cubans under Col. Jesus Rabi, and 2,000 Spaniards. The Spanish were forced to surrender, leaving one colonel, seven captains and over 100 minor officers and privates in the hands of the Cubans as prisoners.

Kellert, the detective, who was arrested on the complaint of Du Bose and Carranza, the young Spanish diplomats whom Polo, late Spanish minister to the United States, left behind him when he returned to Spain from Montreal, was acquitted of the theft of the letter with which he stood charged, as narrated last week on page 12. He thereupon turned upon his accusers, sued them for false imprisonment and had them arrested.

The letter written by Carranza, which Kellert was accused of stealing, had in fact been stolen by another detective, who was well on his way to Washington before Carranza was aware of the loss. On the 4th it was published by the American government for the purpose of showing that Spain is using Canadian soil as a base for spying operations. The letter had been written to the Spanish minister of marine. Its most important state-

ment was to the effect that the writer had been left at Montreal "to receive and send telegrams and to look after the spy service," which he said he had organized there. It told also of bad luck with the spies, two of them having been captured, one in Washington, where he hanged himself, and the other at Tampa. On the day following the publication of the letter Carranza admitted having written it, but not as translated. The spy matter he explained by saying that he never wrote that he was running a spy bureau, nor that two of his best spies had been arrested, but that the papers were trying to make out that he was running a spy system, and that they claimed the Americans had arrested two of his best men. Sir Julian Pauncefote, the British ambassador, cabled a full account of the matter to the British foreign office on the 5th, and on the 6th the American ambassador, John Hay, called at the foreign office and complained of this use of Canada as a basis of Spanish operations. On the 7th, Carranza's letter was photographed by the American government and submitted to Sir Julian Pauncefote, who is understood to have cabled his government that the letter as published was correct.

Reports from Manila show that the insurgents are rapidly overcoming the Spanish authorities. Dispatches of May 31st, via Hong-Kong on June 6th, state that the Spanish outposts had been driven in by the rebels, with more than 1,000 Spaniards killed. Fierce hand-to-hand fighting for 70 hours had taken place in the midst of a typhoon storm, which rendered the Spanish rifles useless and enabled the rebels to slash effectively with their knives. The rebels were attacking at that time the suburbs of Manila. Chief Aguinaldo said in an interview that the rebels were anxious to rush upon Manila, but Dewey refused to allow it, forbidding them to cross the river seven miles south of the city. It was expected, however, that Aguinaldo would enter Manila by June 12th. He appears to have thoroughly organized the insurgents and thoroughly disheartened the Spanish forces. He has control, according to his own statement, of the provinces of Cavite, Lalaguna and Batan, and the Spanish governors of Cavite and Batan are among his prisoners. He is treating his prisoners well, and has issued orders that the lives and property of

Europeans, Chinese and Spanish non-combatants are to be protected and that all excesses are to be avoided. In a proclamation he declares his desire to set up a native administration in the Philippines, under an American protectorate, he, with an advisory council, to be dictator until the conquest of the islands, and thereupon a republican assembly to be established. Admiral Dewey writes of Aguinaldo to Consul Wildman, who is responsible for the policy of encouraging him, that "Aguinaldo is behaving splendidly."

Rumors were current in Hong-Kong on the 8th that Manila had fallen and Aguinaldo was in possession, but Consul Wildman thought it probable that the city was not yet actually occupied, though he believed it would be before the 12th. Natives of the Philippines resident in Singapore serenaded the American consul general there and presented an address thanking him for sending Aguinaldo to Admiral Dewey and expressing a desire for the establishment of a native government in the Philippines, under American protection.

China was reported on the 6th from London to have decided to transfer the capital of the empire from Peking to Singan, a city of 500,000 inhabitants at the confluence of the King-ho and the Wei-ho rivers. The report is unconfirmed, but comes from trustworthy sources.

On the 3d at Doyline, La., about 18 miles from Shreveport, a respectable mob burned a negro at the stake. He was accused of having attempted to murder a white woman.

IN CONGRESS.

Week Ending June 8, 1898.

Senate.

While the war revenue measure was under consideration on the 3d, Senator Wolcott, republican, of Colorado, offered in lieu of the committee's amendment for coining the seigniorage, an amendment directing the secretary of the treasury to coin as fast as possible, to an amount not less than \$4,000,000 a month, all the silver bullion now held in the treasury, and to issue, as the silver is coined, silver certificates to the amount of the difference between the cost of the silver bullion coined and its coinage value, until \$12,000,000 shall have been

issued. This amendment was carried, 48 to 31.

Mr. Aldrich, republican, of Rhode Island, offered as substitute for the greenback proposition, an amendment that certificates of indebtedness be issued, payable within a year, to the amount of \$100,000,000, and bonds redeemable after 10 and within 20 years to the amount of \$300,000,000. This was the amendment supported by the majority of the finance committee. It was agreed to by a vote of 45 to 31. But a further amendment, offered by Stewart, silver republican, of Nevada, prohibiting the use of any of these bonds as a basis of bank currency, was laid upon the table—44 to 27.

