Italy and Spain have scarcely held the place, which through so many centuries was their own. Such changes in natural literatures resemble the political waxings and wanings of national fortunes. The English-speaking peoples may have their eclipse, perhaps it is heralded by a modern comparative deficiency in humor, which, if England and America cease to laugh, will die out of a profoundly solemn world.

In the foregoing remarks little has been said about the literature of the century, except among English-speaking peoples. Not being a Mezzofanti, I am not personally acquainted with the literature of all languages, and it is a vain thing to speak of books at second hand. It was not the nineteenth, but the eighteenth century, that saw Germany reënter the field of pure literature, as distinguished from that of scholarship and science. Since the end of the Middle Ages, with their poets, German writers had mainly been devoted to theology and classical criticism. Latin was the language of the learned. Many ascertainable causes, in the middle and end of the last century, and doubtless many causes which cannot be ascertained, awoke again the Teutonic genius. The victories of Frederick the Great gave Germans patriotism and confidence in their own tongue.

The philosophic and social works which preluded to the French Revolution stirred the German mind and required popular expression. Thus Kant wrote in his own native speech in reaction against the sceptical philosophy of David Hume, and Kant became the father of the long array of German metaphysicians, from Hegel and Fichte to Schopenhauer and Hartmann. Their philosophy "cannot be briefly stated especially in French," as one of them said, but its general effect has been rather to counteract materialism by making it pretty plain that human nature is not so simple and easily to be explained as the Scottish philosophers were apt to suppose. In England, Coleridge gave an Anglican heart to the new German philosophy, which also influenced Hamilton, and still affects the philosophical teaching of Oxford. "It is nonsense, but is it *the right sort* of nonsense?" asked the late Prof. Sidgwick (a Cambridge man) when struggling with the examination papers of a Hegelian undergraduate.

More important as literature were the double influences of return on the mediæval past and of inspiration by the new political and social ideas which gave the impulse to the genius of Goethe, Schiller, Bürger and others. Goethe began as the child of Rousseau, but as a child who had read Kant, and drunk deep of the romance of the Middle Ages. Doubtless his is the greatest name of modern Germany, both as a student of life, of nature, of history, and of thought. He was the spiritual parent of Scott, with his "Götz von Berlichingen," and, with Richter, of Carlyle. Through himself and his English or Scottish disciples, Goethe has been the most fertile source of change in the literature of the nineteenth century. In extreme old age, curious to say, he gave the first impulse to the study of early religion as displayed in the obscure rites and beliefs of the Australian natives: a theme remote enough from his effect on the poetry of Matthew Arnold. Probably the two parts of his "Faust" and his Roman Lyrics are the most popular and, as literature, the most permanent parts of his work, with "Werther," "Wilhelm Meister" and "Elective Affinities," in prose. Schiller, beginning with the boyish romanticism of "The Robbers," became a kind of classic in his later dramas. Lessing and Winckelmann were the most sound and fertile influences in criticism. "The Laocoön" remains indispensable. The patriotic lyrists resurrected the national spirit of the Teutonic race, and Heine, Hebrew by race and half French in character, combined the characteristics of Lucian, Burns and Voltaire.

Wolf, writing in Latin (and I believe that his work on Homer has never attained a third edition, and has never been translated into English), became the parent, for good or evil, of what is called the Higher Criticism, Lachmann introducing the painfully conjectural tendencies of that intellectual exercise. Its application to scriptural texts is notorious, but not precisely as part of literature. Like other European countries, the Germany of the close of the century is not remarkable for resplendent genius in poetry or fiction, though novels abound. The scientific, historical and scholarly literature is of vast profusion. In thoroughness and tireless patience, Germany is the teacher of the world, while, in curious contrast to her practical genius, is the love of some of her scholars for baseless conjecture. The "insularity" with which the English are charged is a matter of reproach by French scholars against Germany. Some sets of ideas, long familiar in America, England and the Latin nations, are only now beginning to reach German classical scholars.

