Saint Mary's Beacon.

VOL. XV. LEONARDTOWN, MD., FRIDAY MORNING, MARCH 15, 1878. NO. 26

THE

ST. MARY'S BEACON

IS PUBLISHED EVERY FRIDAY BY

J. F. KING & T. F. YATES.

TERMS OF SUBSCRIPTION.—$2.00 per annum. No subscription will be received for a shorter period than six months and no paper to be discontinued until all arrearages are paid except at the option of the publishers.

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For the Beacon.

"Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast."

Perhaps it has, but I am supposed to be somewhat of a lamb-like nature, yet I must acknowledge the faintest echo-musical arouses all the dormant savageness of my disposition. It acts upon me as does the thrilling war-whoop upon our red untutored brothers of the forests. Yes, it converts me into a savage.

I am in a dilemma, a quandary, worse still, on the supreme edge of despair. It is my misfortune to live in a tenement house. There is a something next door which perhaps in antediluvian times did duty as a piano, and nightly a young lady exercises her fingers on it and at the same time plays upon my nerves in no gentle manner. She thinks she can sing. Now I indulge occasionally in that amusement, but I have resolved to withdraw from the Choral Club and I shall certainly have to vacate these premises or that girl must stop yelling "Ah-kelle morte" every spare interval. Shade of Verdi! come and tell her how to pronounce the words.

Lately I have been somewhat of a recluse. She must know it, for every evening I am reminded "There's a letter in the candle for thee," and I whisper back, confound you and the letter. Immediately follows "'Tis evening brings my heart to thee," and before I have time to comment audibly, here comes "I love my love," as if I cared whether she did or not. After a few moments cessation of hostilities, comes in pathetic tones, "I cannot love another." Nobody asks you, I mutter. Then in a voice that thrills through is the invitation given "Take back the heart." I say something and make a desperate effort to concentrate my thoughts, when here comes "Did you think of me to-day," followed by "Take me to your heart again," and then in most entreating accents "Speak to me." I'll be drawn and quartered if I can stand this, I ejaculate, and just as my nerves are at their highest tension and my head throbbing here comes "Then you'll remember me." I rather think I shall, I say to myself. Like oil on the troubled waters, welcome as the dinner bell when I am hungry, floats on the tremulous air "Good night—farewell."

I breathe a long satisfied amen as the last note dies away, for I know that is the signal that my martyrdom is over at least for the rest of the evening. I think it might have added a new interest to the "Inferno," had Dante introduced a place where such exhilerating sounds would reverate from morn till night.

Sometimes I think I am doing penance for my past mischievous pranks. I remember with what pleasure I used to carry around my base drum and rat tat tat away just under poor Miss Wilkins window, and how I enjoyed her frantic efforts to sprinkle my devoted head. What fun I had tying tins to the caudle appendages of any luckless stray dog and introducing him into the library just in the midst of grandpa's nap.

I realize now the emotions of those two persecuted beings, and I think I am doing condign penance.

All little boys take warning. Don't blow horns, don't beat drums, don't ornament dogs, don't, don't do *anything* that might bring retribution on your manhood or old age.

If I had an enemy and wanted to punish him I would try and consign him to quarters like my own, where his soul would be entranced with sounds sweeter than the songs of Circe or the strains of Orpheus.

I present to all martyrs like myself the condolence of

WALTER.

HOW TO DO UP SHIRTS.—The following recipe for doing up shirts will be found of use to many housewives: Take two ounces of fine gum arabic powder, put it into a pitcher and pour on it a pint or so of water; and then having covered it up, let it stand all night. In the morning pour it carefully from the dregs into a clean bottle, and cork it and keep it for use. A tablespoonful of gum water stirred into a pint of starch made in the usual manner will give to the lawn either white or printed, a look of newness, nothing else can restore to them, after they have been washed.

☞ A Nebraska saloon-keeper became so affected by the temperance agitation that he promised to reform; so he put out a sign, "Owing to the cause of reform, all fifteen cent drinks will hereafter be sold for ten cents."

An Aboriginal Chant.

What time the glittering rays of morn
O'er hill and valley steal,
Chief Joseph's squaw, with dog and corn,
Prepares the Indian meal.

