SOME NEW BOOKS.

English Ladies in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries.

The aim of the two volumes collectively called *Women in English Life*, by GEORGIANA HILL (London, Bentley & Son), is indicated by the title. It is to show the position that women have held in English national life from the days when the Saxon race became dominant in England down to the present time. A consideration of the subject naturally leads the author to discuss the education of women, as well as their legal status and social influence. As regards the earlier chapters, those are best worth reading which depict the interior of a mediæval manor house and the life of a mediæval nun. But the part of the book which is invested with superior interest is that which delineates English ladies as they were in the two centuries preceding our own. To appreciate, however, the retrogression undergone by feminine education in the seventeenth century, it is needful to give a preliminary glance at the state of things in the Tudor period.

I.

In the sixteenth century, which was the time of England's literary renaissance, the nobility, although they patronized learned men, were not much given to study themselves. In the time of Henry VIII. there was such a lack of learning among laymen that ecclesiastics still had the Government of the country largely in their hands. Most of the men belonging to the upper classes deemed the labor involved in acquiring knowledge unworthy of gentlemen, who, they thought, were better employed in learning to hunt, shoot, sing, and dance. It was otherwise with women of the aristocratic class. They toiled over Latin and Greek, frequently in manuscript; Hebrew was also studied, for divinity and theology occupied a good deal of attention. For sound scholarship and solid acquirements the women of the sixteenth century may challenge comparison with those of any subsequent period. It was not, indeed, a time conspicuous for brilliant authorship among women. Latin distichs, translations of the classics and of theological works, and orations in Greek and Latin were not the sort of writings to commend themselves to posterity, but they displayed a degree of erudition which was not only remarkable for that epoch, but would be highly praised in this age of university teaching.

Perhaps princesses should not be taken as examples of the standard of acquirement which obtained among women of the aristocratic class, inasmuch as especial pains would be taken with those who might be called upon to reign. On the other hand, it is to be remembered that the tastes of the sovereign had a more direct influence on society than they have since exercised. It is certain that the care with which the daughters of Henry VIII. were educated goes some way toward palliating his treatment of their mothers. The Princess Mary was particularly proficient in Latin, for which she was eulogized by Erasmus. She wrote excellent Latin epistles, and in later years translated Erasmus's Paraphrase of the Gospel of St. John. The preface to this work was written by the Master of Eton, who, after a courtly eulogy of the royal translator, spoke of her "overpainful study and labor of writing," whereby she had "cast her weak body in a grievous and long sickness." Elizabeth shone more than her sister as a linguist. Her first instructor was Lady Champernoun, who was noted for her accomplishments. With Roger Ascham she read the classics; with Dr. Grindal she studied theology. Even after she came to the throne she did not relax her intellectual work, but pursued it with diligence. Latin she both spoke and wrote with ease and grace. In Italian she was instructed by Signor Castiglioni; Greek and Latin she was accustomed to have read to her by Sir Henry Savil and Sir John Fortescue. She was a great student of Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon; one of Xenophon's Dialogues and two orations of Isocrates she translated from Greek into Latin. Lady Jane Grey was another familiar example of feminine learning. Roger Ascham, in a well-known passage of "The Schoolmaster," commended her devotion to Plato and her facility in Greek composition. Her studies were remarkably extensive, for Sir Thomas Chaloner said of her that she was well versed not only in Latin and Greek, but in Hebrew, Chaldee, Arabic, French, and Italian. It is not to be supposed that these princesses were destitute of lighter accomplishments. Elizabeth, as it is very well known, was a very graceful dancer, and could sing and play well. Lady Jane Grey was a musician, and clever at needle work.

It was not royal ladies alone who became celebrated for their learning in the sixteenth century. The three daughters of Sir Anthony Coke, preceptor to Edward VI., were as accomplished as Lady Jane Grey, and attracted the attention of the great men of the age. The eldest married Lord Burleigh; the second Sir Nicholas Bacon, Lord Keeper of the Great Seal, and became the mother of Francis Bacon; the third became wife to Lord John Russell. Sir Anthony considered that women should be educated on the same lines as men, and that they were quite as capable of acquiring knowledge; so he imparted to his clever daughters the lessons he gave to the boy king. All of them became good classical scholars, could correspond in Greek, and were excellent translators. Sir Thomas More's daughters were educated in a similar way. Marguerite, wife of William Roper, and her father's favorite, is the most celebrated; but all were clever, studious children, not content with light, entertaining study, but attaining great proficiency in abstruse subjects. Jane, Countess of Westmoreland, whose father was Fox, the martyrologist, was said to be able to bear comparison with the greatest scholars of the age. The three daughters of Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset, were distinguished for their Latin distichs. Mary Sidney, afterward Countess of Pembroke, a sister of Sir Philip Sidney, who dedicated to her his "Arcadia," was one of the most intellectual women of her time. The companionship of her brother, and association with such men as the poet Spenser, no doubt fostered her love of learning. In collaboration with her brothers she wrote a version of the Psalms, and on her own account a poem in celebration of Queen Elizabeth. Her cultivation of mind made her a fit comrade of the greatest intellects of the day. It is, in truth, no small thing to have entertained Shakespeare and to have had Ben Jonson as a familiar guest, besides lesser poets, such as Massinger, Donne, and Daniel. There was, in fine, no affectation of ignorance among the learned women of the sixteenth century. Learning among ladies was held in esteem. It was not thought unfeminine to speak good Latin, write correct Greek, or translate from the Hebrew.

II.

