EMANCIPATING THE SLAVES.

JUDGE HAMILTON WARD RELATES A CONVERSATION WITH EDWIN M. STANTON.

How Mr. Lincoln Prepared His Memorable Proclamation of Freedom.

From the Lockport Journal.

It is well known that Judge Hamilton Ward was a member of the first three Congresses that followed the overthrow of the rebellion. He was an intense radical Republican, and was active in all the movements which led to the impeachment of President Johnson, and his trial, and the amendments to the Constitution which followed the war.

"Come, Judge," we said, "give us some reminiscences of the reconstruction period."

"Perhaps," he said, after a moment's reflection, "the history of a night of mine with Secretary Stanton might interest you as much as anything I could tell you," and he proceeded:

"I was one of the committee to prepare the articles of impeachment against President Johnson, and I had several conferences with the Secretary, and with others, as the affair proceeded. Republican Senators and members advised the Secretary by all means to retain possession of the War Office; that his attempted removal was illegal, and that possibly the safety of the country was involved in his retaining his position until the determination of the impeachment proceedings. So, soon after he took upon himself this voluntary imprisonment in the War Office, I was permitted to remain with him as a sole companion for several nights, the most important of which I will refer to.

"The Secretary was a stout, well-built man, with a most impressive and interesting countenance, a massive head and brow, and the most speaking and searching eye that I ever saw in a human being. On the night in question, after reposing for a while upon a lounge that he had in the office—for he slept with his clothes on at night upon this lounge he roused up, seemingly refreshed, and began a pleasant conversation with me about some matter, when I inquired of him: 'Mr. Secretary, will you allow me to ask your opinion of President Lincoln? Was he really a great man? Was he a man of the highest order of talent? Or was he not so great, but true and loyal and fitting in a large measure all the requirements of his great place and his delicate position? Please tell me something about him—I mean some of the things that do not get into the books or the papers, that came to your knowledge in your intercourse with him during the trying hours of the rebellion.' He said: 'Abraham Lincoln was a great man; great in the largest sense. He seemed equal to every exigency of the extraordinary struggle through which we passed. He seemed in touch with every soldier in the field, and to know the movement of every regiment, and his broad comprehension of military affairs astounded me.'

"The Secretary then took me to the window that looked out toward the White House. (This was the old War Office.) He said: 'Night after night, during the dark days of 1862, and before the emancipation proclamation was issued, the President would come over to the War Office in his slippers and in an old-fashioned gown he had, and remain with me sometimes very late at night talking over the situation. I remonstrated with him for this, saying that it was dangerous for him to come and go alone at night, that he should not do it, and I would have to put guards around him. He said, with a weary smile: "Oh! no, Stanton, nobody would kill me. I haven't an enemy in the world." (Alas,' said the Secretary, 'an assassin was found for this peerless man, even in the glory of his triumph.) The only weakness that I had ever noticed in the President, if weakness you may call it, was at times when he was exceedingly depressed in spirits. He had, with all his ability, that joyous, jolly nature which sometimes led him to excess of mirth; and perhaps to such natures reactions of sadness and grief always come; but be that as it may, there were times in the dark hours when the President would put his arms about me, throw his head upon my shoulder, and weep. "Oh," he said, "Stanton, can't we stop this slaughter of noble men; can't we stop this desolation of the households of our land and yet save our country?" You can now understand,' said the Secretary, looking at me, 'why Mr. Lincoln would never let us hang a deserter or punish with the extreme penalty anybody violating the rules of war; his heart was so tender.'

THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION.

"'But,' I said, 'Mr. Stanton, you spoke of the dark days before the emancipation proclamation. Why was that so long delayed? The rebellion had been in progress about a year and a half, and it always seemed to me that that proclamation should have been made at the commencement of the struggle, so as to have weakened the enemy by taking away their and in their domestic affairs at the threshold.'

"'Well,' he said, 'I thought so, too. I entered the War Office, as you know, in the winter of 1862, and from that time on to September the war dragged, the results were discouraging. Foreign intervention was threatened; and in the spring of that year I had urged upon the President about proclaiming freedom to the slaves as a war measure. I had a number of interviews with him: I pointed out to him that foreign intervention was imminent; that Louis Napoleon, then Emperor of France, and the Government of Great Britain had formed an unmistakable alliance to assist in every way, short of an open rupture with us, the rebels in their scheme to overthrow this Government. In fact, the crowned heads of Europe, dreading the example of a successful republic here, were secretly hoping and privately plotting in the same direction. Organs of the Government of Napoleon III. in France were openly saying that the war in America was not for the Union, but that the North was fighting for power and the South for independence; that the freedom of the slaves was not involved in the controversy, and therefore intervention on behalf of the South was not an intervention in behalf of slavery, as the National Government protected slavery as well as the Southern States. I pointed out to him the folly of permitting the three millions of slaves to be indifferent to the fate of the Union, because the Union offered them not freedom, but slavery, and that the conclusion to which they would naturally come would be that their safety and best interests consisted in remaining with their masters and loyal to them; that if the slaves were free we could make them available as soldiers and very useful in the hot regions of the South, where we needed friends the most. I urged such other considerations upon him as I thought proper, but he was immovable.

