Where shall the scholar live?
In solitude or in society?
In the green stillness of the country, where he can hear the heart of
Nature beat, or in the dark gray city, where he can feel and hear the
throbbing heart of man? I make
answer for him, and say, In the
dark gray city.                              LONGFELLOW
Boston University School of Medicine
NOTABLE FEATURES OF THIS ISSUE.

This issue of BOSTONIA will be found of exceptional variety and strength. Each of the great departments of the University is represented by an able article. Dean John P. Sutherland, of the School of Medicine, furnishes an article on "Some Points Concerning the Relationship of Biology and Medicine." This article, coming from an authority, will command the attention of the increasingly large number of college graduates who are turning their attention to scientific subjects. Dr. G. H. Fall, lecturer on Roman Law in the College of Liberal Arts of Boston University, writes as a trained jurist on "The Antithesis of the Individual." Arthur Page Sharp, a graduate of the School of Theology of Boston University and instructor in Hebrew in that department of the University during the absence of Prof. H. G. Mitchell on leave of absence, furnishes a Review of Professor Mitchell's latest work. Prof. James Geddes, Jr., brings to a close his series of articles on "Educational Advantages in France for American Students." The preceding articles of this series have attracted much attention in the educational world, and have done much to give prestige to BOSTONIA. A portrait of the late Joshua Merrill, Esq., and a sympathetic article, honor the memory of one whom the University holds in lasting regard.
THAT "the proper study of mankind is man" is a familiar saying, much quoted since first said, nearly two centuries ago. In keeping with the spirit of to-day this quotation might well be amended to read, "The proper study of mankind is Life," for life is infinitely bigger than any single form or manifestation of life. The science which concerns itself with the study of the various phenomena of life is called biology. The complexity of these phenomena is such that biology includes many branches of knowledge, which may be represented schematically as follows:

**Biology**

- **Morphology**
  - Anatomy
  - Histology
  - Taxonomy
  - Distribution
  - Palæontology
  - Teratology
  - Phylogeny
- **Embryology**
- **Pathology**
  - Physiology
  - Ecology
  - Psychology

**Botany**

**Zoology**

It will thus be seen that biology is an exceedingly comprehensive term, and includes many sciences, any one of which will furnish abundant occupation for even the most intelligent mind.

Biology, as we have seen, may be defined quite easily and concisely. It is a different matter with the term "medicine." Considering the statutory importance of "medicine," it is curious and significant that legislatures and the law have failed to furnish a legal definition.

In Webster's dictionary medicine is called "the science which relates to the prevention, cure, or alleviation of disease." Medicine, however, is not acknowledged by any of its partisans to be an "applied science." It has, however, been called an "experimental science." As a matter of fact, medicine is an art based upon tradition, experience, and various sciences. Considering the unsettled state of medical theories...
and knowledge, it would be enough to claim that medicine is the art of preventing, alleviating, and curing diseases. It is based upon many sciences, the following being the chief: anatomy, histology, physiology, embryology, pathology, psychology, chemistry, botany.

With the exception of chemistry, it will be seen that all these sciences contribute each its sum of knowledge to the comprehensive science of biology. Historical data show that human anatomy has been considered from the days of Hippocrates, about 400 B.C., the foundation-stone of medicine; but the earliest anatomical school of which we have reliable record was founded at Alexandria about 300 B.C., by Ptolemy Soter. To the knowledge obtained at that early period practically nothing was added until the sixteenth century, during which time (1514-1564) Vesalius, father of modern anatomy, lived and worked.

Such physiology as was known was taught with anatomy until the amazing work of Haller in the eighteenth century (1708-1777) established physiology as a separate and independent branch of knowledge. It is a well-known fact that a large proportion of Haller's knowledge was obtained from close and exact study of forms of life below man. Considerably prior to this date (1578-1657) Harvey's immortal studies in embryology resulted not only in the discovery of the circulation of the blood, but established many important points in anatomy and physiology.

Histology as a definite branch of knowledge was not established as a wide, interesting, and important field of study until the enunciation of the "cell theory" by Schleiden and Schwann. Schleiden, in 1838, announced that plants are composed of an aggregation of units called cells, and in the following year, 1839, Schwann announced his doctrine that animal organs and tissues are composed of collections of units, each unit being a cell. During the century just passed the growth of this science has been phenomenal; and only those conversant with it can appreciate the contributions to the science furnished by studies of the lower forms of life.

It is almost within the memory of the present generation of physicians that pathology has attained the dignity of a science. Like anatomy and physiology, its growth was slow until the institution of laboratories in which the use of the microscope predominated over other methods of research.

Embryology may be looked upon as one of the oldest of the biological sciences, and probably there are few who will dispute the claim that it is one of the most important. The origin and the development of living matter are certainly most fruitful subjects for study, yet the value
and importance of embryology are not yet widely appreciated. Even in the medical fraternity its study has been somewhat neglected. In the curricula of medical schools it is variously included in the departments of obstetrics, of physiology, and of anatomy. It is only very recently that it has been made an independent laboratory study. Probably no branch of the biological or medical sciences can so broaden one's horizon, can decide so many vitally important questions, or offer such absorbingly fascinating subjects for investigation as embryology. The enormous array of facts and theories embraced by this science have been furnished not by the study of the development of human individuals, but by the study of the practically innumerable forms of animal and vegetable life accessible for purposes of investigation.

The questions, what is life? when does the individual's life begin? why do we grow old? what are the reasons governing the evolution of sex? the problem of heredity, and many others, are to be answered, if at all, along the lines of embryological study; and it goes without saying that the developing stage of only what are called the lower forms of life are accessible for study. Until recently the medical curriculum has included only those studies which are connected with the anatomy, physiology, pathology, etc., of man himself—although, as has been said, much of our knowledge of physiology and histology has been derived from the studies of the lower animals. It has been urged in many quarters that the medical student should have more than a passing acquaintance with the structure, functions, and characteristics of other forms of life than the human. Courses on comparative anatomy, animal morphology, or zoölogy (using these terms for the time being as synonyms) are being more and more widely recommended as suitable studies to be included in the medical curriculum. The claim is made, and not without foundation, that animal morphology is practically human embryology written in capital letters. What better method, then, of impressing the facts of embryology upon the mind of the medical student can be used than studies in animal morphology, or zoölogy? It is practically an axiom that the individual man in the process of his development passes through stages which, when fixed, are characteristic of all the types below him in the scale of animal life. It is a well-known fact that each individual man begins his life as a single-celled organism, a protozoan. To gain an intelligent idea of what this amazing fact means, what study so profitable can be undertaken as that of amoeba? To gain a clear conception of that great law of growth and reproduction enunciated by Herbert Spencer (a cell mass increases in bulk as the cube of its diameter, in surface
as the square of its diameter), what better study can be followed than
the life history of simple unicellular organisms? As man develops from
protozoan to metazoan, and through various stages of invertebrate life
to chordate, vertebrate,—fish and mammal,—what more permanently
convincing pictures of these fundamental, widely significant truths can
be obtained than those furnished by laboratory dissections and studies
of vertebrata and invertebrata?

The various sciences encompassed by biology are necessarily lab­
oratory studies; didactic instruction has its place, but the real knowl­
edge is acquired in the laboratory. The art of healing includes the
use of mechanical, surgical, electrical, and other measures requiring
dexterity and delicacy of manipulation. To acquire the necessary manip­
ulative dexterity, lecture-rooms are of little service. It is in the labora­
tory only that the needed training is to be had. It is evident, therefore,
that biological studies mastered prior to taking the medical course will
be of service in many ways to the student, for such courses are broadly
educative. They train unskilled fingers to laboratory technique; they
educate untrained eyes to see; they offer opportunities not only for the
powers of observation, but also for close, exact, logical reasoning. They
thereby fit one for work in bacteriological and physiological laboratories
in medical schools, and therefore suitably prepare one for original in­
vestigations, whereby one may help add something to the sum total of
human knowledge.