From a variety of causes a period of reaction set in after the vigorous awakening in the time of the Tudors. The Puritan party were so much engrossed with religious dogmas that they had little time to spend on purely secular thought, which they considered a frivolous, if not a sinful exercise. The Royalists, on their part, loved pleasure too well to give more than passing attention to serious study. Charles II., in his jocose habit of propounding insoluble problems to the Royal Society, reflected the attitude of the seventeenth century aristocracy toward science and literature. Here and there, to be sure, there might be a quiet, cultured set, such as that of Evelyn and his friends. Evelyn's daughter, Mary, who died at about the age of nineteen, was a most accomplished and studious girl, and shared her father's literary labors and enjoyments. But, on the whole, the seventeenth century was not favorable to the production of feminine scholars. Women's education was prosecuted on different lines. We no longer hear of ladies corresponding in Greek or translating from the Hebrew. The classics no longer held the chief place in the curriculum. Even among those sections of society where learning was cultivated to a certain extent, women's education seems to have taken a more feminine tone. Accomplishments were sought after rather than solid acquirements. There was a leaning to lighter pursuits, to what were called "virtues," such as instrumental and vocal music, dancing, and needlework. There was a dash of fine ladyism in it all. At the same time, there was some pretence of education. It was customary among the families of the nobility for the daughters to have tutors for reading and writing French, Latin, and, perhaps, Italian. Mrs. Hutchinson mentions that she had as many as eight tutors when she was seven years old. But she was exceptionally well instructed. Lady Anne Halkett, the daughter of Thomas Murray, preceptor to Charles I., was probably better taught than most young women of the time. She herself lays stress on the pains bestowed upon her education, but there is no hint of any profound study. She had masters for French, for writing, for dancing, and for the practice of the lute and the virginals, and a gentlewoman was employed to teach her needlework. One of the most celebrated women of learning in the early part of the seventeenth century was Margaret Lucas, afterward Duchess of Newcastle, but she seems to have acquired her knowledge chiefly by her own efforts. Sir Charles Lucas, indeed, had tutors for his daughter, but the family spent half the year in London, enjoying such diversions as the capital could afford, and study was not at all strictly enforced on the girls. It is well known that the Duchess wrote numerous poems and prose works of a philosophical character, which, during her lifetime, were received by scholars with lavish admiration, partly, of course, on account of her rank. It is to be noted, however, as marking the retrogression of opinion, that one masculine scholar, writing to the Duchess of Newcastle, speaks of authorship as an "inferior employment, unmeet for the rank and qualities of a lady like your Grace." Two or three other clever and well-taught women were encountered in this century. Lucy Harrington, Countess of Bedford, was one of these. She was certainly a good Latin scholar, and was a friend of the learned men of the day. Lady Wroth, niece of the Countess of Pembroke, was another patroness of the learned, and seems to have inherited some of her aunt's ability. One must wait, however, until the early part of the next century before meeting with any coterie of learned women comparable with the scholars and students of the Tudor period.

III.

In dealing with the position of women during the latter half of the seventeenth century, the author does not fail to recognize that what would be called society was stamped with the manners of the court of Charles II. It was the reign of the senses. Beauty was the road to greatness for women, and to beauty and wit all other qualities yielded. The great ladies who stand out most prominently on the canvas of the age are the royal favorites, the exquisite frail beauties who dazzle the vision and eclipse the women of sterner mould. Women forgot that they had any other rôle to play but one, that of syren. Those who had no power to captivate dropped into the background, were pushed aside and forgotten. The greatest lady was she whose charms drew the largest number of bidders. What she gloried in was the rank and number of her lovers, and her ambition was to flaunt her conquests in the eyes of other women. Barbara Palmer, Frances Stuart, Louise de Querouaille, together with many others whose task was the subjugation of man, represent the society of the Restoration.

The lowered tone of society was, of course, discernible everywhere, in the literature, on the stage, and in the habits of the day. The coarse tastes of the upper classes show that the standard of public propriety was not at all commensurate with the degree of enlightenment characteristic of the epoch. Lacking higher intellectual interest, women in fashionable life filled up their time with cards and dice, and, if they read anything, it was romances of very poor quality. This condition of things continued through the century. The young women of fashion went to cock fights, and John Evelyn speaks of great ladies suffering themselves to be treated in taverns "where a courtesan in other cities would scarcely vouchsafe to be entertained: but you will be more astonished when I tell you that they drink their crowned cups roundly, strain healths through their smocks, dance after the fiddle, kiss freely, and deem it an honorable treat." This, he goes on to say, was not confined to the lower or more "meretricious" circles, but was a common spectacle in good houses, where such sports were the afternoon diversion. In 1663, among the rules laid down for the behavior of men who were considered well bred, are some which would not now be propounded for a club of factory hands. For instance: "It is not becoming a person of quality, when in the company of ladies, to handle them roughly, to kiss them by surprise, to pull off their hoods, to snatch away their handkerchiefs, to rob them of their ribbons and put them in his hat, to force their letters or books from them, to look into their papers, &c. You must be very familiar to use them at that rate, and, unless you be so, nothing can be more indecent or render you more odious."

IV.

The eighteenth century was full of artificial sentiment. It disliked in women the evidences of health and of a robust constitution of mind. Pursuits that are now quite common and pass without notice were thought extravagantly fast. The effect on ordinary women was to make them shallow and affected. They were not taught to think; they were encouraged to believe that appearances counted for everything, reality for nothing. As long as the exterior was pleasing, it mattered not what was beneath. Mary Astell, who, in her youth, had been well educated, saw cause to write in her old age: "When a poor young lady is taught to value herself on nothing but her clothes and to think she's very fine when well accoutred; when she hears say that it is wisdom enough for her to know how to dress herself, that she may become amiable in his eyes to whom it appertains to be knowing and learned, who can blame her if she lay out her industry and money on such accomplishments, and sometimes extends it further than her misinformer desires her to?" She adds: "If, from our infancy, we are nursed upon ignorance and vanity; are taught to be proud and petulant, delicate and fantastic, humorous and inconstant, 'tis not strange that the ill effects of this conduct appear in all the future actions of our lives; that, therefore, women are unprofitable to most and a plague and dishonor to some men, and not much to be regretted on account of the men, because it is the product of their own folly in denying them the benefit of an ingenuous and liberal education." The occasional flirtation with literature and the coquetting with accomplishments which passed for female education were shams like the powdered *poufs* of hair and the face washes. It was, in truth, an age of sham, and women were told in effect, if not in words, that successful shamming was their rôle in life. They were to sham sensitiveness, modesty, ignorance, anything and everything which it was deemed likely would commend them to the perverted taste of the day. The vaporish, hysterical, fainting heroines of romance are only slightly colored pictures of the reality.

