

THE SIDON SARCOPHAGUS.

A Reproduction Acquired by the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

A Remarkable Copy of the Famous Tomb in Constantinople Painted by Joseph Lindon Smith. It Bids Fair to Outlast the Original.

BOSTON, July 6.—To possess the original of an important work of art is naturally one of the first ambitions of a great museum, but it is seldom, indeed, that in obtaining a reproduction it secures what is likely to become more valuable than the original itself. Such, however, is the case with the reproduction of the so-called Sidon sarcophagus, famous for its beautiful colored sculptures, which has been recently added to the department of classical antiquities at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. The prospective value of the acquisition lies in the fact that it is the only full-sized copy yet made of an original of the form which is fixed practically forever, but whose coloring, unless it proves an exception to a universal rule, is destined to fade away in spite of every precaution, while the coloring of the reproduction is almost certain to outlast it by many years.

Many persons will remember the excitement caused some fourteen years ago by the discovery, on the site of ancient Sidon, the Mediterranean capital of Phoenicia during the five centuries ending 1,100 years before the Christian era, of the so-called sarcophagus of Alexander—the very coffin, it was at first believed, which Alexander the Great had caused to be brought from Greece for his own interment. The discovery was of special importance to the world of art in that it not only represented Greek sculpture at nearly its best period, but had preserved also the original coloring with which, it is now generally believed by archaeologists, the Greeks were accustomed to complete their sculptured figures. In view of the known perishability of color upon marble, therefore, it is especially noteworthy that an American museum has the only exact copy, made in the size of the original, of so remarkable a work of art. It is said, indeed, that the original is now in the Museum at Constantinople, where, by the law of Turkey, every work of art discovered in the Turkish Empire becomes part of the collection of antiquities under the charge of O. Hamdy Bey, director of the Museum—is already fading noticeably, but it was only by special arrangement that the Boston Museum of Fine Arts obtained permission to make the copies recently added to its own department of antique sculpture.

Like many other discoveries in ancient art the finding of the Sidon sarcophagus was recalled in preference to the earlier title of the sarcophagus of Alexander, for whom, it appears, it was not intended, despite the fact that he figures in each of the six scenes with which it is sculptured—a matter of accident. It was due in this instance to excavations undertaken with the entirely utilitarian object of obtaining building stone from a bit of land surrounded by garden, but itself of poor soil and, as afterward developed, better fitted for an ancient necropolis, or bury ground, than for cultivation. The place was a necropolis, formerly Sidon, between Mount Lebanon and the sea, and the excavation opened up eight ancient burial chambers, all connected with one another and containing altogether sixteen sarcophagi; not, however, of the same period, but ranging from the earliest Egyptian form of these stone coffins, made of black stone and shaped roughly to a massive human bulk of which only the face was carved in detail, to the "great" sarcophagus which is now represented in the reproduction at the Museum of Fine Arts.

The tomb had been already violated, for the practice in vogue in past ages of burying various articles of value with the dead—necklaces, earrings, mirrors, carved figures, etc.—has proved time and again a temptation to these receptacles of history much earlier than the legitimate explorers. The Sidon sarcophagus, for example, had already been broken open in one corner, a sort of rake inserted, and jewels and other articles whose value cannot now even be guessed at, taken out and carried away. In fact, little remained but the shell of the sarcophagus. Fortunately, however, the pieces of sculpture ruthlessly clipped off during this act of vandalism had no value in the eyes of the destroyers, and it was possible, therefore, to restore the sarcophagus almost entirely. Some pieces, indeed, such as the heads of two figures, were not in the tomb at the time of the discovery, but for the most part the sculptures were intact, and, best of all, the color, so important a point in the long controversy concerning the actual place of color in Greek art, was not entirely missing. By reason of the fact, of course, that it had not been exposed, as it now must be in a public museum, to the light.

Since no cast can be made of the sarcophagus for fear of injury to the color, the commission for copying it was given to a painter, Mr. Joseph Lindon Smith, of this city, who is best known, perhaps, for his decoration of a lobby in the new Boston Public Library, and for his frieze on the exterior of the new Horticultural Hall in Philadelphia. More particularly, Mr. Smith was already well known not only for his appreciation of the Greek use of color as well as his skill in reproducing the delicate and difficult examples of it already obtainable—such as some of the fragmentary remains found in the Acropolis at Athens, in which, it may be noted, the pigments have all now much faded—but also for his part in a well remembered experimental restoration at the Museum of the original color scheme of two celebrated Greek statues long erroneously supposed to have been made without color.

