

SOME NEW BOOKS.

In Queen Elizabeth's Time.

It is a pleasure to come upon such an account as this of a well-arranged, so to speak, in its details, and effective in its conclusions, so satisfying in many particulars, as Mr. HENRY THOMAS STAPLETON, associate professor of English in Indiana University, has afforded in *The Elizabethan People* (Henry Holt and Company). We may indicate a little of what this excellent book contains.

It is curious to think that in Elizabeth's time the population of England numbered only about 3,000,000. The State of New York to-day could furnish out a much more populous nation. At that earlier period some alarm was felt because the population of the towns was found to be diminishing. This did not mean, however, that the whole of the inhabitants of England was becoming less. It meant merely a shifting of the people from town to country. For this there were two causes in particular: the roads, bad as they still were, had been greatly improved and under the rule of the Tudors there had come to be much more settled and safer conditions throughout the land. It was no longer necessary for people to herd themselves in walled towns in order to be secure.

Though conditions were improved, it is plain that they remained bad enough. The Queen in making her "progress" was a good deal troubled about the state of the country. The French Ambassador of the time, who was suffering in consequence of having been knocked about in a coach which had been driven a little too fast a few days before. Coaches were first introduced into England in her time. Taylor the Water Poet has recorded: "In the year 1561 one William Boon, a Dutchman, brought first the use of coaches hither, and the said Boon was Queen Elizabeth's coachman; for indeed a coach was a strange monster in those days, and the sight of it put both horse and man into amazement; some said a great crash should be wrought out of China, and some imagined it to be one of the pagan temples, in which the cannibals adored the devil; but at last these doubts were cleared and coachmaking became a substantial trade." The roads often were little better than unenclosed tracks, rutted and muddy and full of holes, and the Queen sometimes in her springiness and jouncing coach and accompanied by a great train of dignitaries and baggage could move not more than a dozen miles a day. The rights along the way must occasionally have been unpleasant. Taylor the Water Poet says: "Just before coming to Sittingbourne you will see a robber hanging on a tree; he tranquilly killed a messenger sent from the Elector Palatine to the King of England; the body is surrounded by chains and rings that it would be likely to last a long time." In London itself the streets were poorly paved; mud paved as all. The Strand was a lane of mud. Because the streets were so bad the river was a great avenue of travel. It was crystal clear in those days. Spencer called it "silver streaming." Barnfield spoke of it as "the silver stream," and in 1588, when a writer of the time remarked that "that lady of fresh waters," it nourished beds of beautiful water flowers and flocks of snow white swans. It has changed greatly in 400 years.

There is a chapter dealing with Stratford-Upon-Avon, Shakespeare's birthplace, affording illustration of life in a country town of Elizabeth's time. In the course of this we read of one place: "One inside of a smaller Elizabethan house one found few were rare till toward the end of Elizabeth's reign. The fire was built upon the floor, often on the bay, and the smoke found its deliberate way out of a hole in the wall or roof. Frequently the latter story was not partitioned off, the single room or hall serving as kitchen, dining room and general living room. The second story contained the sleeping rooms, or perhaps the sleeping room for it, like the floor below, was sometimes unpartitioned. The furniture of such a house as that in which Shakespeare was born was indeed meagre.

Though the river Thames was clean in those days it furnished no model for the "habitations of the town." Cleanliness was unknown in the Elizabethan house, whether great or small. The most pretentious palace boasted nothing better as a covering for the floor than a layer of rushes. It is true that the worst carpet often occurred in the old writings, but it mainly meant a tablecloth. In the smaller houses of such a town as Stratford-Upon-Avon, even rushes were dispensed with. The floor of the hall was the bare earth, sometimes sprinkled with sand, but seldom swept or cleaned. Water was plentiful but not in demand. Woodwork was hardly ever scrubbed and water upon the floor was regarded as a disgrace. We hear very little of baths, but much of dirty fingers, un-kempt hair and general neglect of personal cleanliness. It was customary to refuse to be shaved. When it became too foul it was swept out of the front door into the gutter or left in a pig stable against the house wall. Shakespeare's father was fined for such a nuisance. The fifth and the thirteenth chapters exposed Stratford to the two dangers of disease and fire. The plague came to it with great regularity every ten or only five years. The first epidemic in Stratford was swept off by the plague in the summer of 1544. The town suffered frequently from fire and was nearly destroyed on several occasions.

There were sharp fellows in London in Elizabeth's time. The small traders were not to be trusted. Frequently in the play of the period mention is made of "false lights." The expression has reference to the common practice of so placing or veiling the windows and other sources of light in shops as to cause them to serve only very meagrely their natural purpose. With little light the poor quality of the goods could not easily be detected, and the false light was equivalent to little light. Thus Shakespeare's "Women Beware Women" is to be read.

