[New York Observer.]

MY MOTHER.

BY REV. FRANCIS B. WHEELER, D. D.

I remember, I remember,
Through the years long fled;
Forms and voices, smiles and laughter,
Of the vanished dead.
How they rise before me, musing,
In the quiet night;
And again, with me communing,
Friends from world of light.

One by one, they left me, vanished,
Over path of light;
Left me weeping, broken hearted,
Hidden from my sight.
But they come again to greet me,
As in former years;
Lovingly, they breathe upon me,
Wipe away my tears.

And among them, one so tender,
In my early years;
She, my own, and loving mother,
Hushing all my fears.
As a blessed, heavenly vision,
By my side she stands;
And for me her benediction,
On my head her hands.

And I feel her loving kisses,
As of long ago;
Clasping fond, and sweet caresses,
With her voice so low.
Oh, the joy, the inspiration,
Of the vision fair;
But, alas! of brief duration,
Fleeting as the air.

Oh, my mother! shall I meet thee,
In the world above?
In those realms, do there await me,
Claspings of thy love?
Oh, my heart is wildly throbbing,
For this meeting there;
With my mother in rejoicing,
This my earnest prayer.

BEGINNING OF RAILROADS.

Some Reminiscences of a Veteran Locomotive Engineer.

Early Locomotive Makers and Runners. Fast Time Forty Years Ago. The First Locomotive Railroad in the World Built in South Carolina. New York State's Pioneer Road. Early Days of Erie.

New York Sun.

"The average life of a locomotive is thirty years," said an old Erie Railway engineer. "Repairs on the finer parts of its mechanism are required after six months of use. The boiler tubes will last five years, the cranks and axles six years, and the fire boxes and boilers seven years without repairs. Locomotives 201, 203, and 204 were placed on thia road in June and July, 1854, and are still in use. They were made by Rogers and Paterson. They are the oldest locomotive ngines, I guess, in active use in the country to-day. They have traveled about 700,000 miles each.

"Speaking of Rogers, the locomotive builder, reminds me of an interesting incident connected with the early days of locomotive building and railroading in this country. Commissioner Swinburne, who died in Paterson last fall, was one of the first practical locomotive builders, and he commenced business on a small scale about forty years ago, in that city. Rogers was then laying the foundation of the works that are now known all over the world. Swinburne and Rogers were rivals. The Erie road was then in operation only as far as Middletown. Both of the Paterson locomotive builders had turned out locomotives for the road, and there was great diversity of opinion among the engineers as to the merits of the different machines. The Swinburne engines had a firm friend and advocate in Josh Martin, and the Rogers make was championed by Gad Lyman, two of the original engineers on the Erie, and two of the best that ever opened a throttle. When the road was opened to Binghamton in 1849 the run between Delaware (now Port Jervis) and Susquehanna was given to Martin. Lyman's run was from Piermont (then the eastern terminus of the road) to Port Jervis. Against his wishes Josh was put on a Rogers locomotive. It was called the Oneida, but Josh called it the 'One-idea,' because, he said, it only had one idea, and that was that it couldn't make the time on the run. In 1850 the company purchased a locomotive from the Swinburne shop. Swinburne was not looked upon with much favor by the powers of the road at that time, and, in hope of turning out a machine that would make him solid, he did the most of the work on the new locomotive with his own hands. She was called No. 71, and when she was delivered to the company to be tested, Swinburne requested that she be placed on Josh Martin's run. But she wasn't. Gad Lyman was told to handle 71, and he took her. He reported after every run that he couldn't make time with her, and declared that he must have a Rogers engine. Josh Martin was sure that he could do good work with 71, and begged for the chance, but she was taken off of regular work and put to duty on a gravel train.

"Well, Josh Martin almost broxe his heart over that. Every chance he'd got he'd run down to Piermont, look 71 over and appeal to Master Mechanic Brant to give her a chance with him. Swinburne was knocked flat by the failure of his pet, and he joined in with Martin for a new trial. At last Brant got mad. He was the champion swearer of the road. He told Josh to take 71 'and go to—with her.' Josh had her taken back to the shop to have her overhauled to see what was the matter with her. Nothing wrong could be found. Then he tried her on his run. His first report of her abilities was that it was all he could do to keep her from getting to Susquehanna an hour ahead of time. That was a big feather in Swinburne's cap, but two months later 71 and Martin gave him a boost that started him on the road to the $3,-000,000 fortune he left.

The Erie road was open to Dunkirk in May 1851. Early in that month Gad Lyman was notified that he was to take his engine, No. 199, and run one of the excursion trains on that occasion from Piermont to Dunkirk. The 100 was a Rogers engine. Lyman started with the train. It had nine cars. That drawing-room coach over there cost more than the whole of that first through train between tide-water and the lakes was worth, engine and all. But there was a tolerable expensive lot of passengers aboard. President Fillmore, Daniel Webster, Secretary of State; J. J. Critenden, Attorney General; Postmaster General N. K. Hall; W. A. Graham, Secretary of the Navy; Senators Douglas, Seward, and Fish; Daniel S. Dickinson, Gov. Marcy and a lot of other big guns were along. Dodworth's band made it lively for them. But they were too heavy for Gad Lyman's engine, and when they reached Middletown the train was nearly an hour behind time. Then Superintendent Charles Minot telegraphed to Port Jervis to have old 71 and Josh Martin on hand to take the place of Lyman and his Rogers engine. Josh and 71 were waiting when the train got to Port Jervis. They coupled on. Swinburne was one of the excursionists. When he found that his pet engine was to try and redeem the character of the road, he came near fainting. But away Josh went an hour behind time. If ever a railroad train swung along the precipices of the Delaware valley, it did that day. Old Josh whirled that excursion train into Narrowsberg in just thirty-five minutes, and the distance is thirty-four miles. When he reached Deposit, sixty-five miles further on, every minute of the lost time was made up, and 71 tore down the shore of Lake Erie into the western terminus of the road only a few minutes behind the schedule time. Swinburne was made and Josh Martin made him. The former gathered in his millions. The latter was running a switch engine at $90 a month the last I ever heard of him, being too old for regular train service.