While the close relationship existing between medicine and biology
may not have been adequately presented in the preceding, it is hoped
that the effort to show that the fundamental studies of medicine are
wholly biological has not been wholly unsuccessful.

As an illustration of the fact that these views are gradually permeat­
ing medicine itself, it is proper to refer to the newest and best of the
text-books on anatomy, which for ages has been acknowledged as one
of the most important of the medical studies.

In 1903 appeared an exceptionally fine work by Dr. George S. Hunt­
ington, entitled “The Anatomy of the Human Peritoneum and Abdomi­
nal Cavity.” This book covers a small part only of the great field of
anatomy. The author evidently recognizes the fact that the peritoneum
is something more than the human peritoneum; that the abdomen and
its contents are not confined to the human race; that much knowledge
concerning the development and the structure as well as the uses of the
peritoneum and the abdominal viscera is to be obtained from compara­
tive studies. Therefore we find in this book, out of 278 pages of text,
about 200 pages devoted to the human embryological peritoneum and abdominal organs, 45 to comparative anatomy of these organs, and the balance to human child and adult peritoneum and abdominal organs.

Among the illustrations, which are unusually numerous, and which most clearly illustrate the text, we find 369 which are wholly from the field of comparative anatomy, and only 209 illustrations that are wholly from the human body, and of these 137 are from the embryo.

This work is gotten up as an edition de luxe, and is not only one of the latest, but one of the most satisfactory text-books on anatomy ever published. In it the broadly scientific spirit is shown: the spirit which is unquestionably the ruling one of to-morrow, however little it may appeal to the extreme utilitarian of to-day.

During more than half a century the most popular text-book on human anatomy has been the well-known Gray. Gray and anatomy have, unfortunately, been looked upon for generations as a veritable "valley of dry bones," and probably no one course in the medical curriculum has given so much cause for rejoicing over its being a past issue as this course. Possibly this unfortunate state of affairs has been due to the manner of teaching anatomy, probably due to the narrow scope which has been given it. Although very many text-books have made their appearance in the half-century past, none of them has tended very seriously to displace Gray; but "the old order changeth, yielding place to new," and there has appeared on the horizon a text-book that is very modern in its conception and execution. It comes under the name of Cunningham's "Text-book of Anatomy." In it the importance of embryology and comparative anatomy in elucidating many obscure points in human anatomy, and the value of these studies in increasing interest in human anatomy itself, have been recognized by its authors and editor to the following extent.

Of purely embryological and comparative anatomy text there are to be found 195 pages; of text devoted to human anatomy we find 1,039. Of the illustrations, 668 are devoted to the human structure and 164 to illustrating embryology and comparative morphology.

This text-book frankly and scientifically starts in with the beginnings of things, and first describes the animal cell and its properties as a preliminary step to elementary embryology. At the end of every section, as osteology, myology, the nervous system, etc., may be found paragraphs or pages devoted to the development of the bones, muscles, nervous system, etc., that origin and development may be kept continually in mind in studying adult human morphology.
These are not the only text-books in which a broad and comprehensive view of anatomy is taken, but they are referred to simply because they are the latest things in the literature on the subject, and because they have carried the ideas here discussed to a fuller development than any one of the older text-books on the subject.

The modern individual is too much inclined to ask of a text-book or of a course of instruction, "Is it practical?" meaning "Can I turn knowledge obtained from this text-book or from this course into financial fruit?" The pleasure, satisfaction, and real comfort of being acquainted with the marvelous "adaptation of means to ends," of realizing even to a slight extent that man himself, although the highest visible created thing, is only a part of the great creation, though he only of all created things is capable of appreciating the marvelous grandeur of creation,—these things have been too much neglected. That they are being so no longer is hopefully evidenced by the appearance of such books as those above referred to, and by the very great stress laid on the subjects in question in the foreign universities, whose examples American universities strive to emulate, though often too slowly and blindly.

THE ANTITHESIS OF THE INDIVIDUAL.

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THE individual is the chief phenomenon of modern times. Ancient life knew next to nothing about him. He was in it, was part of it, but was unconscious of himself and hence could not make society conscious of him. During the patriarchal age mankind existed only in the group form. If any special group was insufficient for the social purpose, a new group was formed, made to order, as it were, and thus the purpose was fulfilled. So we behold families, clans, gens, curiae, phratries, tribes, cities,—all in their turn carrying out the order of human development,—but nowhere along the line do we see the individual.

In this period, during which the Power of the Father dominates everything, a man is a man only as he is a member of some group. Outside of the group he is a fragment, has no unity, may be slain with impunity, like a wild beast. Within the group he possesses value as a member thereof, his destruction or injury is just so much loss to the organism, and the group will be avenged on whatever injures any of its members. But there is no one to avenge the unhappy being who is be-
yond the group gates. He cannot appeal to the law, for the law does not know him. There is no law outside of group law; therefore the non-group man, or expatriated citizen, must fall into the class of those who are outside the pale of law and also outside the pale of religion, for in these times religion and law are one and the same.

How does it happen, then, that the individual who was unknown to the primitive law has become the prime object of the modern law's attention? That he has so become is obvious to every one who gives thought to the juridical condition of society. All the machinery of courts and legislative bodies seems to be in motion for the principal purpose of promoting the welfare of this unit of modern days. Magna Chartas are framed and Constitutions adopted in order to declare his inalienable rights. The federal form of government was invented for no other reason than to secure the reservation to him of all powers which he did not choose to grant. Why, we ask, is the modern law so anxious about this solitary person?

This question is no sooner asked than another is suggested: How does the individual come to be in evidence at all? If ancient life did not know him and society did its work without him, how does he come to be here? What brought him forward on the stage? When this question is answered we shall be much better able to understand why the law takes cognizance of him.

History answers the question thus: The ancient unit of society was the family, which moved as a single, joint, undivided whole. When larger groups were needed, families united into clans, tribes, and similar associations, until in due course of time the municipal form was discovered and cities appeared. Now during this entire process of group formation and enlargement the members of the family were so subordinated to the potestas, or father's power, that no unified, individual life was possible. The father held all the assets and was responsible for the liabilities. He, or the group through him, paid the fine of the convict and the ransom of the prisoner. He, or the group through him, avenged all injuries done to any group-members; and the injury was measured, not by the suffering of the member, but by the loss which the group had sustained.

It is not necessary to pursue this ancient group history to exhaustion. It is sufficient in a general way to state on information and belief that the group-members knew no other life than that they were parts of a common whole to which the father gave expression. The family was the social unit, but not the final or true unit. The individual, having the
shape and form of a group-member, was not conscious of himself, or, to state the same thing in another way, had not been discovered. What brought him out was the breaking-down of the group stage of society. Then he emerged as the true unit of humanity organized.

Thus is indicated the reply to the question, Whence and how came forth the individual?

To the other query, Why is modern jurisprudence so much concerned about him? it may be said there was only him for the modern law to consider. The ancient groups fell apart because the ties which from time immemorial had held them together were broken. For a long period prior to the coming of Christ, faith in the ancient deities of our Aryan civilization had been lost. All the groups were founded on worship. The law, proclaimed by the Priest of the Worship, was believed to be divinely dictated, and the members of each group clung together as one whole in obedience to it. The ancient world, clustered about the shores of the Mediterranean, was a world made up of the groups under consideration. Shortly before the time of Alexander, the Greek Philosophy had, at Athens and elsewhere, attacked the principles upon which the groups were founded. Under its searchlight, projected by Socrates and men more or less like him, belief in the old gods of Greece and Rome fell away. The city religions had accomplished their purpose, their hour was come, their clock had struck twelve. And so when Alexander made his famous conquests, thereby spreading about the Mediterranean coasts citizens who were familiar with the teachings of the great Greek thinkers, that happened everywhere which had already happened at Athens,—men refused to longer believe that the priest of the group worship was inspired by Deity. The indictment against Socrates, to wit, that he refused to regard as gods those whom the city so regarded, might have served as a common indictment of Aryan humanity. Could a grand jury have been impanelled, a true bill must have been found.