After the Stuart period was over social life in England assumed a new form. The circles of the great ladies who came into prominence in the eighteenth century, partly through their wealth and dignity, but more on account of their qualifications as leaders of society, eclipsed the circles gathered in royal palaces. These coteries took the lead in all matters of fashion and taste, having first acquired the correct tone from Paris. It was in the second quarter of the century that, according to Lord Chesterfield, the question of taste was always uppermost in polite circles. There was certainly, however, a want of taste in the language used by great ladies, whose speech was often so coarse as not to bear repetition. One day the Duchess of Marlborough called upon Lord Mansfield, the Lord Chancellor, incognito. When the clerk went in to the Chancellor to announce his visitor he said: "I could not make out, sir, who she was, but she swore so dreadfully that she must be a lady of quality." The substance of a lady's talk was also open to censure. Expressions then in common use among women of fashion would not be tolerated now in decent society. In their intercourse with men, indeed, they were more restrained, at least in writing, but the attitude of the sexes toward each other was one peculiar to the age. There was so much affectation of gallantry on the part of the men and such a want of straightforwardness on the part of the women that the whole tone of society was thoroughly artificial. Between the wits, statesmen, and men of letters on the one side and the great ladies of their acquaintance on the other there was a pseudo-romantic kind of relation. The elaborately framed protestations of devotion to which women were generally quite ready to listen belonged rather to feudal romance than to real life. But the romance of the eighteenth century was tinctured with the spirit of banter, and both sides were well aware that the whole thing was merely put on like the powder and the patches.

V.

The fashionable dames of the eighteenth century loved to dabble in politics, which afforded fresh excitement when the social rounds grew a little flavorless. It was a great period for letter writing, and political news was the constant topic of correspondence. The interest, however, centred on men rather than on principles. These great ladies, when they wrote to each other or to their friends of the male sex, did not discuss causes. They were concerned with individuals, with the careers of the gentlemen of their acquaintance. Looked at in this way, politics was, in the phraseology of the day, "vastly" entertaining. In fine, though she might be an ardent politician or a brilliant wit, the great English lady of the last century lived within a narrow circle. The great social movements of the country were as nothing to her, and the history of the classes below her own class had no meaning for her mind. Court intrigues and political changes were, to her, events of moment, because they were part of her world, and she knew no other. Her outlook was limited, as we have said, to personal interest and ambition. The accident of birth had given her a part to play in the affairs of the world, and she played it like one whose proper business is pleasure. She flirted, intrigued, and cajoled whenever she wanted a place at court or to worm out some political secret for a friend. But of the deep comprehension and broad interest which regards the politics of to-day, both home and foreign, as the history of the morrow, she was generally devoid.

There were a few women of fashion, indeed, who took politics more seriously. If, for instance, the Duke of Marlborough was the first soldier of his age, the Duchess was undoubtedly the first stateswoman. From this point of view she has no peer in English history, with the exception of Queen Elizabeth. No other English woman has exercised such sway over politics as Sarah Jennings, or held, as she did for a time, the destinies of Europe in her hand. After the time of the famous Sarah some other distinguished feminine figures appeared. There, for example, is the Countess of Suffolk, known to readers of Swift's correspondence as Mrs. Howard, who was successively Lady of the Bedchamber and Mistress of the Robes. She was a woman of keen intellect, and possessed of many social gifts. Her correspondents included William Pitt, Lord Bolingbroke, Lord Chesterfield, Pope, Swift, Gay, Young, and Horace Walpole, her neighbor in later life. Politics entered much into her correspondence; one of her acquaintances, the Countess of Bristol, sends an account of the electioneering contests in which her family were engaged in 1727. Another keen politician of this period was Mrs. Selwyn, mother of the well-known George and Charles Selwyn; she was one of the Ladies of the Bedchamber to the Queen of George II. Lady Hervey, who, as Mary Lepell, had been Maid of Honor to the Princess of Wales, was warmly interested in the politics of her time. All her published letters are full of remarks on public affairs, she herself being in the inner circle of the political world. Selina, Countess of Huntingdon, is better known as the founder of a religious sect, but before she became a widow she was an ardent politician, and in May, 1738, made one of a party of ladies, some of them peeresses, who stormed the House of Lords in the teeth of the Lord Chancellor's orders. A great year for women politicians was 1784, when Charles James Fox contested Westminster, and outstripped his opponent through the personal influence of the Duchess of Devonshire. The excitement of an election when there was no ballot and the poll was kept open for several weeks can never be equalled in the present day. The duchess and her coadjutors, however, pursued methods similar to those of modern canvassers. They drove about in their carriages, creating a constant excitement in favor of Fox and the Whig party. They went on foot from house to house, arguing, persuading, and cajoling the electors out of their votes. In company with the duchess on this electioneering campaign was her sister, Lady Duncannon, also a beauty, and among other Whig canvassers were Lady Carlyle, Lady Derby, Lady Beauchamp, and Horace Walpole's three lovely nieces, the Ladies Waldegrave. A counter attempt was made by the Tories to secure votes by feminine influence, but although Lady Salisbury and the Hon. Mrs. Hobart, who was a connection of William Pitt's, did their best, they could not prevail against the queen of beauties and her fair phalanx. The Westminster election and the duchess's example roused women in all parts of the country to take an interest in politics. An unpleasant incident, however, occurred during the general election of 1786, when two ladies of great social standing were canvassing very successfully in the Tory interest in some part of Norfolk. Their opponents, rendered desperate by failure, persuaded two women of doubtful character to attire themselves so as to resemble as nearly as possible the Tory lady canvassers, and to go about soliciting votes. The trick was soon discovered, and brought a storm upon the head of the Whig candidate.

