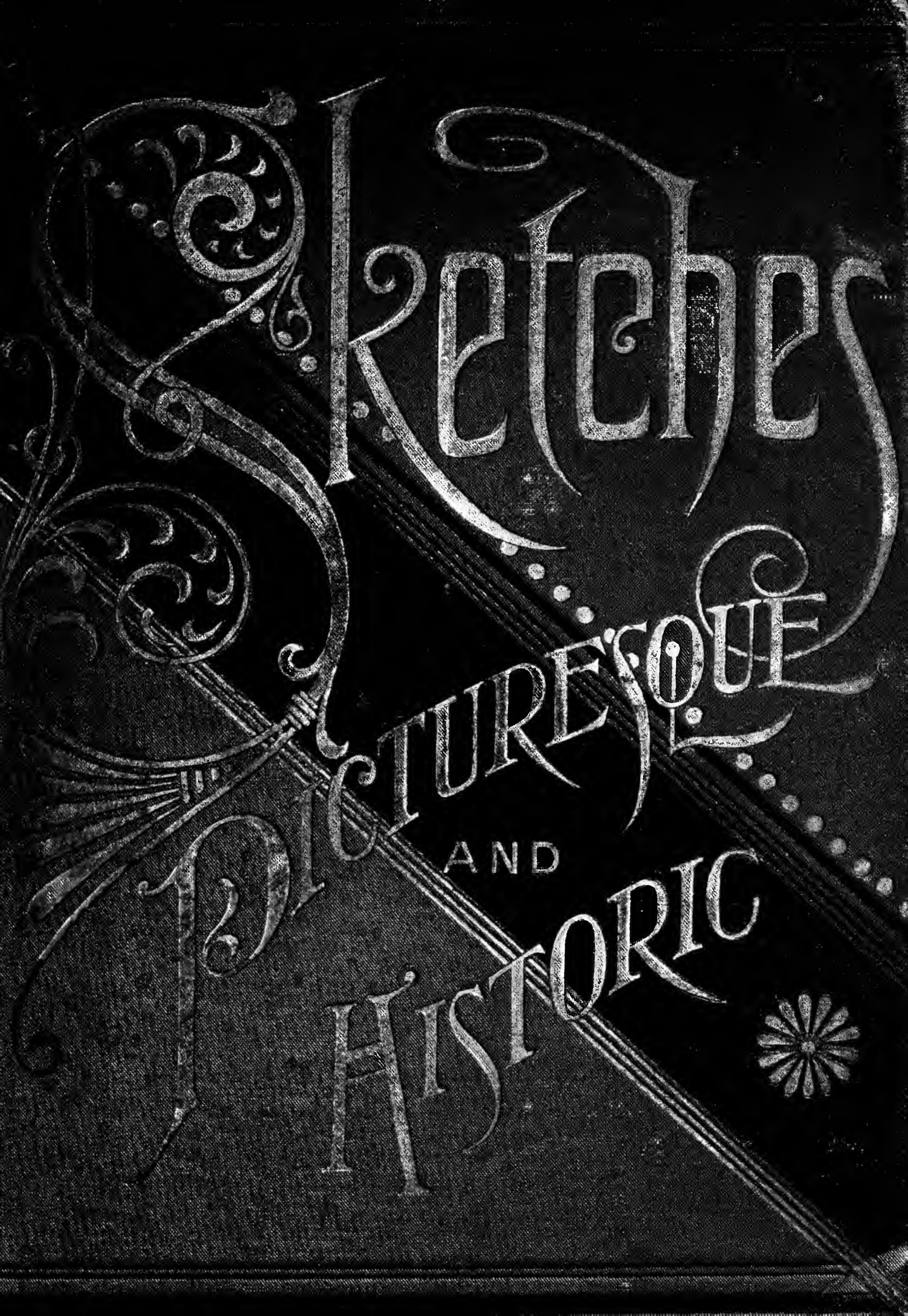

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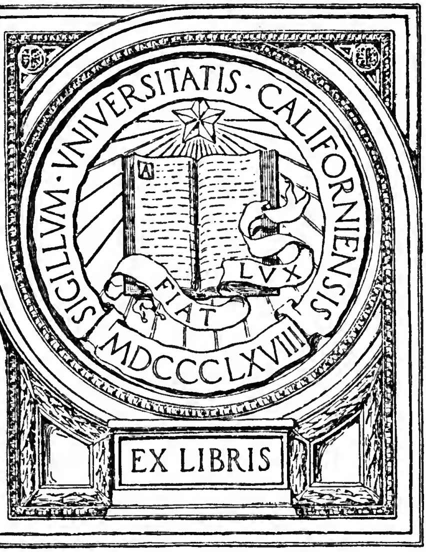
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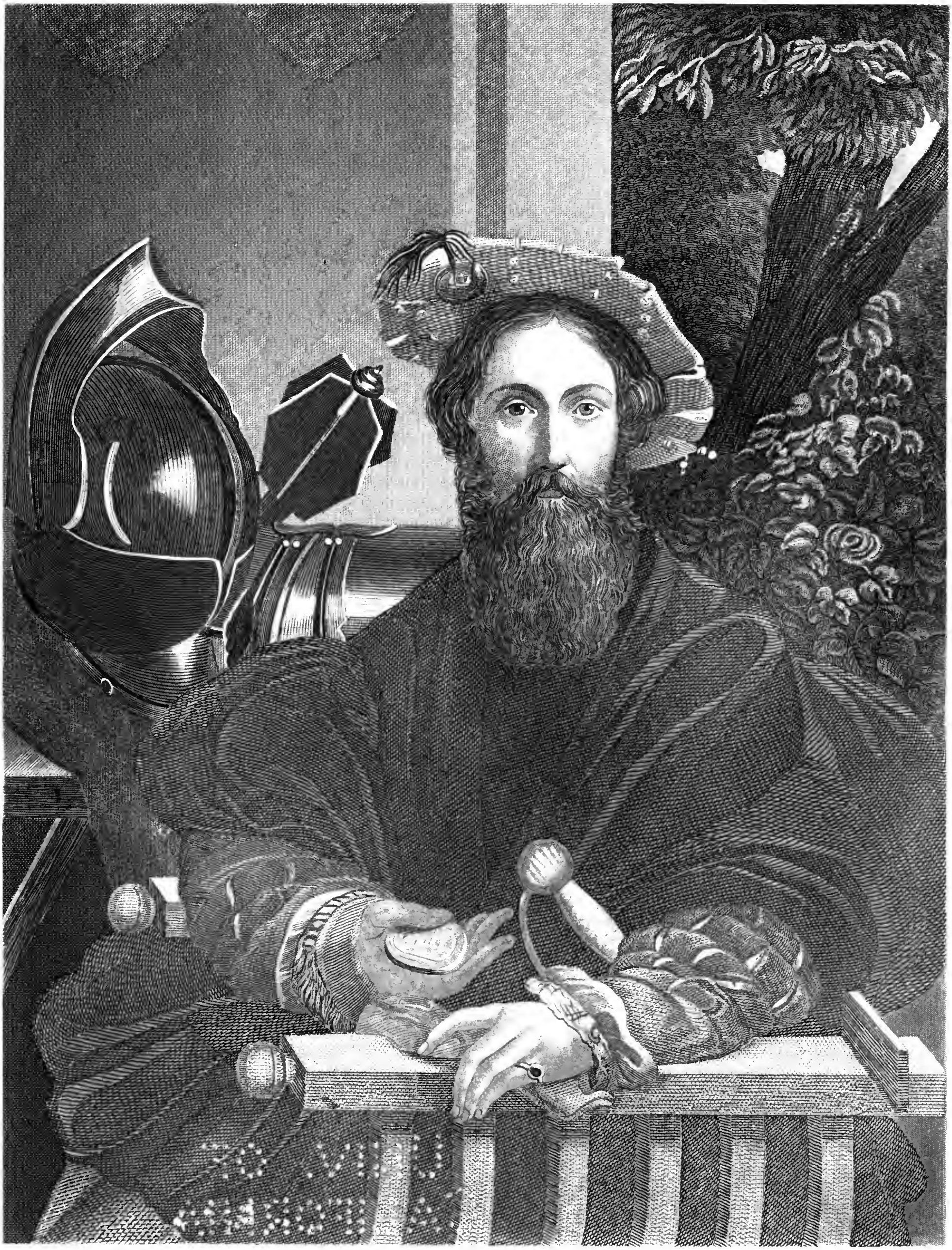