It is interesting to note that in a high farthingale to like the bygone of a great penthouse. What with double of one and the false lights of the other.

And Drake, in "Westward Ho!" observes that the shop of a mercer or draper is as dark as a room in Bedlam.

The latter shop of the time was particularly interesting and probably more homelike. It was a great place for gossiping. The young dandy came to the barber shop to be trimmed and shaved, but more particularly to be enjoyed a social hour. There were, we believe, no illustrated weekly journals of mirth in those days, but while awaiting his turn the customer could have if he pleased a musical instrument to play upon—usually a lute or a lute, which was furnished by the shop. It was expected of the barber himself that he should be a competent performer in instrumental music. This in one of the plays a character inquires: "Have you any skill in song or instrument?"

and the reply is made: "As a gentleman should have, I know all, but play on should have. I am no barber." It is well known that the barber at that time was a philosopher. He pulled the hair, shaved in Shakespeare's "Measure for Measure" the forfeit in a barber's shop." The editors of Shakespeare used to make out that this meant a number of things, but it seems now to be pretty well settled that it means the teeth which suffers had yielded up or forfeited to the barber and which the barber had strung together, as beads or horse chestnuts are strung, and hung up in his place for an ornament and a sign.

When Elizabeth was Queen tobacco had newly come to England. It was usually sold in the apothecary's shop, and it was considered by some to be an excellent remedy for certain deep-seated diseases. Harrison in his "Chronology" wrote: "In these days the taking of the Indian herb called tobacco, by an instrument formed like a little ladle, whereby it passeth from the mouth into the head and stomach, is greatly taken up and used in England against Rheumes and some other diseases ingendered in the lungs and inward parts, and not without effect. This herb as yet is not so common but that for want thereof divers do practice for the like purpose with the Nicotian or the yellow hennane, albeit not without great error; for although that herb be a sovereign healer of colds, coughs and sores reported incurable outwardly, yet is not the smoke or vapour thereof so profitable to be received." Though many thought well of tobacco there were more who prophesied it. King James in his "Counterblast" called the smoking of tobacco a "custom loathsome to the eye, hateful to the nose, harmful to the brain, dangerous to the lungs, and in the black stinking fumes thereof nearest resembling the horrible Stigian smoke of the pit that is bottomless." In the plays to the weed was very harshly treated, as, for instance, in Jonson's "Bartholomew Fair," where Overdo made a speech. Hence it is that the lungs of the tobacco-smoker are not the liver spotted, the brain smoked like the back side of the pig woman's booth here, and the whole body within black as her pan you saw e'en now without."

There were more things than tobacco smoking that the moralists of the day felt themselves called upon to censure. Alchemy, astrology and palmistry were then at their high tide. Lured for the superstitious and traps for the unwary were all about. One indignant pamphleteer fired hot shot at the "conjurers" or "enchanters" of the time. "I shall be content," he wrote, "to see how these famous conjurers ascend by degrees to tell secrets as they do? First and foremost they are men that have had some little sprinkling of grammar learning in their youth, or at least I will allow them to have been surgeons' or apothecaries' apprentices; these, I say, having run through their thrift at the elbows and riotously among harlots and make-shifts spent the annuity of halfpenny ale that was left them, fall a beating their brains how to botech up an easy gainful trade and set a new nap on an old occupation. Hereupon present in their rakesome dinghills for a few dirty boxes and plasters, and roasted cheese and candles, temper up a few ornaments and scrips, which having done, far north or into some such rude simple country they get them and set up. Thus is the way the pamphlet begins, and as we go on with what is given of it here we find it difficult to believe that the quacks or "conjurers" could have survived the blast.

The book considers many of the fancies and sins that were practised in the London of that time. It is interesting chapters on amusements in general, on rural sports on the celebration of the coronation of Shrove Tuesday and other days of the calendar, on the love of spectacles, on popular superstition, on fairs and wittes, on domestic life, on dress and on matters besides. In the chapter on indoor amusements we find a consideration of kissing, which was in Elizabeth's time a form of salutation as common as hand-shaking is to-day. Said a French lady addressing Cavendish, as he himself relates: "For as much as ye be an Englishman, whose custom it is in your country to kiss all ladies and gentlewomen without offense, and though it be not so much in vogue as it was in old times, yet has ye and so shall all my maidens." The German Samuel Kieselbach, writing in 1580, recorded: "Item, when a foreigner or an inhabitant goes to a citizen's house on business or is invited as a guest, and having entered therein he is received by the master of the house, the lady or the daughter, and by them welcomed (with many kisses) as it is termed in their language. He has even a right to take them by the arm and to kiss them on the cheek, and this is the custom of the country, and if any one does not do it is regarded as a disgrace, and is accounted as if he were in his part; the same custom is also observed in the Netherlands." And the playful Erasmus in 1590 wrote a letter from England to his friend Fausto Andreini, an Italian poet, exhorting him to think no more of his gout, but to come to England. Said Erasmus by way of persuasion: "Here are girls with angels' faces so kind and obliging that you would far prefer them to all your Muses. Besides, there is a custom here never to be sufficiently commended. Whenever you come you are received with a kiss by all your friends, and you leave as dismissed with kisses; you return, kisses are repeated. They come to visit you, kisses again; they leave you, kisses all round. Should they meet you anywhere, kisses in abundance; in fine, wherever you move there is nothing but kissing."