"'He finally said to me that the country was not ready for so radical a step; that a large portion of the Democratic party at the North were insisting that the war was not being waged for the preservation of the Union, but for the abolition of slavery; that in many portions of the North there was a strong slavery feeling, especially on the border; that in border States themselves there were many loyal men who were fighting in our armies, and a strong sentiment for the Union in many places of which would be utterly obliterated if the proclamation was issued. And he put his hand upon my shoulder and said: "Don't bother me any more about it, Stanton; for the present. We must wait until the time is ripe," and the weary spring months passed and the summer months passed.

"'We had some successes, but on the whole the war was more disastrous than successful to us. Public sentiment had forced an early advance upon Richmond; the seven days' fight before Richmond had occurred in the latter part of June and the fore part of July, and the Union army had retreated; Shiloh had been fought and Malvern Hill and Fair Oaks; Lee had won his victory at Manassas on Aug. 30 at the very doors of the Capitol. September came; the fight had been transferred from the gates of Richmond to the borders of the Northern States. In August a draft had been ordered for 300,000 men; South Mountain was fought on the 14th of September, and on the 17th of September Antietam was fought with doubtful results, and the Army of the Potomac, instead of capturing Richmond, had receded to the field of Antietam and fought an uncertain battle on the very borders of the free States.

"'I was more discouraged after Antietam than at any other period, and the future seemed more obscure to me then than at any previous time. But I kept on my daily work, and on the 22d of September, 1862, I had a sudden and peremptory call to a Cabinet meeting at the White House. They did not usually require me to attend these meetings, as my duties were so exacting. I had to be constantly at my post, and it was only on rare and important occasions that I was called to such meetings. I went immediately to the White House, entered the room, and found the historic war Cabinet of Abraham Lincoln assembled, every member being present. The President hardly noticed me as I came in. He was reading a book of some kind, which seemed to amuse him. It was a little book. He finally turned to us and said: "Gentlemen, did you ever read anything from Artemus Ward? Let me read you a chapter that is very funny." Not a member of the Cabinet smiled; as for myself I was angry, and looked to see what the President meant. It seemed to me like buffoonery. He, however, concluded to read us a chapter from Artemus Ward, which he did with great deliberation, and, having finished, laughed heartily, without a member of the Cabinet joining in the laughter. "Well," he said, "let's have another chapter," and he read another chapter to our great astonishment. I was considering whether I should rise and leave the meeting abruptly when he threw his book down, heaved a long sigh, and said: "Gentlemen, why don't you laugh? With the fearful strain that is upon me night and day, if I did not laugh I should die, and you need this medicine as much as I do."

"'He then put his hand in his tall hat that sat upon the table, and pulled out a little paper. Turning to the members of the Cabinet, he said: "Gentlemen, I have called you here upon very important business. I have prepared a little paper of much significance. I have made up my mind that this paper is to issue; that the time has come when it should issue; that the world needs it, and we are ready for it to issue. It is due to my Cabinet that you should be the first to hear and know of it, and if any of you have any suggestions to make as to the form of this paper or its composition, I shall be glad to hear them; but the paper is to issue." And to my astonishment,' said the Secretary, 'he read the emancipation proclamation of that date, which was to take effect the first of January following, containing the vital provision that on Jan. 1, 1863, 'All persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall be then in rebellion against the United States, shall ever be then, henceforward and forever free.' And the Secretary, turning to me, smiled and said: "I have always tried to be calm, but I think I lost my calmness for a moment, and with great enthusiasm I arose, approached the President, extended my hand, and said, 'Mr. President, if reading of chapters of Artemus Ward is a prelude to such a deed as this, the book should be filed among the archives of the nation, and the author should be canonized. Henceforth I see the light, and the country is saved,' and all said, 'Amen.' And Lincoln said to me in a droll way, just as I was leaving, 'Stanton, it would have seen too early last spring.' And as I look back upon it I think the President was right.'"

NOTES ON SCIENCE AND INDUSTRY.

At the late International Congress in St. Petersburg, MM. Parent and Concanargères of the State and Paris, Lyons, and Mediterranean railways respectively, declared in substance that the advantages claimed for the compound system had not yet been demonstrated to the satisfaction of all engineers—the fact being, however, according to their statement, that those in favor of compound locomotives are more numerous than those who are opposed to them, and that the number of such locomotives in use has increased in less than three years from about 980 to 1,858. The two-cylinder compound locomotives, it appears, increased in number from 522 to 1,371; the three-cylinder from 68 to 108, and the four-cylinder engines from 59 to 379. These appreciable developments are attributed largely to the higher steam pressures used. The two-cylinder compound locomotive, it seems, has met with most favor; though, on the whole, the greatest improvements have been made with the four-cylinder. It is stated, too, that the results of some long-continued tests have practically shown that, in countries where coal is inexpensive, the changing of ordinary into compound locomotives, or the building, at the outset, of compound engines, is not likely to lead to any advantage.