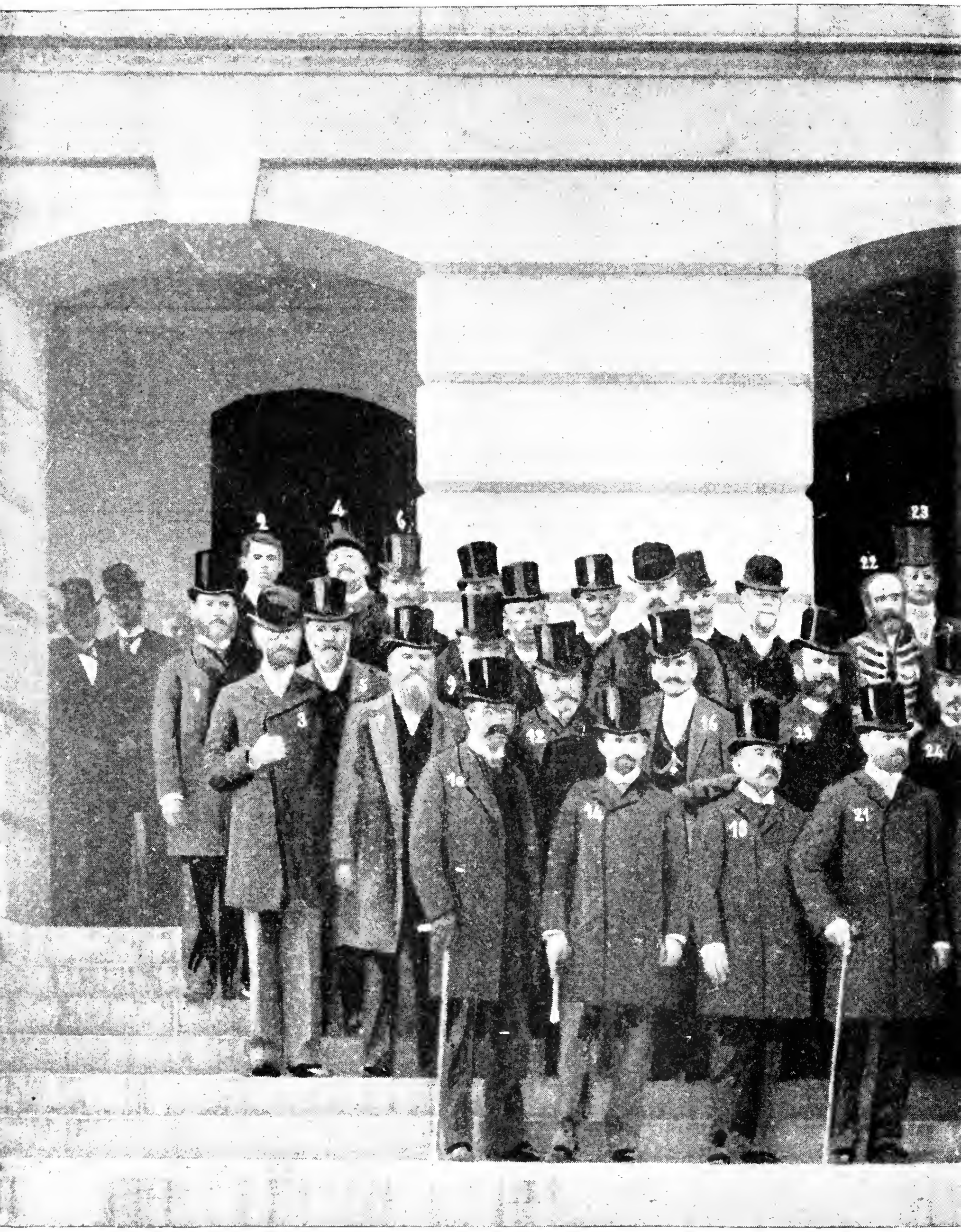

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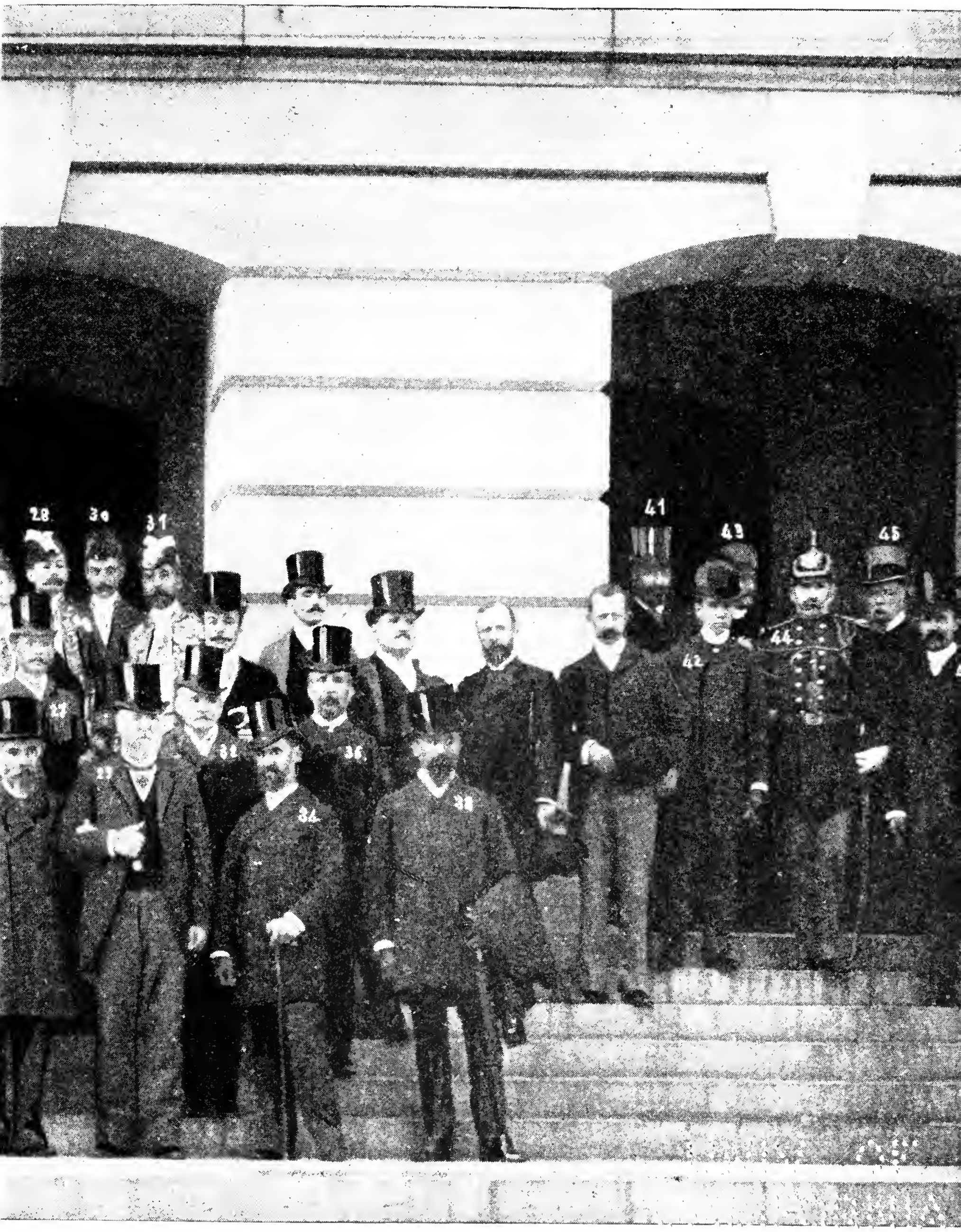