On the following day, the 4th, at 7:05 o'clock, p. m., the war revenue measure, as amended, was passed. Prior to that, however, an amendment placing a duty of 10 cents a pound on imported tea, proposed by Tillman, democrat, of South Carolina, was adopted. An attempt to incorporate an income tax feature had been defeated, by a vote of 35 to 38. An attempt, through an amendment offered by Mills, democrat, of Texas, to reduce the duties on imported goods 25 per cent. for two years, was also defeated—25 to 41. Pettigrew, republican, South Dakota, had offered an amendment to repeal the law of 1875 authorizing the secretary of the treasury to issue bonds for the redemption of greenbacks in coin without direct authority of congress, and that, too, was defeated—31 to 43. An amendment offered by Allen, populist, of Nebraska, providing that no bonds or certificates of indebtedness authorized by the bill should be used as a basis for national bank circulation, and that the secretary of the treasury should not have power to issue bonds to maintain the gold reserve without direction of congress, met the same fate—27 to 42; and an amendment offered by Butler to establish a postal savings system in lieu of issuing bonds was rejected without division.

After passing the bill the senate agreed to insist upon its amendments, and appointed conferees.

The deficiency appropriation bill which had come up from the house on the 2d was passed with amendments on the 6th. On the 7th, the bill for allotment in severalty of certain lands to the Indians of the Indian territory was passed.

On the 8th a bill for taking the twelfth census—that of 1900—was

passed. An effort to put the census employes under civil service rules was defeated—18 to 31. A bill was reported from the post office committee extending the franking privilege for first-class matter through the mails to the officers and men of the army and navy during the war.

House.

On the 2d the house without debate, passed the deficiency bill providing for emergency expenses of the army and navy in the war, the appropriations to be available until December 31st of the present year. The amounts appropriated foot up about \$18,000,000.

During the progress of routine business on the 6th the war revenue bill as amended by the senate on the 4th came back to the house, and Dingley introduced a rule sending it immediately to conference, without opportunity for debate or vote upon the amendments made by the senate. His rule was adopted—137 to 106—and conferees were appointed.

A measure was considered on the 7th to enable volunteer soldiers to vote at the congressional elections in the fall; and the senate amendments to the war deficiency bill were concurred in and further amendments made.

The Hawaiian annexation question was brought before the house on the 9th by Grosvenor, republican, of Ohio, who offered a resolution giving it precedence over all other business except conference reports. The resolution was not acted upon.

NEWS NOTES.

—Successful experiments with the Holland submarine warboat were made in New York harbor on the 7th.

—Roosevelt's rough riders—the first regiment of U. S. volunteer cavalry—made its camp at Tampa on the 3d.

—The Kansas prohibition convention, held on the 8th at Emporia, nominated ex-Senator William A. Peffer for governor.

—The Buffalo, formerly the Nichte-roy, which was left behind by the Oregon when off Bahia, arrived in Hampton Roads on the 7th.

—Senor Polo y Bernabe, formerly Spanish minister to the United States, is now under secretary in the foreign office at Madrid.

—The Columbia, which was injured in a collision as reported on page 12 last week, was floated on the 7th, after being fully repaired.

—At the state election in Oregon on the 7th, the republican ticket was suc-

cessful against the fusion of democrats and populists.

—The Persian minister of the interior resigned on the 5th, and the minister of foreign affairs was called upon by the Shah to form a new ministry.

—The monitor Monterey and the collier Brutus sailed from San Francisco on the 7th, but the second expedition of troops to Manila is not yet ready.

—Capt. Gridley, of the Olympia, who participated with Dewey in the destruction of the Spanish fleet at Manila, died in Japan while on his way home on sick leave.

—The first national convention of the social democracy, of which Eugene V. Debs has been president since its organization last year, opened at Chicago on the 7th.

—The new minister from Brazil, Senhor Joaquim Francisco de Assiz, who succeeds Senhor Salvador da Mandonca, was presented to President McKinley on the 7th.

—Fire raged for 24 hours on the 1st and 2d at Peshawar, on the northern frontier of British India, destroying 4,000 houses and doing damage to the amount of \$20,000,000.

—The Kansas republican convention, held on the 8th at Hutchinson, nominated W. E. Stanley, of Wichita, for governor, and W. J. Bailey, of Nemaha county, for congressman at large.

—Mrs. Atkinson, wife of the governor of West Virginia, who has been under prosecution for forgery, was acquitted on the 8th at Parkersburgh. Her co-defendant, Owen, was also acquitted.

—William J. Bryan was on the 5th appointed colonel of the Third Nebraska regiment, in which he had enlisted as a private, and on the next day the services of the regiment were offered to the government.

—Ernest Terah Hooley, long prominent in London as the largest corporation promoter in Great Britain, and supposed to be a millionaire many times told, was declared a bankrupt on the 8th at London.

—The Restormel, the British coaling steamer which was captured by the St. Paul, as told on page 9 last week, was released by the American prize court at Key West on the 2d; but her cargo was condemned as contraband of war.

—The chamber of deputies of France elected M. Deschanel, on the 2d, to be president of that body. As he defeated the former president by a vote of only 282 to 278, his election was a narrow victory for the ministry, whose candidate he was.