Thus were the group-members let loose from being parts of a common whole, revolving about a common worship and founded on belief in family and city gods. In proportion as the liberation took place so did the individual appear, for the death of the group-members and the birth of the new unit were one and the same process. It was a change of form, a true metamorphosis.

When the Founder of Christianity proclaimed, “What shall it profit a man, if he gain the whole world and lose his own soul?” the supreme importance of the individual was emphasized for all time, for his value was put as high as it can be put.
Instinctively and insensibly did the law, by gradual stages, adapt itself to the new order in which the individual is the unit. The old object having gone, that which takes its place becomes the focus of juristic attention; and, inasmuch as this new object is seen to be the true unit of society, law is compelled, as never before, to frame rules and regulations tending to secure for him (the individual) an increasing completeness and development. Whereas, then, in time past, Status had predominated, now Contract predominates, and the spirit of the jural utterance is now felt: namely, that progressive human society passes from the dominion of Status, where duties are fixed and positions irreversible, into the dominion of Contract, where both duties and positions are founded on Agreement, and may be changed at the will of the parties thereto.

All this tends to show that the individual is the centre and core of advancing civilization. His antithesis remains to be considered; for, if he be the true unit of human society, the other pole of progress can be nothing else than humanity organized. Between these two poles the movement of society must range, for they are the limits outside of which no advance can be made.

Let us picture the situation in another way. Let us imagine the greatest possible attention to be given to individual development, and let the pendulum of human movement swing, in an individualistic direction, to the end of its arc. Here we shall posit our unit, our individual. Now let the pendulum swing to its opposite extreme. At this end of the arc we may locate a common organization of mankind. The objector will say that this end has never been reached. Granted; but this is not saying that it never will be. Ancient times failed to discover the other end. Only a middle ground was occupied. Now that one extreme has been discovered and the individual set in charge, we can well wait and see what unconquerable time shall bring forth.

Those who are hoping to see civilization organized into a common whole may find much to cheer their hearts. Between the individual and the total of humanity exists the same correspondence that is between thirst in the stomach and water in the spring. A longing for a commonwealth of the nations has revealed itself at intervals in the world's history. Alexander attempted to form a world-state. It was not his insatiable ambition that failed; it was rather the profound desire of the Greeks to make the world their country which proved abortive. Greek thought was far in advance of the world spirit. Hence it could not accomplish its purpose.
Next came the Romans. They actually formed a world-state. Three continents were subjugated. But in their day the groups were the units of society. The ultimate or true unit, that is, the individual, they could not discover. Hence when the Teutonic invasions brought him forward, in mighty masses, he eternally resisted a state which refused to recognize him; therefore the Roman world gave way to the Teutonic. The Holy Roman Empire failed for the same reason.

Finally Bonaparte, representing the spirit of the French nation, the most completely civilized people in the world, attempted to express what the French believed to be the desire of all men. In his day the individual had been found and recognized, and so far there was prospect of success. The rights of man so loudly proclaimed by the French Revolution were not in the main ignored by Bonaparte. He planned to make Europe a vast commonwealth of nations in which the French nation should be the head and chief. But he moved too quickly. The other nations feared subjugation. They did not have time to realize what important factors they would be in the world-state to be formed. The English were particularly uneasy, and under their leadership Napoleon was subdued.

Whether Tennyson’s dream will ever be fulfilled and “a parliament of man, a federation of the world,” actually established cannot be predicted with the certainty that so far has attended the movements of the planets. It is enough for us to know that progress lies in that direction rather than in the opposite. Within one hundred and fifteen years the federal principle has been discovered and applied to fully one-half of the governments which control civilization. If the British Empire is not federal in form, its home-rule policy has made it federal in principle. Outside of Great Britain we have five pure federations: the United States of America (1789), the Swiss Confederation (1848), the Dominion of Canada (1867), the New German Empire (1871), the Federal Commonwealth of Australia (1900). The federal principle satisfies and gives expression, by a fair compromise, to both the cohesive and disruptive tendencies of society; it produces a resultant of the centrifugal and centripetal forces. It makes formally possible that which was never possible before,—in other words, the amalgamation of all civilized society into one great federal state. A few years ago time and tide would have been insuperable obstacles to such an undertaking. These have been conquered by modern science. Cables and rapid transit have brought the world to our doors and us to its, so that a world legislature with a world administrator, properly advised, are not unthinkable notions. The
Hague Conference already suggests the feasibility of an inter-state tribunal by which laws enacted in the Great Legislature could be reviewed. Commerce, science, and the arts would leap forward with mighty bounds under such conditions.

The difficulties seem to lie more in the mental realm than in the physical. John Kaspar Bluntschli declared what was needed when he said that *spiritual maturity* was wanting. But this will come. The thoughts of men are widening. The consciousness of universal brotherhood is increasing. The inter-relatedness of mankind is becoming felt, with emphasis, where before it was not considered. We are moving in the direction of a world-state,—the antithesis of the individual.

A REVIEW OF PROFESSOR H. G. MITCHELL’S LATEST WORK.

Arthur Page Sharp, S.T.B.

The latest work of Prof. Hinckley G. Mitchell, D.D., entitled “The Wall of Jerusalem according to the Book of Nehemiah,” which appeared in the *Journal of Biblical Literature* (twenty-second year, 1903, Part II.), is one outcome of the year spent as Director of the American School in Palestine, 1901-1902. Being a trained exegete and thoroughly read in the archaeology of his subject, he has been able to avoid the errors of most commentators who have gotten their knowledge of topographical conditions at second hand; and at the same time his accurate knowledge of the original language of the Jews has enabled him to interpret what is written in the Book of Nehemiah in the light of what the remains of the wall and the ancient ruins plainly teach; and, *vice-versa*, to trace out the wall by the unequivocal statements of the book in question, thus giving results superior to what the average explorer unversed in exegesis has been able to furnish.

Dr. Mitchell states at the beginning how he intends to proceed, in the following words: “The proper method is clearly one that combines a thorough study of the biblical source or sources of information with an impartial examination of the ground under the guidance of the best archaeological authorities; and this is the method by which it is proposed to determine, if possible, the course of the wall built by Nehemiah, and the location of the gates, towers, and other landmarks mentioned in the account of its construction.” He forthwith, by way of clearing the decks...
for action, proceeds to a minute analysis of the Book of Nehemiah, and endeavors to discover who is the author of the different parts; for, in common with most biblical scholars, he considers the work to be a composite production. At first sight this might seem to be an easy enough matter, by simply separating those parts in which the first person appears from those in which the writer cannot be determined by his relation to the events narrated. But the insufficiency of such a procedure is readily seen; and it is found that the most careful critical acumen is necessary to penetrate the obscurities in which the original text is involved and reach a satisfactory and connected account of the order of events.

The analysis discloses three passages in which the course of the wall after the Restoration is to some extent traced out (ii. 13-15; iii. 1-32; xii. 31-41). Two of these passages, the first and the last, are admittedly the work of Nehemiah, while the other is an addition made probably by the chronicler. The interpolated passage, however, is considered of equal value for the purposes of the study in hand with the unquestioned statements of Nehemiah.

