

from English commentators, who, Dr. Sarrazin thinks, are the "most legitimate" interpreters. We note, with amusement, that he makes a sharp distinction between Englishmen and Americans, associating the latter, presumably as aliens, with "Dutch and German scholars." But no harm is done and our feelings are not hurt. By the doctor's leave, we shall still do our best to speak and read our mother tongue, which Alexander Schmidt understood so well—rather better, we see, than his editor, who speaks of "commentators of the great poet" where the idiom requires *on*.

VILLARI'S ITALIAN LIFE.

Italian Life in Town and Country. By Luigi Villari. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

When we consider how entirely distinct in most characteristics the provinces forming United Italy are, we must agree with our author that it is no easy task to give a just idea of Italian social life in a short volume. The broad demarcations of north and south, with the strongly marked individuality of their different populations, cannot escape the notice of the most casual observer; but not only the provinces differ essentially in character, thought, manners and customs, cookery, etc.; each important city seems to have retained its own particularities which in the past gave a stamp to the architecture, painting, and sculpture of each place.

In the north the people are industrious, active, full of business enterprise and capacity; they take the lead in politics and in social questions, and consider themselves vastly superior to their southern compatriots, for whom they do not trouble to hide their contempt. The population of the *Alta Italia* provinces consider themselves wronged in having to pay high taxes in order to support the Meridionali in idleness, while the latter are equally dissatisfied, complaining that the Government has always been more favorable to the north, promoting its industries with protectionist tariffs, making more railways and instituting more schools than for them. Moreover, in spite of the depressing conditions of its agriculture, the south, taxed just as heavily, has never received any aid from Government, besides having to endure the most incompetent officials, who seem to be reserved for important Government posts in the south. Before the Union, the debt of the Meridionali was very light, while now they share the public debt equally, notwithstanding the great sacrifices they made and the important part they played in the work of unity. Yet even in the south there is visible improvement. Bari and Naples are becoming important centres of commerce. The great reproach the Meridionali have to bear is on account of their terrible criminal record, and the institutions of the Mafia, the Camorra, and brigandage; the last still surviving in Sicily, as in Calabria and Le Puglie, where occasional cases transpire, though it is no longer an organized power in the province of Naples as of old.

Besides these differences of character, our author cites instances of local rivalries of cities, having their sources in historical feuds; for example, Siena, where to this day Florentines are treated with scant hospitality on account of the battle of Montaperti, in 1260, when the Siennese defeated the Florentines, and became for a while the rul-

ing power in Tuscany. The Siennese attribute all their present difficulties to the jealousy and enmity of the Florentines. They even consider the inefficient train service between the two cities as a result of Florentine bad feeling; on the other hand, they decline to organize any more convenient trains, as it might bring more Florentines to their city to damage their own commercial prospects by rivalry. This provincial exclusiveness is called the "spirito di campanile," and prevails in such towns as Pisa, Arezzo, Volterra, Montepulciano and San Gimignano, while at Rome the pride of Roman citizenship extends from its princes, who hold themselves superior to reigning families, to the beggar, who is superbly contemptuous in his acceptance of small favors.

Our author, writing on the aristocracy, considers that "good society" translates what is meant by *gristocrazia*, for bankers, merchants, manufacturers come under this denomination. Plutocracy has great influence here as everywhere. Titles are very common, there being no law of primogeniture in Italy, besides which they are frequently adopted by those who have no right to them. On the other hand, there are many of the most ancient and noble families in Venice and Lombardy descended from burghers of the free cities; "optimates," who are called *nobili* or *patrizii* without bearing any title. In the early days of Italian unity the Piedmontese nobles had much influence in the government of the new state; they were the King's immediate advisers, and are said to have promoted the common good as far as it was in their power. Their special importance ceased when Turin was no longer the seat of government, though some of them still take part in politics. They are as a class intelligent, cultured, and interested in commerce and general progress. The Lombard nobles, both for their immense wealth and for their active participation in commerce and industry, take the most prominent position among the upper classes. They travel much, and entertain with munificence at their splendid villas about the lakes, in the Brianza or on the plains. It is to their initiative that the Lombard towns owe their prosperity. The Tuscan nobility have the quality of being good landlords; they live on their estate part of the year, on friendly terms with their peasants, although their headquarters are at their ancestral palace in the town to which they belong, and where, as the one relic of their commercial origin, one often sees a little shop door in some out-of-the-way corner with Canova di Vino over it, in which wine and oil are sold at retail. Tuscan nobles are considered intelligent and shrewd, but extremely conservative and narrow-minded, and rather mean. Their innate courtesy and fear of interfering with the prejudices of their neighbors make them very inefficient in politics, and their economical instincts prevent them from being hospitable, even when they are quite wealthy. The *métayer* system of land culture brings about a feeling of part proprietorship with the peasant, and fosters that healthy republican feeling so noticeable in Tuscany. The aristocrats of the south are mostly absentees from their estates, exercising feudal rights in defiance of the law, and exacting money returns from their lands, which are managed by extortionate bailiffs. They care only to make a show in Naples or Palermo or Rome, with