An instructive and engaging book. It is admirably accomplished.

The Late Vice-President Hobart.

That sort of ability which distinguishes the successful "man of affairs" is common enough in this country. It is a more sordid and narrow side of a man's character that repels the imagination. In the nobler plane of operation, in which is discerned the easy adjustment of power equal to each higher opportunity, alike in the masterfulness and quality of its resources, it imposes respect. A career connoting the finest blending of elements which compose this type is vividly illustrated in the Rev. DR. DAVID MAGIE'S *Life of Garret Augustus Hobart, Twenty-fourth Vice-President of the United States* (P. P. Putnam's Company). Scarcely less than half his life Mr. Hobart gave to a dignity, strength and influence which few of his predecessors had been able to wield.

Garret Augustus Hobart was born at Long Branch, N. J., on June 3, 1814. On the father's side his ancestors were well known in Puritan record and the maternal strain was mingled of Dutch and French Huguenot stock. He entered the sophomore class of Rutgers College in 1830 and was graduated among the leaders of his class in 1835. After a year of school-teaching he entered the study of law at Paterson with the intimate friend of

his father, the late Socrates Tuttle, one of the best known members of the New Jersey bar, whose daughter he afterwards married. Attorney in 1838, counselor in 1871, master in chancery in 1872, he was a man of deep study and practice did not prevent technical executive experience in the First National Bank of Paterson. This early bent of experience perhaps was the initiative of that direction which his legal work was destined to take by making him a consummate master of business detail, and the industrial interests of the Paterson environment cooperated by offering his mind many practical problems to solve as the confidence of the community in him was increased by his evidence of such capacity. Mr. Hobart from the outset evinced but little taste for the controversies of the court room. His lucid and lucid exposition of what must be said, he shrank from that side of professional work. His potency was that of advisory and organizing insight into business affairs, and these were multiplying on a great scale as the larger industrial needs of east New Jersey made necessary the development of its resources and transportation.

In the course of little more than twenty years Mr. Hobart's talent for organization and his legal ability and mastery of technical detail associated him with sixty or so different companies as president, counsel or director, many of them of great public importance. To an activity so multifarious the universal trust in the man's probity, the knowledge that his ideal was constructive and not destructive, the confidence that he looked rather to the evolution of great beneficial enterprises than to the prospect of mere personal gain, inevitable as the latter became, contributed quite as much to his executive genius. It was characteristic of him, as his biographer puts it, that "even in his most laborious days he never appeared overworked or overburdened with his cases," indicating how easily his supple strength responded to need. One of his last great business functions prior to the campaign of 1892 was his service as one of the three arbitrators on questions referred by the Joint Traffic Railroad Association.

Mr. Hobart was wont to say: "I am a business man; I engage in politics for recreation." He certainly made that "recreation" effective. At different times he was elected to the State Assembly and Senate, made himself a dominant factor in each, and was Speaker of the former. It was said that "the political machinery never ran more smoothly or creditably." He was not a politician in the sense that he was not distinctly visible, but every jobber in legislation knew that it was on the "throne." Twice he could have secured the United States Senatorship, a place which he greatly coveted, but locally to his political friends prevented. He had served in the State and national campaign committees and was delegate at large to every national Republican convention from 1876 to 1892. His sagacity, his trained sagacity, his knowledge and management of men, the temperance which made him persona grata even to his opponents and the bonhomie which masked clearness of vision and keenness of purpose, had made him in the most astute political manager in the State.

The New Jersey delegation to the St. Louis convention in 1892 saw the flag of Garret Augustus Hobart for the Vice-Presidency. He was the logical candidate of his State. More than any other man he had conciliated and consolidated its party factions. He had been leader in turning its tide against Democratic traditions. His was a mild robust in conviction, stance in mind; and a born leader, he knew "how" as well as "what" in the tactics of battle.