His work was done in the summer of 1900, with the permission and approval of the Sultan, who was so much pleased with the results that he decorated the artist with the Turkish order of the Medjeddie. Mr. Smith's commission called for a copy of one side of the sarcophagus only, but he became so interested in the work that he made a copy of the corresponding relief on the other side, which on his return was purchased by the trustees of the Museum, while a happy afterthought led the management to carry the reproduction even further and give the canvas an environment exactly similar to that

of the original relief. So skillfully, indeed, has this been done that the beholder, entering the hall in which it stands seems at first glance to be approaching not a painting of a relief, but the relief itself.

With it is possible to mention in detail the various ways in which the coloring which is so vividly shown in Mr. Smith's reproduction, and thus, as has been explained, perpetuated indefinitely, throws light upon the whole subject of Attic sculpture, mention of a few points involved shows clearly the value of the sarcophagus as an addition to the world's collection of ancient art and the manner in which it has helped to disprove the theory that Greek plastic art was cold and lifeless, and that the Greeks were without feeling for the forms in the group generally supposed, for want of other explanation, to represent Alexander and Darius, the great contemporary Persian general, engaged in hunting, one sees that the saddle cloths and harness were put on in color without any indication of such accessories in the sculptured work—a fact which leads directly to the possibility that the horses ridden bareback, apparently, in the procession of youths in the famous Parthenon frieze, may have originally had saddles, breastplates, and other trappings; and which, indeed, is furthermore suggested by the presence, in many ancient reliefs, of sandals without straps, the explanation of which would now be that the straps were once pointed on the surface and that the action of time and weather has effaced them. Further examination of the reliefs in the museum shows that the use of color has rendered the textures of various kinds of cloth where in the sculpture alone there would have been only a plain and comparatively meaningless surface—inevitably suggesting the thought that so important a feature would hardly have been considered admissible in an isolated work but must have been justified by a widespread taste and practice.

The experiment, already mentioned, in which the Museum undertook to reconstruct, approximately, the coloring of two Greek statues—which had been supposed to be without color, was made in 1892, five years after the discovery of the Sidon sarcophagus. Mr. Edward Robinson, curator of classical antiquities at the Museum, and an excellent artist, put together, bit by bit, the many clues and perplexing clues which many had gathered from stray remains of color found now and then on ancient marbles; from the better preserved coloring of the Greek statues of terra cotta, in which the Museum is particularly rich, belonging to the fourth and third centuries B. C.; and from the more conclusive evidence of the great sarcophagus itself—of which small copies in color were available in published lithographs. From this evidence two plaster casts, one the Venus de Milo, from the Parthenon, and the other the great Hermes, of Praxiteles, discovered at Olympia, were carefully painted in various colors, with the result that reproductions were obtained which were probably more nearly like the "original" originals than have been seen since ancient art was ruined early in the Christian era. The experiment attracted general attention at the time, and was tried also at about the same time at the museums of Berlin and Chicago. But the experiment in Boston gains additional interest from the fact that it furnished such an excellent training for the accurate and intelligent copying of the Sidon sarcophagus, which now gives the student the best means this side of Constantinople for verifying the new theories of the archaeologist. So exact is the copy made through the glass case with which the Turkish authorities protect their great treasure and from which under no ordinary circumstances will it ever be removed, that when the time came to fit Mr. Smith's fresh canvas to the exact dimensions of the original there was found to be a difference of only a fraction of an inch.