To write an account of the changes in French literature during the century is impossible within moderate space. The revolutionary and Napoleonic wars were unfavorable to the literary art, and the head of so great a poet as André Chenier fell under the guillotine. Till about 1825-1830 the Restoration was accompanied by literature in the old classic style of Boileau and of the Augustan age, only enlivened by the romantic if somewhat affected style of that great rhetorician, Châteaubriand. The year 1830 is the sacred year of French romanticism, drawing its ideals partly from the German romantic movement, partly from Scott and Shakespeare, read, of course, only in translations. Everything was now to be mediæval, Spanish and passionate; the drama was to be emancipated from Aristotle, also read in translations. As far as classicism went the young adventurers had no more Greek than Shakespeare or Scott. But they had the colossal and Titanic genius of Hugo, exquisitely sweet, rapid, strange and versatile, in lyric; potent, if inflated, in the drama and the novel. They had the charming humor and exquisite taste of Théophile Gautier; the feverish passion and mastery in verse of Alfred de Musset; the delicate, dreamy and wandering spirit of Gérard de Nerval; and the manly courageous, luxurious and unwearied vigor, in drama and in fiction, of Alexandre Dumas père. This was, indeed, an extraordinary generation, by far the greatest since that of Corneille, Racine and Molière. Many others might be named; the reserved force and insurpassable irony of Merimée; the learned and genial criticism of Sainte-Beuve; the inexhaustible talent of George Sand, and the mighty Balzac, the maker and founder of modern work of introspection. Probably of all these writers, Dumas and Balzac have exercised most influence on later fiction in England and America. Flaubert continued, with painful elaboration, the traditions of Balzac; from Flaubert, and round him, grew up Daudet and M. Zola, and the Goncourts. Poetry, after Lamartine, dwindled into the prettinesses of the Parnasse and the eccentricities, too obviously intentional, of Baudelaire, Verlaine and the Symbolistes. Literary art, at the end of the century, became too self-conscious, too fond of argument about ideals and methods, the tattle of the studio. Great men have not thus dissipated their energy; they have done what they could do; they have not talked about how they did it. What English literature was borrowed from France, at this time, is more in the nature of words than work. Criticism has been a *chimæra bombinans in vacuo*, chattering about realism, naturalism, symbolism, the use of documents and so forth. The defects, rather than the merits, of France have been imitated: a squalid pessimism is easily affected.

The closing century has seen Russia awake, as the close of the eighteenth century beheld the literary revival of Germany. Russian poetry has only reached the learned among us: the novels of Turguenieff, Dustoiefsky and Tolstoi are read in translation, with curiosity, antipathy, enthusiasm and an absence of that emotion. It is very long since Terentianus Maurus remarked that the fortunes of a book depended on the taste of the reader. Often he is favorably impressed, not by the actual merit of the story as a story or as a work of literary art, but by its appeal to his private sentiments, as of socialism, pessimism, torylsm, or whatever they may be. Possibly the vehement admirers of some Russian writers have been thus misguided. In any case, no qualified critic thinks that his opinion of works which he cannot read in the original language is of any value. For this reason I need not offend or please the reader by offering any uninstructed sentiments about the great Scandinavian dramatist, Dr. Ibsen; or concerning the work of Signor d'Annunzio, or the plays of M. Maeterlinck. To pronounce each of these gentlemen a Shakespeare or Æschylus is not unusual in cultivated circles; it remains for the new century to ratify or quash the verdict. In the meantime, have the approving critics taken the precaution of reading Æschylus and Shakespeare?

ANDREW LANG.

CAUSE OF THE TIDES.

The Theory That They Are Due to Attraction Is Now Opposed.

Many theories as to the cause of various phenomena have been demolished by the advance of science. It is only within the past few years, for example, that the belief in the efficacy of the Gulf Stream to moderate the climate of northwestern Europe has been practically supplanted by an explanation that seems more adequate. Just now the time-honored theory of the cause of tides is being assaulted. It remains to be seen whether the evidence in favor of the new theory is so well grounded as to relegate the old belief that the mutual attraction of the earth, moon and sun has the peculiar effect upon the sea which results in the tidal wave.