According to a French journal, the remarkable instrument invented a few years since, and known as the kryptophone, has recently been perfected to such a degree that it is now regarded as promising successful practical results in the line marked out by its inventor. In the make up of this peculiar apparatus a very sensitive receiving diaphragm is so disposed that it will respond to and transmit air vibrations produced by any noise to a distant telephone, an alarm bell being provided at the receiving station to attract the attention of the attendant. The sensitiveness of the device is said to be such that, with the receiving diaphragm immersed in a body of water, the pulsations of a steamboat from two to three miles distant are readily discernible, and other tests show its sensitive capacity in giving warning of noises at a distance.

The process of giving a double width to goods is now accomplished by a newly invented machine which largely overcomes the trouble and imperfection heretofore characterizing manipulation exclusively by hand, a considerable saving being also effected in time and labor. In this arrangement the cloth passes from the open pile or roll, between rods, round a guide rail, over a triangular table set on the slant. The guides are set in such a manner that the cloth passes up on to the triangular table and the centre line strikes exactly at the apex of the triangle where the double is made; between the latter point and the entrance to the rolling of the cloth the material is guided and held in uniform position by means of rods and connections which keep everything in proper place; from here the cloth passes immediately into the rolling or winding apparatus, and is lapped on to the board in the usual way. The whole mechanism occupies comparatively little ground space and can be easily run by one man. The machine, of course, works better with goods of light grade and weight than with those of a heavier class.

Steel paving appears to be coming more and more into favor, and important experiments have been and continue to be made with different methods, aiming to secure the most satisfactory results. One of the most practicable systems, as thus far demonstrated, provides for the laying of wooden blocks on a steel base—that is, above a thick stratum of sand there are laid solid steel plates, which reach from curb to street-car track, and are a half inch or more thick; rising from this solid plate to the height of two inches are steel tongues which are securely bolted to an underlying plate, and running from curb to street-car tracks. Grooves are sawed in the bottoms of the blocks, these being fitted snugly on over the tongues, and thus every block is securely fastened in place. As there are oblong blocks, having sharp corners and fitting closely together, being held by the tongues firmly at the bottom, and supporting each other by close fitting—it is believed that the requisites of a durable pavement are thus combined in a remarkable degree. The blocks are of wood, eight inches long by four wide and six deep.

From accounts which have been published in foreign papers, there seems to be a failure with the cast-iron eccentric straps adopted on the East Indian Railway, from the use of which so much was originally anticipated. According to a writer in *Indian Engineering*, it appears that this form of strap was tried some time back and discontinued, and its subsequent reintroduction has not been attended with the results hoped for. The explanation of this, as given, is that the material somehow gives way without any warning, and has thus led to not a few breakdowns, for which the drivers have been blamed. It is scarcely fair, that the writer remarks, that some engines should be fitted with these cast-iron eccentric straps, while others have the better made and more reliable English article; those who have engines fitted with the former complain that the straps are unreliable, but the English casting, even when of iron, is made from the virgin and less brittle metal.

Some curious effects in the double dyeing of silk goods are described in the *Textile Mercury*, and these explain, in a degree, the beautiful appearance characterizing some of those fabrics. Thus, by preparing the warp yarns with mordants of tin, iron, alumina, or chrome, and weaving this prepared yarn with a weft of unprepared material, then dyeing the piece with mordant dye stuffs like alizarine, the warp is dyed, but not the weft, which may be either left colorless or be dyed another color in the ordinary way. By mordanting both warp and weft, but with different mordants, and dyeing with alizarine colors, a double dyeing is obtained. By this means, supposing the yarns have been mordanted with alumina and chrome and dyed in alizarine, then the one set of yarns will be dyed a dark red and the other bright red; or, if fustic is used, then the alumina-mordanted fibres will be died a bright yellow, while the chrome-mordanted fibres are dyed an olive yellow—some fine shot effects being obtained in this way. Or, if one set of yarns be mordanted for blacks and then woven with unmordanted yarn, and the piece be died in a logwood bath, the mordanted yarn is dyed black, while the untreated fibre is not dyed, and can be, if required, dyed to some other color. Another mode of producing the same result is to prepare one set of the yarns with a mixture of soda, aluminate of soda, chalk, and caustic soda, then dye with oxidation aniline black in the ordinary way, the yarn thus treated remains colorless, while the rest is black.

By means of an ingenious arrangement the triple compound rail is now made practically continuous. The rail system in this case consists of three parts, viz., a steel head and two lateral supporting sections which rest on ties and are connected by rods. The steel head is somewhat similar in section to a T rail without a lower flange, except that it has no bevel under the tread of the rail, and the thickness of the web is only about one-half that of a T rail with the same wearing head. In forming the lateral supporting sections an ordinary oak or hard pine timber is divided diagonally by a mill saw, when the left hand section is inverted and reversed, and brought into position to form the right hand support. The three sections composing this rail are each thirty feet long, and so arranged that the joints of no two come together, but a joint of one part occurs every ten feet. This arrangement gives two whole running sections against every single break. Light fishplates, one-eighth of an inch thick and sixteen inches long, are placed at the joints of the steel sections, and ties are placed under this point to support the joint.