To the average visitor this beautiful piece of sculpture, now at least 2,300 years old, appeals even more as a picture of the long-buried past than as a work of art. Of the six scenes depicted upon the original and so long hidden in the tomb near Sidon, the two largest were made the subject of reproduction, and the painting preserves not only the color but the effect of the high relief in which they are carved, the prominent figures seeming to stand out almost completely from the marble background. The two scenes are a battle between the Greeks and the Persians, and the hunting scene in which Alexander is supposed to be slaying a lion. Concerning the likeness of Alexander appearing in all the reliefs there is no doubt, for the figure on the tomb corresponds perfectly with all the authentic portraits. The supposed picture of Darius, however, which is also frequent, is an assumption without proof. Even if Alexander, as was at first supposed, imported from Greece this most beautiful of all known carvings, it is impossible that he should have so readily introduced it. It is believed, indeed, at the Museum of Fine Arts that Alexander had no part in the ordering of the sarcophagus, and that the reliefs which are merely the chance tribute of another to his greatness, and perhaps also to the fact that the real owner had gathered the reliefs, which were then mounted to, by a more or less intimate association with the conqueror.

MR. SMITH GOT HIS WHISKY.

Experience of a Lecturer in a Temperance Household.

A story that F. Hopkinson Smith likes to tell himself is of an experience in a trip as a lecturer before women's clubs. He reached one of the large Northwestern cities on a bitterly cold day, and being a little late hurried to the house where he was to read.

After he had changed his traveling dress he found that his teeth were still fairly aching with the cold, and that he must be warmed before beginning his effort to interest his audience. Across the hall was the ladies' dressing room, in which were a number of women laying off their wraps. He approached the door, and, making his hostess, asked if she were present.

"No," said a young lady, coming forward. "I am very cold. What can I do for you, Mr. Smith?" "I am very cold," was Mr. Smith's reply. "I want some whisky." "Had a bombshell exploded in the room the result could hardly have been more startling," for the hostess, at the very head and front of the local Woman's Christian Temperance Union organization, she called to the situation.

GROWTH OF FOREST TREES

Some Interesting Facts Regarding Their Development.

How They Breathe and Absorb Sustenance—Materials Upon Which They Feed—The Annual Rings by Which Age May Be Reckoned.

The forest is the most highly organized form of the vegetable world. It takes its importance less from the individual trees which help to form it than from the qualities which belong to it as a whole. Although it is composed of trees, the forest as a whole is a collection of trees standing in one place. It has a population of animals and plants peculiar to itself, a soil largely of its own making, and a climate different in many ways from that of the open country. Its influence upon the streams alone makes farming possible in many regions, and everywhere it tends to prevent floods and drought. It supplies fuel, one of the first necessities of life, and lumber, the raw material without which cities, railroads, and all the great achievements of modern progress would have been either long delayed or wholly impossible. It is as beautiful as it is useful, and no one can really know the forest without feeling the gentle influence of one of the kindest and strongest parts of nature. From every point of view it is one of the most helpful friends of man. Perhaps no other natural agent has done so much for the human race and has been so recklessly used and so little understood.

THE PARTS OF A TREE.

A tree is a woody plant, growing up from the ground usually with a single stem. It consists of three parts; the roots, which extend into the ground to a depth of three or four feet, or still farther when the soil is not too hard and they do not find moisture enough near the surface. They hold the tree in place, and take up from the soil water and certain mineral substances which the tree needs in its growth. Next there is the trunk, stem, or bole, which supports the crown and supplies it with mineral food and water from the roots. Finally, the crown itself, with its network of branches, buds, and leaves, in which the food taken up by the tree from the soil and air is worked over and made ready to assist in the growth of the whole plant. The crown has more to do with the life of a tree than its other parts, for the most important processes in the reproduction of the tree and the digestion of its food take place in the crown. For this reason, and because we can control its shape and size more easily and directly than that of the roots or trunk, it is of special interest to the forester.

THE FOOD OF A TREE.

The materials upon which a tree feeds are derived from the soil and air. The minute root hairs which spring from the rootlets take up water from the ground, and with it various substances which it holds in solution. These are the earthy constituents of the tree, which reappear in the form of ashes when any part of it is burned. The water which contains these materials goes straight from the roots to the leaves, in which a most important process in the feeding of the tree takes place. This process is the assimilation, or taking up and breaking up, by the leaves, of carbonic acid gas from the air. It goes on only in the presence of light and heat, and through the action of chlorophyll, a substance from which the leaves and the young bark get their green color.