The opponents of the theory that tides are caused by attraction call attention to the work of the Challenger expedition in 1872. One of the main objects of this expedition was to solve the problem of ocean currents. The scientific world accepted its demonstration that the circulation of ocean currents is due to differences of temperature in the air which cause persistent atmospheric currents that drive along with them a part of the surface waters of the sea; and also to differences in the temperature of the ocean waters causing their movement and intermingling. The moon has no hand in this work. Neither, say the opponents of the tidal theory, is it the cause of the other circulation of the ocean known as the tides.

Mr. Alexander Brownlie, who sets forth the new theory of the tides in the *Bulletin* of the American Geographical Society, gives many reasons for discrediting the part assigned to the moon as a "tide lifter." Among them is the fact that the tide is instantaneous over many degrees of longitude, while the moon takes hours to travel the same distance. The new theorists rely upon gravitation to unlock the tidal mystery.

They say, as Prof. G. H. Darwin does in his book "The Tides," that the form of equilibrium can never be attained by the ocean. They assert that tide is due to different levels in contiguous masses of water, one mass standing at high level immediately contiguous to another at low level. It is well known, for example, that when tide is high in a vast area around the Bermudas, extending clear to our coasts, it is low in the waters of Greenland and the West Indies. The theory is that when the tide is high in this large Bermuda basin its higher waters must gravitate toward the contiguous lower waters. In like manner, when tide is high in the Greenland and West Indies basins, it is low in the Bermuda basin, and their high waters gravitate simultaneously toward Bermuda's low level; thus high levels and low levels on the ocean surface constantly succeed one another and the tidal phenomena are produced.

The theory of gravitation is thus arrayed against that of attraction as explaining tidal phenomena. It is well that this scientific controversy has arisen. Science grows by the knocking over as well as the setting up of theories. Truth is often evolved when opposing theories clash. Some men of science hold that the tidal problem is insoluble, but the present opposition to the old theory may possibly establish the cause of tides on grounds so convincing that there will no longer be room for divided opinion.

AND OUT JUMPED A MOUSE.

New Trick Invented by Street Arabs for the Confusion of Woman.

A young woman who is employed as a translator in one of the publishing houses was on her way the other afternoon to the Astor Library for a few hours' work. Near the corner of Eleventh street and Broadway she saw a small box on the sidewalk neatly wrapped in paper. She picked up the box looked around for a possible owner and saw two small boys in the middle of the street who were gazing at her with much interest.

"Did you drop this box?" she asked.

"No, madam," one of the boys replied, and the young woman walked on with the prize in her hand.

She turned down Broadway wondering what to do to restore the package to its owner. The small boys followed her and not a few other urchins joined them. They were evidently interested in the matter.

The young woman thought she would wait till she got to the library before opening the package, but finally curiosity overcame her and at the corner of Eighth street she removed the wrapper and lifted the cover of the pasteboard box.

Thereupon she was frightened nearly out of her wits by an ordinary brown mouse which leaped almost into her face and then went scurrying down the street with the crowd of small boys in full chase.

The young woman had hardly recovered her composure in the evening when she told the story at her boarding house.

"Those street Arabs put up that little game and I was the gullible victim," she said. "I never was so startled in my life. But I cannot be too thankful that I did not wait till I got to the Astor Library before opening the box. A cold shiver runs down my back when I think of the scene that would have ensued if I had let that mouse out to scurry along the tables in the reading room. My, I wonder if the library trustees would not have voted to exclude me forever from the premises!"

No Better Authority Is to Be Found on Fashion and the latest Matters of Interest to Women' than THE SUN and EVENING SUN.—*Adv.*

OUR TRADE WITH FRANCE,

HOW IT CAN BE INCREASED AT THE EXPENSE OF ENGLAND.

Time Now to Take Advantage of the Success of the American Exhibit of the Exposition—Reciprocity Treaty Would Relieve Our Manufacturers of a Handicap Now on Them.

