

# AN HOUR WITH THE EDITOR

## ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS

With the deposition of James II, parliamentary control of the Crown was settled beyond all future question. The House of Commons adopted a resolution which declared that the King, "having endeavored to subvert the constitution of this kingdom by breaking the original contract between King and People, and by the advice of Jesuits and other wicked persons, having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himself from the kingdom, has abdicated the government, and that the throne is thereby vacant." The House of Lords accepted the resolution, except so far as it declared the throne vacant, for it claimed that the throne could not be vacant, and that immediately upon the deposition of the King being declared, the right to the succession being vested in his daughter Mary. The debate was long and keen, and the resolution was amended by a declaration to that effect. A difficulty then arose, for William declined to act as regent for his wife, or, as he himself put it, to be his wife's gentleman-usher, and Mary refused to accept the Crown except jointly with her husband. The result was an agreement in which both Houses concurred that William and Mary should be acknowledged as joint sovereigns, the administrative power being vested in William alone.

But the Whig majority of the Commons was not satisfied, and under the leadership of John Somers, a young lawyer who had on former occasions given proof of his ability, it drew up a Declaration of Rights. This was perhaps the most important document ever issued by Parliament, for it settled the system of constitutional government upon a definite basis. The Great Charter, the Petition of Right and other famous declarations of the people of England were formulated under circumstances that rendered them binding only when the sovereign did not feel strong enough to disregard them; but the Declaration of Rights, afterwards made law by the Bill of Rights, set forth the condition upon which William and Mary and their successors were recognized as entitled to the Crown. They and their successors to this day are bound by the provisions of this justly celebrated measure.

The Declaration of Rights began by asserting that James had misgoverned the kingdom and had abdicated the throne, adding that the Lords and Commons were determined to assert the ancient rights and liberties of the English people. It then declared the appointment of an ecclesiastical commission illegal, and asserted that the king had no right to raise an army without the consent of Parliament. It denied the right of the king to suspend laws or to disregard them, or to impose taxes or raise money in any way without parliamentary sanction. It conferred upon every person the free right of petition, or rather asserted that this right had always existed, and must not thereafter be disallowed; it forbade the interference of the Crown in elections; it declared that members of Parliament had absolute freedom of debate; it asserted the resolve to keep the fountains of justice pure and the right of every person to worship God according to his own conscience. Then having declared its confidence in the readiness of William and Mary to maintain intact the principles asserted by the Declaration, it formally proclaimed them King and Queen of England. William and Mary promptly accepted the crown upon these conditions, and thus constitutional government became the law of the land; for the Declaration having been incorporated into a statute, received the assent of the King and Queen.

The next important change taken by Parliament was in respect to grant of public money. Under the Stuarts, the grants had been for life. Parliament made its first grant to William and Mary for four years only. William was indignant, claiming that he was being treated with a lack of confidence; but Parliament was too well advised as to the ambitions of William in connection with Continental wars to be willing to entrust him indefinitely with the revenue of the kingdom, and when his protest came to be considered, instead of it being heeded, the term of the grant was cut down to a single year. Thus was laid the foundation of the system of granting Supply annually.

The next step was the assumption by Parliament of control over the army. This followed almost as a matter of course from the granting of Supply annually, for without money the troops could not be kept together; but a statute was passed declaring that all matters of discipline should be vested in the hands of the officers. Hitherto they had been in the hands of the King, and although of necessity exercised by the officers, the King was the sole judge of what discipline required. Parliament took this authority to itself. This was a radical change. It is true that the King continued to be, as he now is, the nominal commander of the forces, but he exercises the powers of that office solely as the agent of Parliament. This change in the control of the army was contained in what is known as the Mutiny Act, which was passed for one year only, and has been renewed annually ever since. Thus Supply and the maintenance of the army having been made subject to annual legislation, it followed as a matter of course that sessions of Parliament must be held annually. Parliament also sought to limit its duration to three years, but William disallowed this measure, and it may be mentioned that this measure was the last but one that the sovereign of England has ever refused to assent to after it had been passed by both Houses of Parliament. The Commons sought to exclude from its membership all persons holding office under the Crown, but the Lords refused to agree, and, as events proved, this refusal was