Plants containing chlorophyll are the chief means by which mineral materials are changed into food, so that nearly all plant and animal life depends upon them. Plant cells which contain chlorophyll break up the carbonic acid gas which they come in contact with, and send back the oxygen, into the air. This is why hollow trees can flourish and bear fruit. Sapwood rots more easily than heartwood, because it takes up water readily and contains plant food, which decays very fast. Not all trees have heartwood, and in many the difference in color between it and sapwood is very slight. Since water from the roots rises only in the sapwood, it is easy to kill trees with heartwood by girdling them, provided the sapwood is cut through. But in the case of trees which have heartwood, the tubes of the older layers of wood do not convey water to the crown, and when such trees are girdled it is often several years before the tree dies.

THE NEED OF HEAT AND LIGHT.

The two main requirements for the healthy growth of a tree are heat and light. The latter seems to be the most necessary. This is so well recognized that foresters have divided trees into tolerant and intolerant, according to the ability of various trees to thrive under shade. Some trees cannot endure shade, and die early from lack of sufficient light. Others can thrive well under partial shade, but in each case a constant struggle goes on between the individual trees of a forest to reach the light.

It is a curious fact that trees give out heat. To be sure, it is scarcely appreciable, but it is nevertheless true. This is shown after a heavy fall of snow. When this occurs, it will be noticed that for a number of inches to a foot or more immediately around the foot of the tree there will be a ring of bare ground entirely denuded of snow, which has been melted by the heat radiating from the trunk of the tree. Even small saplings and seedlings will show the same effect.

They Enjoyed Themselves.

The senior partner of a large business concern took a hundred miles from Manchester takes a kindly interest in the welfare of his employees, and never misses an opportunity of "bringing them on," as he terms it. The other day an industrial and fine art exhibition was held in a neighboring town, and he thought it would be a good number of his work people to pay a visit there and thereby improve their minds. The party, conducted by the foreman, duly went, and returned highly delighted with their day's outing. But when the senior partner saw the foreman on the following morning the interview, short as it was, gave him a shock. "How did you get on yesterday? Pick up all there was to be seen, eh? See all these new things?" "Yes, sir, thank you, sir," responded the foreman, cheerily. "And a very nice time we had. I was very much interested in what was to be seen, so we were considered" "What was best to be done, so we appointed a committee to see what we could do for them, and when they come out and see all this pictures and curiosities we thought the matter was settled. There have been since 1850 but nineteen years when it has not been recorded in one or the other of these countries. While compar-

than a year old, this material is deposited in a thin coat over the whole tree between the wood and the bark. The new twigs grow in length by a kind of stretching, the twigs of the first year. Thus it is only by means of these youngest twigs that a tree increases in height and in spread of branches. After the first year their length is fixed, younger twigs stretch out from the buds, and the older ones grow henceforth in thickness. A fresh coat of new material covers them year by year. There are two layers in this coat, separated by a third one of tender forming tissues called the cambium, in which the actual making of the new substance goes on. The inner side of the cambium is the cambium proper, the outer side is the cork cambium, which forms both wood and bark, there is another cambium which makes the corky outer bark, and nothing else. This cork cambium may encircle the whole tree, like the true cambium, as in the red cedar, or it may form little separate files in the bark, but in either case it dies from time to time, and is reformed nearer the wood.

THE STRUCTURE OF WOOD. Wood is chiefly made up of very small tubes or cells of various kinds, which have special uses in the life of the tree. Some conduct water from the roots to the crown, some store away digested food, and others merely strengthen the structure of the wood and hold it together. At times the cells have thick walls and small openings, and at other times wide openings and very thin walls. A fair idea of how these cells look can be had by comparing a cross section of wood with a cross section of ordinary honey-comb.

It climates which have regularly one season of growth and one of rest, like that which exists in this section, the cells of the layer of new wood formed each year at the inner surface of the cambium are arranged in a definite way. When the growth begins in the spring, and the fresh twigs and leaves are put out, there is great demand for water in the crown to supply these moist green new parts of the tree. Water rises in most trees through the newer layers of the wood, and especially through the last ring. Consequently, at first the tree makes thin walled cells with wide openings, through which water can rise rapidly to the ends of the branches. Later on, when the demand for water is not so great, and there is plenty of digested food to supply building material, the cells formed are narrow and thick walled. Thus the summer wood in each year's growth is heavier, stronger, and darker in color than the spring wood.