It appears that so many of the earlier suspension bridges have failed, through the corrosion or disintegration of their important members, as to lead French engineers to the opinion that forty years is the limit of life for iron suspension bridges, and, consequently, in making calculations for railways, provision should be made for replacing such bridges entirely at the end of that time. Whether any similar limit should be set to the life of iron girder bridges is regarded as not so certain. Many such bridges have failed through decay, but whether decay in a girder bridge can be easily detected, and the weakened members economically replaced or repaired, is declared to be a problem as yet unsolved. The opinion is also now generally held that the tests ordinarily applied to old bridges suspected of serious corrosion, namely, that of running a train of locomotives over it, is far from being adequate. Bridges thus tested have failed soon afterward under moderate strains.

TAMMANY'S CYCLES OF RULE.

ITS OCCASIONAL DEFEATS ONLY PRESAGE NEW LEASE OF POWER.

History of Municipal Elections in New York City Since 1834—Combinations Against the Tiger Usually Fail to Pieces After Securing the Mayoralty for One Term.

In an interesting paper read before the New York Historical Society a few weeks ago Mr. Thomas E. V. Smith has collected thirty printed pages of information about the political partisan factions in New York city. The first popular election on Manhattan Island was held in Fort Amsterdam in August, 1641, when twelve men were elected by representatives from Manhattan, Brooklyn, and Pavonia to take action in regard to the depredations of the Indians. The municipal Government began in 1653, when Director-General Stuyvesant appointed a Schout, two Burgomasters, and five Schepens. It was at this time, over two hundred years ago, that the word boss began to be used in a political sense. Our word boss is derived from the Dutch word baas, which the original Dutchmen applied in that time to the way in which they were governed.

This paper of Mr. Smith's is especially interesting, although he does not call attention to the fact, as showing that political slang and practical politics date from the first municipal elections, and that the history of New York local politics is a series of cycles, with Tammany and the opposition under various names being in power by turns. Labor parties, reformers, and others appear from time to time. Combinations of the opposition are made, which win one election only to break up within a short time and permit the municipal Government again to come under the control of Tammany Hall.

Since New York began to elect Mayors the alternations of political power have been as follows: Tammany first had three successive terms, then the opposition two; then Tammany five, the opposition one; Tammany two, the opposition one; Tammany one, the opposition two; Tammany three, the opposition four; Tammany four, the opposition one; Tammany two, the opposition one; two candidates endorsed by Tammany, the opposition one; another compromise candidate, and Tammany three. There is almost a regular periodicity about this, the only large anti-Tammany gap being during the war, and to make that gap Fernando Wood's election in 1850 must be counted, as it is above, as an anti-Tammany victory, although Mr. Wood was elected Mayor by Tammany only two years before, and he became a Tammany man again soon afterward. His enemies captured the Tammany General Committee, and Mr. Wood promptly organized the Mozart Hall Democracy, taking into it a great part of the old Tammany organization. If he is to be regarded as always a Tammany man, the periodicity of Tammany victories and defeats is almost regular.

The names Mayor and Alderman as applied to city officials began with the government by the English in 1664, when the Aldermen were appointed by the English Government. Under the Dongan charter, in 1686, the Aldermen were first elected and political divisions began. So long as all the city officials were appointed there was not what could be called local politics in New York. It is significant, in connection with the claims of municipal reformers, that politics and the government of cities have nothing to do with each other, that two distinct political parties first appeared in New York when the people had the right to elect their Aldermen, and that the full vote and closely organized parties were not in existence until 1834, when the Mayor of New York was for the first time elected by popular vote, the power to select him having previously been in the Governor and State Council of Appointment and then in the Common Council. On such important questions as the appointment of delegates to the general Revolutionary Congress, only a small fraction of the total vote was polled, and there was less popular interest than has been shown at any of the local elections since the people of the city acquired the right to elect their own officials.

The first party questions in New York were whether the Dutch or the English should control the Board of Aldermen. The Dutch captured the Board of Aldermen, and elected a temporary Governor, who was afterward hanged by the English. Although the city charter did not permit the Mayor to be elected, the Dutch went ahead and elected the Mayor anyhow. Thus divided lines were drawn on religion, the English having a different religion from that of the Dutch.

Since the Dutch controlled the Board of Aldermen and outvoted the English, they were naturally in favor of increased powers for the Board of Aldermen and less power to the English Governor. Thus the Dutch were the original Home Rule party. They continued their voting majority for some years, and they fined a tavern keeper who called King William "A Dutch King and a Nose of Wax."