fine carriages, smart clothes, and other luxuries. When in their old fortified castles in Calabria or Sicily, they live like feudal barons, and ride about with armed retainers, who are devoted to them, although the peasants on their estates, suffering as they do from their callous indifference to their welfare, regard them often with sullen hatred.

Titles are often acquired, either by giving large sums to charities, or by purchasing a landed estate to which one is attached; sometimes they are given as a reward for public services either in the army or in politics. Another very striking manner described by our author is by adoption, as follows:

"There are a great many titled people, especially in the south, who have gone down in the world and who exercise the humblest professions to earn their bread. The aspirant to nobility—a wealthy contractor, or a fortunate speculator in stocks—discovers one of these *nobili decaduti* and persuades him for a consideration to adopt him as his son. At the death of the chimney-sweeping prince or the cabman earl, the parvenu adopted son inherits the title, and plain Signor Donatini blossoms forth into the Principe di Torre San Gennaro, with coat of arms, coronet, family portraits, and liveries all complete. His position, however, is not altogether an enviable one, as he is much laughed at by all who know the story, and everybody does get to know it."

The dislike for work is the bane of the upper classes. The prejudice that a gentleman should occupy himself with landed property only is gradually giving place to more enlightened ideas, but young aristocrats brought up in priestly colleges are not fit for anything but the usual life of the butterflies of fashion, so similar in every country. There are in Italy many young, healthy men who prefer to spend their time in cafés, the theatres, and sauntering about the streets on a meagre income to turning their attention to any useful work. Mr. Villari considers that even among the laboring classes work is looked upon as a painful necessity, and that, were it possible, most people would lead an idle life.

The factors of the great differences of character among Italians of different provinces are shown to be the climate and the government to which each province has been subjected for centuries. For instance, Austrian rule in Lombardy, so oppressive in political matters, seems to have been beneficent in developing a business capacity and public spirit, and fostering an appreciation of honest civil administration. The language also varies immensely in its dialects, so that even Italians sometimes seem to be talking an unknown language when they use their special dialect before a compatriot of a far-off province. In the south there are remains of Albanian and Greek colonies, and in Sicily and Sardinia the race partly derives from the Arab, but the population of the mainland has been composed for centuries of different groups of the same race. Notwithstanding all these diversities and discordant elements, a unanimous feeling pervades all Italy of the great importance of the union of the kingdom. As a signal proof that there never has been any political party based on regional particularism of any significance, Mr. Villari recalls the proposal of some Milanese Radicals and Socialists to create a separate state with Milan for capital. This plan was so unpopular that they withdrew it of their own accord. On the formation of a Cabinet by a new minister the first consideration

seems not the fitness of each member for his post, but that ministerial honors should be equally distributed among Lombards, Tuscans, Romans, Piedmontese, and Sicilians. The same sense of fairness to all regulates the creation of new Senators and the conferring of honors. Conscription has done much to encourage a sense of brotherhood from the necessity of speaking Italian instead of the special dialects. The military authorities make it a rule also to have men of all the different provinces serve together, and they learn thus by hearsay of the condition of the whole country.

We believe Mr. Villari to be mistaken when he says there is no feeling in Italy against the Jews; we should say that there is a strong prejudice against them. Even the wealthiest are often at great disadvantage in society, but they are tolerated on account of large donations of money; or public services of some kind. Foreigners are not generally admitted to Italian society unless they are especially introduced to some leading members. So many of the noble families have married American and English women that the exclusiveness of former times is gradually disappearing.

The love of outward show is a striking feature in Italian life. Great sacrifices of personal comfort are made for the sake of appearances, especially in the south. Our author says:

"In Naples and Palermo, life is not considered worth living without a carriage. The following anecdote illustrates this feeling: An American gentleman who was spending the winter in Naples, had taken a flat in a palazzo, the first floor of which was occupied by a noble family in somewhat reduced circumstances. He noticed to his surprise that every day he met a servant going up or down the stairs carrying a pair of carriage doors. At last the mystery was explained. The said noble family shared a carriage with some other people, but each had its own doors with the family coat of arms to make their friends believe they both had carriages!"