There were a few learned English ladies in the eighteenth century, but it would be incorrect to say that they reflected the thought and feeling of the age on the subject of feminine education. The serious cultivation of literature indeed, by men as well as women, was looked upon in the fashionable world as something rather beneath them. Even Horace Walpole spoke of literary pursuits as hardly becoming in a gentleman. There was not an intellectual tone anywhere, except in professedly literary circles. Men of letters were people to be patronized and made much of as interesting curiosities, but they were not to be regarded as equals by those with whom they associated. All the professions, indeed, were held in a kind of contempt by people of leisure. The parson fared little better than the actor, in the estimation of polite society, and the position of a chaplain in a family of rank was that of an upper servant. When, in 1764, Lady Susan Fox, daughter of Lord Ilchester, married O'Brien, the actor, a man of means, this was thought by her world a far greater mesalliance than when Lady Harriet Wentworth married her footman.

Outside a small literary set, the chief things aimed at were accomplishments, and these were carried only so far as to serve for conversational and other social purposes. Generally speaking, women's education was very defective. Lady Mary Wortley Montagu wrote bitterly of the estimate in which women's intellectual ability was held. "There is hardly," she said, "a creature in the world more despicable, or more liable to universal ridicule, than a learned woman; these words imply, according to the received sense, a tattling, impertinent, vain, and conceited creature." The sum of it all is that the literary women of the eighteenth century belonged to a set apart. Great ladies might do anything, and, if they chose to patronize literature, or even to become writers themselves, they could do so, and were praised and flattered. Even great ladies, however, shrank from acknowledging their gifts, and were, as a rule, exceedingly fearful of being thought learned. This is not surprising when we recall the fact to which Lady Mary Wortley Montagu certifies, that the generality of men regarded a learned education for daughters "as great a profanation as the clergy would do if the laity should presume to exercise the functions of the priesthood." Even so enlightened a man as Dr. More was alarmed at his clever daughter's progress, and when he found his little Hannah making rapid headway in Latin and mathematics, he caused her to discontinue those studies lest she should appear singular.

Marceau.

In a little volume written by Capt. T. V. JOHNSON, and published in London by George Bell & Sons, we have an English biography of *François Severin Marceau*, who has been aptly called the Bayard of the French revolution. While Marceau cannot be placed in the front rank of the French Generals evolved in the revolutionary epoch, the rank to which Bonaparte, Moreau, Hoche, and, perhaps, Massena belong, he was an officer of so much promise that he might eventually have been numbered in the highest class of commanders, had he not died, in 1796, at the age of 27. His short career was unsullied by corruption or by cruelty, and his generosity toward the royalists exposed him to dangers which only the value of his services to the republic enabled him to escape. His principal title to renown rests upon the fact that he did more than any other man to pacify La Vendée. He died a soldier's death at Altenkirchen, after assuring a safe retreat to the army of the Sambre and Meuse, of which he commanded the right wing.

I.

In the town of Chartres, on the left bank of the Eure, forty-eight miles southwest of Paris, François Severin Marceau Desgraviers was born on the 1st day of March, 1769, the same year as Napoleon Bonaparte. His father was Registrar of Criminal Justice and Procureur to the bailiwick of Chartres. The Marceaus were originally all millers, and one branch of the family derived the name Desgraviers from a flour mill, so called, which was situated outside the town of Chartres. From the day of his birth the mother of François Marceau showed a repugnance for her child and refused to suckle him or take charge of him, whereupon his father sent him to a niece who had married a vine dresser named Houdard. For eight years Marceau remained with his foster parents, the only one of his relatives who visited him being his half sister, the eldest daughter of his father by a first wife. After his return to his father's house at Chartres he was educated with a view to the bar, and at the age of 13 was admitted to the fifth class of the Royal College in his native town. He was taken away from this institution, however, after passing through the third class, and set to study law and procedure in the office of a brother-in-law. The legal profession was distasteful to him and, having made up his mind to enter the army, he enlisted on Dec. 2, 1784, in the infantry regiment of Angoulême. As he was a minor, the engagement was annulled, and he spent another year at home studying mathematics, topography, and other sciences. Finally, on Dec. 2, 1785, having attained the age of legal consent (sixteen), he turned his back upon his home and enlisted in the Savoy-Carignan regiment of infantry. In the enlistment register he is described as 5 feet 10½ inches in height, with fair hair and brows, dark brown eyes, a prominent forehead, covered by a shock of hair, a small mouth, and a freckled face. Up to the date of his leaving Chartres he had shown himself an active, robust youth, devoted to exercises and games, and especially to gymnastics, riding, and the chase.

For three years Marceau served his apprenticeship to the profession of arms obscurely enough, though he seems to have attracted the attention of his commandant, and he was successively promoted to the two first non-commissioned grades. Being in Paris on leave on July 14, 1789, Marceau, like Hoche, took part in the storming of the Bastile. Shortly afterward he procured his discharge from his regiment, and was appointed an extra aide-de-camp to Lafayette, who was in command of the Paris National Guard. In October, 1789, Marceau returned to his native town and joined the National Guard of Chartres, serving in it during 1790-91, in the capacity of Captain and company commander. When the frontiers of France were threatened by the armies of Austria and Prussia the national militia was called out, and on June 27, 1791, Marceau was enrolled at the head of his company. At the same time he obtained a brevet Lieutenancy in the Thirty-fourth Regiment of the line, and in order that he might remain with his fellow townsmen, he was made Adjutant Major of the First Battalion of the Department of Eure and Loire. In December, 1791, he accompanied this battalion to Rheims, where he spent the next six months.

II.

The year 1792 was an eventful one for Marceau, for it marked the opening of his active military career. In March of this year he was elected Lieutenant-Colonel and second in command of the First Battalion, and in the following April war was declared by the French Government against the Emperor of Austria and his allies. In May Marceau accompanied the two battalions of the Eure and Loire to Montmedy to form part of the garrison there. Montmedy constituted a link in the first chain of defence against the invasion of the allied army under the Duke of Brunswick. From Montmedy the battalions to which Marceau was attached were ordered to fall back on Verdun, and they surrendered that place to the Duke of Brunswick on Sept. 2 against the vehement protest of Marceau, who, it is said, was with difficulty prevented from taking his own life. In his own journal Marceau makes the barest allusion to this grievous incident. "The stress of war," he says, "took me to Verdun, and thence to the army of Gen. Dillon." Marceau was excepted by name from the officers placed on trial, in accordance with a decree of the National Convention, which, naturally, regarded the surrender of Verdun as an act of treason. Marceau, with his regiment, having been ordered to join the advance guard of Dillon's division, which formed the left wing of Dumouriez's army, fixed his camp in a wood south of the Les Islettes. It was at this place, the true Thermopylæ of France, a defile that bars the road to Chalons and Paris, that Marceau first experienced the joys of battle, and distinguished himself in the forefront of the fight under the eyes of his commander. From that day until he left the army of the Ardennes, Marceau was attached as an aide-de-camp to Dillon's staff. After the so-called battle of Valmy, which was rather a cannonade than a battle, Verdun was retaken, and Marceau reëntered the fortress whose betrayal he had unwillingly witnessed. By October, 1792, the Allies had entirely evacuated French territory, and Marceau had accompanied Dillon to Paris, where, on April 13, 1793, that unfortunate General was guillotined.