It was not for a long time that there was a secret ballot. Originally the voters would vote viva voce. About the time of the Revolution the secret ballot was coming in. By this time the English were in the majority, and they carried the election for Assemblymen before the Revolution, although the votes were pretty close. The anti-English vote was stronger up through the State.

The conflict and difference of political opinion in the voters up through the State and the voters in New York began almost at the time of the adoption of the Constitution. The Federalists controlled the Board of Aldermen and were inclined to sympathize with the English and favored a reaction from the Republican tendencies of the Revolution. The rest of the State was Republican, as the present Democratic party was then called. New York city was anti-Democratic, and tended to favor the English and aristocratic sentiments. It was to oppose this that Tammany Hall was started. At first it had some Federalist members, but they withdrew, and by 1800 Tammany was recognized as the local Democratic political headquarters.

The next year after the distinctive political organization by Tammany the Federalists lost New York for Governor, and in three years Tammany had its allies and got control of the Board of Aldermen, although they lost the Board again in 1808. The Federalists, after they lost the Board of Aldermen, started an organization called Washington Hall in opposition to Tammany Hall. It was this organization and its allies which defeated Tammany in the elections and captured the Board of Aldermen by an overwhelming majority. There were only four of the twenty Aldermen friendly to Tammany. Washington Hall and the Federalists controlled the Board of Aldermen for a few years, when they went to pieces.

The opposition to foreign-born voters is no new thing, for the Federalists took up that issue in 1807, and nominated what was known as the American ticket for Assemblymen. They had been defeated for several years, and they resorted to this expedient to carry New York, but they were defeated. The Federalists at that time also made an appeal to "electors of color," which has its counterpart in the appeal of the Republicans, the descendants of the Federalists, to the colored voters to-day.

Tammany Hall at that time was as conciliatory and had its doors as wide open as now. There was a split in Washington Hall, and many of the Federalists were promptly admitted to membership in Tammany.

The first workingmen's party appeared in 1830; organized by the master stair builders, and the anti-monopoly platform might be copied by the anti-monopolists to-day.

The Democrats carried the first election for Mayor in 1834. There was a riot, with its centre in the Sixth ward, which continued for forty years to be a centre of political riots. Following on this victory was one of the customary splits in Tammany Hall which after a certain period of victory had always appeared. One faction entered Tammany Hall and threw out the chairman and took possession of the building. The gas was cut off, and the faction in possession held their meeting by candlelight, lighted with the old locofoco matches, from which they came to be known as Locofocos. The regular organization was defeated in the local election, but the opposition to it went to pieces, and the valuable members were taken back into the Tammany fold. The story might be written over again several times, with a change of name each time, to describe the Tammany opposition. Tammany Hall then elected its Mayor and carried the Board of Aldermen. It redeemed its Mayor, and continued its power for several years, when there was another break-up, and the opposition, called the Native American party, elected James Harper and carried the Aldermen. This opposition went to pieces, and Tammany chose the successor to Mayor Harper.

Tammany elected its Mayor for two terms, and then came another split. This split extended all through the State, although the Democrats in the rest of the State were opposed to the dominant Democratic faction in New York. Martin Van Buren, who was the candidate of the State Democratic organization for President, was opposed by the local Democratic faction, and polled only 5,000 votes in the city, although he polled the majority of the Democratic vote through the State. A Whig Mayor was elected, and Tammany lost the board of Aldermen.

The National Reform party was started at this time, which went into the land question and proposed to reform it by limiting the amount of land held by any individual. It also proposed a ten-hour law and the limiting of every salary to $1,000. The Democrats came together again, and Tammany elected its Mayors for three successive terms and carried the Board of Aldermen.

At this time the Temperance party appeared. It not only nominated a candidate for Mayor, but a set of Aldermanic candidates, which custom it has kept up ever since.

Then there was another split in Tammany Hall, and a committee of municipal reform was organized, with Peter Cooper as Chairman. The hard-shells left Tammany Hall and formed the Stuyvesant Hall Democracy. There were four candidates for Mayor at the next election, and Tammany Hall elected Fernando Wood by a small plurality. The opposition after this defeat went to pieces, parts of it going to form the Republican party, which held its first county convention in New York in September, 1855. What there was left of Stuyvesant Hall came back into the Tammany fold. The anti-Tammany vote was split between two candidates, and Fernando Wood was reelected.

At the Mayoralty election the anti-Tammany opposition came together and united on a ticket which defeated Fernando Wood, who ran for the third time as the Tammany candidate. This opposition was so strong that it captured the Tammany General Committee, but Fernando Wood went out of Tammany and organized the Mozart Hall Democracy, taking most of the real old-time Tammany Democrats with him. Wood was Mayor again and was elected, and his friends recaptured the Tammany organization.

The number of reform associations during this period increased to a greater number than ever before. There were the Taxpayers' Union, the People's Union, the St. Nicholas Union, the Citizens' Association, and a number of others. The result of these sectional fights was the election of a Republican Mayor. As usual the opposition did not hold together and Tammany Hall again elected its Mayor and reelected him, then there was another split and the Apollo Hall organization was formed, which ran James O'Brien for Mayor in 1872 and elected a Republican. Apollo Hall allied itself with the Republicans and the combination was defeated by Tammany Hall.