The starting-place for the study is the same as that from which the governor began his survey of the situation on his arrival from the Persian Court; viz., at the Ravine Gate. Dr. Mitchell locates this gate on the “ravine of Hinnom,” which skirted the old city on the west and south; in opposition to Warren, the author of the article on the subject in Hastings’s “Bible Dictionary,” who identifies the ravine as Wady el-Joz and the continuation as Wady Sitti Maryam, the ancient Kidron. This error of Warren arose from a mistaken interpretation of Joshua xv. 8 and xviii. 16, the use of which was suggested by the identification of En-rogel with the Virgin’s Spring (‘Ain Sitti Maryam). Some, like Conder in his article on “Jerusalem,” in the same work, locate the “ravine of Hinnom” correctly, but hold a contrary view with reference to En-rogel, which Dr. Mitchell identifies with Bir ’Ayyûb below the junction of Wady er-Rahabi and Wady Sitti Maryam. Having located the “ravine of Hinnom,” the question next to be settled is whether this is the ravine from which the Ravine Gate took its name. This there seems to be no reasonable grounds to question according to our author, because the word translated “ravine” is always found with “Hinnom,” or “the son of Hinnom,” and there is no other depression about Jerusalem to which it is ever applied. It can hardly be doubted, therefore, that the Ravine Gate was somewhere on the western or southern side of the city. This view is supported by the further consideration that it agrees very
nearly with the statement (iii. 13) that the distance from this point to the Dung Gate was 1,000 cubits. This latter Gate is located 1,900 feet eastward along Wady er-Rahabi ("ravine of Hinnom"). But if the Ravine Gate be located near the present Jaffa Gate, as is done by eminent authorities, the distance from there to the point where Dr. Mitchell locates the Ravine Gate and where these authorities place the Dung Gate is 2,600 feet, or very considerably more than the 1,000 cubits of the chronicler.

The correctness of Dr. Mitchell’s identification of the Dung Gate he supports by weighty considerations. From this point the governor goes over to the Fountain Gate, which verifies the location of the Dung Gate on the south side of el-Wad, and necessitates looking for the Fountain Gate on the north side of that valley. Proof is plenty that the wall of the city originally crossed the valley below the wall that now serves as a dam for the old pool now known as Birket el Hamra, and just after crossing made an angle. Here, then, must have been the entrance which Nehemiah called the Fountain Gate. The objections against such identification are not considered of sufficient weight to overthrow it.

In Nehemiah xii. 31-41 the celebration of the completion of the work of rebuilding the wall is described. Processions start from a place not mentioned, but which is evidently the Ravine Gate, and go by different routes along the wall toward the temple area. The one proceeding eastward comes first to the Dung Gate, and then to and over the Fountain Gate. This so far adds nothing new to what is recorded in ii. 13-15. From there the procession went up the hill by the wall, stepped as it now is in similar places, passing the ruins of the "house of David," which must have been on the east side of the ridge. The last place mentioned in the route of this procession is the Water Gate "eastward." It would be natural to look for this gate somewhere near the Virgin Spring. At the present time there are two paths that lead from this spring, the one running diagonally southwest and the other turning to the right in a northwesterly direction. It is over the latter path that donkeys laden with dripping skins carry water into the city through the modern Dung Gate whenever the cisterns run low at the present time. Here, then, on this path the Water Gate "eastward" must be located, the limiting word being used perhaps because after the tunnel was constructed there was another gate on the western side of the hill. Again, since this is the last place mentioned in the route of the first procession, it is evident that it was somewhere near the temple enclosure.

The second procession, starting at the Ravine Gate, as did the first, took its way northward. The first point mentioned in the route is the
Ovens' Tower. In opposition to Schick and Stade, Dr. Mitchell locates this tower at the southwest corner of the ancient city where Bishop Gobat's school now stands. The tower got its name from some ovens in that vicinity. Next to the Ovens' Tower is mentioned the Broad Wall. There are many divergent opinions with reference to the location of this structure. A key to the problem he finds in the last clause of iii. 8, where the statement is found "they left Jerusalem as far as the Broad Wall," — as it stands, a meaningless passage. The verb used commonly means "leave," but the statement as it appears evidently does not convey the thought of the writer. Adopting Kraetzschmar's suggestion that the original word used had some such meaning as "enclosed," iii. 8 is made to read, "they enclosed Jerusalem as far as the Broad Wall." From this it is inferred that the Broad Wall was that part of the first wall from which the second wall started at its western end, in or near which was the Gate of Ephraim, this gate being near the northwest corner of the first wall, and therefore west of the point where the second began its course.

The next point noted in the route of the second procession is, according to the English version, the Old Gate. But the original has "the Gate of the Old . . ." Critics differ concerning the noun to be supplied, but following Hitzig, Dr. Mitchell supplies "Pool," which he successfully defends against objections that might be made from the statements in Isaiah xxii. He states as a further reason for locating this gate near the Patriarchs' Pool, in opposition to Guthe and Schick, the fact that it must be identified as the Corner Gate, which according to Jeremiah xxxi. 38 and Zechariah xiv. 10 was at the northwest corner of the then city. He considers that "it is possible therefore to maintain that the Corner Gate was in the second wall, and that it is identical with the Gate of the Old [Pool]."

The next step in the study is to determine, if possible, where the second wall cornered. That is important because of its bearing upon the location of the traditional site of Calvary. In 1885 workmen excavating for the foundation of the Grand New Hotel came upon the remains of this wall, 30 feet of which was uncovered. Schick, in tracing the course of this wall from the excavation just referred to, left the site of the Sepulchre outside of the city; but several of his reasons for locating it as he did have been found to be unreliable. For example, the chiselling in certain stones, which he found in an arch over the street and which he supposed to belong to the original wall, is such as to identify them with undoubted Crusading ruins. The discovery of
this error in the age of the masonry described is of very great importance, as it renders the acceptance of Schick's theory on this important subject altogether unsafe. Others insist that the second wall must have made a wider circuit, and have enclosed the site of the Sepulchre. But until further excavations have been made no definite conclusions can be reached. In 2 Kings xiv. 13 and 2 Chronicles xxv. 23 we find that the distance between the Corner Gate and the Gate of Ephraim was 400 cubits,—at least 600 feet. If, then, the line of the remains of the second wall discovered on the site of the Grand New Hotel be extended from the Tower of David 600 feet, and another line be drawn from the end of the first one to the northwest corner of the Haram, it will run north of the traditional site of Calvary. "It is therefore possible that this little eminence may yet be proved to have been inside the city at the time of Jesus' crucifixion."

The next point mentioned in the route of the procession is the Fish Gate, concerning which most authorities agree that it answers to the modern Damascus Gate, and therefore must have been situated southeast of the latter in el-Wad. The Towers Hananeel and Hammeah are naturally to be sought east of the Fish Gate. The Sheep Gate, by general consent, is located north of the temple. The procession halted at the Guard Gate. This has generally been supposed to have been in the northeast corner of the temple area just above the Golden Gate; but Dr. Mitchell is strongly inclined to follow the lead of Schick and place it somewhere south of the temple enclosure, because the first procession stopped at the Water Gate, which from iii. 26 et seq. was a little south of the royal palace, and because Jeremiah was confined in the "guard court," and according to Jeremiah xxxii. 2 the latter was part of the royal palace, and, finally, because he finds himself strongly tempted to think that the original account of the celebration represents the processions as meeting, not at the temple, but at the site of the royal palace, all of which is in harmony with the teachings of the evidently genuine portions of Nehemiah.

Dr. Mitchell gives separate consideration to Nehemiah iii., the work of the chronicler, taking special notice of those points which have not occurred in ii. 13-15 and xii. 31-41. But the limitations of space allotted to this paper will not allow us to follow the discussion.

The work is beautifully illustrated by 29 full-page photographs and a "Plan of Jerusalem exhibiting the supposed course of Nehemiah's Wall."

Immense labor was required to accomplish the task, and great patience in the face of insuperable difficulties. Boston University, as well as Dr. Mitchell, is to be congratulated upon the splendid achievement.
MR. JOSHUA MERRILL was born at Duxbury, Mass., on Oct. 6, 1828, and died at his residence, 678 Massachusetts Avenue, Boston, Jan. 15, 1904, aged 75 years. He was the son of Rev. Abraham Dow Merrill, a well-known member of the New England Conference.