"It seems wonderful now to look back at the locomotives of those days, with all their crudities of mechanism, and think of what they could do. Take an engine of forty years ago and place it by the side of one of the modern polished beauties of the road, and you would scarcely recognize it as a locomotive. But they could work. With all the improvements and appliances that science has brought into the construction of locomotives of to-day, I do not believe there is an engine on any road now that could have done better than old 71 did on her memorable trip of 1851, nor one that is speedier than another old-time engine was that I remember. That engine was a marvel. She was called the Carroll of Carrollton, and was placed on the Boston and Worcester railroad in 1849. She was built in Baltimore after the models by Ross Winans, and under his direction J. H. Jackman, who was to run her, saw every piece of her machinery put together. The Carroll was one of the first engines made to burn coal, and I don't know but the very first with seven foot driving wheels. These wheels were made of cast iron, but they were afterward replaced by the first pair of Eufflish wrought iron drivers used in this country. Jackman drove this locomotive time after time on the Boston and Albany train mile after mile at the rate of a mile in 61 seconds, and to make that distance in 63 seconds was a common run. Once on trial he ran the Carroll a mile in 60 seconds. To run like that in those days of single tracks, iron rails, hand brakes, and other imperfect appliances, required a stock of nerve in the engineer that you don't often find nowadays.

'In almost any railroad office you may visit you will see hanging on the wall a picture, the printed inscription on which informs you that it represents the first railway passenger train drawn by a locomotive in the United States. The cars resemble the old stage coaches, and the locomotive reminds you of the portable stationary engines of today. The coaches are filled with passengers. The picture is in silhouette, and represents the pioneer train on the Mohawk and Hudson Railroad which was run on Aug. 9, 1831. But that train was not the first passenger train ever drawn in this country by a locomotive, not by several months.

"The first practical locomotive engineer in this country that is, the first one to run an engine as a business and for actual business—was Nicholas W. Darrell, and he ran the first locomotive on the first railroad in the world that was designed for steam locomotive power before the road was built, which was also the first railroad in the world on which a locomotive was ever run one hundred miles, and the first long railroad begun in America. Singularly enough, this road was projected and built in a part of the country which, especially sixty years ago, was not regarded as being marked by progressive ideas. It was known as the South Carolina Railroad, and was to be built between Charleston and Augusta, Ga., a distance of 140 miles. When it was commenced, in 1829, there was but twenty-five miles of railroad in operation on the American continent, and not one locomotive. Horatio Allen, who had assisted John B. Jarvis in building the Delaware and Hudson Canal, was the chief engineer of the South Carolina Railroad. He had been to England and seen George Stephenson's locomotive, and he recommended that the South Carolina road be constructed with the view of using steam power for locomotion, and his recommendation was unanimously adopted. In 1830 the company ordered its first locomotive, and it was made in Beach street, New York city, at the West Point Foundry. There had never been anything of that kind made here, but the machine was turned out and shipped to Charleston in October of that year. Its trial trips were successful, and it went into actual service the following December, with Nick Darrell on the foot board. The engine had four wheels, a vertical boiler, right where the cab of a locomotive is now placed, and weighed 4½ tons. The engineer's position was on the front of the boiler, where the cylinders were also located. It was named the Best Friend of Charleston. Nick ran the Best Friend until June, 1831, without an accident, and then the first locomotive boiler explosion, and the second fatal railroad accident on record occurred. Nick had a negro fireman, a slave, I believe, of the president of the road. He was just learning to fire, and was the pioneer apprentice to the business. The engineer left him in charge of the engine one day while they were standing at at a station and went about some other duty. The fireman began some experiments with steam on his own account, and, as the safety valve would not permit of his getting up a pressure that pleased him, he sat on it. The boiler expioded, and the ambitious fireman was so badly scalded that he died soon afterward. The first fatal railroad accident happened to the President of the Liverpool and Manchester Railroad, in England, who was run over and killed by George Stephenson's locomotive on the first trip by steam ever made on the road, in October, 1829.

After the Best Friend of Charleston blew up, the second American locomotive, and the first one with eight wheels in the world was placed on the road. It was called the West Point, and was also made in the Beach street foundry. It was modelled after the original draught made by Horatio Allen, Ross Winans constructed an eight-wheel truck about the same time, and spent a pile of money in efforts to prove priority to construction, but Allen's eight-wheeled locomotive antedated the Winans truck by several weeks. The Best Friend of Charleston was repaired, and its name changed to the Phoenix, and the two pioneer locomotives were run for many years. Old Nick Darrel died in Charleston about fifteen years ago.

"The first railroad company incorporated in the United States, was the Mohawk and Hudson, which was to build a railroad between Albany and Schenectady. The company was chartered in 1826, but the road was not finished until 1831. It was built under the direction of John B. Jervis, who was chief engineer. The third locomotive built in America was made for use on this road at the Beach street works. It was coupled to the pioneer passenger train of New York state for the excursion on the opening of the road on the 9th of August, 1831. There were three coaches, modelled after the stage coaches, filled with passengers, among them Thurlow Weed, ex-Gov. Yates, Erastus Corning, and other big men of the time. That was the train the silhoutte lithograph, with its wrong inscription, represents. The original of the picture was cut in Albany by an expert in the art, while the train was getting ready to start. I was a yongster at that time, living in Albany, and was one of the crowd that gazed on the train in open mouthed wonder. That David Matthews, who, by the way, had superintended the building of all three of the locomotives made at the Beach street shop, acted as engineer. The coaches were coupled together with chains, which at least two feet of slack. The signal to start was given by an official, who blew a blast on a tin horn. The engine started. The slack in the chains was taken up with a jerk, and in an instant the passengers were sprawling over one another in their seats and on the floor. Then it was seen that this was bound to make trouble every time a stop or start was made and some fertile mind suggested a remedy. It was adopted. Fence rails were obtained and fitted in lengthwise between the coaches, while the chains were drawn taut; and that was the first patent railway buffer and bumper. The engine that made the first trip in New York State was called the De Witt Clinton. To test the comparative merits of the American and English locomotives the Mohawk and Hudson company had ordered one of the latter for use on the road also. It was placed on the road soon after the De Witt Clinton's trial trip, but did not do as good work as the American machine. John B. Jervis saw where great improvements could be made in both. One improvement, which is in use unchanged on locomotives all over the world, was the placing of a truck under the front part of the boiler.