PARIS, Feb. 22.—The Exposition last year naturally drew all eyes on France and French industries and art. Among the most numerous and successful foreign supporters of the Exposition were the Americans whose exhibits, by universal consent, were second to none. This verdict has been confirmed by the French Government and the Exposition authorities, the latter by the numerous grand prizes and other awards granted for excellence of manufacture, originality of design and execution, and the former by a more than profuse distribution of crosses of the Legion of Honor to individual Americans who were prominent in supporting the great international fair.

But it must be presumed that American manufacturers and merchants had a further object in view when incurring the heavy expense of transmitting to Paris for exhibition their productions and goods than merely obtaining a barren though honorable distinction. The main object of all exhibitors was to impress on the vast multitudes from all nations drawn to Paris by her show the greater excellence of their manufactures over those of their rivals, with the purpose of securing either entirely new markets for new inventions or of ousting from old markets inferior articles. Authorities have wrangled over the questions whether or not these international expositions repay for the labor and money they cost, whether, indeed, they do not do more harm than good by teaching the less inventive nations what their more go-ahead neighbors are doing, thus spurring them to increased activity and educating them at the expense of their rivals' brains and money.

It is unnecessary to discuss here the merits of this controversy, which will remain purely academical as far as France is concerned for the next ten years, for the Exposition has been held and the harm, if any, done beyond the power of reparation. But it is of the first importance to call attention to the advantages that must as a matter of course follow the fine display of American manufactures and merchandise for six months exhibited to the gaze of the world at Paris. While the memory of this display is still fresh in the minds of the French, and while the remembrance of the many international courtesies exchanged between the two countries is still green, is the time for pushing to the utmost all opportunities for securing a larger portion of the French markets than has yet fallen to the share of the United States. Last year American imports were somewhat over a half those from Great Britain. But the real difference in goods which both countries produce and in which both are therefore rivals is in fact much greater, for a very large portion of the American imports consisted of articles not produced by Great Britain, as, for instance, raw cotton, petroleum and tobacco.

Although it be true that sentiment does not enter into trade with most countries, it does to some extent with Frenchmen. Given an equally good article at the same cost, one an English and the other an American production, a patriotic Frenchman would straightway give his preference to the transatlantic article, as thereby he would to some extent be damaging perfidious Albion. An astute salesman should have no difficulty in winning over a wavering customer by laying stress on this point. Of course, the number of Frenchmen who are so foolish as to spoil their pocket to spite their hereditary foe is very limited, though probably even such advanced types of Anglophobia exist. We have all heard of the Irishman who burned every Bank of England note he could honestly come by, as thereby he thought he was inflicting a monetary loss on his hateful oppressor. But undoubtedly an advantage does lie with Americans in pushing their commercial way into France by the strong anti-English feeling existing here, more especially as England leads in those French markets which the United States could supply with equal ease. It is therefore advisable to note the fact here, and to leave the commercial traveller to draw what advantage he can from it.

Successful trade with Frenchmen is to a large extent dependent on a question of manners. For this reason an American salesman has much to learn here. Although, like the United States, France is a Republic, although her motto is "Liberty, Equality and Brotherhood," the breezy freedom of individual manners characteristic of the United States is a thing unknown here and is very apt to be mistaken either for impudence or lack of breeding. The French remain as courtly and effusively polite as when a King lived at Versailles. Their republicanism is all political, and even there its sincerity is open to suspicion. It in no way enters into their social and commercial relations. One enters a shop here as though it were a private drawing room, one salutes a shopman at his counter, a clerk behind his desk, with the same deference as an Englishman would have shown to the late Prince of Wales; a gentleman leaving his club, a Minister of State his bureau, invariably returns the salute of the footman in the ante-chamber or the hall by removing his hat; even schoolboys have been seen politely bowing to one another, and speaking of each other as "Monsieur Charles" and "Monsieur Jacques." Where this outward and superficial politeness is so general as to be practically universal, it may well be imagined that the easy come, easy go American commercial traveller greatly resembles the proverbial bull in the china shop. The agonized Frenchman whose tenderest feelings are being momentarily outraged has but one desire—to get rid of him as soon as possible.