This love of display is especially noticeable in dress. The women of all classes wear very smart clothes out of doors, love brilliant colors, and spend much money and thought on fine apparel, but we do not agree with our author that Italian ladies wear their jewels in the daytime more than the English—on the contrary, it is only at important evening receptions or state functions that foreigners have an opportunity of seeing Italian ladies wearing their splendid jewels, the heirlooms of their families. In England, at the present moment, the display of ornaments and rare gems begins at breakfast.

Great frankness is a striking characteristic of this instructive little book. The author writes of what he knows from his own experience; he has observed much, and recognized many of the deficient sides of the Italian character—the general slackness, the want of moral conscience, the absence of any high ideal, shown in a general desire to shirk difficulties, from the schoolboy at his examination who resorts to cribs, to the politician who makes use of the Mafia for his election. The subject of public education, so important to a young nation, has much occupied the Italian Government, which expends vast sums on the national schools and universities. In his chapter on this subject, Mr. Villari has had his father's (Prof. Pasquale Villari) valuable writings and researches to consult, so that what he

says bears the stamp of unquestionable authority. He points out that the great mistake has been to apply the same order of schools throughout a country where the degree of civilization is so unequal, and where, for practical purposes, different schemes of education are necessary. There are five standards of elementary education, of which three are compulsory, unless parents undertake to have their children taught at home. The number of illiterates still existing throughout the country proves that the law is not sufficiently enforced; conscripts, when they begin their military service, are often unable to read and write, and have to learn during their term. Religious instruction is optional, but is generally demanded; there is no feeling against it in Italy as there is in France. The poverty of elementary schools is very great; they are held often in unsanitary buildings, and possess few maps or specimens for object-lessons, and yet they cost the communes \$15,000,000, of which the Government grants \$325,000. The teachers, who are trained for their work in special colleges, are badly paid. The average salary for a man is from \$140 to \$265 per annum; a woman receives from \$110 to \$210 at most.

The secondary schools are divided into classical or technical; the fees are from \$20 to \$30 a term, from which the very poorest people are exempted. The classical schools are divided into *ginnasii* and *licei*. The age for the former is from ten to fifteen; the *liceo* demands three further years of study. The teaching is all on set lines, leaving no liberty of initiative either to master or to pupil. Latin is more thoroughly taught than Greek, of which it is rare that anything remains after school time. Modern languages are neglected. Italian literature, history, geography, mathematics, the elements of natural science, and philosophy, are the subjects taken up. The course at the technical schools is also of seven years; the subjects are modern languages, arithmetic, bookkeeping, algebra and geometry, drawing, history, and geography. There are, besides, special schools of decorative design and modelling. We are told that the agricultural, mining, and forest schools have failed completely, as also the sulphur-mining school at Palermo.

There are no games or sports in common at any of the public schools; the boys are very insufficiently trained in gymnastics, of which there are classes twice weekly, but from which they are easily excused on very futile pleas. We have known parents to get a medical certificate so that their boys should not run the risk of catching cold after getting heated by the prescribed exercise. Friendships are not made at school; the boys of good family keep strictly aloof from those of inferior social rank. There is no community of interest among them, so that school life loses much of the purpose it has in England and America, where recreation is part of the scholastic plan. Strolling through the streets after school hours and frequenting the cafés, or a formal walk, are often the sole resources of an Italian boy by way of recreation.

There are as many as twenty-one universities in Italy besides the College of Superior Studies in Florence and the Milan Academy. This is in excess of the requirements of the country, but, as most of them existed when there were separate indepen-