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THE GOVERNMENTS AND PEOPLE
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PEN AND PENCIL PICTURES
OF THE GREAT WONDERLANDS OF OUR REPUBLIC, THEIR NATURAL SCENERY AND CELEBRATED
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OUR CONTINENT BEYOND THE STATES
COMPRISING
VIEWS IN THE DOMINION OF CANADA, HER PROVINCES AND CITIES; THE REPUBLIC OF MEXICO;
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OF SOUTH AND CENTRAL AMERICA, THEIR CAPITALS AND SEAPORTS.

A Grand, Descriptive, Historical and Statistical Work.

PREPARED BY
BENSON J. LOSSING, LL.D.,
AUTHOR OF "THE PICTORIAL FIELD BOOK OF THE REVOLUTION," "THE WAR OF 1812," "A HISTORY OF THE UNITED
STATES FOR SCHOOLS," "THE CIVIL WAR," "LIVES OF EMINENT AMERICANS," "THE HOME OF WASHINGTON,"
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BENSON J. LOSSING, LL.D.

Our Nation; The Story of Its Progress and Growth.

GEO. J. HAGAR.

Beyond the States.

A. H. GEURNSEY, PH. D.
AND
JOHN E. REED.

Great Wonderlands of Our Republic.

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PREFACE.

The present is an auspicious time to present to the public a work showing at one view the wonderful development and progress of the countries of the western world, together with the marvellous scenery of our wonderlands and resorts.

The volume in hand contains a concise and rapid review of all the nations of our continent, including the story of Our Nation's Progress and Growth, giving in interesting and entertaining form the salient points of our national development from the discovery of the continent to the present time. This cannot fail to be of great value to the busy reader who has not the time to devote to more extensive works. It may be depended upon as accurate and reliable, the description of each event having been carefully verified as to its historical correctness.

While the great republic of the West has made such rapid strides in her national progress, sister republics have arisen upon her southern border, and in Central and South America, modelled upon her Constitution. The lands of the Montezumas and the Incas have taken on a new type of civilization. Customs and traditions, transplanted from the countries of Europe to their American colonies, have been modified and transformed by the blending of the races until the sovereign nations first represented in the Pan-American Congress, held at Washington, D. C., in 1890, have displayed the great fact that they are all together moving forward to a common destiny. The spirit of unity and of peaceful arbitration, as well as of commercial reciprocity urged by this Congress upon the respective governments represented therein, shows a tendency to continental unity of aim.

In order that the general reader may become fully informed upon their condition, political, commercial, and social, interesting chapters of a historical and descriptive nature have been introduced showing the form of government, with statistics respecting the educational facilities, military and naval forces, and religious condition of these nations of the western hemisphere which lie beyond the United

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States. The dominion of Canada on the north, and Cuba, "the Key to the Antilles," with the Bahama Islands, have each been treated in chapters specially assigned to them.

An interesting portion of the work is specially devoted to the natural scenery presented by ocean, lake, mountain, and river throughout the great "Wonderlands of Our Republic." These have long attracted the admiration of the native and foreign tourist, and awakened an intense desire in all classes of readers to become better acquainted with the majestic wonders and varied scenes of our land. These chapters, which include the celebrated resorts of the United States, are surrounded with picturesque and historic interest to all readers. To those who have had the time and opportunity to visit all or any of these famous places, a perusal of these sketches will awaken pleasant recollections and renew the thrilling sensations of grandeur and sublimity which the scenes themselves at first aroused. While for that large class of our readers who have not had the opportunity of personally viewing them, these pen and pencil pictures will, in large measure, supply the place of actual visitation. While to those contemplating a visit to any of our celebrated resorts, an opportunity is offered to make themselves familiar with the peculiar charms of each.

The historic, descriptive, and picturesque features of this work cannot fail to most highly recommend it to all readers. This work is therefore published for readers of every class, with the belief that it will satisfy the renewed interest in the wonderful achievements of our Continent, everywhere rich in noble names and grand events ; and also with the assurance that it will furnish much desired information upon those subjects which are valuable to every American—in the broadest sense of that word—who believes in the grand future awaiting this *Western Hemisphere of Republics.*

CONTENTS.

Preface iii
List of Illustrations xxv

The Great Wonderlands of Our Republic:

NATURAL SCENERY AND CELEBRATED RESORTS.

NEW ENGLAND COAST SCENES—The Coast Line—The Proposed Tour—Route Selected—Long Island Sound—Newport—Location—Former Naval Station—The Round Tower—Various Attractions—Open to All—Population—Nantasket Beach—Plymouth—Miles Standish—The "Mayflower"—Early Settlement of Plymouth—Natural Features—Pilgrim Rock—Plymouth Hall—Cape Cod—Form—Area—Derivation of its Name—Sand—Cranberry Marshes—Villages—Provincetown—Fisheries—Whales—Characteristic Scenes—New Bedford—Decline of the Whale Fisheries—Manufactures—Buzzard's Bay and Vicinity—Wood's Holl—Martha's Vineyard—Discovery—Attractions—Cottage City—Gay Head—Nantucket—Geological Formation—Discovery—Settlement by Thomas Macey—Fisheries—Population—"The Garden of Eden"—Climate—Sanitary Condition—Return to Boston—Lowell—John Eliot—Cotton Mills—Lake Winnipiseogee—Early Notices—Later Descriptions—Portland—Mount Desert Island—Area—Natural Features—Growing Importance—As a Pleasure Resort—Prosperity, ... 53