He received his education in the public schools of Lowell. When fifteen years of age he came to Boston, and, with an elder brother, engaged in the manufacture of paper hangings. Having a natural taste for chemistry, the subject of lubricating oils began to enlist his attention in 1853; in the following year he entered into an engagement with Samuel Downer, proprietor of the Downer Kerosene Oil Works of Boston. To this business Mr. Merrill devoted the remainder of his life. The success of his business career is indicated by the fact that he rose to be president of the company, and that he was also the senior partner of the firm of Joshua Merrill and Sons, dealers in petroleum products.

He united early with the Methodist Church, and, throughout his life, he was an earnest, consistent Christian. He loved the Church of his choice, and, to promote its interests, he gave freely of his time and money. He had a broad view of the work of the Church. He was president of the Wesleyan Association and was an honored member of the Board of Trustees of Boston University.

An incident that revealed his tender and sympathetic nature occurred on the occasion of the successful effort of the Trustees of Boston University to raise $200,000 to meet a conditional pledge. Mr. Merrill was never solicited to give towards the fund, but he always manifested a deep interest in the project. On the day after the money was all pledged he handed to the Treasurer of Boston University a check for one thousand dollars, and said with marked earnestness, "I want to give this, as it came in answer to prayer."

He was dignified, hopeful, and cheerful. His genial spirit and gracious manner attracted everybody to him and surrounded him with a circle of warm and loyal friends.

In 1849 Mr. Merrill was married to Amelia G. Grigg of Boston, who has been a tender, loving, and helpful companion of her husband. Mr. Merrill leaves three daughters, a son, and five grandchildren. The surviving children are: Mrs. George H. Richards, Jr., Mrs. Mark Hollingsworth, Mrs. William A. Newell, Joshua Merrill, Jr.

The University has lost a noble friend and a loyal, generous trustee.
EDUCATIONAL ADVANTAGES IN FRANCE FOR AMERICAN STUDENTS.

Prof. James Geddes, Jr., Ph.D.

(Concluding Article.)

VII. The University of Paris. — Continued.

The faculty of law of the University of Paris offers about forty courses given by as many different professors. Compared with the courses given in our law schools of good standing, the Paris courses are not so technical, and speaking broadly, have considerable more educational value. There are no less than fifteen courses on political and economical sciences, a number of which, like Comparative Social Economy, Public International Law, History of Economic Doctrines, are of much general interest and value. Judging by the program of courses recently made at the Boston University School of Law, it would appear that in the future more such courses as are offered abroad, and which are of educational value to all, are likely to be given in our law schools here. The impetus in this direction is in a large measure due to national expansion.

The courses offered by the faculty of medicine are similar to those that appear on the programs of our best medical schools. About sixty professors give as many courses either at the school itself, in the Place de l'École-de-Médecine, or at the various hospitals in the city. As pointed out in comparing the announcement of the law-school courses with similar ones in this country, the French medical schools likewise may possibly offer a few more popular or less technical courses than can be found in the American schools of medicine. At least the subjects of some of the courses, Hygiene, Physiology, Biological Physics, and Biological Chemistry, suggest courses of educational value that may not be, and probably are not, intended exclusively for specialists.

The studies pursued at the Higher School of Pharmacy are conducted by six professors. The subjects taught are Analytical Chemistry, Galenic Pharmacy, Mineral Chemistry, Natural History of Medicaments, Physics, Zoölogy. Over a year of study is required at the school, and finally the presentation of a thesis containing personal researches, which the candidate for a degree is called upon to elucidate.
The sixth faculty at the University of Paris is the faculty of Protestant theology. The courses are given by thirteen professors, and are similar to those laid down in the curricula of many Protestant theological schools in this country. They include Ecclesiastical History, Evangelical Ethics, German, History of Philosophy, Lutheran Dogma, New Testament, Old Testament, Organization of the Reformed Churches in France, Patristics, Practical Theology, Reformed Dogma, Revelation, and Holy Scripture.

VIII. THE PROVINCIAL UNIVERSITIES.

The fifteen universities outside of Paris and in the different sections of France are Aix, Besançon, Bordeaux, Caen, Chambéry, Clermont-Ferrand, Dijon, Grenoble, Lille, Lyon, Montpellier, Nancy, Poitiers, Rennes, Toulouse. As their curricula are modeled in a measure after that at the University of Paris, no detailed description of them is necessary. It goes without saying that none of them possesses, for obvious reasons, the unrivalled opportunities found at the University of Paris. Nevertheless, by this is not implied that they are lacking in attractiveness either of natural or intellectual resources. Indeed, the natural attractions of many of these institutions appeal to many more strongly than the city advantages of Paris. With the exception of the universities of Besançon and Clermont-Ferrand, which have only the three faculties, — letters, science, and medicine,— the remaining provincial universities¹ have four faculties,— law, letters, science, and medicine,— or five, counting the schools of pharmacy, usually comprised in the medical schools. Toulouse alone has, like the University of Paris, a faculty of Protestant theology. The universities of Bordeaux, Lille, Lyons, Montpellier, Nancy, and Toulouse are among the most important, by reason of their equipment and advantages, of the provincial universities. Some of the others, however, have in some respects advantages superior to any one of the six just named. It is possible, too, that each one of these university centres, by reason of its situation, or of particular circumstances, may possess, and probably does possess, superior advantages to any other for pursuing especial branches.

Thus because of the fine laboratories, extensive collections, agricultural stations, botanical gardens and museums in Bordeaux, agriculture, natural sciences, and chemistry applied to industry are all especially

¹No data of the University of Chambéry are at hand.
studied. Among the courses at the faculty of letters serving to differentiate the curriculum from that offered by other institutions are found: History of Bordeaux and the Southwest of France, Language and Literature of the Southwest of France, Hispanic Studies. The University of Lille, in the ancient capital of Flanders, near the Belgian frontier, possesses very fine material as well as intellectual equipment. Among the courses at the faculty of letters, one will hardly fail to note, because not found elsewhere, Walloon and Picardy Language and Literature. The situation of the university in the heart of the Walloon district is in itself an advantage in pursuing this specialty such as no other university possesses. The University of Lyons, in one of the finest cities in France, not far from Switzerland, possesses exceptional advantages for the study of archaeology. Industrial and agricultural chemistry holds an important place among the sciences. The influence of the silk industry, as well as of the metallurgic industry of the region, is traceable among the courses offered by the faculty of science. The study of psycho-physiology is one of the specialties of this university. In the department of letters a course on the History of Lyons is noticeable. The University of Montpellier is a most active intellectual centre. The faculty of medicine to which Rabelais belonged, and added lustre by his efforts in its behalf, still retains its ancient prestige. The Jardin des Plantes is one of the finest in Europe. It contains a great number of rare trees and plants. Botany and natural sciences are among the most popular studies at Montpellier. Among the courses in letters at the University of Nancy, in the ancient capital of Lorraine, are to be noted one on German Philology, another on History of the East of France. At the University of Toulouse, in the ancient capital of Languedoc, more attention is given by the faculty of letters to the study of the Spanish language and literature than elsewhere in France. The annual competition in the subjects of poetry and eloquence still takes place in Toulouse, pleasantly commemorating the famous Jeux Floraux, instituted there in 1323. At the universities of lesser importance than those just named courses in certain subjects will be found which do not appear at all elsewhere. Thus at Aix, in Provence, not far from Marseilles, the faculty of letters offers several fine courses on Provençal History, Language, and Literature. The University of Caen, situated in the very heart of Normandy, offers a course on Norman Art and Literature, which cannot but be of considerable interest to students of art and architecture. Grenoble, in the midst of the Alps, not far from Italy, is beautifully situated, possessing the warmth of a southern sun.
tempered by the coolness of the mountains. There is an Italian colony in the town, and the faculty of letters offers a course in Italian Language and Literature—a subject not found upon the curricula of the other faculties of letters, excepting Clermont-Ferrand, and possibly Chambéry, in the immediate vicinity of Italy. The facilities for pursuing science—especially geology and botany—at Grenoble are very fine. The summer courses, together with the superb natural attractions of Grenoble, are beginning to attract thither many foreign students. Through the initiative of the Alliance Française, now making a vigorous campaign in many foreign countries in the interest of French language and letters, summer courses have been established in Caen, Clermont-Ferrand, Grenoble, Nancy, and Paris. Last year several hundred students were enrolled in the Alliance Française courses in Paris. The University of Clermont-Ferrand, in the capital of the old province of Auvergne, in the centre of Southern France, like Grenoble, is in the midst of the mountains. Clermont is the centre of a most important volcanic region and possesses unique interest not only for geologists and mineralogists, but for geographers as well. The University of Dijon, in the town of that name, capital of the old province of Bourgogne, offers a course on the History of Burgundy; the University of Poitiers, in the old province of Poitou in Western France, where famous battles occurred in olden times, offers a course on the History of Poitou; the University of Rennes, in old Bretagne, offers a course in Celtic Language and Literature; the University of Besançon, in Franche-Comté, of which Besançon was the capital, a course in Russian; also one on the History and Geography of Antiquity and the Middle Ages, in which epoch Besançon played an interesting part.