The volunteers of Chartres having been disbanded, Marceau accepted a First Lieutenancy in the Light Cuirassiers of the Germanic Legion, a corps reorganized by Westermann from soldiers trained in the wars on the Rhenish frontier. Having given offence to some of the soldiers of this mongrel corps by his resolve to establish discipline, he was accused of unpatriotic conduct and was brought to trial at Saumur, where, although his former intimacy with Count Dillon was urged against him, he was ultimately acquitted and reinstated in his rank. Marceau's connection with the civil war in the west of France began in June, 1793, when, as Captain of Cuirassiers in the German Legion, he took part in the defence of Saumur against the attack of the royalist army of La Vendée. It was his fortune to initiate at the chateau of La Tremblie, and on the heights above Cholet, the ruin of the royalist cause, and at Le Mans and Savenay to deal the final blow to its once invincible army. It is noteworthy, however, that in his military reports, penned at this period there is no note of exultation. The words of the royalist leader when he went out to join the insurgents found a response in Marceau's heart; "We must not expect human glory; civil strife affords none." It was during the nine months spent in La Vendée that Marceau rose with extraordinary rapidity through the intermediate grades to Brigadier-General, General of Division, and Commander-in-Chief *ad interim*. For a man to be a General at 23 was astonishing even in the revolutionary epoch. Having returned to Paris in February, 1794, Marceau desired to pay the usual official visit to the Committee of Public Safety, and, to that end, having dressed himself in the uniform of a full General, he awaited the members in the hall of the Convention. As the deputies dropped in, Marceau found himself the subject of conversation and scrutiny. One member galled by the recent reverses on the frontier, stood up, and pointing to Marceau, said: "Are you surprised that our soldiers are defeated in battle, and that the civil war is never ending, when you see young men like that wearing the uniform of a General?" Other murmurs and ejaculations of the kind led to a tumult, which was instantly stilled, however, when the young officer was recognized by a better informed deputy. When the crowd heard the name of the General who had brought to a close the war of La Vendée they made the hall resound with cries of "Long live Marceau!" while the Tribunes and Deputies, descending from their seats, surrounded him and overwhelmed him with praises and greetings.

III.

In the Army of the Ardennes, which Marceau joined in April, 1794, he was placed at the head of one of the two advance guards, and in this capacity, carried out all that depended on him to sustain the honor of the republic. The capture of Thuin, effected by him without the coöperation of the supporting division, was a brilliant achievement, for which full credit was given to him in the report made by the delegates with the army to the Convention. On the consolidation of the Army of the Ardennes with the divisions of the Moselle, under the name of the Army of the Sambre and Meuse, Marceau was placed at the head of two divisions forming the right wing, Jourdan being the Commander-in-Chief. He took part in the battle of Fleurus, in which the French remained masters of the field, but the right wing which he commanded was defeated, owing to a weakness in cavalry and to a panic, which at a critical moment spread among the infantry. Jourdan and the delegates of the Convention required from Marceau an explanation of the misconduct of his troops, and there seems to be no doubt that in this first campaign he was not as successful as either his talents or his valor deserved. Investigation showed, however, that he did all that was possible under the circumstances, and that his efforts alone prevented the complete rout of his corps, and the consequent turning of the right flank of the French by the enemy. In the operations subsequent to the battle of Fleury, Marceau continued to render important service. In the advance on Mons, for instance, he defeated Beaulieu's advance guard, and, later on, repulsed a sudden attack, and maintained his ground during sixteen hours against strong combinations of his opponents. He forced the passages of the Meuse at Namur and Huy, and carried the enemy's entrenched camp at the point of the bayonet. A little later, when his outposts at Stree were attacked, he led a cavalry charge against the enemy, utterly routed their cavalry, and took the Austrian commander prisoner. By his successful scaling of the heights of Halleux, he acquired great distinction and powerfully contributed to the victory won over the Austrians on Sept. 17, 1794. After the battle of the Roer, Marceau's division pushed on, and reached the great object of the campaign, the Rhine. The battle of the Roer is a landmark in French military history. The Army of the Sambre and Meuse had pierced the centre of the immense line of the allies, and, by its victory, had decided the fate of Flanders and driven the imperial army back on to the great German river. The allies, however, retained Coblentz, but, on Oct. 24, the fortress was surrendered to Marceau. The news of the fall of this place was received by all republicans throughout France with transports of joy, for it had been the rendezvous of the so-called emigrés, who had fled from their country and been the principal instigators of the war. Throughout the winter of 1794-95 Marceau, with a force nominally amounting to 11,000 men, but really decimated by disease, want, and exposure, had to guard Coblentz and eighteen miles of the Rhine along a mountainous and wasted tract of country and in face of a greatly superior foe.

IV.