THE WHITE MOUNTAINS—Location—First Visit by White Men—Increasing Popularity—Various Attractions—Ascent of Mount Washington—Magnificent Scenery—The Notch and Vicinity—Franconia Mountains—Other Attractions, . . . 97

THE RANGELEY LAKES—Location—Number—Names—Attractions of the Region—Routes—The Dixville Notch, ... 104

ALONG THE HUDSON—The Hudson River—Navigation—Scenery—Palisades—The Tappan Zee—"Sunnyside"—"Sleepy Hollow"—Nyack—Sing Sing—The Croton Aqueduct—"Treason Hill"—Peekskill—The Highland Region—West Point—Constitution Island—Cornwall—Newburg—Poughkeepsie—Other Cities—Claverack Valley—Albany—The Capitol Building—Feudal System—Troy, ... 106

THE ADIRONDACS—Location—Elevation—A Wild Region—Mountains—Lakes and Ponds—Travelling—Routes—General Aspect, ... 119

THE REGION OF THE CATSKILLS—Location—Routes Thereto—Catskill—Kingston—Fame of the Catskills—Attractions—Mountain Views—Railroads and

Stage Lines—Sunset Rock—Overlook Mountain—The Wallkill Valley—New Paltz—Sky Top—Lake Mohonk—Lake Minnewaska, ... 120

SARATOGA SPRINGS—A Famous Resort—Hotels—Historic Events—Mineral Springs—Attractions—Saratoga Lake—Mt. McGregor—Population, ... 128

LAKE GEORGE—A Democratic Resort—Location and History—Attractions of the Region—Summer Population, ... 132

CHAUTAUQUA—Location—Elevation—Resorts—Educational Centre — Buildings—Schools—Recreations, ... 136

AUSABLE CHASM—Location—Falls—The Chasm—A Pleasant Boat-ride, 138

CHATEAUGAY CHASM—Location—Lakes in the Vicinity—Description of the Chasm—Effects of the Imagination—Rainbow Basin—Giant Gorge —Vulcan's Cave—Other Attractions—Increasing Popularity, ... 140

WATKINS GLEN—Situation—Scenery—Cascades—The Iron Bridge—Hotel—Art Gallery—The Cathedral—Various Attractions, ... 144

NIAGARA FALLS—Volume of Water—Adequate Description Impossible—Niagara River—Earliest Mention of Falls—How the Falls were Formed—Rate of Retrocession—Goat Island—Width and Form of the Falls—Cave of the Winds—The New York State Park—The Queen Victoria Niagara Falls Park—Bridges Across the River—Below the Falls—The Whirlpool—Villages, ... 149

THE THOUSAND ISLANDS—The St. Lawrence River—The Rapids—Steamers—The Morning Hours—Various Islands—Alexandria Bay—Round Island Park—Thousand Island Park—Evening Scenes—Cottages—Westminster Park—On the River Banks—The Long Sault—Lake St. Francis—Through the Rapids—Victoria Bridge—Montreal, ... 160

CRESSON—Location—Elevation—Hotels and Cottages—Forests—Roads—Medicinal Springs, ... 172

LEWISTOWN NARROWS—The Home of Logan—Natural Curiosities—Industries—Institutions and Buildings—Formation of the Narrows, ... 172

THE HORSESHOE CURVE—Up Grade—A Peculiar Curve—Across the Chasm—A Curious Delusion, ... 174

GREENWOOD LAKE—Location—Area—Numerous Attractions—Camping Out—Scenery, ... 176

CONEY ISLAND—Area and Location—Discovery—Early History—As a Pleasure Resort—New Attractions—Elements of Popularity—Iron Piers—Hotels—Four Divisions, ... 177

LONG BRANCH—Location—Attractions—Original Settlement—The Beach—Hotels—Various Sections, ... 180

ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE—-Location of Asbury Park—Purchase of the Land—Incorporation—Beach—Hotels—Lakes—Ocean Grove—Management—Attractions—Population, ... 181

ATLANTIC CITY—Climatic Advantages—Location—-Railroad Connections—Churches and Newspapers—Various Attractions, ... 185

CAPE MAY CITY—Location—Early Settlement—Attractions—Cape May Point—Bathing Facilities—City Avenues—Hotels and Cottages, ... 186

OLD POINT COMFORT—Climate—Location—Fortress Monroe—Hampton—Neighboring Localities—Social Enjoyments, ... 188

THE WHITE SULPHUR SPRINGS—Location—How reached—Mountain Peaks—Medicinal Spring—Popularity—Climate—Hotels and Cottages—Hot Springs—Healing Springs—Sweet Springs—Red Sulphur Springs—Scenery, ... 191

JEKYL ISLAND—Location—Former Popularity—Recent Purchase—Improvements—Management—Attractions—Climate, ... 193

ST. JOHN'S RIVER—Rise and Course—Steamboat Trip—Orange Groves—Lake George—Luxuriant Vegetation—Stopping Places—The Everglades—Florida as a Winter Resort, ... 195

TEXAS AND THE GREAT SOUTHWEST—Scenery—The St. Louis Bridge—The Meramec River—The Iron Mountain—Pilot Knob Mountain—The

Ozark Mountain Section—Beautiful Scenes—The Black River—Little Rock—Hot Springs—Medicinal Character of the Waters—Scenic Beauty—Increasing Popularity—Texas—Area—Elevation—Soil—Attractions for the Sportsman—Agricultural Productions—Austin—The Capitol Building—San Marcos—San Antonio—Rapid Development—Historical Associations—Natural Bridge—Fort Worth—Court House—The Brazos River—Big Springs—Approaching the Rocky Mountains—The Sierra Blanca Mountains—El Paso—Attractions—El Paso del Norte—Fort Bliss—Ysleta, . 200

SCENES IN NEW MEXICO—Characteristics of the Region—An Ancient Country—A Trip from Embudo—Fernandez de Taos—Indian Festival—The Pueblo de Taos—The Future of the Section, ... 226

HERE AND THERE IN THE GREAT WEST—Starting Point—Warrensburg—Agricultural Operations—Great American Desert—Oklahoma—Scenes in Illinois—In the Vicinity of Ottawa—Deer Park Glen—Bailey's Falls—Iowa—Spirit Lake—Little Spirit Lake—West Okoboji Lake—Minnesota—Lake Minnetonka—Detroit Lake—Dakota—Lake Minnewakan, or Devil's Lake, ... 229

THE ROCKIES AND BEYOND—Nature of the Scenery—The Pioneer—Leadville—Methods of Travel—Mountain of the Holy Cross—Georgetown—Green Lake—Bow Knot Loop—Gray's Peak—The Cañons of Colorado—Cheyenne Cañons—Manitou Springs—Pike's Peak—Rainbow Falls—Garden of the Gods—Toltec Gorge—Garfield Memorial—Grand Cañon of the Arkansas—The Royal Gorge—A Steep Grade—Gunnison—Crested Butte—Grotesque Figures—Idaho Springs—Location—Attractions—Medicinal Springs—The Chicago Lakes—Echo Lake—Hunting Grounds—The North Park—The Middle Park—The South Park—The San Luis Park—Elevation and Attractions—A Wild Region—The Green River and Vicinity—Evanston—Echo Cañon—Tunnel and Bridges—Pillars of Rock—Castle Rock—Fossil Remains—Rugged Cliffs—Pulpit Rock—The Old Wagon Road—The Weber Valley—Weber Cañon—The Devil's Slide—A Famous Tree—The Salt Lake Valley—A Magnificent Region—Should be Visited by Americans, ... 247