THE ANNUAL RINGS DESCRIBED. It is correct to speak of these rings of growth as "annual rings," for as long as the tree is growing healthily a ring is formed each year. It is true that two false rings may appear in one year, but they are generally so much thinner than the rings on each side that it is not hard to detect them. Very often they do not extend entirely around the tree, as a true ring always does if the tree is sound. Whenever the growth of a tree is interrupted and begins again during the same season, such a false ring is formed. This happens when the summer wood is destroyed by caterpillars and grows again in the same season, or when a very severe drought in early summer stops growth for a time, after late frosts, etc.

An annual layer once formed does not change in size or place during the healthy life of the tree, except that it is covered in time by other younger layers. A nail driven into a tree six feet from the ground will still be at the same height after it is buried under twenty or fifty or one hundred layers of annual growth. From living sapwood, in which growth is going on, it becomes heartwood, which is dead, because it is no longer doing work. It is simply a reserve of food which helps to support the living parts of the tree. This is why hollow trees can flourish and bear fruit. Sapwood rots more easily than heartwood, because it takes up water readily and contains plant food, which decays very fast. Not all trees have heartwood, and in many the difference in color between it and sapwood is very slight. Since water from the roots rises only in the sapwood, it is easy to kill trees with heartwood by girdling them, provided the sapwood is cut through. But in the case of trees which have heartwood, the tubes of the older layers of wood do not convey water to the crown, and when such trees are girdled it is often several years before the tree dies.

THE DESTRUCTION OF RATS. The United States Consul at Bristol, England, as long ago as January 31, reported, in purchasing the establishment of practice concerning ships arriving from suspected ports, the Rembrandt, from Smyrna, had been compelled to tie up six feet from the quay side, her hawsers were protected by coils, the gangways were raised at night, and a watchman stationed to observe the discharge of cargo, on behalf of the sanitary authorities of the port. On January 23 this watchman discovered several dead rats in the hold, and in their bodies was found the plague germ. An order was thereupon issued to the effect that the ship was infected with plague. The rules of the United States Marine Hospital Service specify that, whenever a suspicion of plague exists, the same order such suspicion shall not be allowed to come up against the dock or even near such for the rats to get ashore. Then all the cargo has to be brought in by lighters and sulphur fumigation is applied at various stages of the unloading.

WEIGHS ICE WITH A TAPE.

A Woman Discovers a Way to Get Her Money's Worth. It would not be so pleasant to be the iceman were it not for the fact that Mrs. A. Bley, of the Cummings apartment building, Grand Boulevard and Fifty-fifth Street, Mrs. Bley has discovered a way to protect herself against short weight.

How much does a cubic foot of ice weigh, anyhow? The iceman who brought her a cubic foot of ice on July 28, 1898, when the temperature was about 80 degrees, she replied, "The iceman told me it was 60 pounds, but I weighed it and it was 56 pounds." Mrs. Bley had learned enough. The next day she accused the iceman of having sold her forty-three pounds of ice for fifty pounds. The man expostulated. "But you did," said Mrs. Bley. "I measured it."

Then the woman produced a tape line and set about measuring the cake that the iceman was just taking from her door. There was a quick calculation, in which a pencil and paper figured. "It weighs 56 pounds," she said. "Put it on the scales and see."

The ice was weighed, and the woman was vindicated. The driver gaped. Mrs. Bley's system was simple. For instance, a cubic foot of ice is 12 inches wide, 12 inches in breadth, and 12 inches high. Multiply the dimensions and the result is 1,728. Then divide this sum by 32, the weight of a cubic foot of ice, and 54 is arrived at. Thirty, therefore, was the correct weight.

In brief measure the three sides of your ice, multiply the number of inches and you get 1,728. Then divide this sum by 32, the number of pounds that the cake of ice weighs. Fifty-pound cake of ice was short for many days," said Mrs. Bley yesterday. "I weighed only 54 pounds, and I got only two pounds. After I hit on my scheme I told the driver of the wagon, and he saw that my scheme was all right. There have been since 1850 but nineteen years when it has not been recorded in one or the other of these countries. While compar-

A CRUSADE AGAINST RATS.

They Are Held Responsible for the Spread of the Plague.

Japan's Proposition for Action Looking to the Elimination of the Rodents—Movements of the Bubonic Source—Quarantine Precautions.