By careful inquiry among many of the leading American firms here I find it is the custom among them not to employ American travellers, but Frenchmen. This is the very strongest evidence possible as to the importance of considering the buyer's peculiarities when it comes to a question of business. If Americans consider their own countrymen unqualified for a special branch of their peculiar business it may be taken for granted that their unfitness stands self-confessed. At the same time, however, it brings into prominence the importance of the part played by the commercial traveller in international commercial affairs and the necessity for thorough revision of his status and education when called upon to work outside his own country. As a rule, some regard is paid to the national views and characteristics of any particular nation to whom an Ambassador is sent in his selection. Washington would scarcely send to London an Ambassador of pronounced anti-English views nor to France a notorious Anglophile. How much more, therefore, should careful attention be paid in the selection of those men who are called upon to act in the commercial sphere of influence, a sphere which threatens to embrace, if it has not already done so, the political sphere. In England the commercial traveller is generally held up to ridicule for his pomposity and assumed air of gentility, good breeding and education. But, however much we may smile at his pretentiousness, we must admit he has been on the right tack. With a farsightedness for which he probably did not himself take credit, he realized the importance of the rôle he played in the life of the nation long before the more solidly educated of his countrymen awoke to the fact. To-day it is admitted by all classes that the most important personage in any country is the long reviled commercial traveller; time has brought him his revenge, for he has seen the haughty German Emperor not hesitate to assume his defence.

It is essential that a properly equipped commercial traveller should know the language and the customs of the country to which he is sent. Without this knowledge he is worse than useless, both to his firm and his country. He should, above all things carefully avoid mixing in political discussion, a thing easy to do in France.

The field for American commercial enterprise is largely restricted by the fact that the United States suffer under the most-favored nation's clause. Till the Reciprocity treaty receives the ratification of the United States and French legislatures the difficulties of a successful campaign are enormous. France now only buys from the States the things she cannot get elsewhere or that she cannot go without. When the treaty comes into operation, should it be ratified, then there will be a great boom. At present America can find an outlet for most of her surplus manufactures, but at the rate production is going on a day will come when the output will far exceed the consuming power of the now open markets, and it will become imperative to break down the artificial barriers raised between producers and would-be consumers.

As an indication of what America can do when allowed to compete against other countries in France on equal terms, I give the following letter, written yesterday by Mr. E. M. Green, the able secretary to the American Chamber of Commerce, in reply to some queries by the director in Paris of the Johnston Harvester Company:

"DEAR SIR: Referring to our conversation of this date, I take pleasure in informing you that the imports of American agricultural machines into France in the year 1899 amounted to 15,435,222 francs. The French customs duties on agricultural machinery are:

"General tariff, 15 francs per 100 kilos.

"Minimum tariff, 9 francs per 100 kilos.

"As the United States has no treaty of commerce with France, American goods pay the general tariff rates, while the most favored nations, by virtue of reciprocity agreements, enjoy the minimum tariff rates. The duties paid on these agricultural machines amounted to 2,315,283 francs, whereas under the minimum tariff rates they would have amounted to 1,350,320 francs.

"The imports into France in 1900 of machines and machinery of all kinds and from all sources were 141,475,000 francs, of which from England, 38,791,000 francs; United States, 36,005,000 francs; Germany, 35,605,000 francs; Belgium, 21,567,000 francs; Switzerland, 8,570,000 francs.

"The United States stands second on the list, notwithstanding that she is handicapped by a customs duty ranging 25 per cent. to 70 per cent. more than her rivals.

"This is indeed a splendid showing for American machinery. What would it be if we had a treaty of commerce and enjoyed the same advantages as our competitors?"

SECOND-HAND CLOTHING SIGNS.

Efforts of the Dealers to Mitigate the Facts to Their Customers.

"'Second-hand clothing,' is one way of putting it, and a common way," said a man accustomed to reading signs, "you see it in that form oftener than in any other.