UTAH AND THE GREAT SALT LAKE—An Interesting Section—Mountain Ranges—Elevations—Sharp Contrasts—Salt Lake City—Evidences of Prosperity—The Great Salt Lake—Chemical Constituents of the Water—Density—Area of the Lake—Islands—Steamers—Cañons, ... 297

YELLOWSTONE NATIONAL PARK—Early Visitors—Scientific Exploration—Reservation by Congress—Form and Area—Elevation—Rivers—Railroads—Mammoth Hot Springs—Dead Springs—The Geysers—Great Geyser Basin—Giant Geyser—Other Important Geysers—Mud Volcano—Yellowstone River—Falls of the Yellowstone—Yellowstone Lake—The Grand Cañon—Massive Pillars—Gorgeous Colors—Falls of Tower Creek—Other Attractions—Governmental Supervision—A Trip to the Park, ... 303

THE YOSEMITE VALLEY—Location—Discovery by White Men—Reserved by the Government—Roads—Area—Height of the Walls—El Capitan—Other Attractions—The Yosemite Falls—Falls of the Merced River—Wonders of the Tenaya Cañon—Points of View—The Mariposa Grove—Discovery of the "Big Trees"—Where They Grow, ... 318

THE COLUMBIA RIVER REGION—Course of the River—Magnificent Scenery—Rapids—The Great Dalles—Mount Hood—The Cascades—Multnomah Falls—Pillars of Hercules—Cape Horn—The Grande Ronde Valley—The Willamette Falls—Canal and Locks—Portland—Astoria—Fisheries—A Trip to Puget Sound—Mount Tacoma, ... 322

ALASKA—Largely an Unknown Land—Location—Area—Shore Line—Trip by Steamer—Mountains—Glaciers—Mineral Springs—Rivers—The Yukon River—Forests—Climate—Hunting and Fishing—The Mines—Sitka—Population—Indians—Totem Poles—The Cathedral—Government Buildings—A Sad Story—The Return Trip—An Interesting Region, ... 335

Our Nation: The Story of Its Progress and Growth.

INTRODUCTION.

Our Position—The Past and the Present—An Unending Conflict—Self-Government by the People an Experiment—Opposing Forces—A Wonderful History—The Formative Period—George Washington—Remarkable Development—Second War with England—Indians Subdued—Jealous of Foreign Powers—Slavery Overthrown—A Free Land—The Mission of the Country—The only Source of Danger, . . . 347–356

EARLY SETTLEMENTS.

Progress and Growth of the Nation—Settlement at Jamestown—Experiences of the Colonists—Establishment of Representative Government—New England—Arrival of the Pilgrims—The Civil Compact in the Mayflower—Great Difficulties—Manner of Life—Massasoit—Education—Increase of Population—Union of the Colonies—John Eliot—King Philip's War—Triumph of the Whites—New York—Discovery of the Hudson River—Settlement on Manhattan Island—War with Indians—Surrender to the English—William Penn—Establishment of the Colony on the Delaware—Prosperity of the New Settlement—Other Colonies, ... 357–367

THE COLONIAL PERIOD.

General Condition—Belief in Witchcraft—Religious Intolerance—Excuse—Growth of the Colonies—Forms of Government—French and Indian Aggression—George Washington—War with the French and Indians—Defeat of General Braddock—The Siege of Quebec—Rapid Immigration—The Gathering Cloud—Changed Relations—English Tyranny—Commercial Restrictions—The Stamp Act—Declaration of Rights—The Tax on Tea—British Troops—Opposition to English Interference—A Cargo of Tea Destroyed—Retaliation—Preparations for War—First Colonial Congress, . . 367–379

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

Opening of the War for Independence—The Attack at Lexington—The Battle of Concord—George Washington—John Hancock—Benjamin Franklin—Israel Putnam—Patrick Henry—Samuel Adams—Gathering of Troops—Aggressive Movements—Ticonderoga—Crown Point—Second Continental Congress—Arrival of British Troops—Battle of Bunker Hill—Washington Appointed Commander-in-Chief—British Evacuation of Boston—Protection of New York—The British Attack Charleston, . . 379–396

INDEPENDENCE DECLARED.

The Formal Declaration of Independence—Its Reception by the People—Hessian Troops—General Howe's Commission—Overtures of the British Rejected—Americans Retreat from Brooklyn—Battle of White Plains—A Dark Period—The Battles of Trenton and Princeton—French Aid to the Patriots—The Marquis de Lafayette—Various Encounters—Philadelphia Captured by the British—In the Northern Department—Indians Assist the British—Surrender of General Burgoyne—Renewed Overtures of Peace from England—Alliance of France and Spain with the Colonies—Valley Forge—Appearance of a French Fleet—Battle of Monmouth—Battle at Quaker Hill—The Wyoming Massacre—Cherry Valley—New Plan of Action—Along the Sea-coast—Various Battles—In the Western Wilderness—Punishment of the Six Nations—The Campaign at the South—On the High Seas—Disasters to the Patriots—Francis Marion—South Carolina Organized as a Royal Province—Progress of the Campaign in the South and the North—The Treachery of Arnold—Failure of his Treasonable Bargain—Sufferings of the Soldiers—Relief Granted by Congress—Robert Morris—Depredations by Arnold—Battles of Cowpens and Guilford Courthouse—Various Engagements—Massacre at Fort Griswold—The Battle of Yorktown—Surrender of the British, ... 396–417

AFTER THE CONFLICT.

The Close of the War—Treaties of Peace—Impoverished Condition of the Colonies—Commissioners—Proposition to Establish a Monarchy—Domestic Discontent—Retirement of Washington—Alexander Hamilton—Formation of the Constitution—Dissolution of the Continental Congress—The Territorial Government—Election of a President. 417–423

A REPUBLICAN GOVERNMENT ESTABLISHED.

ADMINISTRATION OF GEORGE WASHINGTON—Organization of the Government—Public Debt — Returning Prosperity — Indian Hostilities — Political Parties — The Whiskey Rebellion—Treaties with England and Spain—Establishment of a Navy—ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN ADAMS—Threatened War with France Averted—The Death of Washington—The Second Census—Election of President by the House of Representatives—ADMINISTRATION OF THOMAS JEFFERSON—Conciliatory Measures—Additions to the Union—Expeditions against Algerine Pirates—Exploration of the Rocky Mountain Region—Aaron Burr—Difficulties with Foreign Nations—Successful Steam Navigation—Impressment of Seamen—Embargo upon Shipping—ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MADISON—The Rights of Citizenship—Continued Aggressions by England—Indian Outbreak—Strength of English and American Navies, . . . 423–432

THE SECOND WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE.

Opening of the War—Disasters on Land—Successes on the Sea—Re-Election of President Madison—American Victories in Canada and on Lake Erie—Varying Fortunes of War—British Depredations—The City of Washington Plundered —Negotiations for Peace—The Battle of New Orleans—Peace Restored, ... 432–436

DOMESTIC AFFAIRS.