And if, with wild, rebellious shout,
The pappoose shall appear,
The chieftain lands the bad child out,
Clutched by the injin ear.

The breakfast o'er, the daughter strolls
Down glen and shady dell;
While gay young leaves, from wooded knolls
"Lookout for the Injin belle!"

Each stricken brave she turns and leaves
Her coyness to bewail;
Her dragging blanket stirs the leaves—
The well-known Indian trail.

A Black Hills miner, scalped and dead,
Upon the ground is found;
Grim speaks the chief: "There's been, I'm afraid,
An Indian summer's 'round."

What time he rideth forth to shoot,
His favorite horse the dapple is;
And, when he wants a little fruit,
Goes where the Indianapolis.

When finished are his warlike tasks,
With brazen incongruity
For overcoats and food he asks,
With charming indiscretity.

At night, before his bed he'll seek,
With countenance forlorn,
He takes his scalping-knife, and eke
He trims the Indian corn.

The American Dollar.

The following is the history of the "dollar" in this country from its establishment by the Colonial Government to the present time.

The Congress of the Confederation by act passed August 8th, 1776, and Ordinance passed October 13th, 1786, authorized and established as "the unit of account," a silver dollar to contain 375 64 grains of pure silver, but none of these coins were ever made.

The Constitution of the United States was adopted September 17th, 1787. On the subject of money it provides as follows: "Congress shall have power to coin money and regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin," also that "no State shall coin money, emit bills of credit, or make anything but gold and silver coins a tender in payment of debts," thereby plainly reserving this latter right to Congress.

Now commences the history of the Dollar under the present Government. The act of April 2, 1792, provides for "dollars, or units," which shall contain 371 25 grains of pure, or 416 grains of standard silver. It also declares that every fifteen pounds of pure silver, shall be of equal value in all payments with one pound of pure gold, that the money of account in the United States shall be expressed in "dollars, or units and decimals" thereof. It creates gold coins, which are enumerated as follows: Eagles, half eagles, and quarter eagles, the value of which it expresses in "dollars or units." It does not provide for a gold dollar.

The act of February 9th, 1793, declares that all foreign coins except Spanish milled dollars shall cease to be a legal tender.

The act of April 10, 1806, establishes rates at which certain foreign gold and silver coins, shall pass current as money and be a legal tender for the payment of debts.

The act of June 25, 1834, makes the silver dollars of Mexico, Peru, Chili, and Central America, a legal tender, when weighing 415 grains each.

The act of January 18, 1837, provides that "The standard for both gold and silver coins of the United States shall hereafter be such that of one thousand parts by weight nine hundred shall be of pure metal, and one hundred of alloy, and alloy of silver coins shall be of copper and silver, provided that the silver do not exceed one-half the alloy." It then fixes the weight of the silver dollar at 412 1-2 grains 900 fine, and the subsidiary silver coins, from dollars to half dimes shall be legal tenders of payment according to their nominal value for any sum whatever, after which it makes the same provision respecting the gold eagle, half eagle, quarter eagle, that they shall be a legal tender for all sums.

The act of March 3, 1849, provided for the first coinage of two new gold coins, the double eagles and the gold dollar, both to be a legal tender for all sums, and to be of the respective value of "twenty dollars or units," and "one dollar or units." This is the first gold dollar.

The act of March 3, 1851, created a new silver coin to be of the legal value of three cents, and to be a legal tender for all sums of thirty cents and under.

The act of February 21, 1853, reduces the weight of the subsidiary silver coins from the half dollars down, and limits their legal tender function to sums not exceeding five dollars. It also creates a new gold coin, to be of the value of "three dollars, or units."

The act of February 21, 1857, repeals all former acts which made foreign gold and silver coin legal tender.

The act of April 22, 1864, makes the one cent coin a legal tender to the amount of ten cents, and the two cent coin for twenty cents.

The act of March 3, 1865, provides for a three cent piece of copper and nickle, which shall be a legal tender to the amount of sixty cents, and limits the legal-tender function of the one and two cent pieces not exceeding four cents.