"But those old-time engines were not always to be depended on on the Mohawk and Hudson Railsoad, and there was a stationary engine at each end of the road, and relays of hor es always ready to come to the relief of a stalled locomotive. There were some stiff grades on the road. It was only fifteen miles long, but at the summit it was nearly 340 feet above the Hudson River. Locomotives had not improved much when I went to work on that old road in 1836, and I was made an engineer at once. My engine was a big gray horse, though, the leader in a five-horse team. I rode him and piloted a freight and passenger train, that he and his four aids drew over the road a good many times, with the aid of the stationery engines and an occasional boost from a refractory locomotive that wouldn't pull alone. I was fifteen years old when I went to railroading on the old Mohawk road. There wasn't a railroad nearer than ours to New York city. No work had been done on the Erie yet, except making out the route and the letting of a contract for grading for the road between Deposit and Callicoon. The ground was broken on that contract at Deposit in November, 1835, and the first shovelful of dirt was thrown out by Samuel B. Ruggles of New York city. The Harlem road was then being built between the city and Harlem. The Pennsylvania Railroad was being talked of. The Baltimore and Ohio had a part of their road in operation in Maryland. Some of the local roads that are now part of the New York Central route were being built. Altogether there were less than 100 miles of railroad in operation in the State. The second road completed was the Ithaca and Owego Railroad, 29 miles long, and run by inclined planes and horse power. The other roads completed were the Rensselaer and Saratoga, the Saratoga and Schenectady, and the Buffalo and Black Rock, 21, 24, and 3 miles in length, respectively, horse power being the favorite means of locomotion.

I have been a locomotive engineer for more than forty years. I ran on the Erie road when its entire working length was between Piermont and Goshen and it looked very much as it would never get any further. There was no telegraph to run by in those days, and no mode of communication between engineer and conductor of a train. Nobody ever bothered about buying a ticket, but handed the fare to the conductor. There were no water tanks in passenger cars, but thirsty passengers were refreshed by boys who passed through the train at intervals with a pail of water and a tin cup. A former water boy on the Erie is now one of the biggest railroad guns in the country. The light that a couple of candles or a whale-oil lamp could throw out was thought to be all that was necessary in a car at night. Once in a while the conductor found it desirable to eject some would-be dead head passenger while between stations, but as there was no way to let the engineer know except by sending word by a brakeman, and as he usually had to climb over a dozen freight cars before he could attract the engineer's attention, it frequently happened that the train reached the possenger's destination before it could be stopped. Poppy Ayres, the pioneer Erie conductor, got tired of this, and one day he tied a stick of wood to the end of a long rope, hung the stick in the engineer's cab, and carried the rope over the cars to to the rear of the train. His idea was to pull the rope and agitate the stick of wood when he wanted the engineer to stop the train. He had to lick the engineer before the latter would consent to recognize such an innovation, but it worked to a charm, and led to the introduction of the new universal bell and rope system of signalling on cars. The Erie was also the first to introduce the running of trains by telegraph, a move that scared us old-time boys almost out of our boots, as we didn't like the idea of running west or east toward a station, knowing that another train was also coming toward that station from the opposite direction. But it didn't take us long to see the true value and safety of the system, and it gave railroading a ten year's jump ahead. The system of signals orignated with the Erie, under Gen. McCollum's superintendency, was adopted by and remains to-day the standard on all the railroads of this country."

Two English Preachers.

Canon Liddon and the Bishop of Peterborough stand out as unquestionably the two first preachers of the Established church. There is a story of a private soldier having gone to St. Paul's on an afternoon when Dr. Liddon was to preach. The printed paper with the hymn was handed to him, but not understanding that it was offered gratis, he refused it with a shake of the head, saying, "You don't suppose I should be here if I had got any money?" Most of the people who go to hear the eloquent Canon are different from this soldier, for they would pay—and very liberally to get seats near the pulpit.

On the afternoons of the Sundays when Dr. Lyddon is in residence, the Cathedral presents an extraordinary sight with its huge nave and aisles densely thronged. So far as the preacher's voice will reach, people stand. straining eyes and ears, and fortunately Dr. Liddon's voice resounds well under the dome; though now and then it becomes indistinct through the preacher's speaking too fast in his excitement. Two other things occassionally mar Dr. Liddon's delivery. Shortness of sight makes him often stoop to consult Bible or notes, and again he bows the head in a marked manner when he utters the Holy Name; but when he thus bends he goes on speaking, so that his words fall on the pulpit cushion and are deadened, which produces upon people who are at some little distance off the effect of continual stoppages and gaps in the sermon. No other defects besides these can be noted in operations which, for beauty of language, elevation of thought and lucidity of reasoning, could not be surpassed.

We have heard Dr. Lidden many times at Oxford and in London, and have observed that the impression produced by his eloquence was always the same, no matter who might be listening to him. We remember. in particular, a sermon of his on the text, "The kingdom of God cometh not with observation." It was absolutely magnificent to hear him prophesy the gradual progress of the world toward a higher state. Every man from the greatest to the least, was made to feel his share of responsibility in advancing or retarding the evolution of mankind, and while the consequences of evil were pointed out as extending to incalcuable lengths, there was a sublime hopefulness in the promise that the smallest good offering brought to the Creator would be multiplied by Him as the "five loaves were multiplied."

The Bishop of Peterborough has not often been heard in London of late years, but whenever he is advertised to preach, crowds flock to hear him. He need not be compared with Liddon, for the personal appearance, style and opinions of the two men are quite different. But whereas the Canon sometimes preaches above the understanding of dull men, the Bishop's eloquence never soars much above earth. It is a rousing eloquence, spirited, combative, often sarcastic and always directed against some evil which is preoccupying public attention at the time being.