a wise one. It made possible the adoption of the principle of ministerial responsibility. This was the next great change. Before the time of William the ministers of the Crown had been the king's servants, and he was governed in the choice of them by nothing else than his own judgment or caprice. Though it had had its way in everything except the matter of triennial parliaments and the exclusion of officials, Parliament, and especially the House of Commons, soon grew restless. William met with meagre success in his Continental wars, and the result was great dissatisfaction, which seemed, however, to be due more to lack of parliamentary leadership than anything else. At this juncture Robert, Earl of Sutherland, came to the front with a suggestion. Sutherland was far from being a statesman of a high type. Indeed he had shown lack of good faith on innumerable occasions; but his sagacity was profound, and it showed him the way out of the embarrassment felt by the King in dealing with Parliament. He proposed that the ministers should be selected from the party having the support of the majority in the House of Commons. The King hesitated to follow the suggestion, but finding that the Tory party in Parliament was opposed to his war with France, while the Whigs favored it, he dismissed such of his ministers as were Tories and replaced them by Whigs. To the ministry thus formed all the parliamentary groups, except the Tories, gave their support, and party government with ministerial responsibility to the House of Commons was thus inaugurated. As yet there was no Prime Minister, but perhaps Somers, who was made Lord Keeper of the Seal, came nearest to occupying what we now know as the premiership. The Chancellor of the Exchequer was Lord Montague, and it was under his direction that the Bank of England was established on a plan devised by William Paterson. As the result of the establishment of the Bank the National Debt came into existence, for through instrumentality the ministry raised money for pressing necessities. The existence of this debt, which was owed to the people of England, proved a means whereby the moneyed interests of the kingdom were led to give their full support to the new regime, for a return of the Stuarts would have meant a repudiation of the national liabilities.

## NATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

It is perhaps incorrect to speak of the characteristics of the Negro race as national, and it is also hardly accurate to refer to them as continental, for between the different peoples inhabiting Africa there are as wide differences as we find among the people of Europe. Not all the native inhabitants of Africa are Negroes. These people are confined to a region that may thus be described: Beginning on the east at the western boundary of Abyssinia, it extends westward across the upper part of the Nile Basin through the central part of the Continent south of the Desert of Sahara to the Guinea coast, and thence down the west coast through the Congo nearly to the Cape. The Bantu race, which includes the Kaffirs, the Zulus and some other tribes, is not Negro, neither are the Hottentots. There is an offshoot of the Negro race in New Guinea and some of the neighboring islands. It is estimated that there are altogether about 150,000,000 Negroes in the world, including in this number the 20,000,000 full blood and half-caste descendants of slaves now living on the American Continent.

Neither the Hebrews nor the ancient Greeks seem to have known of the existence of the Negro race, although the ancient Egyptians did. The records of Egypt show that this knowledge extended as far back as B.C. 2600, and in monuments dating from at least B.C. 1600 Negroes are represented, the type of countenance being precisely the same as that of the Negroes of today. The Negro race seems to be a distinct type of mankind. The peculiar physical characteristics of the race may be thus stated: The arms are abnormally long; the average weight of the brain is about 70 per cent that of the average weight of the brain of Europeans; the facial angle is much more acute than that of any other race; the eye is black with a black iris; the nose is broad, flat and flaring; the lips are thick and protruding; the skull is abnormally thick; the lower limbs are weak, and the great toe has certain prehensile powers; the skin varies in color from dark brown to deep black, is thick, soft, velvety and naturally cool; the hair is woolly, not simply curly; the structure of the frame prevents the body from being held quite perpendicularly. Of course these characteristics are those of Negroes in Africa, where the blood of the race has been kept pure, and where life is maintained under the conditions peculiar to that country.

The Negroes are excessively superstitious; they believe in a number of gods and in a future life. Although kind-hearted and hospitable, they are terribly cruel in war. They are cleanly, and the love of mothers for their children seems to be developed in them to an extraordinary degree. This quality of affection is extended even to strangers, and there is probably no more loyal person in the world than a Negro is to one to whom he gives his confidence. The Negro knows how to be faithful unto death.