The act of May 16, 1868, creates a five cent coin of nickle and copper, and makes it a legal tender to the amount of one dollar.

The act of March 3, 1871, provides "that the Secretary of the Treasury is required to redeem in lawful money all copper, bronze, copper-nickle, and base metal coinage, of every kind hitherto authorized by law, when presented in sums of not less than twenty dollars."

The act of February 12, 1873, (commonly known as the demonetizing act) provides that "the gold dollar of the United States of twenty-five and eight-tenths grains shall be the unit of value." It creates the trade dollars of 420 grains weight 900 fine, and changes the weight of the half dollar, quarter dollar and dime, by the use of the French word, "gram," making the half dollar 12 1-2 grams, which is said to be about 164 grains (Troy), although according to Webster, a gram is one-twenty-fourth of an ounce, is silent about the 412 1-8 grain dollar, and the half dime; and reduces the legal tender function of silver coins of the United States to sums not exceeding five dollars.

The act of March 2, 1873, declares the legal value of the English pound sterling, shall be deemed equal to four dollars, eighty-six cents and six and one-half mills, and all contracts made after the 1st day of January, 1874, based on an assumed par of exchange with Great Britain of fifty-four pence dollar, or four dollars, forty-four cents and four-ninths cent to the sovereign pound or pound sterling, shall be null and void.

The act of March 3, 1875, creates a silver coin of twenty cents, containing five "grams" and makes it a legal tender to the amount of five dollars.

The act of July 13, 1876, especially demonetizes the trade dollar of 420 grains, 900 fine, in the following words: "That the trade dollar shall not hereafter be a legal tender, and the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized to limit from time to time the coinage thereof to such an amount as he may deem sufficient to meet the export demand for the same."

This brings the question of what is and what was a dollar down to the present time.

THE SILENT CAPTAIN.—"Stonewall" Jackson's troops and his enemies believed he never slept; the fact is, he slept a great deal. When he had nothing else to do he went to sleep, especially in church. I remember during the invasion of Maryland on Sunday [illegible] three miles in an ambulance to attend church in Frederick, and then fell asleep as soon as the minister began to preach; his head fell upon his breast and he never awoke until aroused by the organ and choir. He could sleep anywhere and in any position, sitting in his chair, under fire, or on horseback. On a night march toward Richmond, after the battles with McClellan, he was riding along with his drowsy staff, nodding and sleeping as he went. We passed by groups of men sitting along the roadside and engaged in roasting new corn by fires made of fence rails. One group took us for cavalrymen, with an inebriated captain, and one of the party, delighted at the sight of a man who had found whiskey enough to be drunk, sprang up from the fire, and, brandishing a roasting ear in his hand, leaped down into the road, and, seizing the General's horse, cried, "I say, old fellow, where the devil did you get your liquor?" In an instant, as the General awoke, the fellow saw his mistake; and then, bounding from the road, he took the fence at a single leap, exclaiming, "Good God, it's old Jack!" and disappeared in the darkness. Yes, General Jackson slept a great deal, but he was never caught napping.

He gave to sleep many moments which other men would have given to conversation. He was essentially a silent man; not morose, but quiet. He smiled often, rarely laughed. He never told a joke, but did not discourage them in others, and if one struck his peculiar fancy he would smile in mild approval. He did not live apart from his staff, but liked to have them about him, and they were nearly all young men. Universally polite in manner, he encouraged the liveliest conversation among them, although he took little part in it. He was not a man of words: they seemed to embarrass him. When he had ideas he put them into action, not into language. His military dispatches were as brief as if studied, like the one he sent after the defeat of Milroy: "God blessed our arms with victory at McDowell yesterday." He never discussed his plans; indeed, he never told them. The next officer under him never knew his intention nor object. He never volunteered his opinion to his superior nor asked advice of his subordinates. He was as self-reliant as he was silent, and believed "he walked with speed who walks alone." He was reticent to a fault. "If my coat knew what I intended to do I'd take it off and throw it away," was one of his sayings. This reticence often led to embarrassment and complaint from the officer next in command, and might have led to disaster in case of his death; but he evidently thought it better to run that risk than the risk of having his plans discovered.—*Philadelphia Times.*

☞ Beecher's idea that there is no hell is bad for newspaper publishers, as so many subscribers may now utterly refuse to pay up, if they have the most remote suspicion that Beecher knows what he is talking about.