Dr. Magee is not merely a hater, but an aggressive enemy of humbug, clothe itself in what garb it may. With his animated Celtic features, long upper lip, large mouth, energetic nose and shaggy eyebrows, with his gruffness and broad smile, which breaks up the whole of his face into comical lines, he has all the look of a humorist. The glance all round which he takes at his congregation when he has got into the pulpit, is that of a master. His first words arrest attention, and if some unlucky man drops a book during his exordium, that man will stare hard at the pulpit and pretend to have no connection whatever with the book, lest his lordship's eye should be suddenly turned upon him like two fiery points of interrogation. Presently, when the Bishop warms to his work, his arms hit out from the shoulder like piston rods wrapped in lawn; down come hi large hands with great slaps on his book ors cushion, and if he is preaching in a church where the beadle has not heard of his little ways, and has not been careful to give the cushions a beating, enough dust will be raised to make a fine powdering for the heads of the people in the pew beneath.—*Temple Bar,*

Judah P. Benjamin's Domestic Life.

Washington Letter.

There were some exceedingly curious and interesting incidents, in the domestic life of the late Judah P. Benjamin. He married early in life a very beautiful woman. She did something which offended the society of New Orleans. Mr. Benjamin was much devoted to her, and it wounded him keenly. He spent years and a vast amount of trouble and money to win back for her her place in society, but he never succeeded. Once he gave a grand ball in New Orleans; all the men invited came, and not a single woman. That crushed his hopes then. When he was elected to the Senate he brought his wife to Washington and set up a magnificent establishment. The old grudge against his wife was remembered, and he again found himself obliged to go in society without his wife or to remain in seclusion. He sold his splendid household effects at a great loss, he gave up his house and said despondently to a friend, "I am bankrupt in heart, purse and reputation." His wife then went to Paris where he supported her in splendor and visited her often. His own tastes were of the simplest kind, and his personal expenses hardly a tithe of of his great earnings. He knew how to charge clients, and often described with a relish his plan of making a fee. "First." he said "I charge a retainer, then I charge a reminder, next I charge a refresher, and then I charge a finisher." He was exceedingly liberal and had no love for money for money's sake. His law office in London was the darkest and dingiest cranny imaginable. There were two rooms, one tolerably comfortable, which was occupied by his clerks, and the other absolutely meagre, occupied by the great jurist himself. It was a favorite resort of Southerners, and a pilgrimage to the shabby little law office was religiously performed by nearly every Southerner who visited London.

THE QUEEN.

Her Living Costs the British Artisan Eighteen Cents a Year.

Comparatively Cheap Royalty. The Crown Lands. The Civil List. The Consolidated Fund. The People's Check on the Throne. Benefactions and Almonry. "The King Reigns, but Does Not Govern."

Many and various indeed are the claimants on John Bull's purse. Beside the payment of the interest of the national debt, which consumes about twenty-seven million pounds sterling a year of his income, there are armies and navies to be maintained, soldiers and sailors to be fed, clothed and equipped, and a multitudinous array of ministers of state, judges, officials, policemen and placemen of all sorts to be salaried, or fed, compensated or pensioned. But before these—next to the interest of the national debt—there is the Crown, the visible representative of the majesty of the state to be supported; and it is with this subject the present article would briefly concern itself.

When her present Majesty succeeded to the throne, on June 20, 1837, she surrendered the Crown lands as her predecessors had done since George III., and received a civil list of £385,000 a year. Before George III. came to the throne, the monarchs received the revenues arising from the Crown lands, but on his accession the mismanagement of these lands had become such a scandal that reform could no longer be delayed, and accordingly the King agreed to surrender them to the country; in other words, the proceeds arising therefrom were henceforth part of the revenues of the nation, and saved taxation to that amount. This example has always been followed by subsequent sovereigns. It will be, of course, understood from this that each monarch resigns his landed estate for his own reign, in return for the civil list granted by the nation. On his death the Crown lands vest in his successor, who on his accession makes a new surrender. Thus the position occupied by the public is simply that of a life tenant. The policy of this plan has been fully justified by the results. Since these lands have been administered by a public department—the Commissioners of Woods and Forests—the profits arising from them have steadily increased, and amount now to £375,000 a year, which sum, let the soft hearted beings who are always bemoaning the royal burdens of the British people remember, is placed to the credit of the nation. How much royalty actually costs each individual in the country we may gather further on.

This sum, then, of £385,000 was made a prior charge on the consolidated fund—that is to say, provision must be made for it out of the accruing revenue of the country before other claims are met—and it was thus divided:

Class 1—Her Majesty's privy purse.....	£60,000
Class 2—Salaries of her Majesty's household and retired allowance..........	131,260
Class 3—expenses of her Majesty's household........................	172,500
Class 4—Royal bounty, alms and special services,.......................	13,200
Class 5—Pensions to the extent of £1,200 a year.	
Class 6—Unappropriated moneys........	8,040
Total..................................	£385,000

A word of explanation here as to the consolidated fund. Originally the money arising from each particular tax were kept separate in the exchequer, to be applied to a specific branch of expenditure and to be diverted to no other. In process of time many of the separate funds thus proved inadequate to meet the demands on them. Then the produce of several taxes was consolidated into one general fund, so that a surplus on one might compensate for the deficiency on another. This plan once adopted was soon developed, until, in 1875 the commissioners of Public accounts suggested the formation of one fund, into which should flow every stream of the public revenue, and from which should be the supply of every service. This recommendation has been gradually carried out, and now the entire income of the country is carried to and from what is called the consolidated fund—the great account into which flows the public income of the nation, whether arising from imperial taxation, from the sale of old stores, or the repayment of moneys lent by government. The wine merchant, who pays duty on the wine or spirits he has withdrawn from the bonding warehouse; the wealthy dame, who pays income tax on her quarterly dividends; the tattered charwoman, who gleans scanty comfort from her few ounces of taxed tea; the landed peer, who succeeds to the broad acres of his ancestors, through the succession duty; the wealthy parvenu, delighting in hair powder for his footmen and heraldic crests on his plate; the legacy hunter, whose legacy duty reminds him of his ignoble success; the old maid renewing the license of her favorite poodle; the humblest purchase of a postage stamp—all these are contributed to the consolidated fund. Up to 1834 the money paid in as taxes was kept in strong boxes in the Exchequer office at Westminster. Since that time the custody of the public money has been transferred to the bank of England so that now the consolidated fund represents the account of the Chancellor of the Exchequer with the bank.