The burning of the bridge of Neuwied, on Oct. 18, 1795, the bridge on which Kleber depended to secure the retreat of his column across the Rhine, is a well known incident of military history, and the blunder or accident that caused it has been attributed by more than one writer, including Jomini, to Marceau. The truth is that Marceau had received an order from Jourdan to sink or burn all boats on the right bank of the river after the last of the troops had crossed over by the bridge. Marceau intrusted the execution of this order to a member of his staff, Capt. Souhait, an officer of engineers, who admitted afterward to the whole army that the accident was entirely his own fault, and due, not to the orders of his General, but to his own precipitancy in carrying them out. When Marceau found the bridge destroyed and Kleber's troops apparently at the mercy of the enemy he fell into the deepest despair, and, it is said, would have taken his own life but for the energetic and effectual intervention of an aide-de-camp. As a matter of fact, communication between the two banks of the river was reëstablished in twenty-four hours, the enemy meanwhile being kept at bay by the bold front shown to them by Kleber and Bernadotte. The frequent reverses experienced during October and November, 1795, broke the spirit of the Republican armies on the Rhine. Many soldiers deserted, and no troops were sent to replace them. Marceau, personally, was so dejected that, as he said in a letter to Jourdan, nothing in the world would prevent him from quitting the army and his command were it not for his friendship for his chief. Never before had he been so deeply pained by what took place around him—the shameless pillage by the soldiery, the indifference of the officers, the insubordination of both, and the absence of all arrangements for the supply of clothing, provisions, and ammunition. In spite of this dejection, Marceau did not abate his efforts, and, when attacked on Dec. 8, by a greatly superior force, succeeded in effecting a retreat across the Nahe, a movement which caused the Austrians to become more circumspect in their advance, and thus gave Jourdan's army time to retire undisturbed behind the Moselle. A victory won by Marceau on Dec. 17 gave the French the navigation of the Moselle and assured to them the possession of Treves, besides bringing about an armistice between the combatants. The truce, although disapproved of by both Governments, lasted five months, during which Marceau, in his headquarters at Treves, busied himself with the civil administration of the country and in preparations for the coming struggle.

V.

On the whole, the opposing armies on the Rhine commenced the campaign of 1796 with equal advantages, and it was only the great military genius of the Archduke Charles that turned the scale and eventually brought victory to the imperial arms. The strength of the French armies, including garrisons, exceeded 152,000, of which Jourdan commanded about one-half, the remainder being placed under Moreau. Marceau did not take part in the advance of the French armies to the Danube, having been selected to guard the line of the Rhine. His task was difficult and dangerous, as the forces placed at his disposal were inadequate, and he was liable to be crushed by a sudden concentration of the enemy. It is well known that Jourdan was defeated by the Archduke Charles at Neresheim, and again at Wurzburg, and forced to fall back on the Lahn, where Marceau amalgamated his forces once more with those of his Commander-in-Chief. It is probable that, by his prompt action, he saved both Jourdan's army and his own corps from disaster. It was in a subsequent attempt to resist the advance of the Archduke Charles that Marceau was killed. He was shot by a Tyrolese sharpshooter, and died on Sept. 21, 1796, at the age of 27. With him the soul of the French resistance fled. The Archduke Charles said in his report: "Marceau's death has palpably influenced the French soldiers, and this last fight seems to have entirely shaken their courage." Marceau's last letter was addressed to Jourdan. He appealed to him on behalf of others, and asked for the recognition and promotion of those who had served immediately under him.

The following is a portrait of Marceau as he appeared before his death, sketched by his brother-in-law: "He was a little over 5 feet 9 inches in height, robust, and very well made. He excelled in all exercises. His face was perfectly oval. He had large brown eyes, and his whole expression was soft and amiable. He had a Grecian nose and lips, which unmistakably indicated pride. His forehead was high and noble and his complexion clear. He wore his dark chestnut hair long. The eyebrows were of the same color as the hair, the moustache of a more reddish tinge. His bearing was generally careless, but under arms he assumed a bold and martial appearance. He commanded with firmness, though without harshness. Outside the service he forgot he was a General, and, without permitting any familiarity, made others forget it, too." There was almost a struggle between the French and the Austrians for the honor of conveying Marceau's body from Altenkirchen as far as Neuwied. The wishes of the latter prevailed, and a detachment of Branco's Hussars formed the escort. When the Austrian officers had completed the preparations the Archduke Charles entered the chamber of death. He stood for a moment gazing on the face of his adversary. They were both of the same age. He knelt at his bedside for a while; then, shading his eyes with his hand, left the room in silence.

NOTES OF SCIENCE AND INDUSTRY.

The opening of a pole railway in Nova Scotia, thir[illegible] miles in length, and the third of its kind in that province, is mentioned in the Bangor *Courier*, location or route not named, for the most part being utilized in bringing the deposits of silica found in the lakes down the mountains to shipping ports. Spruce poles are employed, these being simply laid on top of the ground, except where the surface is very uneven, dirt thrown on each side and trampled down to form a solid bed; after they are in place they are slightly trimmed down with an adze, and when a crook of any kind occurs in the poles, it is, of course, turned down in laying the track. No cross ties are necessary, as the locomotives and cars are so constructed that they exert no lateral pressure; curves are made up of a succession of short poles, care being taken that the joints come opposite to each other. The switching is readily accomplished in the ordinary way, and the wheels and cars and locomotives have very broad treads with deep circular grooves, so as to fit the curvature of the poles, which are nine inches in diameter.

Experiments made with ropes and belts by M. Fauquier and published in the proceedings of the Société des Ingénieurs Civils show that with a smooth-rimmed pulley running on carefully prepared bearings, he determined the weight required to maintain a constant speed of rotation, when attached alternately to loaded belts and loaded ropes passing around the rim; the added effect of the grooves of a rope pulley was ascertained by measuring the moment of resistance due to the sticking of the rope in the groove. Pulleys of three different diameters were tried. From the results he derives a formula by which the loss of power due to the stiffness of ropes and belts may be calculated, the conclusions bein that rope gearing absorbs from one and a half to three times the total power that is lost in belt gearing.