The next Democratic break from Tammany Hall resulted in the Irving Hall organization, founded under the high-sounding name of "People's Liberal Democratic Organization." Like all of its predecessors it went to pieces, and the County Democracy took its place.

Mr. Smith's paper is an historical review, and does not go into causes or coincidences which are so plain in local politics. It shows that New York was not a Democratic city until Tammany became a political organization, and that since that time Tammany has usually been victorious, and when defeated, has speedily become victorious again.

ECHOES OF THE BRITISH FLEET.

The Droll Sayings of the Wittiest Man Among Our English Naval Visitors.

"The most remarkable of all your Yankee inventions," said the wittiest of the English naval officers who came to the naval rendezvous, "are your chimist's shops, to my way of thinking, don't you know? They are really quite extraordinary. When I was knocking about your city of N'yew York I came to find out about them quite be accident—and a very good sort of accident it was, I assuah you. 'Can you tell me whaiah youah Mr. Edward Cooper lives?' I arsked a person in the streets. 'I really don't know,' said the person, 'but why don't you look in the chimist's?' 'Oh, but, really,' said I, 'he's not a chimist.' 'Oh, you don't seem to know,' said the person, so he showed me. We popped into the very first chimist's shop, which was on a corner, and there was a directory quite free of charge, and I found what I wanted, don't you see?

"When I get back to England I am going to tell everybody about these wonderful chimists' shops. They seem to be on every corner, and each has a directory—and no fee for the looking. We've nothing like that in London, any more than we've any overhead tram. Now, there's your overhead tram. I like that very much. To be sure, there's a bit of a sputter and fuss as the trains pass along, and a trifle of climbing to get to it; but it gets you about, and that's what you want, arfter all."

This man of whimsical speech had a high regard for Americans, and particularly for American fighting men and ships. He adapted a pooh-poohing tone whenever he spoke of any other naval matters and things except the English and American. It seemed to be, in his mind, a matter of surprise that any other nations should want ships—as if they had no business with them and only used them as a baby uses a clock, to play with. The instant the talk turned to American naval affairs his manner changed to one of heartiness. "Ah, now, there's a man I'd like to have behind or beside me in a fight," he would say of Admiral Gherardi, or Fighting Bob Evans, or Capt. Watson, or whoever it might be. And if our cruisers were not quite up to the standard of the Blake or the Kaiserin Augusta he overlooked the shortcomings and said: "Your American fellows would fight anything afloat with whatever they had at hand, don't you see?" He summed our status up in these words: "It isn't what you've got, but what you're going to have. You're going to have a good third-class navy, and that's all you need—every bit." Jersing his thumb in the direction of the biggest Frenchman, the Jean Bart, one day, he said: "It's the dirtiest looking ship of the lot; but, really, she isn't much good." By dirtiest looking he meant to say she had the most ferocious appearance.

"I like your President's looks," he said after being presented to Mr. Cleveland. "I hear he's a man who spits out what he thinks and what he means, and that's the sort I like. But, really, your Mrs. President is the one I looked at. I hadn't seen her before when I laid eyes on your Mrs. President. 'Helio!' said I to myself, 'that's the one you must look at as long as you have the chance.' I had only a how d' do with her, yet she managed to say something very nice on the spot. I'm told she's like our Prince of Wales at saying things that are pat at an instant's notice, don't you know? Ah, your Mrs. President is the part of your Government for me."

It seemed to him to be the word "foreigner" applied to him and the rest of the English. Perhaps it would be more true to say that it amused and surprised him and pained all the other Englishmen. "We don't call you Americans 'foreigner,'" he said, "and we haven't that way of thinking of you." His friendliness was as absolutely genuine as that of Admiral Hotham, who, when he was at the North Pacific station aboard the warship off our west coast, and once said to the reporter of THE SUN: "Do you want to know when your country and mine will go to war with one another? It will be when monkeys go to heaven." But the wittiest of the Englishmen who were in this harbor recently also spoke a good word for the Hollanders. "They used to carry brooms at their mastheads," he said, "and they really were top-up devils in their day. Their funny old ships are still to be seen knocking about the English Channel. They carry strings of dried onions about to sell in all the ports. They seem a strange way to make a living—selling dried onions, but if you think a minute you see the beauty of it. The onions cost nothing and sell for something, and that's a varst profit, you see."

Once he was arrayed in his finest uniform, heavily bordered with gold lace, and dominated by a glorious cocked hat.

"Come," said he, "come and have a look at a great man."

"Why, you are very proud of your uniform, aren't you?" he was asked.

"Proud?" he replied; "I am as proud as a puppy dog with a gladiolus in its mouth."

At another time he was down on his knees poking the stove that heated the cabin in which he was interviewed with THE SUN.

"Why not call an orderly and let him poke that stove while you go on with the interesting story you were telling?"