Again, as all public revenue of whatever kind passes into and forms the Consolidated fund, so the entire public expenditure is defrayed therefrom. But all the claims on the fund have not the same rank and precedence. Some services are regarded as having a more urgent claim upon the state than others, and so form prior charges upon its income. And while all charges on the fundi have Parliamentary sanction, some have been authorized once and for all py special acts of Parliament, while others cannot be paid without an annual vote of the House of Commons, The services which are made prior charges on the consolidated fund are the interest of the national debt, which ranks first of all; then the expenses of the civil list, that is, the amount set apart by the country for the maintenance of the Crown; next come the various pensions and annuities which have from time to time been granted to members of the royal family, or to illustrious soldiers, statesman and jurists; then the salaries of the judges and other high officials, together with a formidable array of compensations; and, lastly, the interest of certain loans for which the country is responsible. These services, when once the sanction of the legislature has been formally obtained for their regular payment, are, so to speak, withdrawn from the subsequent notice of Parliament.

To return now to the civil list as quoted above: It will be observed there are no charges whatever connected with the administration of the government. The civil list is appropriated entirely to the personal and household expenditure of the sovereign. The privy purse, of course, explains itself. It is, in short the Royal pin money. Class 2 introduces us at once into the domestic life of the monarch. Her majesty's household may be said to consist of three establishments under the control of the Lord Steward, the Lord Chamberlain and the Master of the Horse, respectively. It is assuredly no light matter to describe these high officials, each at once the cuslodian and embodiment of "the divinity that doth hedge a king."

THE OFFICIALS OF THE HOUSEHOLD.

The Lord Steward, most august of all immediate attendants on majesty, presides at the Board of Green Cloth at Buckingham Palace. Originally the Board of Green Cloth was a feudal court. Its title and functions take us back many a century to the old feudal time, wheu the King's household was arranged entirely on feudal principles. Then the royal purveyors, acting in accordance with the old feudal rights of pre-emption, seized, with power and prerogative, from the adjacent towns and villages, the viands they needed, and, in Burke's words, "brought home the plunder of a hundred markets." Then, too, a royal palace was a vast hall where commodities of all sorts were collected, where soldiers congregated in troops, where force and power predominated, and comfort and seclusion were unknown. At the gate of every palace a market would be set up, and the produce of the neighborhood be offered for the supply of the table. In short, wherever the court went, it became necessarily the center of all life and the scene of much conflict and disorder. To control the vast and often unruly multitude who, from some cause or another, crowded into the palace, was the business of the Board of Green Cloth. It had its own laws and a jurisdiction coextensive with the area of the court itself, and its members included the great officers of the household. Now all this is changed. The palace is now the quiet home of the sovereign. The royal tradesmen no longer need an array of justices and soldiers to regulate their commercial activity. Moreover, State officers no longer sit in the entrance of a palace to witness the stores of game and flesh which their subordina s have gathered. Yet the Lord Steward still has charge of all commissariat arrangements. He controls the kitchen, with its establishment of upward of a hundred cooks, confectioners and room and table deckers; the wine and beer cellars, where there are grooms and yeomen worthy of their arduous duties; the almonry, the gardens, the pay office and a whole phalanx of State porters and assistant porters. The Lord Seward, then, may be said to look after the monarch's inner man.

The Lord Chamberlain has higher and more varied responsibilities. He ministers to the æsthetic tastes of the Sovereign, superintends the wardrobe, and generally is intrusted ith all details of the Court. With him is associated the mistress of the Robes, who presides over the robes department. All maids of honor, lords in waiting, ladies of the bed chamber, grooms, ushers and pages are within the department of Lord Chamberlain. Moreover he regulates the court musicians and artists, and chaplains, the sergeants and gentleman at arms. Last, but not least, to him is committed the hea'th of his royal master or mistress, and the medical department, with physicians and surgeons ordinary and extraordinary, dispensers, etc., recognized him at its head.

The Master of the Horse controls the Royal hunt, appoints the whippers in, and its paramount with all matters connected with the stables.

If now to the above list we add the keepers of the Privy Purse, the private secretaries, the librarian, the governess, the tutors and other subordinate officers who are more immediately under the direct authority of Royality, we have given some slight idea of the various elements of which the English Court is nowadays composed and the salaries that have to be provided for out of Class 2 of her Majesty's Civil List.

Class 3 is appropriated to the Expenses of the household. Out of this class are defrayed all the tradesmen's bills of whtaever kind. Thus, the class represents what we may call the maintenance account of the Court, except so far as salaries are concerned.

Class 4 representing the Royal benefactions, is distributed in several modes. The largest portion of it is under control of the Prime Minister for the time being; another portion of it is dispensed by the Premier's wife. These are grants of money only, but the remainder, under the charge of Lord High Almoner, consists both of money and commodities. On Maunday Thursday this bounty is distributed in the Chapel Royal, Whitehall. There is a choral service and generally a large attendance of spectators. The lucky recipients, previously attested and approved at the Bounty office, congregate in the center of the church, where the Lord Higher Almoner, attended by his yeomen, superintends the almsgiving of his august mistress, shoes, blankets, wearing apparel, etc., and a purse containing silver coins, especially coined at the mint and of denominations unknown to the nation at large, are the usual forms which the royal beneficence assumes. The number is increased in proportion to the length of the sovereign's reign.

Class 6. consisting of a small grant of moneys not specially appropriated, needs no explanation. As will be seen by the foregoing statement, the five classes—for the total of Class 5 is not included— make up the aggregate sum of £385,000.