It will now be clear that while the provincial universities offer courses in law, letters, science, and medicine quite similar to the ones described as given by the University of Paris, they make up in a measure for what they lack in variety by offering special courses, for which they have advantages superior to any that can be found elsewhere. The law-school courses are in many cases broadly educational as well as technical. The scientific courses are thoroughly practical, as the names of some of them suggest: Industrial Electricity, Industrial Chemistry, Industrial Physics. The medical schools are the equal in excellence of the schools of law, letters, and science. The provincial universities, following the example of the University of Paris, are gradually introducing the doctor's degree for foreign students into their various faculties. An American student who
desires to receive this degree as a recompense for successful work in France will have in the future only the perplexity of deciding where he can most advantageously spend his time.

IX. Free Schools for Higher Education.

It remains to speak of several institutions of no less interest to American students than the ones just described. First in importance is the Collège de France, over the portals of which is seen the inscription Omnia docet. Here science and letters in their most advanced stage are taught by forty of the ablest specialists in France. The late lamented Gaston Paris was administrator of the institution, and his colleagues in their specialties are well known to scholars making researches in like fields everywhere. The school is as good a representative of the type that now exists in several countries for special investigation as is to be found anywhere. Very similar in its aims is the École des Hautes Études. Over one hundred professors have charge of the instruction. The most complete liberty in regard to pursuing one's chosen subject exists. The professor meets his students when and where it is most convenient, and continues his work with them for as long or short a time as may be deemed practicable. Each student may be pursuing some one particular part of a subject, in which case the student and professor come together by appointment, and carry on the special research in whatever manner they may consider most profitable. Probably no school in Europe stands higher in its field or is more widely and favorably known than the École des Hautes Études. The École des Langues Orientales is, perhaps, one of the best known of the kind. In it are taught the leading oriental living idioms. The professors are assisted by native teachers. The students pursuing the courses do so for political, commercial, or philological reasons. Quite a number obtain positions as interpreters in eastern countries. The École des Chartes, founded over eighty years ago, is frequented by specialists in archaeology, philology, history, and diplomacy. They come from all parts of the world, attracted by the unrivalled resources of the school. The advantages, particularly for the study of paleography, because of the abundance of rare manuscripts, are unsurpassed. Of such institutions as the Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle, where courses are given in zoölogy, anthropology, and kindred subjects, the École Nationale Supérieure des Mines, for the training of mining engineers, the École des Ponts et Chaussées, for bridge-builders and constructors, the Conservatoire
des Arts et Métiers, for sciences and their industrial application, in all of which the instruction is absolutely free, nothing need be said other than that they represent the best modern types of the kind. American students, however, are so amply provided with superb facilities for the pursuit of the sciences, natural history, mechanics, industrial arts, and agriculture, in all their varied ramifications, that the cases where these subjects might be pursued mainly abroad rather than at home are likely to be exceptional. Not so with the fine arts. Such schools as the École Nationale des Beaux-Arts, for the study of painting, sculpture, architecture, and allied subjects, and the Conservatoire Nationale de Musique et de Déclamation, for vocal and instrumental music and the study of the voice, will long continue to attract, as in the past, foreigners from distant countries.

It is perhaps needless to say that the mere enumeration of special schools that offer the foreign student as well as the native a most attractive programme of studies, either entirely free or at a nominal cost, would make a long list. It must here suffice to note two well-defined advantages that American students of art and language may profit by, if disposed to make use of them. The American Art Organization has over two hundred members. Its function is that of a club. It gives opportunity for American students and artists to meet together informally and enjoy each other's society. The Association now possesses fine quarters at Number 2 Impasse de Conti. A large art library, fine reading-rooms, recreation-halls, and a good but inexpensive restaurant contribute to the comfort of the members. The club is somewhat like the St. Botolph, in Boston, in that art exhibitions are held in the rooms quite frequently. It is well worth while for a student of art, intending to remain a year in Paris, to become a member immediately upon arriving. The fees are ten francs initiation and twenty francs membership annually.

The second advantage is that offered during the summer months by the Alliance Française to students of the French language. There are holiday courses now given in Paris, Caen, Clermont, Grenoble, and Nancy. Two series are given, the first during the month of July, and the second during the month of August. Students are able to secure diplomas at the end of the course after an examination upon it. The fee for either course, which embraces, besides a large amount of instruction, lectures, etc., many desirable privileges, is twenty dollars. The Alliance has been wonderfully successful in Paris, and hundreds of students and teachers pursue these courses yearly. This success has encouraged the projectors of the movement, aided by the government, to start a similar movement in the
nature of a propaganda outside of France. The object is to encourage the pursuit of the French language and literature and to attract favorable attention to France. Some idea of how successful the movement has been in this country may be got from the fact that at the present time there exist here about one hundred Alliances Françaises, or branches — groups, as they are called — of the central organization in Paris. Moreover, some of these groups are very flourishing, the one in Boston, for instance, having more than four hundred members. Lectures and entertainments in French, all of a high order, are given fortnightly. The Boston group, at its own expense, has sent over to Paris, each summer during the past three years, a teacher in the public schools to enjoy the advantages offered by the Alliance in Paris.

Of late years a number of French students have registered in our leading universities, and not only pursued courses, but given instruction and lectured in French. This idea, of foreign students coming here to study in our institutions, has been favorably received and encouragement is offered them to come. Recently in a large American university a student from there was sent over to the Université de Paris to study, and in return a student from the Université de Paris was hospitably received at the large American university. Thus, from what has been shown, the signs seem to indicate a mutual desire on the part of France and of this country to bind more cordially together the old intellectual ties of sympathy that were so strong in the days of Franklin and Jefferson. That a movement so thoroughly in accord with the best spirit of the times should be fraught with success is the earnest hope of all who desire the moral and intellectual advancement of both countries.

THE RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS. QUALIFYING EXAMINATION.

The qualifying examination for Massachusetts candidates will be held in the Trustees' Parlor, Boston University, 12 Somerset St., Boston, on April 13 and 14. Candidates will assemble at 9:30 A.M. Six examination papers will be given, for each of which two hours will be allowed. The examination periods on each day will be from 10 to 12 A.M., 1 to 3 P.M., and 4 to 6 P.M. The chairman of the Committee of Selection for the Commonwealth of Massachusetts is Pres. Charles W. Eliot, of Harvard University.
A CHANGE IN THE EDITORSHIP.