The most remarkable feature in the equipment of the Lick Observatory expedition for observing the total solar eclipse of August next in Japan is the telescope to be used by Director Burckhalter of the Chabot Observatory in Oakland, who accompanies the expedition. His plan is that of giving the correct exposure for each part of every photographic plate at an eclipse. The telescope for this purpose is of four inches aperture and fifteen feet focus, mounted equatorially, and will follow the sun. The image of the eclipsed sun will fall on the negative plate, in front of which is a rapidly rotating diaphram; the plate has a hole in its centre through which passes an axis driven by clockwork, and, on the end of the axis in front of the plate, and close to it, is a rotating fan or diaphragm. The diaphragm is cut into the shape of a double cam, one cam being inverted, so that it is perfectly in balance, and it makes about five revolutions per second. When the plate holder is lifted the clock starts automatically and runs for about fifteen minutes. Five or six such plates will be exposed during totality, and each plate will be exposed much longer at the outer limits of the corona, where the light is weakest, than at the inner limit, where the light is strongest. It is therefore hoped to secure in this way a photograph of the corona on a single plate, every part of which has received the proper exposure; this single plate will then exhibit all the details of the corona, instead of having to build up, as it were, the real corona from a series of different plates.

An account is given in the *Physical Review* by R. A. Millikan of some careful tests of light emitted by glowing solids and liquids, with a view to discover the laws of its polarization. This phenomenon is exhibited strongly by incandescent platinum, silver, gold, and by molten iron and bronze; a somewhat feebler polarization is shown by copper, brass, lead, zinc, and solid iron. The most significant result named is that polarization is minimum with rays emitted normally to the surface, and maximum at a grazing emission, thus indicating that the vibrations take place in a plane at right angles to the emitting surface. Glass and porcelain also emit polarized light, but to a lesser amount; fluorescent bodies do the same, so that evidently a high temperature is not necessary; and in the case of uranium glass, it is said to be the green reflected light which is polarized, and not the blue incident light diffused from the surface.

Modern Cosmopolitanism.

From the Buffalo Courier.

A curious illustration of the cosmopolitanism of the age is found in the statement of Prince Henry of Orleans that during his expedition from Yunnan to Assam last year, when his party was the first to traverse the shortest and most direct route from China to India, he had as a guide a young Christian Chinese with whom he conversed in Latin. It was, he says, dog Latin, but they could understand each other, and that was the main thing. There could hardly be a more effective proof of the lasting impression on the world made by the Roman nation than that its language should be the medium of communication between a Frenchman and a Chinese in southeastern Asia at the close of the nineteenth century.

Foreign Notes of Real Interest.

French women are growing better or else the police closes its eyes to their wrongdoing. Of 4,269 persons accused of crime in 1893, 3,673 were men and 596 women; women, that is, were accused of 14 per cent. of the crimes committed, whereas twenty years before the percentage was 17. The offences they commit are more against the person than against property. Prosecutions for infanticide have steadily decreased from an average of 207 twenty years ago to 132.

Paul Bourget has brought suit against Lemerre, the publisher who made his reputation, for an accounting. He claims the right to have all the publisher's account books for the last twenty two years examined in order to trace what became of every copy of his works, and in this is supported by Zola, as President of the Société de Gens de Lettres. Lemerre asserts that he has paid $60,000; that he now owes him $9,000 on his sales which he is ready to pay, and that he will not let him inspect his account books. The trouble arose from Bourget's seeing an American edition of "Cosmopolis" offered for sale in New York, of which he declares he had received no notice.

Mr. Hyman Montague's later Anglo Saxon and English coins, the fourth part of the most important collection sold in this generation, brought $28,900 for 857 lots in London. The highest prices were $1,375, a hundred dollars more than Mr. Montague paid for it, for a gold half George noble of Henry VIII., with a letter K on the reverse, standing for Katharine Howard or Katharine Parr, and $1,250 for a gold penny of Henry III., which had brought $650 $700, and $1,025, the last three times it had been sold, each purchaser making a profit. A silver penny of King Canute, wearing a helmet and holding a long sword in his right hand, brought $67; the highest prices paid for pennies of his sons Harold Harefoot and Harthacnut were $49 and $56, of Edward the Confessor $44, and of Harold Godwin's son $68. William the Conqueror's best was $64, William Rufus's $50, and Henry I.'s $73. King Stephen by himself brought $59, with Matilda on the same penny he brought $165, while Matilda alone brought $180; Stephen's son Eustace, Count of Blois, brought $83, and his son William, Earl of Surrey, $150. With Henry III. the gold coins began. A noble of Edward III. fetched $332 and a half groat $115; a noble of Richard II., with a flag at the stern of the vessel brought $10[illegible], while a half noble without the flag brought $135. Henry IV. noble sold for $250, groat for $140, farthing for $67; Henry VI. angel for $101. Henry VIII. double sovereign $585. Edward VI. enthroned, double sovereign, one of the rarest of English coins, brought $875. It had belonged to Mr. Addington, who paid $50 less for it.

Men! Do not despair. Read Thomas Slater's offer on page 4, main sheet.—Adv.

POLITICAL NOTES.

The Prohibition candidate for President is in the tea business in Baltimore. Tea in Baltimore is a temperance drink. It is taken straight and not used to dilute whiskey.

Objection is made by some Republican workers to the course of Commissioner Collis in appointing two-thirds of the inspectors in his department from the Congress district in which he has resided since he came here from Philadelphia.

The number of bills introduced in the last Albany Senate was 1,283, and in the Albany Assembly 1,708, a total of 2,991. The number of bills which have become laws is about 1,000—one-third of the total number introduced. The late Legislature made it a misdemeanor for any individual to wear either a Loyal Legion or a Grand Army of the Republic button unless a member of the organization concerned.

All five of Brooklyn's representatives in the present Congress are Republicans, though Brooklyn has been for many years a Democratic city and gave at the last year's election a Democratic majority of 8,000. These five Congressmen were elected in 1894 in the political ground swell of that year, and the Brooklyn Democrats were further disabled in making a fight by the fact that they were divided into two factions. Thus in the Second Congress district the Shepard or outside Democrats polled nearly 4,000 for their nominee to Congress in opposition to the regular Democratic candidate, who was beaten by a plurality of only 1,800. This year the Democrats of Brooklyn expect to be and intend to be united, and the recovery of three districts from the Republicans is, in consequence of this, probable.