—Forty-five officers of the Spanish naval reserves, who had been captured on prizes and were held as prisoners of war at Key West, were paroled on the 2d. They were captains and mates of captured vessels. Nearly 450 seamen of these vessels are still held as prisoners.

—Julius S. Grinnell, who prosecuted the Chicago anarchist trials in 1886, died suddenly in Chicago on the 8th. He had been elected to the bench in 1887, but after serving three years resigned to become general counsel for the Chicago City railway, his vocation at the time of his death.

—Two young women, officers in the Salvation Army, were released on the 2d from custody at Omaha, they having been arrested for destroying nude statuary in the exposition grounds. The statuary had been placed 50 feet high, and they climbed up to it and mutilated it with hatchets. The exposition authorities decided not to prosecute.

—The Spanish have complained to the British government of breach of neutrality, based upon the supply of Canadian coal from Vancouver and Nova Scotia to the warships of the United States; but the British government holds, it is understood, that as the coal is sold to private parties in the ordinary course of peaceful commerce, the British government cannot be held responsible for its disposal afterwards.

—At a nationalist demonstration on the 6th at Belfast, Ireland, in honor of the revolution of 1798 and of the anniversary of the shooting in 1886 of seven civilians by the constabulary, a riot with Orangemen broke out, in the course of which the police were attacked and over 50 of them injured. The military was called upon to suppress the outbreak. Disturbances were renewed on the 7th by the nationalists who assaulted Orangemen. The police were at first overpowered; but quiet was at length restored, though fears of further rioting continued.

—At the republican state convention of Pennsylvania, on the 2d, William A. Stone, Senator Quay's candidate, was nominated for governor. Ex-Postmaster-General Wanamaker had made a long and arduous campaign for the nomination, delivering 67 different speeches in which he forcefully attacked the Quay ring; but upon the organization of the convention a letter from him was read in which he withdrew as a candidate and asked his supporters to vote for Charles W. Stone. The contest, therefore, came off between William A. Stone, and Charles W. Stone, and the latter was defeated by a vote of 162 to 198.

MISCELLANY

"THE DAY THAT'S GOING TO BE."

"Come hither, lads, and hearken
For a tale there is to tell,
Of the wonderful days a coming, when all
Shall better be than well.
And the tale shall be told of a country,
A land in the midst of a sea,

And folk shall call it England
In the day that's going to be.

"There more than one in a thousand
Of the days that are yet to come
Shall have some hope of the morrow,
Some joy of the ancient home.
For then, laugh not, but listen
To this strange tale of mine:
All folk that are in England
Shall be better lodged than swine.

"Then a man shall work and bethink him,
And rejoice in the deeds of his hand,
Nor yet come home in the even
Too faint and weary to stand.
Men in that time a coming
Shall work and have no fear
For to-morrow's lack of earning
And the hunger-wolf anear.

"I tell you this for a wonder,
That no man then shall be glad
Of his fellow's fall and mishap
To snatch at the work he had.
For that which the worker winneth
Shall then be his, indeed,
Nor shall half be reaped for nothing
By him that sowed no seed.

"O strange, new, wonderful justice!
But for whom shall we gather the gain?
For ourselves and each of our fellows,
And no hand shall labor in vain.
Then all Mine and all Thine shall be Ours,
And no more shall any man crave
For riches that serve for nothing
But to fetter a friend for a slave."
—William Morris.

THE WAY IT LOOKS TO THE ULTRA CONSERVATIVE.

"Lace, a Berlin Romance," is the title of a novel in German by Paul Lindau, published in English by D. Appleton & Co., 1889. The scenes and characters are all drawn from the highest German nobility. The hero, Prince Ulrich Engernheim-Kypstein, is indicted for perjury, and in his trial the prosecuting attorney makes a defense and apology for things as they are in "all civilized countries," including Germany. He says: "The goods of this world are not equally distributed, never have been. As far back as the memory of man goes science and experience, theory and practice, have been doing all they could to smooth down the mighty inequalities which manifested themselves in the very beginning of civilization, and have become more sharply defined in proportion as civilization has progressed. It is true that many a salutary step has been taken towards amendment in this direction by individuals and by great communities. As for any efficient result, such as could in any degree satisfy those who feel themselves cast into the background, oppressed and maltreated, they have not attained it, nor are they ever likely to attain it. That frightful contrast between the envied and those who envy has already in our own days borne fruit in the most abominable crimes—murder, arson, pillage, the devastation of houses and lands and anarchy. For the future it augurs ruin,

tumult and the blackness of night. In attestation of this we need but to refer to the actions of the Paris commune, the Russian nihilists, the Irish fenians, and the plans of the international socialists. No institution has been spared the attacks of these embittered malcontents, who have not been quelled by respect for customs fortified by the usage of thousands of years. The ax has been laid to the roots of state and society, the monarchy, the sanctity of the church, the conditions which make the family in civilized countries, and secure to the sons undisturbed enjoyment of their fathers' earnings—in short, to all we deem sacred and inviolable."

PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION.