Several changes have recently been made in the Editorial Staff of BOSTONIA. Prof. Charles W. Rishell's increasing duties at the School of Theology, arising from the absence of Acting Dean Buell, have made it necessary for him to relinquish the editorship of BOSTONIA. Professor Rishell has been identified with this magazine from the beginning of its history. His painstaking care and trained skill have given BOSTONIA a prominent place among university publications. The letters which reach the office of the editors show that the circle of readers of BOSTONIA has extended far beyond the limits of New England. The fact that leading publishers forward their newest publications for review in the columns of this magazine is a proof that they recognize the influence of this periodical in the scholarly and intellectual world. It is a pleasure to the colleagues of the retiring editor to pay this tribute of esteem to one who has rendered the University an invaluable service in creating and developing a journal which has so ably recorded the progress of Boston University.

AN ADDITION TO THE STAFF.

The BOSTONIA staff has a valuable addition in Prof. Dallas Lore Sharp, who has been appointed by the University Council as editorial representative of the College of Liberal Arts. Professor Sharp is well known as an author, and has had a valuable training in practical editorial work. The graduates of the College of Liberal Arts may expect full and graphic accounts of all important events in the life of the College.
THE NEW ADMINISTRATION.

Under the new administration the work of the University is going on smoothly and effectively. The expressions of gratification at the election of President W. E. Huntington were numerous and unmistakable. Editorials in influential journals, letters from men distinguished in public life, public receptions at which leading educators and men in the highest positions of trust in the service of the commonwealth were present, testified to the esteem in which Boston University is held in the community, and gave ample evidence of a general conviction that the Trustees of the University have selected a man who in scholarship, training, personality, and character is fitted to take up the work so long carried on by the distinguished educator who brought the University to its present commanding position.

The full significance of the new administration will manifest itself quietly but powerfully. No one who is acquainted with the personality of President Huntington expects to see the University constantly before the public as a representative of crude pedagogical experiments. Accomplished facts will be announced. (The establishment of a Department of Science in the College of Liberal Arts is an already accomplished fact of profound significance.) Every resource of the University will be utilized. Every man in the various faculties will be assigned to the work wherein he can render the most effective service to the University. Full advantage will be taken of the unique location of the University in the heart of the city of Boston.

With the confidence of the community already manifested, it is a reasonable expectation of the Trustees and friends of Boston University that this public confidence will find practical expression in generous benefactions which will enable the University to carry out some important plans, the realization of which has hitherto been impossible.

THE NEW TELESCOPE.

A room for the telescope recently presented by Mr. John W. Pycott has been built adjacent to the observatory, with which it is directly connected. The instrument is now in use, and the opportunities for astronomical work are decidedly increased by these acquisitions.

In the July issue we shall publish an article on "The Study of Morphology as an Adjunct to the Study of Medicine," by Dr. Arthur W. Weysse, Assistant Professor in Physiology in the School of Medicine of Boston University.
UNIVERSITY NOTES

The approaching Commencement exercises of the University bid fair to prove of universal interest. A committee consisting of a representative from the College of Liberal Arts and one from each of the professional schools is at work on the details of the exercises of Commencement Day. The orator at the Commencement exercises will be Carroll D. Wright. The Hon. George R. Jones, A.B. '83, LL.B. '86, will deliver the address before the Convocation.

The Departments

COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS.

Professor Dallas Lore Sharp has just published a new book of nature studies, "Roof and Meadow," with illustrations by Mr. Bruce Horsfall. It is published by the Century Company, New York.


The present course in the History of Philosophy will give place next year to two courses in the same subject, one in each semester. The first will survey Philosophy from Thales to Plotinus; the second, Medieval and Modern Philosophy.

Mr. William Leonard Snow, instructor in History and in Mathematics in the College of Liberal Arts from 1898 until 1900, was married, on Thursday, March 24, to Miss Carrie Woodbury Cushing. Mr. and Mrs. Snow will be at home, after May 9, at 1577 Beacon Street, Brookline.

Professor Richard G. Moulton, of the Department of English of the University of Chicago, delivered in Jacob Sleeper Hall, on the 23d of February and on the 14th of March, two lectures that drew very large audiences of students and alumni and friends of the University.

The American Book Company has just published Leandro Fernández de Moratín's El si de las niñas, edited, with introduction, map, notes, and vocabulary, by Professors Geddes and Josselyn of the Romance Department. This play is one of the best of the early nineteenth-century Spanish classics.

Galdós' Marianela, a Spanish text edited by the same professors, was reviewed at length in the January number of the Modern Language Notes, by Professor Bassett, of the University of Kansas.
An Easter sale for the benefit of the Boston University History Professorship Fund was held under the auspices of Delta Delta Delta, in the Twentieth Century Club rooms, 14 Somerset Street, Boston, on Wednesday, March 30, from 2 until 5 P.M. We are unable to announce in this issue the financial results of the sale.

On the evening of April 1 Professor James Geddes delivered a lecture before the Spanish Club of Harvard University. The club had invited as guests the Castilian Club of Boston and the Club Español of the same city. The lecture, which was delivered in the Spanish language, had as its theme "The Recent Literary Activity in Spain." The lecture was given in the Phillips Brooks House, and was followed by a reception.

The chapel service on the morning of Wednesday, March 30, the last service before the Easter recess, was one of the most impressive chapel exercises in the history of the College. The music was furnished by the Department of Music of the College of Liberal Arts. The program was as follows: 1. Easter carol, words and music by Miss Gladys May Barber, a member of the Junior class of the College of Liberal Arts. 2. Easter anthem, "As It Began to Dawn," by Foster. 3. "Ave Verum," by Mozart. These selections were given by a double quartet composed of members of the University Glee Club and students in the Department of Music.

The Department of Music, under the direction of Mr. John P. Marshall, has rendered during the present year incalculable service to the religious and artistic life of the College. It is hoped that hereafter announcement of the musical services may be made sufficiently in advance to permit the attendance of the alumni whose generosity has made possible the establishment of the department. The efficiency of the department and the impressiveness of the chapel services of the College would be greatly increased could funds be secured sufficient to provide a pipe-organ. The new Year-book announces for the coming year the following courses in music: 1. A course in Harmony. Two hours a week throughout the year. 2. Lectures on the History and Development of Music from the earliest stages. One hour a week during the second semester.

No other American institution has so large a representation in the educational work of Porto Rico as has Boston University, eight of whose graduates are connected with the Insular Department of Education, several of them in especially important positions. Everett W. Lord, '00, as Assistant Commissioner of Education, has general supervision of all superintendents and teachers, more than 1,200 in number. Much of the time he has entire charge of all educational work. Daniel N. Handy, '99, has been recently appointed Secretary and Treasurer of the new University of Porto Rico, a position of much responsibility. Leonard P. Ayres, '02, is Superintendent of Schools of the Cagnas district, with seventy-five teachers in his care. Donald McKenzie, '01, A.M. '02, is teacher of Latin in the San Juan High School. Albert Stotlar, '98, teaches wood-working in the Mayagüez Industrial School. Henry Hindle, '99, who is at Toa Alta, Fred Libby, '02, at Vega Baja, and John F. Packard, '02, at Albonito, are teaching English in the graded schools.
An important event in the history of the University will occur at the beginning of the next college year, in September, when the new Department of Science will begin its work. With the single exception of Physics, all the courses in Natural Science which for so many years the students of the College of Liberal Arts have taken under the direction of members of the Faculty of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology will be transferred to the buildings of the College of Liberal Arts of Boston University, and the instruction will be given by members of the Faculty of the College of Liberal Arts. Beginning with next September, the College will offer under its own direction courses in Chemistry, Botany, Biology, Physiology, and Geology. Plans are steadily maturing, but at this time no definite announcement of the names of the new instructors or the specific courses in these branches of Natural Science can be given. Owing to the great expense of equipping a well-furnished Physical Laboratory, it is found advisable for the present to leave in the hands of the instructors in Physics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology the courses offered in this subject by the College. It is proposed to provide in the college buildings well-furnished laboratories for the study of Chemistry and Biology and allied subjects; these laboratories will be ready for use at the opening of the college year, in September.