We turn now to the consideration of Class 5, the Civil List Pensions—a subject which, though of small interest to the present generation of Englishmen, has, in days gone by, formed the battleground of parties, and been the cause of great disquiet to financial reformers. At the outset we must distinguish between the pensions granted by Parliament to members of the royal family and to meritorious public servants and those which have been bestowed by the monarch himself, of his own will and pleasure, and without the intervention of the legislature. It is with the latter only we are now concerned. During the reign of Charles the Secoud, they first became an engine of corruption. Sir Robert Walpole still further extended the system of iufluencing the house of commons either by donations or annual gifts. Lord Brougham has, indeed, endeavored to exculpate the minister who declared that "all men have their price," by pointing out the urgent perils with which Walpole had to contend, Others have to defend a ministry or a measure; he had to preserve a crown. One cannot adequately realize the unblushing attempts at oppression and corruption which characterized the relations of king and legislature in the days of the Georges. True, there were no longer high handed attempts on the part of the Crown to dispense with Parliament altogether. The efforts of the Tudor and Stuart monarchs in that direction had, at least, the merit of candor; the Georges, while treating the houses with outward respect, endeavored to corrupt them as to make the members simply the creatures of the royal will. Obviously, so far as the maintenance of constitutional freedom is concerned, there can be no difference between the abolition of Parliament altogether and the degradation of it to a venal assembly ready to execute the wishes of the court. Yet it was no easy matter for an independent member to escape the influence or the acts of such a monarch, for instance, as George the Third. He spared no pains to ascertain the weak points of any doubtful member and would comport himself at a levee or drawing room so as either to intimidate or conciliate.

"Tell me," he writes to Lord North, his favorite minister, "who deserted you last night * * * that I may mark my sense of their behavior at the drawing room to-morrow;" and again, "It the utmost obsequiousness on my part at the levee to-day can gain over Mr. Solicitor General to your views it shall not be wanting," If the influence of the court had assumed no other form than a smile or a frown at a levee, it may, perhaps, be thought that no very great harm would have followed. But this was not the case. Bribery, either by specific donations of money or by the grant of pensions, paid secretly and held during the pleasure of the king, was practiced to an enormous extent. A speech in the house of commons that pleased the Sovereign would be recognized by a douceur out of the secret service money a satisfactory vote, by a civil list pension.

RETRENCHMENT.

Even as early as the sign of Queen Anne the house of commons had cut at the root of the perpetual pensions which had delighted the hearts of the adherents of the Stuarts, by prohibiting the grant of any portion of the hereditary revenue for any period longer than the life of the sovereign. But this was only a small installment of needed reform. At length, in 1780, Burke took up the matter in his great speech on financial reform. At that time there was absolutely no restraint on the monarch as to the amount of his grants or the number of recipients. There were separate pension lists for England, Ireland and Scotland, not paid openly at the exchequer, but by a special paymaster: while the produce of some anomalous duties levied on the West India islands, which ought to have been apporpriated to the purposes of the colony itself, had been formed into a fund for pensions of a questionable kind. Burke proposed that the English pension list should be limited to £95,000 a year. This suggestion was carried out; but no alteration was made in the Scotch and Irish lists till some years later.

But the act of Burke, followed up as it was by the motion of Dunning, that "the influence of the crown had increased, is increasing and ought to be diminished, produced indirect results of more importance than its immediate economies. Act after act was passed limiting still further the grant of pensions: and, what is of more importance still, there was developed a public opinion altogether opposed to the continuance of practices which degraded the civil list pensions to the level of an immoral compact between a venal assembly and an irresponsible king. The diffused sentiment found fitting expression in the memorable resolution of the house of commons in 1834—"That it is the bounded duty of the responsible advisers of the crown to recommend to his majesty for pensions on the civil list such persons only as have just claims on the royal beneficence, or who by their personal services to the crown, by the performance of duties to the public, or by their useful discoveries in science and attainments in literature and the arts, have merited the gracious consideration of their sovereign and the gratitude of their country."

But the legislature was by no means satisfied with a mere recommendation. In 1837 a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to inquire into all the existing pensions. They did their duty thoroughly, writing to every grantee to ascertain the grounds on which the pension had been granted. Their report is extremely interesting and curious, but we are bound to say a perusal of it shows that the worst evils of the system had been removed before the committee commenced their labors. However, the committee struck off some pensions altogether, limited the tenure of others, and at the same time, with the view of further enforcing the sound policy already recommended, they made several suggestions as to the mode in which pensions should in future be given. Meanwhile, the Legislature, in passing the civil list of Victoria, had enacted that the old pensions should be removed from the Civil list altogether and should be paid out of the consolidated fund, and that her Majesty should be empowered to give new pensions to the extent of £1,200 a year. These pensions, then constitute class 5 of the Civil list, the total of which increases year by year as her Majesty's reign lengthens, and which amounts now to £25,000. Every year the Prime Minister nominates the new pensioners, and the Queen issues a separate warrant for each individual, which warrant specifies at length the grounds for the pension. All additions to the list are reported to Parliament, Doubtless the best proof that can be given of the satisfactory working of the system is to be found in the fact that the pension list has nowadays disappeared entirely from the arena of public discussion. On the phole it may be said that the pensions are undoubtedly granted to worthy objects.

OTHER SOURCES OF REVENUE.

In addition to the voted Civil list however, two sources of revenue remain to the Royal family. The reigning monarch of the British realms is also a Duke or a Duchess of Lancaster, and the eldest son of the Sovereign is Duke of Cornwall by birth. The former of these, the Duchy of Lancaster, has been vested in the Crown since the time of Henry the Fourth. It was his private property when he took possession of the throne, and it was then and has been ever since kept distinct from the other Crown lands, which are now surrendered by the nation as a tenant. There is a Chancellor of the Duchy—John Bright is the present one—who is a political officer, and who looks after the rents and royalties of mines and quarries and other channels of income which make up its revenue, and who pays over yearly to her Majesty's Privy purse the net profits of the Duchy emounting now to £30,000.