From the opening of the convention it was plain that McKinley and Hobart were the candidates. The only doctrine in the platform which counted were the tariff and free coinage questions. Of the latter the Republican definition was not a very bold declaration for "gold," yet it caused the accession of a hundred dissidents. Mr. McKinley was known to be irresolute as to making the issue paramount. Even the defiant trumpet from the Democratic convention and the Bryan bombshell did not immediately harden this timidity. Perhaps Mr. Hobart's prompt and resolute commitment to the gold standard issue was the reason. McKinley's own weakness in his own and adjoining States were marked by a businesslike directness and lucidity more incisive than eloquence. It was characteristic of the New Jersey candidate that the persistent keynote of his campaign logic was in such a paragraph as this, among the many quoted by Dr. Magie: "When a premium of 47 cents is offered on every 53 cents of silver held by the mine owners it can only be done at the expense of every man who has part or lot or share in the country's industry and wealth. It is the inexorable law of supply and demand which is hammered into the public skull."

During the campaign the two Republican candidates formed a friendship which ripened subsequent to inauguration into a political and social intimacy rare in the relations of President and Vice-President. Few political friendships have been more genuine, and it soon became an open secret that Vice-President Hobart belonged to the unacknowledged camera, not less potent than the Cabinet council. From the outset the president of the Senate was the man of affairs in the operation of his function. His inaugural address emphasized the need of facilitating business in the most powerful and self-sufficient legislative body in the world, where under the name of Senatorial courtesy the right of unlimited debate had run riot. "To obstruct the regular course of wise and prudent legislation after the fullest and freest discussion is neither consistent with true Senatorial courtesy, conducive to the welfare of the people nor in compliance with just expectations." These and similar words of the President's inaugural address were to him who was on the eve of succeeding: "That was an excellent speech delivered in the sweetest voice I have heard for many a month."

The "suaviter in modo" thus hinted at did not effect overt reform in the procedure of the Senate, but it made Vice-President Hobart the object of the most cordial esteem and liking. His methods were successful in clearing the calendar to an unprecedented extent. He soon made himself an unexpressed adept in parliamentary law. It was the idiosyncrasy of the man to know everything which he undertook to know as every thing which he undertook for the Senate was so strong that Benjamin Franklin's humorous title, "his Most Superfluous Highness," lost the point of satire. This was illustrated in Mr. Hobart's relation with the Spanish imbroglio. The story is told by Dr. Magie. The President's temperament made him exceedingly unwilling to accept the final of war in spite of the fierce ebullition in

and out of Congress. Vice-President Hobart, loyal to his chief, had curbed the restless Senate, even after the Maine had been sunk with an iron bolt. Finally he went to the White House and elucidated the necessity: "Mr. President, I can no longer hold back action by the Senate. They will act without you if you don't act at once." Next day came the war message. Occasions for direct part in legislation were not often vouchsafed. One of these, the tie on the "Bacon amendment," enabled the Vice-President to negative a policy which would have changed radically our whole Philippine relations.

Falling health was followed in due course by death from heart disease on November 21, 1892. It brought a shock to the country, which had begun to appraise the potential value of a man who had been assistant to the President as well as Vice-President. A heroic bronze statue in Paterson commemorates the homage of city and State. The sixth in his position to die in harness, Garret A. Hobart was the third Jerseyman who had been nominated for the office, the others having been Frelinghuysen in 1844 and Dayton in 1854. That Vice-President Hobart fully counted on renomination we are told by Dr. Magie. Such an anticipation was warranted by the deep respect on public opinion throughout the nation. Had he been spared for that renomination the sequence perhaps would have presented a different chapter in our history. What Vice-President Hobart might have developed in constructive statesmanship had he become President we can only conjecture. That it would not have been what is sometimes named Rooseveltian is certain. Dr. Magie has given us a sympathetic and competent memoir of a very salient personality whose death was a serious loss to public affairs.

Studies in Italian Art.

In *The Evolution of Italian Sculpture* (E. P. Dutton & Co.) Lord BALCARRES does precisely what he announces in his preface—"an attempt to deal with the whole basis of plastic art in Italy, recording the fundamental stages of progress and analyzing the methods, theories and ideals of the various schools of sculpture." This is a very ambitious programme, and a book of 300 pages hardly can be expected to cover it in detail. But the author in such a matter of his subject as to be able to give the maximum of facts in the minimum of space. Furthermore, he writes a swift, smooth prose, and being possessed by his theme the result is pleasant and instructive reading. For reasons which he sets forth plainly he begins with Benedetto Antelami, though in his introduction he deals with the tradition of imperial art, the decadence of Western art, Oriental influences, Byzantine iconoclasm, Ravenna and the characteristics of the barbarian invaders. In the chapter "Indigenous development of Italian Sculpture" he deals with the early Gothic and we read of the little known Antelami, of the Borgo San Domino, of thirteenth century facade, and the growing demands of sculpture. The status of the sculptor by 1300 was assured, the art had become a recognized vocation, the organization of guilds and corporations had laid down certain standards of work and fixed scales of remuneration.