Evolution.

Professor J. S. Newberry, of Columbia College, lately delivered a lecture before the New York Academy of Science on the subject of "Evolution." The lecturer took the opportunity of presenting to his audience a cardinal resume of the various shades of opinion of those who are arrayed in antagonism on this much discussed question. These were arranged under four groups.

The first, that represented by Mr. Darwin, who claims that all the complex and symmetrical forms of the fauna and flora, the animal and plant life of the present day, are derived from simple initial organic points, with the doctrine of the survival of the fittest.

Secondly, those who follow the leadership of Dr. Charles Bastian, who go a step further back, and claim that the initial point of life developed according to the Darwinian hypothesis is a life germ produced from inorganic substances. Of this class are the materialists or Abiogenesists; while Huxley, Darwin, and the most distinguished of modern biologists are Biogenesists; that is, they disclaim any knowledge or comprehension of life, except as the progeny of pre-existent life.

Thirdly, the group of thinkers of which Professor Asa Gray is a type, who accept the theory of evolution as an explanation of the method by which an inscrutable power has produced all the phenomena of creation. Its adherents see in the theory nothing inconsistent with the existence of a supreme Deity or with revelation.

And lastly, the class of which Professor Dawson, of Montreal, is the champion, who reject all forms of evolution as inconsistent with revelation and true science.

Professor Newberry next expressed his intention of stating some of the facts which geology offers to the sincere inquirer after light on this subject, rather than to advocate either one theory or another. In commencing this branch of the subject he observed that in past ages a series of rock formations have been made which inclose relics of animals and plants that lived in former times.

These series of rocks contain a more or less history of the changes which took place on the earth's surface through millions of years anterior to the advent of man.

The fossils of the Paleozoic and Mesozoic ages are about all extinct. It is only when we come to the Tertiary or Neozoic age that we meet with the remains of living forms.

What we call our terra firma is really a type of instability, for under the constantly acting process of contraction, the crust of the earth is constantly being moved and folded, and that somewhat irregularly, so that in all ages some portions of the land have been going up, other portions down, and wherever the surface passed below the sea level the water would flow in and deposit upon it one or another of the kinds of sediment which we find in the series of rocks. Sediments are still forming from the shells and skeletons of animals which inhabit the sea and which in death sink to the bottom.

In each age there has been a subsidence of the land, which has permitted the sea to flow over and deposit over the submerged surface sediments which contain in greater or less numbers the remains of the animals and plants then living. This rock history is incomplete, because not all the forms of life which existed would be preserved, partly because many were perishable, and chiefly those that inhabit the seas or drifted into them would not leave any relics behind them. This history, though more complete than would be at first supposed possible, is confessedly defective, and has been but partially read. Great areas of the earth's surface have yet been unstudied by geologists.

While the subject is to be greatly illuminated by future discovery, there is very little probability that the general conclusions of paleontolgy will experience any important modification.

In tracing the appearance of the various forms of life upon the earth, Professor Newberry commenced with the mammals, which began their existence, so far as we know, in the Trias, but throughout the Mesozoic ages held an altogether subordinate and insignificant position.

The reptiles occupied the sea, the land, and the air, for they were swimmers, walkers, and fliers, the sea reptiles resembling the whales as we know them, and the sea serpents as we imagine them to exist at present.

The Professor next referred to the first bird so far as is known, the *Archeopteryx*, and described its form and those of the flying dragons or pterodactyls of the Jurassic and cretaceous periods.

In the Tertiary, the vegetation was apparently more luxuriant and beautiful than that of the present day, for the grandest and most interesting of our living forest trees, the great Sequoias of California, the redwood and the mammoth trees, our tulip trees, magnolias, sycamores, and cypresses, are the lingering remnants of the magnificent forests which covered our continent even to the Arctic sea.

The Tertiary has been well named the age of mammals. Brute force then ruled the world; for man, its present master, had not yet appeared on the stage.