Of all the races of mankind the Negro seems to be the readiest to assimilate the habits and manners of the white race; they also seem to more readily assimilate with it in blood. The half-caste Negro, while often retaining many of the characteristics of his race, is frequently distinguished by the possession of the best qualities of the white man in a very high degree. The Negro seems to be capable of a high degree of civilization when removed from

his native surroundings and given a fair opportunity.

As far as anyone knows, the Negroes are absolutely original in Africa. There is no reason whatever to suppose that they originally come from any other part of the globe, or that they at one time occupied parts of the continent from which they have been driven by stronger peoples. They have been so long resident in Africa that they have developed fully two hundred languages, which differ very widely from each other, so widely, indeed, that it is apparently impossible to detect any resemblance between many of them. There are likewise great differences in the stage of advancement reached by various tribes. Some of them are in as low a state of barbarism as can well be imagined; others have made considerable progress not only in agriculture, but in the weaving of cloth and the working metals. They are by no means attached to their own religious beliefs, and accept Mohammedanism or Christianity with equal facility, having apparently no choice between them, and adding in each case their own weird superstitions. As a race they seem capable of accomplishing very much under guidance, and one of the most momentous questions of the present day is if they shall become members of Christendom or followers of Islam. The latter religion is making much the greater headway.

It is impossible to shut our eyes to the fact that the Negro race is a factor that in the not very remote future the rest of the world will have to reckon with. It is said that nearly all the tribes cherish a tradition that a leader is coming, who will show them the way to the conquest of the world; and though we may dismiss this as of little moment, we cannot escape the fact that, as European influence is rapidly lessening inter-tribal wars and stamping out the slave trade, the increase of the number of Negroes will before many generations be too great for the region they now occupy. The overflow must be northward or northeasterly, and the world may witness a repetition of the movement that determined the history of Europe just before and just after the beginning of the Christian Era. The movement of a virile race, using the word "virile" in its proper sense, which is that it is reproductive, is as irresistible as the movement of a glacier. To what extent the Negro population of America may determine the future of this continent it is difficult to say. There are probably 10,000,000 Negroes now living in the United States, and they are largely confined to the Southern States, in some of which they outnumber the white population, for example, in Mississippi and South Carolina. In what are known as the Southern States the white population in 1900 was under 12,000,000, and the Negro population in excess of 8,000,000. The Negroes in the United States have more than doubled since 1860, and that, too, without immigration.

## RELICS OF THE PAST

High up, nearly, if not more than, a thousand feet above the sea, and several miles distant from the Strait of Juan de Fuca, on the southwest of Vancouver Island, and in the midst of the forest, there is a deposit of sea shell, firmly cemented together. The deposit is "in place," to use the geological term. Hence we are driven to infer that at one time the locality where the shells are found was beneath the sea. When this was we have no present means of ascertaining, although possibly data might be available that would enable geologists to make a rough guess at it. We can only be sure that it was very long ago. Hence, also, we infer that Vancouver Island is relatively modern, for the shells are not very dissimilar to those now found on the shore. We may feel reasonably certain that, once upon a time, the waves of the Pacific rolled over all the land now forming this Island. Possibly it was lifted slowly by great rocks from below, which now form the mountain range; and thus we get a general glimpse of the Island's history, extending over uncounted centuries from the time that are now glacier-clad mountains were sunk beneath the warm waters of a semi-tropical ocean, or there is undoubted proof that these waters were at one time semi-tropical, and that the banana and other fruits, now only found far to the south of this latitude, flourished here in great luxuriance. When was this? Well, no one can do much more than guess. The last guess is that it was three million years ago, at a moderate estimate, the guesser is careful to tell us.

Around these waters roamed the awful tyrannosaur, a flesh-eating monster, whose food was the stupendous dinosaur. The dinosaur was a comparatively gentle beast; but if one of them should make his appearance nowadays, most people would hardly so regard him. When this creature was first made known, all that geologists had to show for him was a few bones, but they were able to argue from these what the creature was like, and as events have proved, they were by no means far astray. They failed, because imagination could hardly conceive of such a dreadful looking animal as the dinosaur really was. Full skeletons have since been found, and in one case even the skin was fossilized, so that we really know what he was like. A dinosaur was a creature something after the general appearance of a kangaroo, but combining with its traits those of the reptile. How large they became is uncertain, but some of the skeletons show that when standing semi-erect, the animals were over seventeen feet high. Now, picture such a creature, standing on huge legs, with great webbed feet, with short fore-legs degenerating in the same way; with a long tail, something like that of a lizard, and a project-