Algerine Pirates—Admission of Indiana—The United States Bank Chartered—Administration of James Monroe—Emigration to the West—New States and Territories — The Missouri Compromise — Re-election of President Monroe — Visit of Lafayette—Sketch of his Life—Election of John Quincy Adams as President—His Administration—The Erie Canal—Death of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson—The Fiftieth Anniversary of Independence—Administration of Andrew Jackson—Removal of the Cherokee Indians—Veto of the Charter of the National Bank—The Black Hawk War—Secession Threatened by South Carolina—Business Panic—War with Indians in Florida—Order to collect Revenues in Coin—Admission of New States—Administration of Martin Van Buren—Commercial Disaster—Violation of Neutrality Laws—Administration of Presidents Harrison and Tyler —Call for an Extra Session of Congress—Death of President Harrison—Succession of Vice-President Tyler—Legislation Relating to Commercial Affairs—Modification of the Tariff—Adoption of a State Constitution by Rhode Island—Texas Applies for Admission to the Union—Florida and Iowa become States—Administration of James K. Polk—Annexation of Texas—Settlement of the Northwestern Boundaries Dispute, ... 436–446

THE MEXICAN WAR.

Causes of the War—The Conquest of California—The Navajo Indians Subdued — Close of the Mexican War—Discovery of Gold in California—Election of General Taylor to the Presidency—Important Measures during the Administration of President Polk—Wisconsin Admitted to the Union, ... 446–450

THE PERIOD OF AGITATION.

Rapid National Progress—The Slavery Question—Growth of the Slave Power—General Sentiment of the Country at the Time of the Revolution—Compromise Measures—The Cotton Gin—Increasing Demand for Slaves—Great Change in Public Sentiment—The Missouri Compromise—Northern Opposition to Slavery—The "Emancipator"—Conflict Regarding the Admission of Texas as a State—California a Free State—Administration of Zachary Taylor—The "Omnibus Bill"—Death of General Taylor and Succession of Millard Fillmore to the Presidency—Important Events of President Taylor's Administration—ADMINISTRATION OF MILLARD FILLMORE—The Fugitive Slave Law Supported—Reduction of Postage—Introduction of the Telegraph—Invasion of Cuba—Organization of Minnesota as a Territory—Enlargement of the National Capitol Building—Arctic Expedition—Visit of Kossuth—The Newfoundland Fisheries—Treaty with Japan—Trouble with Spain—Organization of Washington Territory, ... 451–464

THE COMING STORM.

ADMINISTRATION OF FRANKLIN PIERCE — Difficulties — Dispute with Mexico — Establishment of Steamship Lines to Asia—Explorations of the Northwest—World's Fair in New York—Relations with Mexico—Central America and the Sandwich Islands—Renewed Discussion of the Slavery Question—More Trouble with Spain—Effort to Obtain Cuba—"The Golden Circle"—Treaties with Mexico and Great Britain—Invasion of Nicaragua—Indian Troubles—Difficulties with Great Britain—Formation of the Republican Party—The Know-Nothing Party—Exciting Political Canvass—Election of the Democratic Candidates, ... 464–469

THE CONTEST BEGUN.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES BUCHANAN—Conflict in Kansas—Reign of Terror—The Dred Scott Decision—Continued Troubles in Kansas—The "Southern Commercial Convention"—Increase of the Slave Trade—Efforts to Restrict Slavery—The "Mormon War"—Raid of John Brown—Scheme for Disunion—Democratic Convention at Charleston—Various Political Nominations—Exciting Contest—Election of Abraham Lincoln to the Presidency—Continued Plottings of Treason—Efforts to Cripple the Government—Secession of South Carolina—The Example Followed by other States—ORGANIZATION OF THE CONFEDERATE GOVERNMENT—A Peace Convention—Loyalty of General Scott, ... 469–477

THE CIVIL WAR.

ADMINISTRATION OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN—Surrounded by Difficulties—Condition of the Army and Navy—Attack upon Fort Sumter—The Civil War Inaugurated—A Great Uprising—Bloodshed in Baltimore—Condition of the Opposing Forces—The Battle of Bull Run—The North Aroused—General McClellan—The Confederate Capital Changed from Montgomery to Richmond—General Lee—"Stonewall" Jackson—Review of the Events of 1861—The Campaign of 1862—The Merrimac and Monitor—Extreme Caution of General McClellan—In the Valley of the Mississippi—In other Sections—Battle of Antietam—General McClellan Superseded—Battles, . 478–494

THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION.

Emancipation a Necessity—Confederate Privateers—The Course of Great Britain —Military Operations of 1863—In the Mississippi Valley—The Capture of Vicksburg—In the East—The Battle of Gettysburg—The Draft Riots—Military Movements in Virginia—In Tennessee—In other Sections—Financial Condition of the Union and of the Confederacy—Military Operations of 1864—Commission of General Grant as Commander-in-Chief of the Union Forces—Reverses at the South—Heavy Fighting in Virginia—In the Shenandoah Valley—Sherman's March to the Sea—In other States—Privateers—The Port of Mobile closed—Re-nomination of President Lincoln—Nomination of General McClellan for President.—RE-ELECTION OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN—Closing Events of the War—The Capture of Richmond—Surrender of General Lee—ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN—SUCCESSION OF ANDREW JOHNSON TO THE PRESIDENCY—Surrender of General Johnston—General Grant's Farewell Address—Review of the Union Army—The Army Disbanded, ... 494–517

REORGANIZATION AND PROGRESS.

Amendments to the Constitution—Removal of Commercial Restrictions—State Conventions—Conflict between the President and Congress—The French in Mexico—Effort to Impeach President Johnson—Admission of Nebraska to the Union —Result of the Trial of the President—Adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution—Treaty with China—Election of General Grant as President—ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT GRANT—Completion of the Work of Re-construction—Passage of a General Amnesty Bill by Congress—Completion of a Railroad across the Continent —Insurrection in Cuba—Fenian Invasion of Canada—Effort to Annex Hayti to the United States—Survey for an Inter-oceanic Canal at Isthmus of Darien—Destructive Fires in Chicago and Boston—The Alabama Claims—Establishment of the National Signal Service—Abolition of the Franking Privilege—Presidential Nominations—RE-ELECTION OF GENERAL GRANT—Mormon Troubles—Difficulties with the Indians—Admission of Colorado as a State—Political Events, ... 517–525

THE CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION.

A Great Success — The Presidential Election — Appointment of the Electoral Commission — R. B. Hayes Declared the President Elect. — ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT HAYES—Political Measures—Exodus of Negroes from Southern States —Resumption of Specie Payments—War with the Ute Indians—The Inter-oceanic Canal Scheme Revived—Presidential Nominations—Election of James A. Garfield—ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT GARFIELD—Deadlock in the Senate—Resignation of the Senators from New York—Relations with Foreign Countries—ASSASSINATION OF

PRESIDENT GARFIELD—Succession of Chester A. Arthur to the Presidency—ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT ARTHUR—Special Session of the Senate—Appointment of Cabinet Officers—Centennial Celebration of the Surrender of Cornwallis—Trial and Execution of Guiteau, the Assassin of President Garfield, ... 525–534

THE FORTY-SEVENTH CONGRESS.