During the ice period the climate of Greenland was brought as far south as New York, and broken sheets of ice held all nature in the embrace of death for thousands of years. Whole races of animals and plants perished, but those forms that were driven far south survived, and ultimately moved northward with the amelioration of the climate, and were attended by a new element in the history of the world—primitive man.

Taking the geological record so far as it goes, Professor Newberry pronounced it authentic and credible, containing no personal equations, but automatic and necessarily true. The progress of life upon the globe bore evidence, in his opinion, that it was the expression of a law; in other words, that it is the operation of forces as distinctively deterministic as those which produce and guide the motions of the heavenly bodies. The parallelism of the progress of life through the geological ages with that of the growth of an individual from a germ is so close that most students of paleontology are inspired with the conviction that the life forms of the different ages are links in a connected chain; in other words, that the later forms are derivations from those which preceded them.

This is evolution, and therefore most geologists are evolutionists, and they believe that evolution is not only exemplified in the progress of life, but that it is a law of nature.

"We now come," said Professor Newberry, "to the question of questions—What is the cause that has produced the progress of life? One group of geologists, with Mr. Darwin, believes that external influences have alone produced the diversity of animals and plants. Another group believe that the influence emanated from within the organism, and has been an essential feature in its life and growth. External circumstances have a most potent influence, as Mr. Darwin has shown; but we may well question the adequacy of the agencies he invokes to produce all the effects he claims for them. There are many facts which it is impossible with our present lights to reconcile with his theory."

Professor Newberry next indicated some of the difficulties which up to the present time have prevented him from accepting, in all its lengths and breadths, Darwinism as the theory of the Universe, and have compelled him to hold the law of evolution, not as a creed, but of conviction.

There are the breaks in the chain of life, which, till they are filled, forbid the cautious scientist to accept as demonstrated the derivation of the later forms in all cases from the earlier.

Professor Huxley explains the persistent types of life by saying that if the spontaneous variations of a species do not give it an advantageous form or structure, that variety has not been perpetuated, or no profitable variation has been hit upon. Upon this Professor Newberry remarked:

"To my mind this explanation is inadequate, because I cannot conceive that a highly organized animal with a complicated structure like the nautilus should pass through the revolutions of the globe without being more affected than it has been by external circumstances, unless the life that inspired it was more potent than all surroundings and gave it independence of circumstances. That external circumstances alone could produce such a symmetrical and continuous development of organic forms, is something that with our present knowledge seems to me highly improbable. Geology up to the present time has not a word to say as to the origin of man. The theory that we are descended from apes is a speculation indulged in, based on anatomical resemblances in the living animals. No apelike man has been found fossil, nor any man-like ape. Remains of monkeys and of savage types of men have been found; but even the Neanderthal skull was of average capacity, and, as Huxley says, might have contained the brain of a philosopher. No geologist professes to have proved anything like a connecting link between man and apes, and until such shall be discovered geology must be silent on the subject."

Laying the Cable of 1866.

It may seem a simple matter to distribute or "pay out" the cable, but in practice it is exceedingly difficult.—Twenty are stationed in the tank from which it is issuing, each dressed in a canvass suit, without pockets, and in boots without nails. Their duty is to ease each coil as it passes out of the tank, and to give notice of the marks painted on the cable one mile apart.—Near the entrance of the tank it runs over a grooved wheel and along an iron trough until it reaches that part of the deck where the "paying out" machine is placed. The latter consists of six grooved wheels, each provided with a smaller wheel, called a "jockey," placed against the upper side of the groove so as to press against the cable as it goes through, and retard or help its progress. These six wheels and their jockeys are themselves controlled by brakes, and after it has been embraced by them the cable winds around a "drum" four times. The drum is another wheel, four feet in diameter and nine inches deep, which is also controlled by powerful brakes; and from it the cable passes over another grooved wheel before it gets to the "dynamometer" wheel. The dynamometer is an instrument which shows the exact degree of the strain on the cable, and the wheel attached to it rises and falls as the strain is greater or less. Thence the cable is sent over another deeply grooved wheel into the sea.—On deck is a small house, which is filled with delicate scientific instruments.—As the cable is paid out it is tested here. If a wire or a nail or a smaller thing is driven through it and the insulation is spoiled, an instrument called the galvanometer instantly records the fact, and a warning is given at all parts of the ship. The man in charge touches a small handle, and an electric bell rings violently in the tank and at the paying out machinery. At the same time a loud gong is struck, at the sound of which the engines are stopped. Delay might cause much trouble or total failure, as the injured section must be arrested and repaired before it enters the water.