The Duchy of Cornwall has vested in the eldest son of the Sovereign since Edward the Third bestowed the duchy on the Black Prince. If there be no son the revenues are paid to the Crown itself. The income of the duchy arises chiefly from coal and tin mines and from a compensation paid out of the consolidated fund in lieu of certain old duties. Its affairs are managed by a permanent council. The profits of the duchy have been considerably enhanced by the judicious management of the late Prince Consort, and amount now to £60,000 a year. The nation actually reaps the benefit of this sum, for when Parliament settled the income of the Prince of Wales at £100,000 a year, only £40,000 was made chargeable against the public revenue.

PRACTICAL WORKING OF THE SYSTEM.

Let us now endeavor to ascertain the practical working of the system under which the Crown is supported in England. The first point to be touched upon is the extent to which all the arrangements are penetrated with the idea of constitutionlism. The nation desires that there shall always be harmonious co-operation between the responsible Government of the day and the members of the Royal Household. This is effected by making the great officers of the Household—the Lord Chamberlain, Master, of the Horse, Mistress of the Robes, etc.—removable with every change of ministry. The scandal and friction which would be occasioned if a Prince Minister's conduct were always the subject of adverse and interested criticism from officials in daily contact with royalty is thus avoided, and the independence of the minister secured. Again, the nation does not wish so to endow a monarch that, on the one head, his wealth may be applied as mere caprice or tyranny suggests, perhaps to the detriment of the freedom of the subject. On the other hand, the nation would be disgusted at the spectacle of an avaricious or penurious sovereign, who hoarded his income, and so proved himself a dwarfed and unworthy representative of the majesty of the State. To counteract both tendencies, the Civil List is, as we have seen, divided into two classes, the object for which the total of each class is to be applied being specified by act of Parliament. In this way the maintenance of the desired amount of State pageantry and magnificence is insured. Finally, the actual issues in each of the classes are subject to the examination of a Treasury official, the auditor of the Civil List, whose business it is to see that the prescribed total is not exceeded.

But this system, however beneficial and constitutional, certainly imposes on the country some correlative obligations. If the Crown, after surrendering all its landed property, receives in return an income so divided as to place only £100,000 a year at its absolute disposal the remainder being appropriated under conditions which renders any considerable economy impossible, it seems but reasonable that the country should make special arrangements for special exigencies. Hence it has always been understood that the nation will grant a dowry to a son or daughter of the reigning sovereign, and will bestow pensions on the various members of the Roal Family. A royal marriage may be of advantage to the State, by strengthening a national alliance already existing, or effecting a new one; or, on the other hand, it may be the occasion all sorts of political complications and trouble. In either case, it is of the last importance that any proposed marriage should, if suitable, have the sanction of Parliament; if unsuitable, its veto. Now the granting or withholding of the dowry gives to the House of Commons exactly the needed power.

If now we are asked to ascertain the cost of monarchy the. task is bv no means difficult. Her Majesty receives, as we have seen a civil list of £385,000 a year. To this we must add £31,000, the revenue derived from the Duchy of Lancaster, and £17,000, the annual cost of maintaining the palaces in the occupation of the Crown, which is provided for in a vote of Parliament. These items amount to £433,000. The Prince of Wales has £100,000 a year, of which £60,-is derived from the Duchy of Cornwall, and £40,000 from an annuity on the consolidated fund; the Princess of Wales, £10,000; the Dukes of Edinburgh and Connaught (Princes Alfred and Arthur), £15,000 each; the Princess Royal, or Crown Princess of Germany, £8,000; Princesses Helena and Louise, £7,000 each; the widow of the Duke of Albany, the late Prince Leopold, is to have £6,000; tne Princess Teck and the Princess of Augusta, of Mecklenburg Strelitz—sister of the Duke of Cambridge and cousin of the Queen—£5,000 and £3.000 each respectively, and the Duke of Cambridge, £12.000. These annuities amount to £126,000, and adding this, with the revenue of the Duchy of Cornwall. to our former total, we reach a total charge of £619,000 a year. Now the Crown lands produce a profit of £375,000, and the other branches of hereditary revenue about £13,000, which sums are carried to the exchequer. Thus the net result of the eystem we are discussing is that royalty costs the British taxpayer just £231,000 a year.

Now taking Professor Leone Levi's estimate that the taxation of the working class amounts to 12½ per cent. of their taxable incomes, and calculating the proportion which the cost of royalty bears to the general expenditure of the nation, we arrive at this result, that in the case of a skilled artisan with a taxable income of £100 a year, the maintenance of royalty costs him ninepence—eighteen cents—a year.

Such then is the outcome of the constitutional contract which the English nation has made with the sovereign. In every feature It bears the mark of compromise which is so characteristic of that nation—the spirit wnich find its expressions in the saw, "The king reigns, but does not govern"—which gives the monarch a veto he is ever supposed to exercise—which, in short, desires every act of government to be the act of the sovereign, and get is sincerely distrustful of any other intervention of the Crown that is implied in sanctioning an act of Parliament. Of course, arrangements carried out in such a spirit as this cannot be expected to excite such enthusiasm; on the other hand, they certainly disarm criticism. And this is just what has been acheived by the Civil List contract. It works without friction, is thoroughly constitutional, and moreover, has made it altogether impossible for a Republican to attack Royalty in England on the score of cost. Many of the criticisms which have of late years been directed against the Civil List have demonstrated this. They were felt to be trivial and pitiful, and, as a contribution to the discussion of the relative merits of royality and republicanism, worthless. A logical republican would object to a king even if the crown cost him nothing: an ardent propagandist of divine right would, object to a king even if the divine right would, we suppose, kiss the scepter though he were beggared in maintaining it. But once let it be granted that constitutional monarchy, however, illogical in theory, is desirable simply because it works well, and it is difficult to see how it could be maintained more cheaply or more agreeably than by the civil List of England.

KINDNESS AND APPLES.

Go a Good Way Toward Teaching Circus Horses Curious Tricks.

Cincinnati Enquirer.