"Oh, but they can't poke it, you know," said he; "they wouldn't know how. This is an American stove, introduced in our navy by our Admiral, and it's a very tricksy thing that few of us can manage, don't you see?"

The principle upon which promotion is based in the British navy is that of selection. In our navy men rise upon dead men's shoes, and seniority is the basis of promotion, but in England the officers of the ships are selected from the lower grades by the boards of the Admiralty. When the British wit explained the methods in vogue, he was asked if the evil was not that in a monarchy the sons of noblemen and scions of aristocratic families benefited by favoritism.

"Oh, not a bit of it," said he; "it is quite the other way. As soon as the Lords confer a name that's great a hundred to it—a title, don't you know—they say, 'Oh, that beggar'll get along any way; let's see if we can't find some chap that needs all the help he'll ever get.'"

This Englishman found that our Dolphin would have to be altered all over again. "You've made a botch of your royal yacht," he said; "you can't go on asking everybody to dodge the parlor door and climb up on the roof and dodge down the back way, as you do now. Your waiting room is behind the dining saloon, and it should be in front. You must tack a new bit on the front and put the waiting room there. Then again, as it is now with the tables in the shape of a letter T, the servants can't pass the things around as they could if it was a letter I, don't you know? But, bless you, your officers know all that, too well to need to be told a word of it. Your King Cleveland knows it—for he is your King, though you will persist in calling such people Presidents."

LEGISLATION AT ALBANY.

BILLS CHANGED ON THEIR WAY TO THE EXECUTIVE CHAMBER.

This Often Occurs Through Haste and Carelessness, but Sometimes Through Design—The Dock Bill so Changed that It Failed to Receive the Governor's Approval.

Mayor Gilroy's objections to the reading of the Dock bill as it got into the Governor's hands may bring about important changes in the details of passing bills in Albany. This Dock bill originally provided that the Department of Taxes should have its expenditures supervised by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, and that its bonds should be issued by and with the approval of the Sinking Fund Commissioners. As it got to the Governor's hands, the Board of Estimate and Apportionment was substituted for the Sinking Fund Commissioners to issue bonds. As the Board of Estimate and Apportionment has no such power, and as the power is fixed with the Sinking Fund Commissioners, the bill failed to receive the Governor's approval.

That brings up the whole subject of the way in which bills are a needed and legislation advanced or retarded by the machinery of clerks, engrossers, and printers. Amendments are sometimes found in bills when they get into the Governor's hands and no one recalls how they got in; while things are left out of bills which the introducers and others may have thought were in.

It requires a great deal of careful attention and a knowledge of legislative routine to steer a bill safely through both Houses and into the Executive Chamber. This is apart from the getting a member to introduce the bill, and its favor by a majority of both Houses. The machinery of legislation is as important in some ways as the actual votes, for if the machinery does not work the bill will not be properly printed, it will not be promptly engrossed, and there may be mistakes important to the interests behind it, caused by carelessness or intention.

The rules of the two Houses provide for a good part of the legislative machinery, and custom is the rule for the rest. Every bill in the Assembly must be introduced in duplicate; both copies of it are put into a box known as the bill box. These copies are taken out by the bill clerk. One copy is put in the Assembly library, where it can be examined and seen by the public, the public in this case being represented by the reporters for the newspapers. The other copy of it is read presumably by the Speaker and the clerk. The Speaker decides to what committee the bill shall be sent, and the next morning after its introduction the clerk announces it by its title and the committee reference on which the Speaker has decided. This copy of the bill then goes to the clerk of the committee to which it has been referred, while the other copy continues to stay in the Assembly library for public inspection.

One of these copies is temporarily sent to the State printer, who prints several hundred copies of it for the use of the members and others. It is this printed one on which action is taken and which is used by the committee. With the exception of a small number of typographical errors the bills as printed are identical with the bills as introduced. The alterations and changes began with the committee.

The meetings of the committees to consider bills are usually secret. That does not mean that any one is prevented from finding out what is done if he has a friend on the committee, but only that others than the members of the committee and the committee clerks are excluded from the sessions at which action is taken on bills. In the committee any number of amendments or a complete substitute may be adopted. Then the bill is reported under the rules. If it is amended in the committee it must be reprinted with the amendments; then it gets a place on the calendar, and the reprinted copy is put on the members' files, but the reprinted copy is not what the Clerk's desk has to go by. The Clerk goes by the record prepared by the committee clerk, which receives the report of such and such a bill amended in the manner that is shown in detail in the committee's report. This is the official record, the printed copy is not. If there is any variance between the reprinted bill and the record as made by the committee clerk the record governs.

Then the bill comes up on second reading in the Assembly. It may be adopted and amended then. These changes are not reprinted unless a special motion to that effect is made, as every Assemblyman is supposed to know what takes place in the open Assembly, though it is a matter of fact that not one Assemblyman in ten does know. These changes, of course, appear in the journal, which contains a full record of the proceedings of the House, but the journal is not always printed up to date, as the Public Printer toward the end of the session is crowded and at times several days behind.