The mediums through which epidemic disease is transferred are coming to be specifically noted by scientists. Many have come to the conclusion, more or less warranted by facts, that the mosquito, or at least certain varieties of that active and industrious member of the insect world, is responsible for malaria, while the rat is held by a number of the medical fraternity to be one of the chief agents in the spread of bubonic plague.

The latter is a rather alarming conclusion, because a ship from a plague-infested country is likely to land at any of our ports. The crew may be ascertained to be all sound and healthy, but the rats? What if they, simply loaded with plague germs, took it into their heads to set up a permanent residence on our shores, thus menacing first the lives of the population of the particular city at which they make their landing, and then threaten the whole country?

Recognizing the roles played by the mosquito and rat in the spread of malaria and plague, society is commencing to make war against these creatures, and remedies have already been discovered by the doctors. The kerosene oil remedy for mosquitoes, brought out by Dr. L. O. Howard, has given such good results that it is now generally adopted. While communities on Long Island, for one place, have banded together to drive out the musical insect that sings so loudly and operates so pertinaciously on the Jersey coast.

The Mayor of Winchester, Va., it is reported, has made this the reform feature of his administration, while the Marine Hospital Service not very long ago issued orders directing the employment of rat men and rat traps at all of its stations. One after another of the Government bureaus has taken the matter up, so that a formidable concerted movement, inspired by science and sanctioned by officialdom, is now being extended to San Francisco, the enemy of humanity—the mosquito.

THE JAPANESE PROPOSITION.

And now comes the rat. Japan has already proposed an international convention for the consideration of the question of the rodent and the mischief that lies within his power to do. Of course, the possibility of such a convention in so important a matter is prominently urged, for here it is that it gets in its fine work in the spreading of plague germs in the manner already alluded to. Scientific men say they know of no good service which the rat performs in the economy of nature, and they think its extermination would be in every respect highly desirable. The Japanese proposal has not yet been received by this country officially, but experts are nevertheless prepared with plans of extermination. For instance, there is ascertained to be a virus producing a contagious disease among rats which does not affect other animals or human beings. Sulphur fumigation is also a simple and effective remedy. However vessels have been treated with this latter in yellow fever and other epidemics, it has been common for the crews to sweep up numbers of dead rats. Our quarantine regulations, which recommend this measure, under the management of the Marine Hospital Service, require that the rats thus killed shall not be handled, but direct that instead they be raked and shoveled up, and that the workmen shall wear gloves. The dead vermin are then burned.

It is a fact well established, that rats are often affected with the plague some time before the disease reaches the human inhabitants of the places where the rodents exist. In fact, the presence of the plague is often detected by the first finding of numbers of dead rats. According to bulletins of the imperial health office of Germany, the plague recently broke out in Basora, in Turkey, where three persons found sick with the symptoms were promptly isolated in the houses of the first two victims dead rats were discovered. An assistant surgeon of the United States Marine Hospital Service, stationed at Hongkong, where there were 28 cases of plague, writes that he found the disease in that locality was contracted originally from vermin preying upon the dead rats found about the premises. The surgeon of the Marine Hospital service at Yokohama, writes that he found the disease in that locality was contracted originally from vermin preying upon the dead rats found about the premises.

The destruction of rats is going on in all the larger cities of the Empire. Osha, the local sanitary association, has supplemented the efforts of the Government, which pays 25 cents for each rat destroyed, by sending to the city a reward a lottery ticket which will, perhaps, entitle the holder to a prize. The result of these measures is marked. It is reported that since April 1 500,000 rats have been killed in the city alone. In Tokyo the authorities have estimated the lower classes nearly 500,000 of improved rat traps.

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tively isolated outbreaks of plague had occurred in Asiatic countries, a seemed improbable that there would be any more extensive epidemics of the disease. But the characteristic uncertainty of the disease asserted itself by its appearance in 1892, in epidemic form, in Tonkin and Hongkong, and within a short time afterward in Bombay, Kurrachee, and Poonah, in British India.