A short, black.moustached gentleman, with a long whip in his hand, was standing in the centre of a circus ring talking to a gray stallion. The animal stood fully sixteen hands high, was powerfully built as a Flemish draught horse, and had a coat that glistened like satin. Its white-tail swept the sawdust in the ring, and its head and neck were as clean cut and graceful as a swan's.

"Whoa, there! Whoa, my beauty!" Then he approached and stroked the creature's neck, while it whinnied softly and pawed the sawdust with its off forefoot. The man was Hiram Marks, ringmaster with John Robinson's show, and this was his school of horses.

"I am just giving this stallion his lesson now," he said. "He is a beginner, fairly well advanced in the 'First Reader,' we may say. I advanced him from the 'Primer' last week, and I find that he has so much intelligence that it is pretty clear I will be able to carry him through the High School and graduate him as a No. 1 trick horse. When he came to me he had been handled enough to bear the girth and the bit. I satisfied myself that he was a beauty and had a certain degree of intelligence before I began to handle him, as it is time thrown away to educate an ungainly horse or one that is not exceedingly bright. I put a girth on him, slipped a bit into his mouth, put a bridle over his head, fastened the over-check and side lines to his girth, and led him into the ring. The ring, as you see, is a regular circus ring, with raised circumference and a centre pole. I buckled this lunge cord into the ring at his bit, and there he was, ready to take his first lesson.

"The first thing to teach him is to go around the outer edge of the ring, instead of running across it, as is his first impulse. By threatening him with the whip, I keep him from the centre of the ring, and by pulling on the lunge cord I hold him from going too far and climbing the embankment. In the course of a week or two, by working twice a day, any horse can learn to lope or gallop about the ring, either way as commanded. Have you ever noticed that all circus riders ride around the ring from right to left? No? Well, they do. An Italian by the name of Jumarny was the only rider I ever knew who rode from left to right.

"After this stallion had learned to go around the ring when commanded, I started to teach him to come to me at a motion of the whip. I have reached that stage now. You can see for yourself how I go about it."

He cracked the whip and the beautiful horse set off on a lope only to stop short when the whip was cracked again.

"Come," said the trainer, pulling gently on the lunge cord and motioning with the whip the steady strain of the cord told the animal what was wanted, and he walked slowly toward his master. When he had reached the desired point an apple and a caress were given him, and then the entire act was repeated.

"With plenty of apples and candy the right kind of horse can be taught anything. No they neither need nor get any whipping at at all while their education is in process. They may be tapped occasionally with the whip handled or brushed with the lash, but the main use of the whip is to tell them how to move by its cracking, and to tell them when to move by its motions. The principal signals to a horse are made with the whip handle; when the voice is used it is done more to beguile the audience than to enlighten the horse. For instance, when I say 'Come,' I move my whip in a certain manner, and the horse comes. Without the motion of the whip he would not understand me, while without the word 'come' my wants would be perfectly clear to him, and he would obey by the whip alone.

"Dan Rice had one of the very few horses that have been broken to the voice, and that happened only by accident. When Dan began with him the nag had perfectly good eyes, and was broken to the motiom of the whip, but while the training was in progress it went stone blind. It was such a beautiful and intelligent creature that Mr. Rice did not want to give it up, and, reasoning that if a cart horse can be taught to 'gee' and 'haw' by sound, his horse could be taught other things in the same way he went to work and broke the animal over again to the voice. For the act done by this blind horse and its mate Dan Rice used to get $1,000 every week that he exhibited them. The figures are not exaggerated. I know this to be a fact."

"You say that with apples the right horse can be taught anything. Will you explain?"

"Why, it is all clear. When I say the right horse I mean a nag like this one here—a horse that moves quickly that keeps his eye constantly on you, and understands your motions. There are men, you know, who are sluggish and dull of perception—what is called fat-witted—and there are just that kind of horses. Such a nag I could hardly teach to run around the ring in the same time that I could give an entire education to an alert and intelligent animal. Then there is another kind of horse that may be intelligent enough, but which will never suit me, and that is a vicious beast.

"Some years ago among the best-known American equestrians was Mr. Levi J. North I think he is living in retirement in New York state now. He was breaking a cream-colored stallion in the ring one morning while I was standing outside chewing a straw and talking to some of the boys. The beast was handsome and quick enough, but it was as vicious as a hyena and that morning something had disturbed it in the stable, so that when it danced into the the ring its little black eyes glittered like a snake's, I expected trouble, but North knew his business and the rest of us contented ourselves with looking on. I had turned my head to say something to one of the boys when I heard a shriek. I wheeled around, and there was North whirling around, that stallisn's head as a boy whirls a basket. The beast had caught him with its teeth by one wrist, and after a couple of whirls it sent him crashing through the ropes on the other side of the ring, His wrist was broken, and he is crippled to this day. No, I thank you; no vicious stallion for me.

"Now, in teaching an animal to pick up a handkerchief, for instance let me show you how the apple works. That act is pretty well along—in the sixth reader, say: but my beginner here will do it for this once."

The trainer broke a small russet apple in two pieces, and wrapped one of the pieces in his handkerchief. This he placed to the horse's nose long enough for it to get the scent of the apple, and then walking to the other side of the ring, he placed the handkerchief and apple together on the sawdust there. The alert animal watched him like a cat, and no sooner was the handkerchief on the ground than he trotted to it, picked it up, and shook it until the apple became disengaged from its folds.

"Horses are taught to fire a pistol in precisely the same way. An apple is fastened to the end of a line attached to a pistol's trigger. The animal tugs at the line to get the apple, and fires the charge. In the course of time the apple is discontinued; but tugging at the line has become second nature with the horse, and he pulls it as a matter of course."

The Ears Tell the Story.

Cincinnati Enquirer.

Plenty of fighters will tell you that they can hit as hard with their left hands as they can with their right, but don't believe them. If you visit any sparring exhibition or prize fight, and are observant, you will see that the left ear of two-thirds of the fighters present are thickened out of shape and enlarged to nearly double their normal size. This is caused by the bruising the aforesaid ears received in fighting and sparring. It is very rare that the right ear of a fighter is found thus affected, a fact which shows that the punishing work is done with the right duke.