With Nicolo Pisano, despite the obscurity of his early life, the student at last feels the earth beneath his feet. There he comes to the most interesting relation with the Gothic art of the thirteenth century. Balcarres admits this problem is well high insoluble. Some students believe that what is called Gothic art is of French importation, introduced by the Cistercians. While the term Gothic connotes pointed and perpendicular architecture, it still more suggests the Northern spirit. The pointed or ogival arch was unwisely adopted by Nicolo Pisano, but he was not altogether susceptible to those manifestations of Gothic art which we associate with Northern temperaments. Italian and we read of the most interesting individual. It was called a foreign, barbarous art, reminiscent of conquest and humiliation. It was the spirit rather than its outward forms which animated Italian artists for generations to come. Pisano, in spite of his antecedents and his affinities toward the Saracenic, was no longer retrospective. In the opinion of Balcarres Pisano's classical tastes were less marked with increasing years, and although it was his son Giovanni who created an enfranchised art, Nicolo was the pioneer who recreated the secure foundations upon which the new Renaissance of the fifteenth century was accomplished. We note the development of the bas relief, the lunette, the niche, the free-standing and the group, curvatures, the relation of sculpture to architecture, finish and emplacement, the tondo, decorated surfaces and the background, with an inquiry into the influence of goldsmiths.

An extended consideration of portraiture follows, its traditions, essentials; the portrait bust from the thirteenth to the sixteenth century; treatment of sculpture, honorific portraiture, the kneeling figure, seated and standing. The final estimate of that much abused artist Bernini. The section devoted to Michelangelo contains many gems of value. Gian Bologna also gets his due. The Bernini question interests us. This Neapolitan has been held up to scorn by generations of sculptors and critics, and it may be admitted that his influence has been often detestable. What the last of the giants did with incomparable ease his followers did not half accomplish; they only succeeded in imitating the master's occasional lapses from good sense or elegant frankness. Carved by him, Balcarres shrewdly remarks that the Italians who corresponded to the later portraits of Van Dyck were portrayed by Bernini. With him Italian sculpture had reached its social apogee. He outlived in his long career not less than nine pontificates, was rich, happy, admired. He was influenced by the counter reformation, and while he was addicted to generalization, this was much less marked than with Gian Bologna and his school. His portrait busts are more studied and precise; the personal note is observed with great intention; and although a cursory glance at his portraits, for instance that of Francesco d'Este at Modena, might cause it to be classed with earlier work, it will be found to be more specific. Two other busts at Modena mark the decadence, less perhaps of the sculptor than of the model. Those also represent Este princess, "dandies with no chin, without backs to their heads and with the noses of an eunuch."

But Bernini dealt with more vigorous types. His Cardinal Scipio Borghese, the cardinal's nephew, the Duke of Bracciano and some less authentic works (such as "The Nun" in the palace of Mantua) are admirable, direct, forcible and true. These qualities were less cultivated in the papal forms, where Bernini allowed himself a freer hand in order to bring the memorial figure into harmony with the allegorical virtues and their informal setting. The pride of office demanded a scale

of magnificence which in turn enforced a generalized treatment of the departed. Bernini was called upon in his idealized types to evoke an imaginary portrait with majestic and awe inspiring presence; and he usually succeeded, though the equestrian portrait of Constantine is pronounced a failure by Balcarres, who, on the other hand, praises the portrait of the Empress Matilda in St. Peter's as embodying more successfully the ideal of posthumous portraiture than analogous work on the canvases of Guido Reni and the Bolognese painters. Some of Bernini's saints may be included in this category: Santa Bibbiana, Santa Ludovica Albertoni and Santa Francesca Romana.

Lord Balcarres declares that Bernini's genius was too robust and he was endowed with too much common sense to fall into excesses, but none the less he was living on the edge of a precipice when portraiture became inadequate and when sensationism and declamation replaced more abiding moods. We are grateful for this qualification by the author, because much of Bernini has seemed to us pompous and rhetorical or else turgidly extravagant. It was Nietzsche who called Wagner the "Bernini of music," and this inappropriate phrase has been applied inappropriately to the later work of Richard Strauss. The truth is that Bernini was a romantic before the officially accorded entrance of romanticism. (There were always romanticists since the birth of civilization and before.) Setting aside the series of tombs, it was in portraits that he excelled, and it is difficult to exaggerate his technical skill. Here we heartily concur with Balcarres. After Bernini have come others who outrival his dexterity, but few have ever matched his perfect mastery of material; few besides Bernini could give marble the look and texture of skin—he died 1680—or, it may be added, set up with such consummate ease a group. A master of many rhythms surely, and a brilliant figure of the Decadence.