"And then you come to the rather higher flying sign from which the word second-hand is eliminated, the clothing being here described as 'ready-to-wear.' But while that is a step up from 'second-hand,' yet there is a certain harshness about 'ready-to-wear' that leaves even that with something to be desired.

"The something, it seems to me, is attained in a sign I have just seen, which reads 'Fine discarded clothing bought and sold.'

"Now, there's a sign that, it seems to me, shows thought and sense and shrewdness."

The Message of Spring

Health to the broken-down
Strength to the weak
Sleep to the sleepless
Energy to the wornout
Elasticity to the nerves
Pure blood

The practical, helpful message which puts new heart into every ailing man or woman in the message of health brought by the world's greatest medicine.

DR. GREENE'S NERVURA
BLOOD AND NERVE REMEDY
Rebuilds, Sustains, Cures.

Nearly everybody needs toning up in the Spring, but to those who are weak and exhausted by disease this is a specially trying time. It is now you feel the burdens of life as never before. All your weakest spots are attacked and nature is not strong enough to pull along unaided.

Mrs. C. D. Smith, Waitsfield, Vt., says:
"I have been for a long time feeble, my nerves being very weak. Many times when I awoke in the morning, I could not control myself in the least and my nervousness found vent in a long spell of weeping. It was 12 years ago that I was taken with this nervous trouble, and I have suffered much. I have employed many doctors with varying results. I can truthfully say that I have been greatly benefited by Dr. Greene's Nervura blood and nerve remedy, and since I have used Nervura my nerves have been calm and quiet, my general health has been better. I think the medicine is an excellent one and I gladly recommend it to others."

Dr. Greene's NERVURA Blood and Nerve Remedy is the Help You Need.

Mrs D. O. Parnald, of Manchester, N. H., Writes:
"I have used Dr. Greene's Nervura blood and nerve remedy for nervousness. Loss of sleep and appetite were the principle ill effects caused by my condition. The ringing of a bell or any sudden sound, no matter if trifling, would cause me to start and it would greatly affect my nerves. Seeing in the paper how valuable Dr. Greene's Nervura was, I began taking it, and the result was very satisfactory. I took four bottles and I can sleep beautifully and my appetite has returned. I feel so much better that I have now stopped taking the Nervura."

FREE ADVICE FOR YOU.

Simple, but marvelous is the work of Dr. Greene's great medicine, and its successes are due to the harmonious fitting in of its elements with nature's own forces. Dr. Greene's advice is to be had without cost by all who call at his office, 35 W. 14th St., New York City, or who write to him through the mail. The laws of health are explained by Dr. Greene easily, and his advice and treatment are absolutely certain help.

PHILIPPINE SICK LIST.

REPORT OF THE CHIEF SURGEON ON OUR SOLDIERS' HEALTH THERE.

Col. Greenleaf Tells of a Reduced Death Rate, and Explains What Further Changes May Be Expected All Depends on Improved Sanitation Work of the Medical Staff.

The annual report of Col. Charles R. Greenleaf, Assistant Surgeon-General, U. S. A., Chief Surgeon of the Division of the Philippines, which was published as an appendix to the report of Gen. MacArthur, Military Governor of the Philippine Islands, has just appeared in a separate form, and sets forth facts which should interest laymen as well as medical men. Col. Greenleaf reported for duty rather more than a year ago, and his report begins where that of his predecessor, Lieut.-Col. Woodruff, ended, and covers the seven months ending July 31, 1900.

The medical situation changed very considerably in that time. This was due to the withdrawal of the army largely from field service and its settlement in garrisons, which extend to the extreme limits of the islands. In January, 1900, there were 122 garrisons, while in August, when the report was actually written, there were more than 400 posts. As each garrison required a separate and complete medical outfit and the services of a surgeon, it is evident that the necessary expansion of the medical department was greatly disproportionate to the numerical increase of troops. This change decreased the size of the sick report, but, on the other hand, prevented any concentration of energies and made the medical staff, which would have been ample for a mobilized army, wholly inadequate to meet the demands of the scattered army.