ing head, shaped like that of a duck, and you will have some idea of the animal that might be met around the corner anywhere in this part of the world, where there was sea and sea vegetation three million years ago. Of dinosaurs there were many, as their numerous remains abundantly testify. This vast creature had a marvelous set of teeth, covering his mouth in several rows, both above and below, and between these he ground his food as between millstones. It is thought, also, that he had the ostrich-like habit of swallowing stones to aid digestion. But this animal was far from being monarch of all he surveyed; for along the shore roamed the tyrannosaur, a creature of still vaster dimensions, with canine teeth, showing that he lived on flesh. He is supposed to have had a fancy for dinosaur meat, and that the latter only escaped annihilation by resorting to the sea, for the tyrannosaur was a land animal.

These are not fabled creatures, for there is absolute proof that they at one time roamed the earth in great numbers. Indeed, a weird story comes from Central Africa to the effect that, dwelling in one of the almost inaccessible lakes in that continent, there is at least one dinosaur, or a creature very much resembling it. The dinosaur was ovi-parous; that is, she laid eggs, for presumably three million years ago the female was as now the egg-producer. This adds to the weirdness of the whole business. Fancy a seventeen-foot creature, with a head like a duck, a body like a kangaroo, a tail like a lizard and feet like a frog, laying eggs. Verily, in some respects, we are living in a degenerate age.

## Some Famous Dramatists and Their Master-Pieces

(N. de Bertrand Lagan)

### ALFRED DE MUSSET

Among the many men who came under the spell of the personality of Georges Sand was this writer, who, as long as he lived and knew her, was completely controlled by her influence. To this exceptional woman, however, his adoration seemed after the first few months of their intimacy. They were both followers of the Romantic school, and thought to carry out its teachings in their own lives. Becoming convinced, after a brief trial, that their experiment was a failure, and that in order to gain happiness one must observe social and moral laws, they agreed to separate. Georges Sand speedily recovered from the sorrow of this parting; but de Musset, more faithful in his affections, never got over his grief at being deprived of her counsel and companionship, and his letters to her, recently published, reveal the depth of his attachment to this woman, who had so many lovers, and who, apparently, lost her heart to none of them.

It was this sentimental misfortune, however, that spurred him to intellectual activity; and though in the writer's subsequent works, he rears over and over again for us his own misfortunes; yet so beautifully are they composed, with such a passion of eloquence, such vivid portraiture of character and scene, such unrivalled loveliness of description, that we can forgive their egotism. We cannot, however, afford to overlook their immoral tone; and though a student of literature may read them with beneficent results, and mature men and women find in them much to admire, their general bad effect upon an indiscriminate public cannot be overlooked.

Alfred de Musset was born in 1810. He was a shy, sensitive child, almost effeminate in his disposition, and delicate from babyhood. He was a passionate lover of the beautiful wherever he found it in nature, and he voiced that passion in all his works. As a youth, however, he lived so recklessly, giving himself up to so many excesses, that he further impaired his health, never recovering from the effects produced, which eventually weakened him mentally as well as physically.

He was a protegee of the older and more famous poet, Victor Hugo, and is named with him and with Lamartine as one of the three greatest French poets of the Nineteenth Century. However, strong as was the personality of Hugo, the young de Musset did not feel its influence to the jeopardization of his own originality, but followed his own paths in the composition of drama, story and poem.

Alfred de Musset lived to be forty-seven years old, and he died a mental and physical wreck. His last words were, "Sleep—at last I am going to sleep," evidence of the nervous suffering which he had endured for so long. There is a monument to him at Pere Lachaise cemetery in Paris.

The two first dramas which he produced were "The Venetian Night," "The Cup and the Dips," and "Of What Do Young Girls Dream." The first named was not a success. The second is a gloomy story of a young man who has sunk to the depths of depravity, when he falls in love with a pure and beautiful girl, who is murdered by a former mistress. In this doubtful tale the poet conveys the idea, that there is no redemption for those who have once given themselves up to vice. The third drama is decidedly Byronic in tone.