Chapter IX, entitled "Baroque," the critic explains with clearness the meaning of the term. Originally a nickname, it has become a term of abuse like that innocent word "decadent," which in a literary sense merely means the predominance of the parts over the whole (in a composition); in modern parlance "baroque" means a work of art, be it sculpture, architecture or music, in which discordant elements are freely united, whose heterogeneous parts are combined into a whole which is at once trivial and pretentious. Balcarres, whose definition we quote, says that we are apt to misuse the word, much as Vasari and his contemporaries treated the word "Gothic" as a "condemning epithet of displeasure," and assures us that baroque sculpture is infinitely preferable to baroque painting. We are here chiefly concerned with its manifestations as seen in some work of Bernini. His relief of Santa Francesca Romana is "notable for exquisite handiwork," but still more as a study of hysteresis. Bernini had a perfectly intelligible task to portray the ecstasy of St. Theresa, and he has succeeded with unerring certitude. But what can be said of his sense of propriety? There are many ecstasies, and Bernini has chosen some which border on the most displeasing. "The whole thing is a tremendous paradox, perverted, mastery and inconsequent."

We have chosen to emphasize the treatment of Bernini in this important study by Lord Balcarres at the expense of its variety and continuity. This sculptor seldom receives discriminating criticism at the hands of many writers, hence our digression from the main current of the scheme. Anatomy and the nude, religious thought and its plastic embodiment, secular thought and secular form, are dealt with extensively by our author. There are those who would say that the Italian sculptors of note are analyzed—and, as in the case of Michelangelo, are viewed from many sides. There are 120 illustrations, admirable alike in selection and clearness. Lord Balcarres, while he has said nothing profoundly new of his subject, ought to win many readers. He is distinctly interesting, as well as sagacious.

The third and last volume of *A New History of Painting in Italy, From the Second to the Fifteenth Century*, by Croce & Castelfranco, edited by EDWARD HUTTON (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is published in two parts. The Florentine, Umbrian and Sienese schools of the fifteenth century, and while it sticks close to the text of the original is furnished with abundant notes, emendations and corrections by the editor. Whether this edition, admirably printed with 300 illustrations, will please those who prefer the earlier form of the three beloved classics, here combined as it is with errors, is largely a matter of personal taste. We confess that for purposes of reference Mr. Hutton's edition is invaluable, yet our sentiment goes to the older edition. The best way is to keep both sets on your book shelves, as you should own the early uncorrected Vasari or the confessions of Benvenuto Cellini—fascinating liars, both.

Three Books on Woman's Work.

The discussion of woman's sphere in general is so often accompanied by pronouncements upon her historical or economic right to engage in many vocations which are assumed to be the exclusive province of men that two new volumes on the subject are most timely and helpful. *Women in Industry*, by ETHEL ABBOTT, Ph. D., of Hull House, Chicago (D. Appleton and Company), and *Women and Trades*, by FRANCES BRACKENRIDGE (The Century Company), are commendable. They furnish a sure basis for argument and action, if action is possible.

Miss Abbott and Dr. Sophonisba P. Breckinridge of the University of Chicago, in their studies prompted by their posts in the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, came to see that while it might well seem academic and impractical at a time when so many questions concerning the working woman were pressing for immediate solution to deal only with her past, yet a truthful account of that past might throw some light on present day problems. Accordingly Miss Abbott has covered this field in American economic history. As Prof. Breckinridge says in her introductory note, women have worked, but they have not always worked for wages. Therefore the objections raised and difficulties encountered are due not to any novel industrial activity on the part of women but to the disturbance created by their participation in the bargaining function. For they have been, on the whole, poor bargainers. They have found great difficulty in adjusting themselves to the attitude of modern business. They have never accepted the ideal of giving as little and getting as much as they can. From this stems their inability to secure right conditions under which to do their work, to limit the amount and duration of their work as to maintain their own health and that of their children.

What Miss Abbott undertakes to investi-

gate is the history and statistics of the employment of women in America, especially of the professional woman and the woman commercially employed, who are almost exclusively characteristic of the present day, the woman in industry being older than the factory system itself. As late as 1885 the employment of women as clerks was unusual. But it is essential that a line of delimitation be drawn between questions concerning the employment of professional women and those relating to the employment of women in industry.