On third reading changes may be made again before the bill is passed. Between second and third reading the bill is engrossed. A full record prepared by the clerk showing the bill as amended by the committee and on second reading is given to the clerk in charge of the engrossing room, and it is by his assistants written out in full on large sheets of paper and backed with thin pasteboard, orange in color if it is an Assembly bill, and very light brown if it is a Senate bill.

It is in the engrossing room that errors are most likely to occur. Toward the end of the session the clerks in the engrossing room are rushed, and work day and night. There is a constant struggle between the members to get their bills engrossed first. By speedy engrossing they get a great deal higher up on the calendar than another. In the hurry and the natural errors of copyists, mistakes occasionally come which favor or injure the interests of the parties behind the bill. Sometimes people who are greatly interested in legislation try to have these mistakes happen in a way that will favor them. At any rate, by carefully comparing the bill as engrossed with the official record, the men interested in legislation can always see whether the errors, if there are any, are in their favor. If the errors are favorable they need say nothing about them, and if they are unfavorable they can have them corrected. The clerk cannot give his personal attention to all this work, and he must rely greatly on subordinates. It is not possible for him to compare all the engrossed bills, and the clerk has so many other duties to perform that this work must be delegated to others. It sometimes happens that one of these men can be influenced, and it is the business of people professionally interested in legislation to secure him in their favor.

Half an hour after the engrossed bill reaches the Clerk's desk and is passed. It then takes the place of the official record, and in case there are differences between the official record and the engrossed bill it requires an act of the House to recall the bill, to reconsider the vote on it, and to make the necessary corrections. This is carried done, as a rule, only when a fault is found, and it is not likely to be discovered before the bill goes into the Governor's hands.

The chances of alteration are even greater in the Senate, because the Senate's bills are not always printed, and its business is conducted more loosely than in the Assembly. A sort of Senatorial courtesy gives to every Senator absolute control over his own bills, provided they are not political, and that power extends even to the engrossing room, where a certain latitude is allowed in the making of corrections of defects which may have been discovered in the original draft of the bill.

It thus happens that bills get to the Governor's hands in different shape from the official record, and some times in different shape from the way they were intended to be passed. It is hard to distinguish between the mistakes of haste and carelessness and the errors of intention. The Governor has a staff of lawyers and clerks who go over these bills carefully and compare them. It occasionally happens, as in the case of the Dock bill or the Fort George Park bill, that these men, through their lack of knowledge of local conditions, do not find changes which the local authorities can discover. All that the Governor can do is to examine the bills before him and to see that they coincide with the official record and have the proper certificates of the Speaker and the Lieutenant Governor that they received the constitutional number of votes in both Houses.

A Connoisseur.

A man whose face was intelligent, but whose clothes were shabby, and whose bearing was unmistakably that of a man who had shed every responsibility and was taking life as easily as he could—a city tramp—walked comfortably along in Union square. As he walked he saw upon the ground the discarded end of a cigar; there was more of it than a smoker usually throws away. While he made no particular demonstration over it, the tramp was evidently pleased to find it. He placed it in his mouth and walked on with just a trace of elation added to his manner of habitual unconcern. After walking a few steps he thought he would smoke it. He paused in front of a man who was sitting on one of the benches reading a newspaper, and asked him for a match. He lighted the cigar carefully; and when he had it fairly alight and going he took it from his mouth and held it up, and looked at it, calmly but critically, with the air of a connoisseur, and then he lifted his face slightly and blew the smoke into the air. It was clear that he enjoyed his end of the cigar and approved the taste of the purchaser.

THE IMPUDENT TABLE WAITER.

How to Treat Him—A Third Avenue Tough Was the Test—The Russian Method.

Some nights ago two gentlemen, an American and an Englishman, went into one of the all-night oyster houses on upper Third avenue to get something to eat. It was after 1 o'clock, and they were the only customers. The restaurant was very small, and not over neat, but it was the only one in the neighborhood, and the gentlemen were hungry, so they didn't stop to criticise. The single occupant of the place before their entrance was a man seated in a reclining attitude at one of the tables. He was asleep, and his chin rested upon his chest, his face being so far bent forward that it was lost in shadow. He wore a white apron, and was in his shirt sleeves.

Even as he sat with his body considerably bent, the gentlemen noticed that he was a giant. His shoulders were enormous, his chest broad and deep, his fists and arms brawny and powerful, and his heavy head, with its closely cropped hair and hard-looking skull, was joined to his shoulders by a bull neck, the skin of which was red and seamed.

The gentlemen sat down at a table and waited. As the waiter did not wake up immediately, the Englishman pounded on the table. This had no effect. He pounded harder and harder. Still the waiter slept. Finally the Englishman went over to him and shook him. Then he stretched and yawned, and finally opened his eyes. He looked at the disturber of his slumber, and then at the latter's companion, with an air of indecision. It looked as though he was in doubt as to whether he would get up or go to sleep again. After coolly staring at the customers for some