Ten years after the publication of the above works, "A Caprice" was produced and played in Paris by Mrs. Allne Despreaux with great success. From this time the genius of de Musset as a dramatist was recognized, and all the plays which he wrote were put on and met with keen appreciation by a large class of critics.

"Lorenzaccio" is the strongest of his plays. It is the story of one Lorenzo de Medici, who wishes to serve Florence by ridding her of her ruler, the dissolute Alexander de Medici. In order to accomplish his end, Lorenzo pretends to find pleasure in the sinful excesses to which the Duke has given himself up body and soul. Under his pretense Lorenzo remains pure; but the world judges him only by his outward seeming, and condemns him, though he kills the tyrant and frees his countrymen from oppression.

The most original of de Musset's dramas is probably "One Must Not Play with Love." It is intended to be a comedy, but it contains much bitterness and sadness. The following poem voices his own love for the one woman who influenced his life:

### Juana

Again I see you, ah, my queen,—  
Of all my old loves that have been,  
The first love and the tenderest;  
Do you remember or forget—  
Ah, me! for I remember yet—  
How the last summer days were blest?

Ah, lady, when we think of this,  
The foolish hours of youth and bliss,  
How fleet, how sweet, how hard to hold!

Lady, beware, for all we say  
This love shall live another day,  
Awakened from his deathly sleep;  
The heart that once has been your shrine  
For other loves is too divine;  
A home, my dear, too wide and deep.

What did I say? Why do I dream?  
Why should I struggle with the stream  
Whose waves return not any day?  
Close heart, and eyes, and arms from me;  
Farewell, farewell! so must it be;  
So runs, so runs the world away.

The season bears upon its wing,  
The swallows and the songs of spring,  
And days that were and days that fit,  
The loved, lost hours are far away;  
And hope and fame are scattered spray  
For me, that gave you love a day,  
For you, that not remember it.

### THE CALL

(By Robert V. Carr)

List, soul of youth, unto the call  
From where the mighty rivers fall  
Into a crimson sunset sea;  
Choose now for aye thy company,  
"Lo," the answer, "We are three,  
Youth and Hope and Destiny."

The voice of Hope with joy replete,  
Thrilled thro' the silence low and sweet;  
"Thy call hath stirred me wondrously,  
My star shall light the way for thee.  
Thus I answer, 'We are three,  
Youth and Hope and Destiny.'"

Cried Destiny, "My word I wage,  
To win an empire's heritage!  
For, Youth, I love the laugh of thee,  
And prize thy joyous company.  
Thus I answer, 'We are three,  
Youth and Hope and Destiny.'"

Youth cried to Hope, "Behold the Dawn!"  
To Destiny, "Lead on! Lead on!"  
The call is old, yet ever new,  
We seek the land where dreams are true.  
Westward marched the matchless three,  
Youth and Hope and Destiny.  
—Man to Man Magazine.

### THE POET'S SONG TO HIS WIFE

How many summers, love,  
Have I been thine?  
How many days, thou dove,  
Hast thou been mine?  
Time, like the winged wind  
When it bends the flowers,  
Hath left no mark behind  
To count the hours!

Some weight of thought, though loath  
On thee he leaves;  
Some lines of care round both  
Perhaps he weaves;  
Some fears—a soft regret  
For joys scarce known;  
Sweet looks we half forget—  
All else is flown!

Ah! With what thankless heart  
I mourn and sing!  
Look, where our children start,  
Like sudden spring!  
With tongues all sweet and low,  
Like a pleasant rhyme,  
They tell how much I owe  
To thee and Time!

—Bryan Waller Procter.

### PATCHING IT UP

The usual after-dinner tiff had taken place, and Smithers had cooled down. After all peace was a good thing and well worth the having, and a little more or less humble pie did not much matter. He determined to try woman's weak point—dress—and remarked, in a pleasant voice:

"I see dresses are to be worn longer than usual this season."  
But the hard lines at the corners of her mouth were still there.  
"Well," she observed, bitterly, "if they are to be worn longer they will have to be made of sheet-iron—that's all!" And then they started over again.—Modern Society.

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