Our author begins her review with the Colonial period, and the survey is confined practically to New England, more especially to Massachusetts, since that is where cotton mills and shoe factories first arose. The provincial governments seem to have been unreasonably haunted by a fear that poor children would be lured to "live idly and mispend their time in loitering" unless legally compelled to industry. The laws of Massachusetts provided that poor girls and boys were to be bound out, in which case the boys were to be taught to read and write, the girls to read as they should prove capable, while both sexes were to be taught to spin, and be made to spin, knit or weave tape while tending the loom, lest Satan should find mischief for their idle hands. In short, the Colonial attitude toward women's work was of rigid insistence on their being employed and made self-supporting.

Next comes the period of transition and the establishment of the factory system, and Miss Abbott remarks that the tenement workers in the "sweetened trades" to-day are the direct descendants of the women who were employed in weaving to order or in making wool cards for the "manufactory" of the eighteenth century. By 1822 women were engaged in more than one hundred occupations instead of merely the seven to which Harriet Martineau, who is frequently misquoted, made casual allusion. One started in 1788 by a twelve-year-old girl. Another was the making of cigars, which began early in the nineteenth century as a by-employment for farmers' wives. By 1800 women were in 295 of the 303 employments enumerated by the census. As late as 1880 a weaver is uniformly referred to as "she" and a man weaver was held up to public ridicule for holding a "woman's job" at nearly as late a date. Another large industry in which women have held their places well is the manufacture of boots and shoes, but printing is not an encouraging field of endeavor, though they have been engaged in it since they started with typesetting early in the eighteenth century. The local unions admit women to full membership and try to secure everywhere the same scale of payment as for men by way of self-protection; but the women are handicapped by having no way to learn the trade properly, as although apprenticeships are nominally open to women no employer wants the trouble of a girl apprentice when he can get so many more "old jobs" out of a boy. They are not as efficient as the men and at present there is no direct path to efficiency open to them.

Miss Abbott makes an extended study of the problem of women's wages. She sets forth the historical data for a history of the subject in this country are not available, and it is doubtful if any will be discovered which will render possible a complete historical account. Numerous isolated items throughout the centuries are given, however, and here and there a humorous statement from the staid chroniclers crops up, such as one of 1710 from Philadelphia, where women's work was very dear, owing to the scarcity of workers, because "even the meanest single women marry well there, and being above want are above work." There are some statistics which bear upon the problem of wages and the facts available prove that for the most part women not only do the low paid, but the unskillful work, and are poorly paid, in part at least, because of their lack of skill and their inefficiency. As for the theory that women are a new element in industrial life, that they are doing "men's work" or that they have "driven out the men," it is unsupported by facts. In the cotton industry and the clothing trades men are now doing the work which was formerly for the most part done by women. Not only have women not entered a new field of employment in which they have no right but they generally encouraged the men to enter the occupation where they are not previously regarded as intruders. In earlier days no voice was lifted to remind them that woman's proper place was at home. Industrial employments were regarded as especially suited to women at a time when men did not regard such work as profitable enough for themselves. In those days the public moralist denounced woman for "eating the bread of idleness" when she did not hasten to answer the factory's call. Now the public moralist finds that her proper place is at home, and that the woman of the working classes still finds the world, so far as the possibilities of opportunity goes, very much as her great-grandmother left it. The book contains in appendices material dealing with "child labor in America before 1870," "the industrial employment of women," "tables of women's wages in the cotton mill," "early corporation rules and regulations" (amusing and amazing); a "list of occupations in which women were reported to be employed before 1800," and a valuable bibliography of books and magazine articles relating to the industrial employment of women in England and America.

Another important volume, "Women and the Trades," by Miss Butler (formerly secretary of the Consumers League of New Jersey), is the first of six projected in the Pittsburgh Survey and is issued by the Russell Sage Foundation. The editor, Mr. Paul C. Kellogg, director of the survey, evidently has not read Miss Abbott's volume or studied the historical side of woman's work in America himself, for he says in his preface concerning the women wage earners: "In an inclusive sense these women make up a new labor force such as employers of an earlier generation would not have hired, for they are not the instruments to use in economic production, nor would they have had social sanction for doing so." This analysis, no doubt, to the metal trades, where women are employed as makers of cores of the simpler works in foundries, mica splitters, makers of electrical apparatus, screws and bolts, tinware, hinges, cables and "openers" of sheets of hot steel; and perhaps, to a limited number of purely modern employments in addition.