The "Great Eastern" went ahead at the rate of five nautical miles an hour, and the cable smoothly overboard. Messages were sent to England and answers received. The weather was bright, and all hands were cheerful. On the third day after the "splicing" of the shore-end with the main cable, that part of the ocean was reached where the water suddenly increases in depth from two hundred and ten fathoms to two thousand and fifty. One of the earlier cables broke at this place and was lost forever. The electricians and engineers watched for it with anxious eyes. It was reached and passed. The black cord still traveled through the wheels unbroken, and the test applied by the galvanometer proved the insulation to be perfect.—The days wore away without mishap until the evening of July 17, when the sound of the gong filled all hearts with a sickening fear.

The rain was falling in torrents and pattering on the heavy oil-skin clothing of the watchers. The wind blew in chilly gusts, and the sea broke in white crests of foam. A dense and pitchy cloud issued from the smoke-stacks.—The vessel advanced in utter darkness. A few lights were moving about, and shadows fell hither and thither as one of the hands carried a lantern along the sloppy deck. The testing room was occupied by an electrician, who was quietly working with his magical instruments, and the cable could be heard winding over the wheels astern, as the tinkling of a little bell on the "drum" recorded its progress.

The electrician rose from his seat suddenly, and struck the alarm. The next instant each person on board knew that an accident had happened. The engines were stopped reversed within two minutes. Blue lights were burned on the paddle-boxes and showed a knot in [illegible]

It is a very [illegible] that an old sailor can not untie, and the old sailors on the "Great Eastern" twisted and untwisted coil after coil until they succeeded in untying this one. The insulation remained perfect, and in a few hours all was right again. The accident caused much ill foreboding, however, as it showed how slight an occurrence might bring the expedition to a disastrous end.

On July 28, after a voyage of fifteen days, the "Great Eastern" finished her work, and her part of the cable was attached to the American shore-end, which had been laid by another vessel.—*St. Nicholas.*

All For Love.

When Alexander the First—uncle of the present emperor of Russia—died suddenly, leaving no son to reign, his brother Constantine, next in birth, was assumed to be his successor. Nicholas acknowledged him, and the army at St. Petersburg which he commanded, took an oath of allegiance. The story of Constantine's future is told briefly by Dr. Hepworth Dixon, in his "Free Russia."

"But, while the messengers were tearing through winter snows, some members of the Senate came to Nicholas with startling news. Alexander, they said, had left with them a sealed paper, contents unknown, which they were not to open until they heard he was dead. On opening this packet they found in it two papers; one a letter from the Grand Duke Constantine, written in 1823, renouncing his rights in the crown; second, a manifesto by the dead Emperor, accepting that renunciation, and adopting his brother Nicholas as his lawful heir. Nicholas scanned these documents; saw good reason to put them by; and urged the whole body of the Senate to swear allegiance to Constantine the First. In every office of the State, the imperial functionaries took this oath. All Russia, in fact all Europe, saw that Constantine had opened his reign in peace.

Ten days rolled by. Christmas eve, the Grand Duke Nicholas made up his mind to take the crown. He spent the night in drawing up a manifesto, setting forth the facts which led him to occupy his brother's seat; and on Christmas day he read this paper to the Senate, by which body he was at once proclaimed Autocrat and Czar. A hundred generals rode to the various barracks, to read the new proclamation, and to get those troops who had sworn, but a week before, to uphold his Majesty Constantine the First, to cast that oath to the winds, and swear a second oath, to uphold His Majesty Nicholas the First.—But, if most of the regiments were quick to unswear themselves, by word of command, a part of the guards, and chiefly the marines and grenadiers, refused; and marching from their quarters into St. Isaacs Square, took up a menacing position, while a cry rose wildly from the crowd—"Long live Constantine the first!"