Previous to January, 1900, the ratio of non-effectives to the whole strength ranged from 9 per cent. to about 12 per cent.; since then it has decreased, the maximum being 9.02 per cent. in April, 1900, and the minimum 7.09 per cent. in February, the average was 8.84. These figures embraced the sickliest part of the year, the spring months, and Col. Greenleaf looked hopefully to a still further decrease. He calls attention to the fact that the smallest percentage was in February, when was the period of greatest military activity—Gen. Schwan's campaign in southern Luzon and Gen. McArthur's "hikings" after ladrones in northern Luzon.

Col. Greenleaf estimates that nearly one half of the non-effective force suffered from disease preventable by improved sanitation, and bases his hopes for improvement on the belief that that improvement will follow. He says, however, that a large decrease must not be looked for, because the effect of all illness in the tropics is cumulative, each illness great or small, adding to the total until the patients become disabled. "Apparently the only disease from which recovery may be expected by residence at any of the sanitary points of the islands is malaria, but even after such recovery reinfection or infection with other diseases may follow, and in many instances the man is a frequenter of hospitals until he is disposed of by being invalided home." Rheumatism is practically incurable in the islands, as are intestinal diseases; certain diseases, "which figure so prominently in the statistics of English armies in the tropics add but a relatively small proportion to the total sick." Smallpox, as a result of thorough vaccination, has been almost eradicated from both the army and the natives.

A diminution of the death list Col. Greenleaf does not expect. The number of men killed in action, he thinks, will not diminish; but improved sanitation will reduce the sick list, though the non-preventable diseases will constantly become more severe in type. Evidently the remedy lies, though Col. Greenleaf does not say so, in a constant and systematized rotation of regiments.

The average strength of the army during the period covered by the report was approximately 2,546 officers and 61,408 men; of these 1.66 per cent. of the officers and .96 per cent. of the men have been wounded, and .311 per cent of officers and .405 per cent. of the men have been killed in action. Dysentery came next to gunshot injuries, with .2 per cent. of the entire command, typhoid fever caused less than one-half as many deaths as dysentery. Col. Greenleaf reiterates the statement that to improved sanitation must be looked to as the chief means of reducing the death and sick lists, and dwells at some length on the system of inspection adopted and its results. The surgical and quartermaster's departments are working together along the line indicated by experience with good results.

The war has impoverished the native population, and has also drawn all the native medical men into the Filipino army, leaving practically no one to attend to the needs of the natives. Our own medical department has therefore been obliged to assume the care of many of them and of their towns, to furnish drugs and dressings and to provide medical attendance. To do this properly a system of medical charity has been adopted, and thousands of Filipinos have been cared for. The vaccination of natives has been conducted on a large scale, especially in northern Luzon, where upwards of 107,000 persons had been vaccinated up to July 31 last, with the result that smallpox is no longer a serious menace anywhere except in those regions where it has been impossible to take precautionary measures. The subject of leprosy has also been considered, and steps are to be taken to form an isolation colony, like that of Molokai in the Hawaiian Islands.

On the subject of rations, Col. Greenleaf remarks: "It has been alleged that the soldier in the tropics should be fed somewhat after the manner of the natives, largely on rice and other cereals and starchy foods, and the quantity of his meat diminished. However sound these views may be as scientific theories, they are not supported by the results of practical experience. The soldier craves and gets, in one way if not in another, the food he has been accustomed to eat at home, and he eats it freely, he wants his meat twice or thrice a day, and he eats bacon or uses it in his cooking whenever he can get it. The soldier will not use rice either as a staple or as an accessory to his diet. He has a strong desire for sugar, and the addition of candy to the sales stores has been a great blessing to him. * * * It does not appear after careful observation that the food furnished by the present ration produces sickness either by its variety, character or quality, provided it is properly cooked and eaten in moderation."