Proportional representation may be defined as equality in government, or collective righteousness, in that it substitutes for a falsely assumed representation of majorities, slave-penned within district lines, or "at large," an actual representation of the entire body of voters, pro rata according to their various opinions and preferences, so that legislatures and boards thus elected would be complete miniature mirrors of the views of the community, just as a map represents a country. This is impossible by means of party organizations; our existing electoral system necessitates an absolute misrepresentation, and the "people's rule" myth surpassed any other in its absurdity and diabolism.

Note the immense volume of the local and general "news" of political campaigns, and it will be seen that it nearly all refers not to any consideration of principles or measures, but to petty or crooked methods by which party organizations are, or are to be, utilized in behalf of this or that candidate. As Albert Stickney aptly termed the process, it is "the science of war by election." Graphically remarked ex-United States Senator Ingalls in 1890:

The purification of politics is an iridescent dream. Government is force, politics a battle for supremacy; parties are the armies. The Decalogue and the Golden Rule have no place in a political campaign.

This is true, however, only of the existing systems. There is no real need why men should do collectively, either in politics or war, that which nearly every one of them would scorn to be guilty of as individuals. There is no reason other than the misleading thought of leaders in press, pulpit, platform, school and college why collective action should not be even more pure, more philanthropic, more effective than

individual action. It is the system that is bad—not the voters.

ELECTROLYSIS AND "SKY- SCRAPERS."

Electrolysis threatens the stability of many of Chicago's sky-scraping buildings, most of which are floated, as it were, on immense steel rafts sunk deep below the surface of the ground. It has long been known that the return current from the trolley roads has destroyed water pipes and other underground work subjected to their influence, but until recently the danger to the foundations of the immense skeleton structures has not been considered. Gen. Sooy Smith, who is now engaged on the Chicago post office, has made some recent investigations and discovered unmistakable evidence that electrolysis had begun, although none of the buildings examined were in immediate peril. In order to avert this peril an effective insulator for light and power wires must be found, and a means of preventing the escape of electricity into the ground from electric car tracks.

Cement, it is claimed, is an insulator, but Mr. Smith disputes this. While these steel beams or rails are imbedded in cement, yet this by no means protects them against this danger, for he says: "While not a good electric conductor, it is not an insulator by any means. One of its essential elements is unslaked lime, which is not only a conductor, but, much more important, one of the greatest known absorbents of moisture. The subsoil under Chicago, it is unnecessary to state, is never dry. The unslaked lime, according to its distinguishing principle, must inevitably draw in dampness from the surrounding earth, and thus keep saturated the pores of the composition of which it forms a part. Electricity will find its way through any moisture-containing material, even though the sand and other elements of cement were non-conductors, which they are not; therefore steel foundations would be electrically exposed." A piece of iron strongly affected by electrolysis can be crumbled in the fingers. It goes to pieces with less resistance than is offered by a dry piece of clay. A rivet becoming so affected would be able to perform its duties up to a certain limit in the process of its decomposition. That limit reached, it would give way under the enormous pressure constantly exerted against it.

While this danger has been hinted at before, in the discussions that have appeared from time to time as to the dangers from rust and corrosion to the

metal structures of the sky-scrapers, little attention has been paid to electrolysis as affecting foundations. From the above it will be seen that engineers and architects have a serious problem to work out in protecting their buildings against this danger. Apparently the remedy is insulation, or the adoption of other than metal for the underground work where dampness is certain to be present and render iron subject to electrolysis.—Architecture and Building.

THE MOST MISERABLE PEASANTRY IN EUROPE.

Extracts from an article with the above title, by Edith Sellers, published in the March number of Good Words, London. Galicia is in Austrian Poland.

Galician villages, if viewed from a distance, are singularly picturesque in appearance. The cottages and huts are built in the most irregular fashion, in little groups around the church, against which they seem to nestle as if for protection. Many of them are covered with lichens and all kinds of creepers, and have gardens around them aglow with bright colors. Beyond the gardens are fruit orchards; while dotted about just here and there are great oak trees that must have stood for generations. Then quite close at hand, only a good stone's-throw away, is the manor house, always a delightful abode, with long, low verandas and beautiful gardens laid out in the French style—tiny fountains and quaint stiff flowerbeds. Some of these hamlets, indeed, are quite ideal in their beauty; there is such a restfulness and peace about them, too, that travelers who pass through them in haste are apt to envy those who dwell there, and to think that their lines are cast in quite unusually pleasant places. They speedily change their opinion though if tempted to make halt there, even though it be but for an hour. For then they discover that most of these charming lichen-bedecked cottages are little better than ruins, and that it is only by means of props and stakes that they are prevented from falling to the ground. A door that will open and shut is quite a rarity in a Galician hamlet, and so is a window with an unbroken pane of glass. On every side there is dust, dirt and rubbish; on every side, too, there are signs of misery and poverty.