dent states, the fear of offending local susceptibilities prevents any being suppressed. The university course, the same in all, costs in fees paid in separate instalments from \$90 to \$170. The result of this cheap higher education is not happy: it fills the liberal professions with men who cannot earn their living in them, and who consider themselves too superior to undertake more useful work. They drift into Government employment, where they have little to do, and, unless specially gifted, have to content themselves with a salary of about \$240 or \$300 a year. During the university course the young men generally live at home. There is no supervision of study, no enforced discipline; they are not even obliged to attend the lectures provided for them. If any professor is unpopular or severe in exacting their attendance at his lectures, the students have it all in their own hands to organize riots, and scarcely a year passes without some demonstration of this nature; and the students of other universities follow suit to show their solidarity. The only punishment for disorderly conduct is the closing of the University for a fortnight or so; this gives the students a holiday, and they have besides fewer lectures to read up for their examinations. The Minister of Public Instruction has the right to supervise and to suspend the ringleaders for a year, but any authoritative measures cause great discomfort to the Minister, who is tormented by petitions from the relatives of the offenders, or the local Deputy threatens to join the Opposition if he does not revoke the punishment; and if the Minister remains unmoved, at the next Cabinet crisis he is generally ousted. It is this interference of the Ministry of Public Instruction which is so disastrous to the efficiency of the professors, often distinguished men of European reputation, but who are utterly powerless to bring about any material improvement in the system of education. The studies are regulated at the Ministry, the scholastic programme is there decided upon, the teachers are under its control, and the examination papers are made up there. In the course of thirty-two years there have been no less than thirty-four different Ministers of Public Instruction, so that not one has ever had time to bring about any important reform, while changes in details of little value are constantly decreed and soon suppressed by the next man in power. It has often been declared that the post of Minister of Public Instruction should be permanent, not depending on party politics, in order to be in any way efficient. According to our author, this Ministry is overwhelmed with the care of trivial details. Even during his holiday in the country, the Minister is besieged with people requiring favors of him, while if passing through any provincial town, he is under the obligation of receiving the visits daily of the prefect, the Mayor, the head of the carabinieri, and the most important citizens, while if in a village, the local band plays every evening under his windows, unless as a change from this infliction he is serenaded by the children of the elementary schools.

Mr. Villari's chapters on Music, Literature, and Art are not in any way adequate. The illustrations, from instantaneous photographs, are very poor, and the style throughout is careless, continually falling

into slang expressions, which come rather as a shock to the reader when the subject treated of is serious. Notwithstanding these defects, the book will be useful to those who desire to know the life of the Italian people as seen through an Italian medium.

FYFE'S SUBMARINE WARFARE.

Submarine Warfare. By Herbert C. Fyfe. With Introduction by Admiral Sir E. R. Fremantle, R. N., and Sir Edward J. Reed, M. P. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

The problems of aerial and subaqueous navigation have keenly interested men ever since the days of Dædalus and Jonah, who still "hold the record." Although enthusiasts there be who look for achievements greater, both as to time and distance, than those of that spiritless and unhappy prophet, the son of Amittai, Mr. Fyfe, in his interesting book, seems to expect, at least for the present, only such gradual improvements in the mechanism of so-called submarine boats as will render their movements swifter, better controlled, and freer from the chance of internal disaster. That he subconsciously believes they will seriously affect, if not entirely revolutionize naval warfare, is evident on every page. Those who care to learn what has been in the past to move below the surface of the sea against an enemy and there to blow him into eternity, or who wish to keep in touch with the experiments towards this same beneficent end which are going on the world over, will find in Mr. Fyfe's work pretty much all that is publicly available, and they may be led by the logic of the facts he adduces to share the tempered optimism of his views.

In his Part II., Mr. Fyfe gives an excellent résumé of the history of his subject, beginning with the divers of Tyre in Alexander's siege, who "swam off from the city under water to a great distance, and with long hooks tore to pieces the mole with which the besiegers were endeavoring to block up the harbor." It is a far cry from this episode to the days of Cornelius Drebbel, born in Holland in 1572, for whom the definite claim is first made of successful under-water travelling. The Dictionary of National Biography states that he invented a submarine boat "which was navigable, without the use of artificial light, from Westminster to Greenwich." This story was believed by the famous physicist Boyle, who refers to Drebbel in his 'Spring of the Air' (1662). We hear no more about the subject until the American Revolution, when, proper conditions being realized in offensive coast operations conducted against a determined people of exceptional mechanical ingenuity, submarine warfare according to our modern notions was invented and partially developed by David Bushnell, a native of Saybrook, Connecticut (not Maine, as Mr. Fyfe states), who built in 1775 "the first practical submarine boat, and the first of which any detailed account is extant." In it one Sergeant Ezra Lee, in 1776, made an attempt, which almost succeeded, to blow up the sixty-four-gun ship *Eagle*, while at anchor off Governor's Island. His mode of operation was to dive beneath the water and fix a torpedo to the ship's bottom by means of a screw. The torpedo contained one hundred and fifty

pounds of gunpowder, to be exploded, after a certain lapse of time, by clockwork. Bushnell was shortly followed by another American, the celebrated Fulton, who, in 1801, in the harbor of Brest, descended in a plunging boat of his own devising to the depth of twenty-five feet, and there remained for an hour. "Satisfied with the performance of his boat," says Barnes in his 'Submarine Warfare' (New York, 1869), "he next made numerous experiments with his submarine bombs, to which he now gave the name of 'torpedoes,' and baptized the boat *Nautilus*." As the French Government would neither adopt nor further his schemes, he went to London, and in May, 1804, laid them before the English Ministry. Pitt alone approved; the others scouted the idea, and thought, with Lord St. Vincent, that "Pitt was the greatest fool that ever existed, to encourage a mode of war which they who commanded the seas did not want, and which, if successful, would deprive them of it."