A shot was heard.

Count Miloradritch, Governor-General of St. Petersburgh, fell dead; a brave general, who had passed through fifty battles, killed as he was trying to harangue his troops. A line of fire then opened on the Square. Colonel Sturler fell at the head of his regiment of guards. When night came down, the ground was covered with dead and dying men; but Nicholas was master.—Grape shot swept the streets clear.

The Grand Duke Constantine accepted the situation, went to Warsaw viceroy and led an almost private Life, with his Polish wife, for whose sake he had first renounced royalty. Then came a Polish rebellion; and a deputation of Poles waited on Constantine, asking for "a Living Poland." The Grand Duke listened, and consented that several Polish regiments under his orders should join the insurgent bands. "The Emperor" says Hepworth Dixon, "when he heard the news, went almost mad with rage," and he relates the sequel in a paragraph, as follows:

"Constantine died suddenly at Minsk; the disease was cholera, the corpse was carried to St. Petersburgh; and the prince who had lost a crown for love, was laid with honor among the ashes of his race, in the gloomy fortress of St. Peter and St. Paul."

THE ORIGIN OF THE TIDES.—All bodies attract each other; the power of the force exerted depending upon the weight of the bodies and their distance from each other. The weight of any body is in fact the force with which the earth attracts that body to itself. The celestial bodies are all chained together by this force of attraction. The sun and the moon both exert an attractive influence on the earth, including our planet to approach to them; this attraction being counterbalanced by the centrifugal force, we describe a curve, which is the resultant of those two forces. But the surface of the earth consists of fluid and solid; the former, owing to its mobility, exhibits a greater tendency to obey the attractive influence, and therefore rises to meet the sun or the moon. The sun, on account of his enormous bulk, exercises a much greater attractive force on the earth than the moon, but the solar tide is much less than the lunar tide, for this reason—that the moon being near the earth, attracts the surface of the sea far more than its solid bed, and, therefore, the water rises in a heap underneath the satellite. The sun, on the other hand, being so distant, exerts nearly as much force on the surface as on the ocean bed beneath, and, therefore, lifts up the water but very little. The identically same effect is produced upon that part of the earth most distant from the sun or moon, only in this case the ocean bed is drawn towards those bodies more rapidly than the water, which is, in fact, left behind. When the sun and moon are either in conjunction or opposition—that is, when the line joining them passes in the neighborhood of, or directly through, the earth—then, their attractive forces being united, the tidal wave will be at a maximum, forming "spring tides." If they be in quadrature"—that is, if the lines drawn from their centres to the earth's centre from a right angle—then the tides will be at a minimum, or "neap tide," will result. It will be evident, then, that if the earth were a world of water, each tidal wave would pass completely round the earth in twenty-four hours.

The existence of continents materially modifies its transit and it is driven from its course, and consequently retarded. The great tidal wave takes its rise in the deep Antarctic ocean.—As it traverses the ocean the water is not raised above a few feet; but when it enters a shallow sea, or an estuary, where the tide finds itself in a sort of funnel then the rise is sometimes as much as seventy feet, as is the case in the Bay of Fundy. The wave is not a wave of transmission; but one of motion, and if the particles of water were destitute of all cohesion or friction among themselves they would only rise into the same place after the attraction has passed. A wave of this nature is illustrated by throwing a stone into a pond; the wavelets, expand from the point of disturbance, but do not carry to the shore anything that floats on the surface of the water; such bodies only rising as it were to allow the wave to pass beneath them; this proves that the water had only an upward and downward movement as it formed the wave.

☞ Among the many surmises as to what will become of the last man, it is queer that nobody has yet discovered that he is destined to be talked to death by the last woman. Now the question arises what becomes of the last woman? Answer; died because she had nobody to talk to.

An exchange says: "Lord Macaulay made it a rule to pay all bills within twenty-four hours." Of course that means twenty-four hours after he got the money to pay them with. The rule is an excellent one, and should be imitated.

"Woman," says a western female on the lecture platform, "wants bread, not the ballot." However, if she were really compelled to choose between the two, she would probably take a new bonnet.—*Worcester Press.*