On Wednesday, March 9, the Department of Romance Languages opened its new library. The desirability of this addition to the efficiency of the department has long been evident to the instructors. They have secured the use of a large, quiet, and well-lighted room adjoining the class-rooms, and have placed there for the convenience of students the books owned by the College relating to the Romance languages. In addition to these the department is procuring such books as its own funds can provide. A notable feature, and of great interest to the students, is the library of the New England Modern Language Association, now housed in the same room and available for consultation by the students. This consists of some six hundred volumes of texts and books of reference, of which Professor Josselyn is librarian, aided by Miss Harriette O'Donald and Miss Dora E. Smith, students in the College of Liberal Arts, as assistant librarians. The department library has organized, with Miss Elizabeth A. Horne as librarian and Miss Ethel M. Piper as assistant. The books which have now been brought together have hitherto been separated on the shelves of the college library under the system of classification there employed. It is hoped that by offering opportunities for the extension of study in the several languages of the group this new library will further the unification of the work of the Department of Romance Languages.

SCHOOL OF THEOLOGY.

Dean Buell returned from Mexico on March 19 much improved in health. He hopes to resume his regular work with the opening of the spring term.

The school has been favored with a number of strong addresses and sermons recently, among which were an address by John R. Mott on the "Work

SCHOOL OF LAW.

An item of interest to all graduates of the Law School is the appointment of Hon. Henry R. Emmerson, M.P. for Westmoreland County, New Brunswick, to be Minister of Railroads and Canals in the Cabinet of Sir Wilfrid Laurier. Mr. Emmerson was graduated from the Boston University Law School in 1877 with the degree of LL.B. He has been at different times a member of the New Brunswick Legislature; from 1897 to 1900 he was Premier of New Brunswick. In politics he is a Liberal.

During the present school year the system of electives has been placed on a new basis. In the past the student has been credited with the number of electives taken; in the future he will be credited by the number of hours. No electives will be required for the ordinary degree; but seventy-five hours elective work will be required for the degree Cum Laude, and one hundred and fifty hours electives for the degrees Magna Cum Laude and Summa Cum Laude. After the present school year the degree Cum Laude will be given on an average of 85 per cent instead of 80 per cent, as at present required.

The William E. Russell Club of the Law School has completed arrangements for two intercollegiate debates, to be held during the next two months. The first contest will be with Holy Cross at Worcester; the question to be argued is: "Resolved that Literacy as Defined in the Lodge Bill be among the Tests Required in Immigrants to this Country."

A debate with Georgetown University will be held at Georgetown, D.C., on the question: "Resolved that the Northern Securities Company Is a Combination in Restraint of Trade, in the Meaning of the United States Statutes."

On March 11 Mr. Poultney Bigelow, the noted writer on Eastern questions, addressed the entire Law School on the subject, "Colonial Problems." His lecture dealt with the difficulties involved in governing successfully our new Oriental possessions and in having business and political relations in general with nations in the far East. The address was given in the advanced course for the Master's degree, which deals in a large measure with topics pertaining to the governing of our new possessions.
In view of the active interest always taken by Boston University School of Medicine in progressive methods of medical instruction, it is with considerable satisfaction we are able to announce that the school will be represented in a satisfactory manner at the coming St. Louis Exposition.

At the meeting of the American Institute of Homoeopathy held at Cleveland in 1902, Boston University School of Medicine started an "Educational Exhibit" for the purpose of illustrating the most recent advances in medical subjects, and especially to demonstrate the latest methods of instruction. In 1903, at the Boston meeting of the same society, this exhibit was increased in size and scope, Boston University being joined by other schools and societies. The success of these attempts has been such as to justify the expectation of their being adopted as a permanent feature, of this society at least.

The school also prepared an exhibit of pathological specimens for the Saratoga meeting of the American Medical Association, the purpose being to illustrate a new method of preparing specimens for class work, a method originated by members of the Faculty. The success of this last-mentioned demonstration was undoubted.

Having thus been for some years in the van of such advances, it was with pleasure that the information was received from the Director of the Massachusetts Educational Department that, owing to the withdrawal of one of the colleges, extra space could be included in the part allotted to the School of Medicine of Boston University.

It is the intention of those having the matter in charge to prepare an exhibit that shall best illustrate the facilities at the disposal of the school for giving medical instruction, and the methods employed; the quality and character of the work done by its students, as well as the material collected in its laboratories. It is also intended to include in the exhibit photographic illustrations, at least, of the institutions with which the school is affiliated, and from which it procures its clinical material.

There recently has been added to the apparatus of the Pathological Laboratory a new instrument for obtaining the exact freezing-point of various liquids, a test which promises much in the prognosis of many diseases due to impaired assimilation and elimination of foods and waste substances. In this laboratory during the past year upwards of 4,000 pathological examinations were performed; all the material from these examinations was placed at the disposal of the Department of Pathology for teaching purposes.

Dr. Chadwell, the latest addition to the Faculty, has just completed the work of piloting the Freshmen through the mysteries of the microscope and its allied subjects. He is about to begin with the same class the course in Applied Bacteriology, a course than which no other in the school presents more practical methods of technique to the future physician. Here each student comes into personal contact with bacterial life, and studies the preferences and antipathies of those micro-organisms with the clinical manifestations of which he later becomes so familiar.
**James Oglethorpe**, by Harriet C. Cooper, in Appleton's series of "Historical Lives," is a readable biography that gives an excellent portraiture of the "Father of the State of Georgia." Born in 1689, of fine old English stock, a graduate of Oxford, he was, after some years of service in the army, elected to Parliament, where he held a seat for thirty years and more. Prison reform had a peculiar interest for him; and it was the wretched condition of poor debtors under English law that moved Oglethorpe to plan for their relief by colonizing the respectable poor "of reputable families and of liberal education" in the South-land of America. A charter was granted by the king, June 9, 1732, and a colony of seven hundred persons was formed by the aid of wealthy men under Oglethorpe's management, and finally established on the fertile lands of the Savannah River. This became the colony and ultimately the State of Georgia. The upright, and even religious, administration of the affairs of this colony, menaced as it was by Indians and Spaniards whom it was necessary to watch and to fight, makes an interesting story. The incidents of the visits of the Wesleys and of Whitefield as missionaries to the Georgia colony have a somewhat meagre treatment by the author, and an unfortunate selection of material presents these remarkable evangelists under a poor light. Their pecadiilos ought not to be allowed to cast so serious a shadow upon their self-sacrificing work as Christian missionaries. Especial literary interest is attached to the name of Oglethorpe by the fact that Dr. Johnson, Goldsmith, Boswell, and Horace Walpole were all on friendly and even intimate terms with this remarkable man. The poets Thomson and Pope also sang his praises, and Hannah More wrote to her sister regarding the famous General Oglethorpe, "He perfectly realizes my ideas of Nestor." The book gathers together in good form the salient features of the early history of Georgia. (Price, $1.00 net. Postage 10 cents additional.)

**Outlines of Greek History**, by William C. Morey. Dr. Morey calls his book an outline, and it is that, but it is a good deal more than an outline. The selections for collateral reading and special study will put the student in the way of the best modern works on the subject, but the general reader who confines himself to this one book will get a very valuable survey of Greek history from the humane standpoint rather than from the point of view of the annalist. The style is attractive and the illustrations are admirable. (American Book Company, New York.)

**Howe's Handbook of Parliamentary Usage**, by Frank William Howe. A very ingeniously arranged handbook, so indexed as to enable the reader to turn without a moment's delay to a desired passage. (Hinds and Noble, New York.)