Some 35 out of every 1,000 of these Galician peasants die in the course of a year; and the wonder is, one feels while wandering about among them, not that so many should die, but rather that so many should live. Their cottages are for the most part one-storyed and one-roomed; no matter how large

a family a peasant may have, they all—father, mother, sons and daughters, and daughters-in-law, with their children, too, sometimes—live, eat and sleep in the same apartment. Nor is it only human beings who dwell there; it must also serve as a shelter for the more delicate of the live stock—the calves, lambs and little pigs. The cocks and hens, too, and the geese are housed there, and the year's supply of potatoes and cabbages. The furniture consists of a table, a few rickety chairs or settees, and one bed, which is reserved for the head of the family, unless, indeed, there chance to be an invalid who claims it. The young people generally sleep on the ground, with a little straw, perhaps, under their heads, and in the clothes they wear in the day.

Although the Galicians have been living in poverty for generations, they are probably poorer now than ever before, incomparably poorer than in the days when they were serfs. As they have no money wherewith to buy manure, their land is becoming less fertile from year to year—already its productivity per acre is to the productivity per acre of England as 4:37; and, owing to the divisions and subdivisions entailed by the law of inheritance, their holdings are becoming smaller and smaller. At the present time the average size of a holding is under four jochs; and, on 80 per cent. of these holdings, the net annual profits do not amount to more than 20 gulden — £1 13s. 4d. And this, although every sheep, pig, and fowl that is raised there is sold, and every pound of butter or cheese. To think of working early and late for a whole year for the sake of 20 gulden!

The peasants, it is true, are often able to eke out their incomes by earning a trifle on the manor-farm, but it is only a trifle, some twopence in winter, and perhaps one shilling in summer. Some few of them are beginning, however, to make their way, when the winter comes round, to the factories that are now springing up. There they may earn two shillings a day if their labor be skilled, and from sixpence to ninepence if it be unskilled. And these they look upon as quite munificent wages. Even with these additions to their means, however, the chances are that they will be forced sooner or later to have recourse to the money lender, and then their fate is sealed. Before long they will either be driven forth from their holdings, or compelled to work them for him, practically as his serfs. Holdings have been seized and sold for a debt of five shillings.

The painful impression produced in Galicia by the poverty of the peasants is rendered more intense in some districts by the glaring contrast in which it stands to the wealth of the nobles. The great land owners there are as a rule most lavish in their expenditure; their houses are organized on the most luxurious scale, and their horses and carriages are quite magnificent. Their extravagance is indeed proverbial, and, debt beridden though many of them be, they scatter money abroad with both hands when their own pleasures are in question. The great majority of them, however, would as soon think of flying as of giving a helping hand to the men and women around them, even though they be dying of starvation at their very gates. In no country in all Europe is there so little sympathy between the land-owning class and the peasant as in Galicia, such a lack of any feeling of responsibility on the one side, or of loyalty on the other. It is the peasants who pay the pastor's stipend and keep his house in repair, but it is the lord of the manor who appoints him. It is they who build the schools, where there are schools, and defray all the cost of education; but it is he who chooses the teachers, who retains or dismisses them at will, and who decides what they shall teach and what leave untaught. It is they, too, who make the roads, although the only vehicles that pass over them are his. Soldiers are billeted for the month together in cottages, but they never cross the threshold of the manor house; and when they are in need of horses and forage, it is the land workers, not the land owners, who must supply them. The nobles may hunt and shoot the whole day long, if they choose, over the peasants' holdings; but woe betide a peasant who is found in his lord's forest without permission! He is straightway flogged as a poacher. Then a one-roomed hut pays almost as much house duty as a mansion, and small farms are far more heavily taxed per acre than great estates.

In Galicia the incidence of the land tax is indeed quite absurd in its unfairness, and that owing in part at least, to one of those blunders which occur so often in that part of the world. The officials appointed to assess the tax when it was first imposed underestimated the land held by the nobles to the amount of 3,000,000 gulden; and, when they discovered their error, in order to conceal it, they calmly added that sum to their valuation of the peasants' holdings. A commission is now sitting for the purpose of revising this valuation; but as it consists of 15 nobles and three peasants

it is not probable that it will do much towards relieving small holdings at the expense of great estates.

Some curious proofs of the way in which the Galician nobles abuse their power were afforded by the last land-tag elections. In some districts, where they knew the peasants were going to vote against the official candidates, they stationed troops before the voting booths to drive them away at the point of the sword, and prevent their voting at all. In others they allowed them to vote, but took care that their votes were burnt uncounted. In one village, when the peasants presented themselves at the parish room, although they were punctual to the minute, they found that the election had already been held, and with closed doors! In several places their chief men were quietly arrested while on their way to vote, and thrown into prison. Devices of all sorts were resorted to in fact to prevent these people from using the votes the Austrian government had given to them. The reichsrath elections last spring were conducted on much the same lines.