The "Star Route" Trials—Recommendations of the President—The Chinese Exclusion Bill—Commercial Treaty with Mexico—Democratic Majority in the House of Representatives—Celebration of the Two Hundredth Anniversary of the Landing of William Penn—Civil Service Reform Bill—Reduction of Letter Postage—Termination of Fisheries Treaty with Great Britain—Labor Commission—New York and Brooklyn Bridge—Opening of the Northern Pacific Railroad—Centennial Celebrations—The Forty-eighth Congress—Recommendations of the President—The Treasury Surplus—The Mormon Problem—The Liquor Traffic—An Educational Measure Proposed—Repeal of the Test Oath, ... 534–537

IMPORTANT EVENTS.

National Conventions—Presidential Campaign and Election—Relief of Lieutenant Greely's Exploring Party in Arctic Regions—Wreck of the Steamship Jeanette—The Bartholdi Statue—The Tehuantepec Canal Project—Failure of a Treaty with Spain—The President's Message—World's Fair at New Orleans—Completion of the Washington Monument—Reduction of the National Debt—General Grant placed on the Retired list of the Army—SUCCESSION OF GROVER CLEVELAND TO THE PRESIDENCY—Events of his Administration—Rebellion at Panama—Trouble with Indian Tribes—Death of General Grant—Great Strike of the Knights of Labor on the Southwestern Railroads—Death of Archbishop McCloskey, General McClellan, and Vice President Hendricks—The Forty-ninth Congress—Conspiracy in San Francisco—The Cherokee Indians—The Anti-Polygamy Bill—Land Claims of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company—Presidential Succession Act—Opposition to the Chinese in California—Riot at East St. Louis—Anarchist Riot in Chicago—Marriage of President Cleveland—Veto of Pension Bills—Fisheries Dispute with Canada—Destructive Earthquake at Charleston, ... 538–544

THE PROGRESS OF AFFAIRS.

The Republican Anti-Saloon League Formed—Unveiling of the Bartholdi Statue in New York Harbor—Death of ex-President Arthur—The Maritime Canal Company—Department of Agriculture and Labor—The Inter-State Commerce Act—Centennial Celebration of Adoption of the National Constitution at Philadelphia—The

Fiftieth Congress—The President's Message—Nomination of L. Q. C. Lamar as Justice of the Supreme Court—Strike of Miners in Schuylkill Coal Regions—The "Mills Bill"—Death of the Emperor of Germany—The Great "Blizzard"—Death of Chief-Justice Waite and Appointment of M. W. Fuller as his Successor—Relations with China—Death of General Sheridan—The Political Conventions—Re-union of Northern and Southern Soldiers at Gettysburg—Yellow-Fever at Jacksonville—Dismission of the British Minister—Presidential Election—The President's Message—New States Created, ... 545–549

OUR NATIONAL PROGRESS.

At the Close of the War—Condition of the South—Industries Paralyzed—Cotton Grown by Free Labor—Industries of the North—Depreciation of Values—Return of Confidence—Effect of the Centennial Exposition—Reduction of the Public Debt—The Feeling of the South—Cotton Exposition at Atlanta—Immigration—Wonderful Inventions—The Demands of the Hour, ... 550–553

GREAT STATE PAPERS.

Declaration of Independence, ... 555
Constitution of the United States, ... 559
Emancipation Proclamation, ... 571

Beyond the States.

THE DOMINION OF CANADA — Location — Area — Population—Provinces —Government and Constitution—Religion—Public Works—Finances—Exports and Imports—Discovery—First Permanent Settlement—Progress—Ceded to Great Britain —Political Difficulties—The Northwest Territories Purchased—Confederation, 573

City of Ottawa—Location—Incorporation—Scenery—Water Power—Imports and Exports—Government Buildings—Railroad and Steamboat Connections—Population, ... 577

PROVINCE OF ONTARIO — Location — Area — Population — Cultivation— Natural Features—Resources—Industries—Productions—Government—Education— Churches—Charitable Institutions—Railroads, ... 579

City of Toronto—Location—Industries—Area—Harbor—Appearance—Principal Buildings—Institutions—Exports—History—Population, ... 582

City of Hamilton—Location—Important Commercial Centre—Rapid Growth— Manufactures—Institutions—Population, ... 584

City of Kingston—Location—History—Harbor—Public Buildings—Surroundings—Ship-building—Manufactures—Important Military Position—Institutions—Population, ... 585

City of London—Location—English Names—Commercial Centre—Manufactures —Education—Population, ... 586

PROVINCE OF QUEBEC —Location—Area—Population—Cultivation—Natural Features—Lakes—Mineral Wealth—Climate—Soil—Lumber—Wild Animals— Productions — Government — Principal Cities—Education—Religion—Institutions— Railroads, ... 587

City of Quebec—Importance—Location—Railroad Connections—Discovery and Settlement—Early History—Peculiarities and Attractions—Commerce—Manufactures —Steamboats—Scenery—Institutions—Population, ... 589

City of Montreal—Rank—Location—Harbor—Steamboat and Railroad Communication—Public Buildings—Institutions—Water Supply—Rapid Progress—Imports and Exports—Manufactures—The French Quarter and English Quarter—Railroad Depots—Festivities—Population, ... 592

PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA—Location—History—Area—Natural Features—Mineral Deposits—Climate—Population—Industries—Statistics—Government—Education—Religion, ... 597

City of Halifax—Location—Harbor—Extent—Armament—Public Buildings—Industries—Railroad Communication—Parks and Gardens, ... 599

PROVINCE OF NEW BRUNSWICK—Early History—Location—Area—Population—Natural Divisions—General Appearance—Islands—Rivers—Natural Resources—Climate—Forests—Agricultural Productions—Animals—Government—Education—Railroads and Telegraphs, ... 600

City of Fredericton—Location—Appearance—Public Buildings—Educational Institutions—Trade—Population, ... 602

City of St. John—Importance—Location—Harbor—Bridges—Streets—Principal Buildings—Institutions—Government—Railroad Connections—Industries—Manufactures—Exports—Imports—Population, ... 603

PROVINCE OF MANITOBA—Location—Purchase by Dominion Government—Political Troubles—Area—Population—Soil—Extent of Agricultural Operations—Animals—Climate—Government—Churches—Educational Institutions—Canadian Pacific Railroad, ... 604

City of Winnipeg—Location—Marvellous Growth—Climate—Vegetation—Material Prosperity—Religion and Education—Population, ... 606

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND—Location—Area—Population—Early History—Natural Resources—Climate—Productions—Government—Land Tenure—Education—Religion—Railroads, ... 607

City of Charlottetown—Location—Harbor—Appearance—Public Buildings—Educational Institutions—Churches—Trade—Population, ... 608

PROVINCE OF BRITISH COLUMBIA—Incorporation—Boundaries—Area—Population—Natural Features—Agricultural Capacities—Mineral Wealth—Game—Fisheries—Climate—Vancouvers Island—Statistics, ... 609

City of Victoria—Location—Extent—Streets—Harbor—Fortifications—Buildings—Institutions—Climate—Exports—Population, ... 611