The subject slumbered during the long years of peace that followed the Napoleonic wars, and it awoke only during our own Rebellion, when, for the first time in history, a man-of-war was actually destroyed by a plunging boat; the United States steamer *Housatonic* being blown up in 1864 by a "*David*," off Charleston Bar. The general unrest which characterized the closing decades of the last century proved exceptionally fertile in warlike inventions, and the submarine boat gained a development which has made it, as Mr. Fyfe says, "no longer an ingenious toy."

A successful plunging boat must possess ability to navigate on the surface for the approach; ability to descend for the attack to any given depth, at will; ability to maintain that depth within very close limits; ability to steer a straight course when either afloat or submerged; habitability for a reasonable length of time in either condition; ability to discharge a Whitehead torpedo without endangering stability or flotation; absolute certainty of returning to the surface when desired; sufficient speed, the more the better; ample range of action; freedom from breakdowns to machinery; freedom from internal accidents; ability to discover and to aim at the target.

We cannot do better than to refer to Mr. Fyfe's book the reader who desires to know how these requirements have been met in the various types of submarine boats which have come so prominently before the public in recent years. There seems to be little doubt that the *Holland* class, named after its American inventor, commands the most confidence, although even this is still open to great improvement, especially in the two last respects just enumerated. Without entering into detail, it may be briefly stated that the present *Holland* is shaped like a cigar, is about fifty-four feet long, and about ten feet in greatest diameter; is driven by a single screw operated by a gasoline engine at the surface, or by an electric motor and storage battery when submerged. The horizontal rudders which move her up or down are so satisfactory in their operation that the desired plane of submersion is maintained within a few inches. Should the engines stop, a small reserve of buoyancy, which may be increased if necessary, brings the boat to the top of the water. Compressed air carried in flasks keeps the atmosphere respirable.

The only serious accidents yet experienced in the *Holland* class are explosions attributed to the hydrogen gas given off by the storage battery. This source of danger can doubtless be eliminated or controlled, leaving the difficulty of seeing as the common and insuperable obstacle to the assured employment of the submarine of all types. Any swimmer knows how hard it is; when in the water, to see beyond a very short distance. Let him put himself inside a four-inch bronze turret, just awash; with narrow slits for peepholes, and then find his enemy on a dark night if he can. Practically, he will stay on the surface and scout for his quarry till discovered; but even then his horizon is greatly narrowed, for a man standing on a raft cannot see very far, especially in gloom or in thick weather. It is difficult to imagine a means by which this fundamental and physical inconvenience can be satisfactorily overcome. Again, the submarine has at present a speed of only seven or eight knots as against her enemy's possible sixteen to twenty. These two limitations indicate the tactical reply to the submarine (masking lights at night, keeping in motion at fair speed, and throwing out lines of picket boats), while they suggest, at the same time, that the best rôle of the submarine will probably be the defence of harbors, and, particularly, keeping a blockading fleet well off shore, and under the continual strain of ceaseless vigilance. "For the purposes of coast defence, the submarine may be said to have fairly established its value," says our author; "the knowledge that such craft were 'in being' would have a deterrent influence upon an admiral attacking a fort or contemplating a blockade, and in all probability the days of close blockade are over."

Further than this it would not be prudent to go with our author in his forecast. To use the submarine in offensive warfare she must be vastly improved in the way of habitability, for she cannot be carried about by larger vessels, as some overzealous partisans suggest. Time was when battleships so carried small torpedo boats for the mêlée of close action. This practice has disappeared with other plans for supplanting the gun, still the unchallenged arbiter of naval battles. That the submarine has its use no one can deny; doubtless its greatest value will be found in allaying public alarm, and permitting good citizens and timorous non-combatants to sleep in peace, secure in the knowledge that a submarine "defends" the port. We are not likely, in our day, to see the battle-ship relegated to a museum, and naval fights reduced to diving contests. Nor need the man behind the gun fear the loss of his prestige until shorn of it in the crucial experiment of actual war.

The conviction that the submarine, however successful, will, at most, have but a restricted field and a minor part in the great operations of future maritime conflicts, receives support from the Annual of the Office of Naval Intelligence, which records impartially the facts and not the theories of the world's naval progress. The current number devotes some three pages in all to submarine boats, out of sixty-five taken up with notes on ships and torpedo-boats in the 500 which comprise the work. Ordnance and armor, on the other hand, absorb no less than 112. The proportion or disproportion may not be significant, but,