It seems almost incredible that men should submit, in this our day, to the sort of treatment that is dealt out to the Galician peasantry. But the ignorance of these people, it must be remembered, is surpassed only by their credulity and their superstition. They know no more than their sheep do of nineteenth-century ways or of nineteenth-century civilization. They are, too, by nature patient and long-suffering. English workmen would stand aghast could they hear them talk; for although they have been freemen now for nearly half a century they still talk as serfs, and what virtues and what vices they have are the virtues and vices of serfs. That their master should give them a flick with his whip as he passes is in their eyes the most natural thing in the world; nay, they will even turn and kiss the hand that strikes them. The majority of them are firmly convinced that there are on this earth two distinct orders of human beings, nobles and peasants; and that, for the time being, the very *raison d'être* of the latter is to serve the former. And serve him they must, therefore, whether they wish it or not, for such is the decree of the fates. All the good things of this life, too—beautiful houses, warm clothes, rich food—they look upon as the special property of the nobles; it is only upon the scraps and odds and ends that they advance any claims for themselves. Not that they approve of this arrangement; on the contrary, they regard it as being woefully unjust; for, although until quite recent days it has

rarely ever occurred to them to resist the tyranny or resent the insolence of their masters, they have never a doubt in their own minds but that these masters, who are Roman Catholics, are morally worse and less deserving than they themselves, who are many of them Anabaptists. It is by foul means, not by fair, they are sure, that their oppressors have obtained possession of the land, and with it of all that makes life worth living. Perhaps this is why, whenever they have risen up against them—as in 1846—they have smitten them hip and thigh, ruthlessly, with blind fury. It is an article of faith among them, indeed, that when the day of their deliverance comes—and prophets have now arisen who are preaching that it is near at hand—no quarter must be shown to the nobles, as they are in league with the devil.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Extracts from an article written for the Outlook by Mr. Ramon Reyes Sala, a native of Manila.

There are about 600 habitable islands in the Philippines. Of these the principal ones are Luzon, Mindanao, Samar, Panay, Negros, Palarian, Paragan, Mindoro, Leyte, Cebu, Masbate and Bojol. The total area has been estimated to be nearly 150,000 square miles. From my own travel and observation, however, I should put it somewhat less than 100,000 miles. All of the islands are of volcanic origin and are crossed by ranges of mountains from two to eight thousand feet high. Earthquakes occur frequently and sometimes do much damage. For this reason the American sky-scraper will never be transplanted to Manila.

In the interior are magnificent forests, trees two or three hundred feet high. The glorious flora, of a luxuriance unequalled, I believe, anywhere, makes it a paradise for the naturalist. The gigantic orchids are justly celebrated. Strange to say, there is no large game, although bear-hunting furnishes rare sport. Boa-constrictors, ranging from ten to twenty-five feet in length, are all too plentiful. Bears are to be found in the mountains. However, for the benefit of young Americans who are anxious for excitement and big game, I will say that the bays and rivers swarm with the proas of pirates; while in the mountains and forests lurk bands of brigands—the natural result of Spanish misrule and oppression.

There are nearly 10,000,000 natives, and these are divided into about 180 tribes, each possessing its own peculiar dialect and customs. All of these are of Malay extraction except the Negritos—the descendants of the aborigines—

a dwarfish, ugly, feeble, stupid race of African descent. They are, fortunately, fast disappearing.

The Malays in the interior of the islands are yet in a state of semi-savagery.

The main population is the so-called Tagala. These are all Catholics, though in Sulu are yet many Mohammedans, governed by a sultan under the protection of the governor-general. The mestizos or half-caste Spaniards are the most intelligent. Many of these possess considerable wealth and are highly cultivated, often having had the advantage of a European education. Until lately this element did not affiliate with the insurgents, which, perhaps, was the real reason of the failure of all previous insurrections. This was due to the fact that so many of the rebels were the half-castes known as mestizo-Chinos—a mixture of native and Chinese blood—and for this class, ugly and vicious, though often shrewd and intelligent, the better element has nothing but contempt.

There are also many Chinese in the islands, who may properly be designated the Jews of the Orient. Many of these are very rich, though they have to pay very dearly for each privilege.

The natives are docile and easily led. Their hospitality is proverbial. They are also very artistic and musical. The climate, though extremely hot, is very healthful.

There are about 15,000 Spaniards in the colony, counting the military. At the head of each of the 18 provinces is a governor.

There is but one railroad in the islands. It is from Manila to Dagupin—a distance of 123 miles. It is a single track, and English engines are used. Their speed is about 45 miles an hour. This road has paid more than ten per cent. to the shareholders. The trend of the trade seems now to be towards the United States, though Germany, England, Spain and France contribute most of the imports. American manufacturers will be able to compete with the English and the Germans only when the cost of production and transportation shall have been so reduced that they can offer their goods at much lower prices. American products are preferred, but they come too high.

Under new and favorable conditions I see a great future in the colony for American commerce. Sugar, hemp, tobacco, fruits, coffee, rice and indigo are the principal exports—amounting at present, I should judge, to about \$40,000,000 a year. The imports are about \$30,000,000. Native labor is very cheap, and the soil is wonderfully productive.

The American colonist will find there both a garden of Eden and a gold mine.

THE AMERICAN TEMPERAMENT.