About a year ago the demand for more court room in the County Court House was made generally known, and arrangements were entered into for the use of the Sheriff's office for the business of the Surrogates. The Court House building was originally designed for the use of the courts of New York, but in default of a suitable municipal building several of the departments took up quarters in the Court House, particularly the Comptroller and the Sheriff. After a protracted agitation the Comptroller's office was removed to the Stewart building, but the Sheriff, though offered accommodations in the brown stone building vacated by the District Attorney and the Court of General Sessions, continues to remain in the Court House and to embarrass the business of the Surrogates, which has grown and is growing steadily. One explanation of the Sheriff's delay is given by a lawyer, who says that Tamsen will not remove because he understands the word remove to mean resign.

The Police Department is paying $1,479 for four additional patrol wagons purchased from the Barrett Manufacturing Company, or at the rate of about $376 each.

In many sections of New York and neighboring States bicycle riders, organized for mutual protection, are taking concerted action in politics, especially in connection with the choice of candidates having to do with the condition of the roads and streets. Recently there has been under a law passed by the Legislature a new group of organized citizens—the licensed accountants. The law adopted by the Legislature declares that any citizen or person who "has duly declared his intention of becoming a citizen" of the United States, who resides or transacts business in New York and is upward of 21 years and of good moral character, shall be entitled to receive a certificate from the Regents of the University and to use the letters of designation "C. P. A.," which certify that he is a public accountant and not an "A. P. A." or amateur public accountant. In addition to the amateur accountants, the Legislature has established, though in a very different field of professional activity, the "licensed horseshoers," some of whom are already predicting that the licensed horseshoers will take "separate political action" this year though for whom or against whom it is not stated.

Ohio has rarely been without a candidate for the Presidency on either ticket. On the Republican side R. B. Hayes in 1876, John Sherman in 1880, 1884, and 1888, and William McKinley in 1892 and 1896; on the Democratic side, George H. Pendleton in 1864 and 1868, W. S. Groesbeck in 1872, William Allen in 1876, Allen G. Thurman in 1880 and 1884, and James E. Campbell in 1892.

The nomination of a Maryland man for the Presidency by the Prohibition party will not probably be without some effect on the politics of that State, and it may be the means of putting Maryland back into the Democratic column. The normal Republican vote in Maryland is about 100,000, and the normal Democratic vote was from 110,000 to 125,000. In 1888 the Republicans polled for Mr. Harrison 99,986 votes in Maryland, and under the most adverse circumstances and in the face of a bolt from the Democratic Convention the Democrats polled for their candidate for Governor in 1895 106,000 votes in that State. The Republicans have now control of the State Administration in Maryland for the first time since 1864, and have strengthened themselves considerably in consequence. But a large defection from the Republican column in favor of Mr. Levering would be to the benefit of the Democrats, who have not lost the Terrapin State in a Federal election since 1864. Mr. Lincoln carried Maryland in that year, and the fact that he was put in nomination for reëlection in the city of Baltimore on June 7 may have had something to do with the matter. Some Republicans thought that it did. Mr. Lincoln's plurality was 7,000.

Tom Gallagher, a Democratic Alderman in Chicago, is a candidate for the Democratic nomination in the Fourth Illinois district this year. His platform is brief and unequivocal: "Offices for the boys. Let her go, Gallagher."

The Mayor's office, of all public departments of New York, has the smallest number of employees. They number only seven, and the expense of maintaining the Mayor's office, salaries and contingencies included, is only $26,000 a year.

The bill restricting the term of County Clerk hereafter to two years has become a law. The Constitution fixed the term at two or four years, in the discretion of the Legislature.

Few of the biographies of the late Brick, or Mark, Pomeroy have contained any reference to his active participation in the municipal fight of 1894. Mr. Pomeroy, who was by temperament combative, allied himself early in the fight with the James O'Brien Democracy, of which he soon became a leader. At the United Charities building, Fourth avenue and Twenty second street, there was in the month of October a conference between the representatives of all the organizations which were to participate in the opposition to Tammany Hall. Mr. Pomeroy was present as a representative of the O'Brien Democracy, and he occupied a seat close to the stage. When William R. Grace, as the representative of the State Democracy, arose to present the claims of that organization to the consideration of the conference, Mr. Pomeroy, who was never a diplomatist, exclaimed: "I would as soon trust Croker as Grace." Then he arose to qualify what he had said, but Mr. Grace answered curtly: "Nothing which you can say makes any difference to me." Later on Mr. Grace and Mr. Pomeroy were not working together for the election of Mayor Strong, for Mr. Grace, who is out of politics, supported him, and Mr. Pomeroy didn't.

The death of former United States Senator William A. Wallace followed by some years his retirement from an active position in Democratic politics in Pennsylvania. Mr. Wallace was one of the few survivors of the old-line Democracy of the Keystone State, and prior to the appearance of Mr. Cleveland as a Democratic candidate the Republicans were compelled to fight for their political laurels there. In 1884, with Cleveland as the Democratic candidate, the Republican majority in Pennsylvania was 81,000. In 1888 it was nearly 80,000. In 1892 it was 63,000, and at the last State election it was 241,000. Mr. Wallace, like the other important political leaders in Pennsylvania, Cameron, Randall, Quay, and Magee, was of Scotch-Irish descent, and in the Chicago Convention of 1884 he stood out strongly against Mr. Cleveland's nomination, 55 of the 60 Pennsylvania delegates voting for Samuel J. Randall. Mr. Cleveland received five votes from Pennsylvania. Subsequently it was Mr. Wallace who nominated Thomas A. Hendricks for Vice-President at the same Convention and in the ensuing canvass Mr. Wallace took an active part as one of the Executive Committee. The death of Mr. Randall, long his factional opponent for Democratic leadership in Pennsylvania, was followed by Mr. Wallace's retirement, and then William F. Harrity, the present Chairman of the Democratic National Committee, succeeded to the leadership. Under Harrity the Democracy of Pennsylvania has been harmonious—and defeated.

The selection of Congressman Lemuel E. Quigg as temporary Chairman of the Republican National Convention is opposed by Abe Gruber and some others. It is, however, improbable. New York furnished the Minneapolis Convention with its temporary Chairman in 1892. J. S. Fassett was the citizen chosen as temporary Chairman.