There are sixteen military hospitals in the Philippines, with 3,417 beds and regimental hospitals with from four to sixty beds each in the hospital of the Thirteenth Infantry at the time of writing, but the beds so that the total of beds was considerably more than 5,000 in case of emergency this number could be increased by one-third. The insane, whose number has attracted some comment, are said by Col. Greenleaf to be rendered sick largely by nostalgia, or homesickness. This is due to the isolation of the troops in garrison, their lack of knowledge of the language, their enforced confinement to the towns they garrison, and the constant nervous strain incident to continued preparation against attack. The result is a mental condition called "nostalgia" for want of a better name, which is often cured completely by the journey to the United States.

When Col. Greenleaf wrote there were 332 medical officers on the islands, of whom 101 were on what may be called staff duty, serving at the military hospitals on transports, &c., leaving 229 to supply more than 400 posts. The Colonel disapproves of the system of contract surgeons as unjust to the department as well as to the surgeons. The latter are engaged for one year only, and may demand their release from duty as soon as the year is up; they are not legally officers, and cannot be reached by army law. One such surgeon deserted, and there was no law by which he could be brought back and compelled to perform his duties, of course, his contract was terminated, but that was all that could be done to him. Col. Greenleaf thinks that contract surgeons should be commissioned as volunteers to serve until they are no longer needed; then they would be amenable to military discipline and have tangible rank. (This suggestion has been adopted and provided for in the new Army bill.) The work done by the hospital corps receives the highest praise from Col. Greenleaf. In 120 posts the men of the corps have had to perform the duties of medical officers, and in all engagements they have been conspicuous at the front, aiding the wounded and performing their duties fearlessly. In naming those medical officers and hospital corps men who have performed especially good work Col. Greenleaf writes this paragraph: "When volunteers were asked for from Hospital No. 3 to nurse a case of bubonic plague every member of the hospital corps presented his name." Col. Greenleaf notes further: "Miss Rose A. Tweed volunteered to nurse and care for a virulent case of smallpox at Dagupan." He gives a long list of medical officers and men some of whom performed excellent administrative work, but most of whom distinguished themselves in the field, and names four surgical officers who died, one of them killed in action, Acting Assistant Surgeon Hulseberg, recently arrived.

Talked Like an Auctioneer.

From the Philadelphia Evening Telegraph.

City Recorder Nowrey was absent from Camden to-day, and designated Alderman Charles M. Baldwin to conduct the morning's hearings in the Police Court. Four cases comprised the business of the court. When the quartet was brought into the court room John Truax, one of the prisoners, was puffing vigorously on a clay pipe.

"Put that pipe down!" exclaimed Squire Baldwin, in stentorian tones.

Truax readily complied and then took his place in the prisoners' box.

Policeman Anderson, who arrested Truax, testified that he picked the prisoner up at 4 o'clock this morning, on Haddon avenue. Truax admitted that he was drunk, but did not think his condition warranted his arrest.

"I'll give you ten days," said acting Recorder Baldwin.

"All right," said Truax, walking out of the dock.

"Make it fifteen!" exclaimed the Magistrate, getting red in his face.

"Thank you for the increase," sarcastically returned the prisoner.

"Make it twenty!" yelled the Magistrate, rising in his chair.

"He must be an auctioneer," said Truax but, fortunately for him, this remark was not heard by the Squire.

How Lithuanians Play Dice.

From the Baltimore Sun.

A peculiar dice game is indulged in by the gambling element of Lithuanians in Baltimore.

Gathering about the dice tables in the saloons kept by their fellow countrymen they quickly lose all interest in everything outside of that which is transpiring upon the cloth before them. As they sit or stand about the tables the earnest features of old men contrast strongly with the ruddy faces of the youths. The eagerness with which the players seek the numbers upon the falling pieces is wolfish in its intensity. Comparatively small sums are placed upon the game and side bets run from five cents to a dollar.

Although resembling in the manner in which it is operated the high dice game, as played by the Anglo-Saxon races, the dice of the Lithuanians, instead of numbering from one to six, run from one to ten, the numbering of the six sides being 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 10. The game is played with four pieces and a possible forty is the point striven for instead of twenty-four, which is high mark in the similar American game.

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