It was deemed necessary, in 1892, by the Chinese Government, to increase and maintain the quarantines on the Manchurian frontier. Frequent and intimate intercourse between Lantzhoan and Xun-tsun converted the region into an epidemic focus of the disease, especially as the transportation of stores and materials was done by mule caravans. The time occupied in these trips was six days. The disease made its appearance in Lantzhoan, and assumed epidemic proportions, being conveyed by means of the crews and passengers of trading junks to Canton and Hongkong, where it appeared in epidemic form the following year. Plague was introduced into Nieu-Chwang in July, 1896, through arrivals from more southern districts, probably with ambulant types of the disease, which infected their surroundings, and the result was up an epidemic whose manifestations were preceded by very large mortality among the domestic animals, as rats, dogs, and cattle.

It is well known that from time to time ships of the Peninsular and Oriental Line have been driven from Hongkong to Plymouth, but there is no record of the spread of the disease. It is thought possible that, owing to the lack of quarantine restrictions in the British Isles, cases of the ambulant type have escaped from the ports, and that the result was from some of these ships have occasioned the infection of others.

THE SANTOS CASE.

The appearance of the plague in Santos, Brazil, in October, 1899, marks an important epoch in plague literature, as furnishing the very first recorded instances of its occurrence in the Western Hemisphere. There is also considerable difference of opinion as to the origin of this outbreak. It is usually attributed to a ship, which, arriving from the infected port of Oporto, lay alongside the dock in Santos. Within a short time the disease had become a mortality among rats, followed by the appearance of cases among human beings. It is recorded that in the months of July and September before, there was an unexplained mortality among rats. From Santos the disease extended to Sao Paulo, a hill resort in the neighborhood, the first case occurring in the child of a switchman of the railroad connecting the two places. The employee in question lived in a cabin beside the tracks, and had a dog named "Fido" which he kept in the neighborhood of the British steamship J. W. Taylor, from Santos, arrived at the quarantine station of the port of New York, with two cases of bubonic plague on board, and having lost one man at sea from the same disease. Prompt measures were taken, and fortunately no spread of the disease occurred.

Experience in other parts of the world leads to the belief that even were the disease to be introduced here, its spread would be very limited, in those cities where the sanitary conditions are good and where precautions as to the isolation of patients could be practiced. Cases in Vienna, resulting from accidental inoculation of men studying the disease in one of the laboratories, were easily traced. The same may be said of a case introduced into Trieste, Austria. No spread of the disease followed. With the rigid application of sanitary science it seems extremely doubtful if the plague will ever secure a dangerous foothold in the United States, although frequent "scars," like the present one, are likely to occur.

TREATING THE PLAGUE.

This disease furnishes a striking illustration of the advance of modern medicine. Not until 1894 did positive knowledge of its true nature become known. Now it is a fact well established, that rats are often affected with the plague some time before the disease reaches the human inhabitants of the places where the rodents exist. In fact, the presence of the plague is often detected by the first finding of numbers of dead rats. According to bulletins of the imperial health office of Germany, the plague recently broke out in Basora, in Turkey, where three persons found sick with the symptoms were promptly isolated in the houses of the first two victims dead rats were discovered. An assistant surgeon of the United States Marine Hospital Service, stationed at Hongkong, where there were 28 cases of plague, writes that he found the disease in that locality was contracted originally from vermin preying upon the dead rats found about the premises. The surgeon of the Marine Hospital service at Yokohama, writes that he found the disease in that locality was contracted originally from vermin preying upon the dead rats found about the premises.

The destruction of rats is going on in all the larger cities of the Empire. Osha, the local sanitary association, has supplemented the efforts of the Government, which pays 25 cents for each rat destroyed, by sending to the city a reward a lottery ticket which will, perhaps, entitle the holder to a prize. The result of these measures is marked. It is reported that since April 1 500,000 rats have been killed in the city alone. In Tokyo the authorities have estimated the lower classes nearly 500,000 of improved rat traps.

The United States Consul at Bristol, England, as long ago as January 31, reported, in purchasing the establishment of practice concerning ships arriving from suspected ports, the Rembrandt, from Smyrna, had been compelled to tie up six feet from the quay side, her hawsers were protected by coils, the gangways were raised at night, and a watchman stationed to observe the discharge of cargo, on behalf of the sanitary authorities of the port. On January 23 this watchman discovered several dead rats in the hold, and in their bodies was found the plague germ. An order was thereupon issued to the effect that the ship was infected with plague. The rules of the United States Marine Hospital Service specify that, whenever a suspicion of plague exists, the same order such suspicion shall not be allowed to come up against the dock or even near such for the rats to get ashore. Then all the cargo has to be brought in by lighters and sulphur fumigation is applied at various stages of the unloading.