No character is quite so interesting to thoughtful Englishmen as that of the Americans; it is so like our own, yet so unlike, so complex and yet so simple, so intelligible and yet so full of unexpected turns. They are as difficult to depict as Englishmen seem to foreigners, and if we try to do it, it is with a full consciousness that after our best efforts many facets of the stone will still remain undescribed. But for two peculiarities which are universal and deep enough profoundly to modify character, we should say that the Americans, as a nation, more closely resembled the English in Ireland than any other people in the world. The long contest with enemies, with nature, has bred in them the inner hardness and incapacity of yielding to opposition which that peculiar caste derives from its long habit of keeping down superior numbers and exacting from them tribute. There is dourness somewhere in every American, a "hard pan," as they say themselves, to which if you get down there is no further progress to be made. You must crush it to powder or retreat, and nine times out of ten retreat is found to be the easier course. The American character rests, in fact, on a granite substratum, which has been the origin of their success, and will give them the mastery of the western hemisphere. It is not merely the English doggedness, though it doubtless had its root in it; it is a quality which enables its possessor to go on whatever happens, to charge, as it were, instead of merely standing to receive the assault. It is, in fact, if we are to be minute, doggedness made fiery by an infusion of hope, of a sanguineness which you would never expect from an American's face—that, owing to some climatic peculiarity, is usually careworn, especially in the east—but which colors his very blood. We never met an American in our lives who did not believe that he should "worry through" any trouble on hand, and reach at last the point desired, however distant it might seem to be. Like the Anglo-Irishman also, the American has a quick sense of the incongruous; he perceives the comicality alike of things and persons, and he has a habit of pointing that out with a reserved shrewdness which has always the effect of, and sometimes really is, mordant humor. (The humor of exaggeration, which all Englishmen attribute to all Americans, is, we fancy, accidental—that is, is attributable to humorists

with a Celt-Irish trace in them who have caught the popular ear). Like the Anglo-Irish, too, the American has a strong sense of personal dignity; he cannot bear to be belittled, and is, if anything, over-sensitive on the score of his individual claims to respect. His pride is not the glacial pride of the Englishman, who at heart holds the man who offends him to be a boor for doing it, and would as soon quarrel with a cabman as with him, but is a glowing pride, quick, perhaps over-quick, to resent insult and to imagine wrong. Add to these traits an almost infinite depth of inner kindness so long as there is no provocation and no resistance from inferiors, and you have the Anglo-Irish character on its strong sides, and that is also the American, about as efficient a character as the world presents to our view. He can fight or he can bargain, he can build or he can diplomatisé; and when doing any of these things, he generally contrives to come out at top, with perhaps just a glance around to see that the high place out of which he emerges with unmoved countenance has been noticed by the world around. We should add, for it is characteristic, though perhaps it is of little importance, that the manner of a well-bred American is usually, and allowing for individual idiosyncrasies, almost exactly, that of a well-bred Anglo-Irishman, courteous and kindly, with a touch of intended grace, and with a certain patience, as of one accustomed to other men's folly, which is not English at all. The Englishman's patience offends—that is the testimony of all mankind, to the Englishman's great perplexity—but the American's patience and that of the Anglo-Irishman leaves a sensation, not always fully justified, of friendliness. There are a hundred Lord Dufferins in America.

The American has, however, as we said, two peculiarities which differentiate him from all mankind. We should not call him a happy man exactly, but he is an incurably cheerful one. The weight of the dozen atmospheres which press down the Englishman is off the American's spirit. He does not expect to find anywhere persons superior to himself; he thinks he can make, instead of obeying, etiquettes; he sees no reason, unless, indeed, he is a candidate for his municipality or for congress, for professing to be anything but what he is. He is quite contented as to his past, and quite satisfied that the future will go his way. He lives mainly in the present, but as the past was good and the future will be better, the present will do very well for

the time being. If no one has affronted him he has no quarrel with anyone, but is disposed to look on all men with an appreciative smile, as being all equally creatures of Allah, poor creatures, some of them, no doubt, but still creatures. He takes life as it comes, in fact, with little concern whether anybody takes it differently, and with a complete admission, not only from the lips, but from the heart, that it takes a good many sorts of men to make up a world. The conviction of equality with all men has taken the social fidget out of him, and given him an inner sense of ease and tranquillity, never quite absent even when his external manner seems awkward or constrained. It follows that he is always ready to try anything, and that the English idea of living in a groove seems to him confined and small, a waste of the faculties that God has given. And it follows, also, that being inwardly content with himself, and having a whole continent to work in, he is seldom so thorough as the Englishman, is satisfied with knowing many things less completely than the Englishman knows one, and has for intellectual temptation, always provided that the task before him is not machinemaking, a certain shallowness. The kind of man who is least like an American is the kind of man about the British museum, who knows upon some one subject nearly all there is to know, and can tell you almost to a foot where all that remains to be known will ultimately be found. We doubt if the American is fuller of resource than the Englishman, who generally when Chat Moss has to be filled has his plan at last; but he is much quicker in bringing his wits to bear, and much less disposed to let any habitude of mind stand for a moment in his way. In fact, though the American, like every other of the sons of Eve, is clothed in habits, he wears them with singular lightness, and if his sense of propriety would permit, would on the smallest provocation cast them all away. There are only two exceptions to that with an American, his religion and the constitution of the United States. Those two are not habits at all in the Carlylean sense, but outer and inner skins.