From a national point of view, remarks Miss Butler, the trades of far reaching significance are those in which we find women moulding metal, shaping lamps and making the intricate and mechanical industries upon which is founded the city's wealth. Altogether 22,186 women wage earners, excluding agriculture and

professional workers and domestic servants, are employed in Pittsburgh, according to a careful census made during the winter of 1907-08. Yet one significant fact in the situation is the excess of male over female population, because the women of the later immigrant race, the Slavs and southern Europeans, are lagging behind; but the foreign women in immense numbers are among the workers, choosing or drifting into occupations in what may almost be designated as racial groups, as the Slavs, or "Hunkies," gather about the glassmaking and steel works, where quick fingers and strong, untrained arms are in demand. There are even secondary racial groups of women in some occupations. Thus the garment factories employ American and Jewish girls, while the Irish and German wives of the miners on the hills hold the subordinate places, the inferior work of the stogy factories falls to Slavic women; and the Italian girl, bound by homekeeping traditions, hardly figures at all.

These tastes, aptitudes, nervous strength or the lack of it, and a multitude of other factors, have been thoroughly studied by Miss Butler in 400 factories. She has entered into the most minute scrutiny of machinery and methods of operation, protection against danger, sanitary conditions, proper and improper conditions of factory wages, hours of work, possibilities of lodging and nourishment on the money earned, length of the working girl's active "life" in various occupations, and the principles on which different manufacturers conduct their establishments. Some manufacturers, she finds, have discovered that it does not pay to work girls overtime, even for extra pay, as their work on the following day is inferior, while in certain branches of the mining trades overtime seems to be practically unavoidable at special seasons of the year. One unpleasant trick on the part of certain manufacturers is to encourage a girl who shows great aptitude to increase her speed to the extreme limit, but as soon as she proves that it is possible to earn \$2 a day the employer lowers the piece price until it is impossible for her to make price until a \$1.50 a day or thereabouts even by increasing the tremendous output; and naturally all the less expert workers suffer even more than she does by way of the reward for earnest endeavor.

That the women in general do not care to devote years to acquiring a trade, since they look forward to marriage, she admits; but it is also true that they are not allowed to learn any trade as a man learns. Certain trades, however, there is no active competition between men and women in the more difficult branches of most trades. Miss Butler thinks that if trade training were general one reason for the present low wages of working women would be removed, and the advocates of equal pay for equal work would have more instances of equal work to show and could with justice demand for skilled workers what for unskilled workers they cannot. There are forty-two illustrations to show methods of manufacture—chiefly objectionable; and a well assorted bibliography follows, appended to which are tables of statistics and remarks upon the women's division of the Carnegie Technical School.

It is not necessary for us to review in detail the third book concerning working women, since it is merely a re-edition of ANNA STRESE RICHARDSON'S *The Girl Who Earns Her Own Living* (D. W. Dodge & Company). It has long since earned its right to be regarded as a text book for the American girls who graduate from grammar or high school and have to face the problem of self-support. The various available openings are lucidly set forth and the plainest kind of good advice is as to the possibility of advancement. Certain general principles which secure success is furnished in precisely the form which is likely to make an impression on the inexperienced and struggling young women for whom it is intended.

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WOULD ABOLISH LAGNIAPPE.

New Orleans Grocers Seek a Law Against a Survival of Slavery.

NEW ORLEANS, March 5.—The Retail Grocers Association of New Orleans has announced its intention to ask the Louisiana Legislature to abolish lagniappe, one of the oldest trade practices of Louisiana, and possibly the only surviving one dating from Spanish days, by making it a misdemeanor punishable with fine and imprisonment.

Lagniappe (lan-yap) is the Louisiana dialect for a flap, the gift, and is an early form of the gift enterprise, trading stamps, &c., by which the purchaser gets something in addition to his purchase. It dates from the sixteenth and half of two centuries, has cast iron rules and cuts a large figure in the trade and general life of the poorer classes, principally the negroes. The grocers and other retail dealers have vainly struggled for years to suppress it.

Lagniappe was an important adjunct to slavery and did much to brighten the life of the slave, and it is scarcely to be wondered at that the negro should cling to it to-day. The slave being unable to own property of any kind, had no money and no chance to purchase anything. Lagniappe was a means of getting candy, and the negro has a sweet tooth. The slave did not buy his man's market gave the lagniappe to the dealer who gave the most lagniappe, usually something sweet, such as biscuits, candies or gumdrops. The negro was obliged to spend his money on the lagniappe, usually steered the child to an establishment where the lagniappe was big.

Lagniappe has survived through the greater part of the century, against all manner of opposition. New and more scientific schemes of donation, trading stamps, &c., have been introduced only to fall before lagniappe.

The retailers took up the fight against what they deemed an abuse several years ago. They were thoroughly organized and very powerful, and they were able to convince the legislature that lagniappe. Given as it was for the very smallest purchase, it ate up all profit.

It was resolved, therefore, to abolish it,