WEIGHS ICE WITH A TAPE.

A Woman Discovers a Way to Get Her Money's Worth. It would not be so pleasant to be the iceman were it not for the fact that Mrs. A. Bley, of the Cummings apartment building, Grand Boulevard and Fifty-fifth Street, Mrs. Bley has discovered a way to protect herself against short weight.

How much does a cubic foot of ice weigh, anyhow? The iceman who brought her a cubic foot of ice on July 28, 1898, when the temperature was about 80 degrees, she replied, "The iceman told me it was 60 pounds, but I weighed it and it was 56 pounds." Mrs. Bley had learned enough. The next day she accused the iceman of having sold her forty-three pounds of ice for fifty pounds. The man expostulated. "But you did," said Mrs. Bley. "I measured it."

Then the woman produced a tape line and set about measuring the cake that the iceman was just taking from her door. There was a quick calculation, in which a pencil and paper figured. "It weighs 56 pounds," she said. "Put it on the scales and see."

MILES OF PRESS NOTICES.

Tobin, King of the Midway, and His Remarkable Book.

Novel Personages at the Pan-American Exposition Who Have Saved Millions of Lines of Newspaper Write-Ups—A Unique History.

Decked in yellow satin is a big book, 28 inches long, 11 inches wide, and 4 inches thick, containing 256 pages. It is a scrapbook. Its hero is Tobin, King of the Midway.

The title is Tobin. The author is Tobin. The first chapter is Tobin. The whole book is Tobin. The book was written by 82 writers. Some of its collaborators now are great editors or famous novelists. Others are adepts in gravitating and directing country snufftakers. There are 132 chapters in the book. Some of the chapters are 6,000 words long. Others are 40 words long. Beside the book is a second volume of literary notices of the hero and the tale. This second book is 125 pages, 12 inches square, and 3 inches thick.

The big book is an edition de luxe of one copy. It took ten years to write it. The task really began twenty-five years ago, but there is a period of fifteen years prior to the actual work on the book. It is not an autobiography and it is far from finished. In fact, the story is not half told and the 82 writers who already have labored on it will be followed by the more than 82 who are to be added. "Fido" may be a decade or two later, Napoleon could boast of no such history. All the Gilets and Flakes and Leekys and Macaulays and Benefrosts and Parkmans who penned and typed and set and printed the paper world a monument like the finished "History of Tobin, King and Hero." Even the full title of the book is not finished. To king and hero will be added poetaster, bard, orator, captain of a regiment, fellow of a college, and many other epithets of excellence and elegance.

The first chapter reads: "Born—February 2, 1876, Tobin, surname Maurice, Knight errant and later now King of percentage honored and esteemed of ancient and modern origin of the families of monarchs when single tribes needed four kings to rule them. He stands midway between plutocracy and peasantry and for thirty years in the midway will be the prince of the peasantry. Thereafter he will be a potentate of the plutocracy—Galesburg Gazette."

Then follows chapter after chapter, tale after tale. Tobin had the measles, the whooping-cough, the mumps, the influenza. He was a prize and a spoiled child. It is there. He was almost drowned. It is there. He visited friends. It is there. Friends visited him. It is there. He slept for three days once. It is there. He was in town by night. It is there. Never was a child so spoiled and spoiled and spoiled more fully chronicled by faithful scribes and historians. His wanderings are told, his great triumphs at Chicago, Omaha, Nashville, Atlanta, and New Orleans, his stay in Hawaii, his audience with Liliuokalani, his royal power among strange people. Scores of his stories, doxoms of his orations, his meetings and hobnobbing with royalty and greatness are related, yard after yard.

There are 132 columns of these chronicles, each column 24 inches long. It pasted together, they would make a line 28,000 inches long or a stretch of history 2,334 feet long. Tobin has enough in his book to run it up the side of the Electric Tower, to enclose the golden globe in it, run it into the downer side, up again, down again and up again. There is half a mile of it. Granted there are 1,800 lines of type to a column 24 inches long, there are 2,352,000