There remains the strongest and strangest peculiarity of all, which already differentiates the American completely from the Englishman, and a hundred years hence will make of him an entirely separate being. The American is a nervous man in the sense in which doctors who study constitution use that word. He is not neurotic, no man less so, and is prob-

ably as brave as any man alive, but his nerves respond more quickly to his brain than those of any other human being. He feels strongly, and he feels everything. All news comes to him with a sharp, cutting impact. He works mentally under pressure, he does in a day what other men do in a week, he almost realizes the schoolboy's joke when taunted with too much desire for sleep, that "there are people who can sleep fast." Excitement maddens him a little. He is like Douglas Jerrold's hero who had almost infinite wealth, but whenever he wanted to pay for anything had to give a bit of himself to do it, till, though each bit was only a heavy bank-note, he was worn literally to skin and bone. The result is that the American when very successful or much defeated has a tendency to die of nervous prostration, to an extent which makes nervous disease a specialty of the great American physicians. They think, we believe, that the tendency is a result of "imperfect acclimatization," and no doubt a course of Europe has often a wonderfully invigorating effect, but we are not quite convinced that climate is the only cause. At least it is, it is curious that the aborigines should not be possessed of more throbbing nerves, and that the western farmer, who has a better climate than the New Yorker, should be so much more excitable than his rival in the east. We are inclined to suspect that the condition of so many Americans resembles the condition of overtrained men or horses, and that activity of brain continued for generations is injurious in a dry climate to bodily health. Be the cause what it may, the American is liable to be excited, and his excitement, which sometimes shows itself in bursts of tremendous energy, sometimes in fits of gaiety, and sometimes in almost incurable melancholia, constantly wears him out. It is the greatest distinction between him and the more stolid Englishman, or rather between him and the oldest of English colonists, the Anglo-Irishman, whom in all else the American so closely resembles, and who, though he has not succeeded in governing Ireland, pours into the British services a constant succession of men whom the empire could not spare.

THE WAR FROM A NEW POINT OF VIEW.

A young Irishwoman stood beside me as the car pulled away from the platform. She was telling a chance acquaintance that she had been out from the city [to the state camp] to see her husband.

"There ain't goin' t' be anny war at

all," said she. "It's all a story got up by the men t' fool the wimmen folks. Ivery wance in awhile the men has t' go off on a big jamboree. An' so they git up a great story about war. I don't believe there iver was such a thing."

"But you read about it in the newspapers," said the other woman.

"Yis," she replied, "but the newspapers is all run by men an' they're all in together."

"But you know how they used to come home wounded and dead from the civil war," said the other.

"Ah, I know," said she with the brogue, "but my man has come home wounded manny a time when I knew there was no war. An' wasn't Ted Gleason brought home dead not a month back with a big dint in his forehead? Wance in awhile the men have t' go off by themselves—millions o' them—an' they put guards around them t' keep the women away, an' they have all kinds o' games and prize fights an' divilment t'gether."—*The Cosmopolitan.*

There is one boy in town who is reading the war news from an entirely original motive. "It isn't that I'm not interested in it just like everybody else," he says; "but I'm not doing it from interest alone. It's to save trouble. In a few years, you know, all these happenings will be history, and I'll have to learn about them from a stupid old book. Well, I'm learning now, instead, and out of the newspapers and magazines. Then when it gets to be history and the teacher will tell me to study it, I'll know it all, and without studying, too. It's lots of fun. Only wish I could learn all history the same way."—*New York Paper.*

The torpedo destroyer, or torpedo-boat catcher, is simply a large sea-going torpedo boat, with very much greater speed and an armament of rapid fire guns to enable it successfully to attack and destroy the small torpedo boat, which it is its mission to seek out and disable. At sea it would act as a torpedo boat. We have none of this class in our service as yet, unless the one purchased abroad may rank as such. Their practical utility in actual warfare has yet to be demonstrated, but theoretically they are most dangerous opponents.—Henry W. Raymond, in *The Chautauquan.*

The opposition to the war, so far as it has come under my observation and knowledge, seems to be caused by overcultivation, using "cultivation" in all the ways in which it may be applied, from spiritual to lowest material. And overcultivation is more to be deprecated than undercultivation, because it

puts one out of touch with nature, and deprives him of the primitive emotions—those great elemental forces that keep the world vitalized.—Extract from private letter.

Every warship carries what is called the "homeward-bound" steamer. This is a forty-five-starred, red, white, and blue bunting, and is often hundreds of feet long, so that it sometimes trails in the water, unless the wind is blowing strongly.

When a war vessel starts for home, this is flown from the mainmast, and it is said to be the grandest and most imposing pennant in the navy.—*Great Round World.*

According to *The Outlook* it was brought out at the recent International Postal Congress that two-thirds of the mail of the world is addressed in the English language.

A home is never perfectly furnished for enjoyment unless there is a child in it, rising three years old, and a kitten, rising three weeks.—*Dr. Southey.*

Shall I seek Heaven that I may find a place
Where with my soul 'tis well?
If thus I seek, though I may strive for Heaven,
My face is set towards hell.
—*Hannah Kimball.*

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