THE NORTHWEST TERRITORIES — Area — Population—Soil—Timber—Fur Trade—Purchased by Dominion Government—Officials—Political Divisions—Churches and Schools, ... 612

ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND—Political Status — Location — Area — Population—Coast Line—Interior—Bays and Inlets—Rivers—Lakes—Soil—Fisheries—Minerals — Climate — The Grand Banks — Government—Public Debt—Revenue—Imports and Exports—Religion—Education—Population, ... 613

CITY OF ST. JOHN'S—Location—Harbor—Importance—Disastrous Fires—Natural Features—Business—Institutions—Public Buildings—Population, ... 615

MEXICO — An interesting Country — Boundaries —Area—Population—Political Divisions—Chief Cities—Statistics—Government—Education—Religion—Natural Resources—Minerals—Agricultural Productions—History of the Country, . . . 617

CITY OF MEXICO— Location —Elevation—Streets —Principal Buildings—Public Squares—Houses—Business Interests—Education—Railroads—Antiquity—Early History—Population, ... 622

CITY OF VERA CRUZ—Location—Population—Shore—Harbor—Streets—Buildings—Water Supply—Railroad Connections —Fever—Winds — Imports and Exports—Island of San Juan de Ulloa, ... 629

OTHER PLACES OF INTEREST—MONTEREY—Location—Importance—Climate—Public Buildings—Manufactures—Trade—An Ancient City—Captured by General Taylor—The Valley of Mexico—Lakes—A Famous Railroad—STATE OF DURANGO—Boundaries—Area—Population—Divisions—Climate—Soil—The Capital City—STATE OF CHIHUAHUA—Boundaries—Area— Population—Political Divisions—Natural Features — The Capital City — Silver Mines — Mint — Manufactures—Agriculture—Points of Interest—Water Supply—Trade—Population, ... 631

CUBA —Importance—Location—Area—Ports—Soil—Agricultural Productions—Minerals—Forests—Indigenous Products of Value—Animal Life—Surface—Religion—Government—Population—Large Cities—Manufactures—Exports and Imports—History, ... 639

CITY OF HAVANA—Importance—Location—Population—Defences—Attractions—Principal Buildings —Contrasts—Architecture—Houses—Railroads—Telegraphs—Steamers, ... 642

THE BAHAMA ISLANDS—Location—Area—Natural Features—Principal Islands—Salt Production—Climate—Rainfall—Products—Exports—Imports—Finances—Government—Religion—Education—Submarine Gardens—Harbor Island—Spanish Wells—Eleuthera Island—Guanahani Island—History, ... 644

City of Nassau—Location—Extent—Appearance—Institutions—Principal Events—Foreign Trade—Winter Resort—Climate—Tropical Vegetation—Attractions, . 647

COUNTRIES OF SOUTH AMERICA—Brazil—Area—Location—Population—The Amazon—Surface—Forests—Soil—Climate—Religion—Education—Railroads and Telegraphs—Imports—Exports—Revenue—Manufactures—Government—Principal Cities—History, ... 649

City of Rió de Janeiro—Importance—Location—Harbor—Streets—Residences—Churches—Principal Buildings—Education—Water Supply—Shipping—Imports—Exports—Population—History—Pernambuco—Population—General Appearance—Para—Population—Location—Public Buildings—Commerce, ... 652

THE REPUBLIC OF CHILI—Location—Area—Population—Natural Features—Agriculture—Minerals—Climate—Political Divisions—Harbors—Government—Religion—Education—Railroads—Telegraph—Finances—History, ... 654

City of Santiago—Location—Appearance—Principal Buildings—Attractions—Public Works—Disastrous Fire—Population, ... 657

City of Valparaiso—Location—Appearance—Harbor—Public Buildings—Population—Disasters—Improvements, ... 658

THE REPUBLIC OF PERU—Boundaries—Extent—Population—Surface—Climate—Minerals—Soil—Forests—Animals—Guano—Nitrate of Soda—Finances—Government—Religion—Education—History, ... 659

City of Lima—Former Glory—Location—Population—Appearance—Attractions—Education—Earthquakes, ... 661

City of Callao—Location—Harbor—Defences—Exports—Population—Disasters—Blockade,. 662

THE UNITED STATES OF COLOMBIA—Area—Population—Boundaries—Political Divisions—Elevation—Climate—Natural Resources—Minerals—Agricultural Productions—Army—Finances—Commerce—Ship Canals—History, . . 663

City of Bogota—Location—Climate—Streets—Residences—Principal Buildings

—Cataract of Tequendama—Religion—Education—Earthquakes—Exports—Population, ... 665

THE REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA—Situation—Boundaries—Area—Population—Political Divisions—Natural Features—Soil—Climate—Minerals—Live Stock—Agricultural Productions—Exports—Imports—Government—Religion—Education—Chief Cities—History, ... 666

City of Caracas—Location—Arrangement of Streets—Parishes—Principal Buildings—Earthquakes—Population—La Guayra—Location—Defences—Climate—Trade—Population, ... 668

THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC—Location—Boundaries—Area—Population—Soil—Climate—Natural Resources—Animals—Industries—Exports—Imports—Telegraphs—Railroads—Provinces—Government—Religion—Education—History, 669

City of Buenos Ayres—Importance—Location—Streets—Buildings—Parks—Institutions—Population, ... 672

THE REPUBLIC OF BOLIVIA—Boundaries—Area and Population—Mountains—Rivers—Climate—Natural Resources—Animals—Agricultural Productions—Trade—Exports—Imports—Railroads—Finances—Religion—Education—Chief Cities—Government—Revolutions—History, ... 672

City of Sucre—Location—Elevation—Principal Buildings—Population, . 675

THE REPUBLIC OF ECUADOR—Location—Area—Population—Divisions—Cocoa—Mountains—Minerals—Forests—Railroad Communication—Religion—Education—Government—Exports—Finances—Disadvantages—History, . . 675

The City of Quito—Location—Climate—Buildings—Ruins—Population—Guayaquil—Location—Population—Manufactures, ... 677

THE REPUBLIC OF PARAGUAY—Losses by War—Present Boundaries—Area—Population—Rivers—Lakes—Soil—Animals—Forests—Government—Religion—Education—Exports—Imports—Army—Public Debt—History, ... 678

City of Assumption—Location—Houses—Importance—Population, . . 680

THE REPUBLIC OF URUGUAY—Boundaries—Area—Population—Coast Line—Natural Features—Climate—Soil—Agriculture—Live Stock—Political Divisions—Government—Finances—Railroads—Telegraphs—Religion—Education—History, ... 680

City of Montevideo—Location—Harbor—Streets and Houses—Principal Buildings—Commerce—Population, ... 682

GUIANA — Political Divisions — Location — Area—History—Rivers—Soil—Climate—Productions—Forests, ... 683

BRITISH GUIANA — Location — Area—Population—Departments—Exports—Imports—Churches—Education, ... 684

DUTCH GUIANA—Location—Area—Population—Government—Imports—Exports, ... 684

FRENCH GUIANA — Location—Area— Population—Climate—Earthquakes—Gold—Exports—Government—Religion—Settlement — Invasion—Convict Establishment, ... 685

COUNTRIES OF CENTRAL AMERICA—Boundaries—C nquered by Spain—Organization of States — Political Changes — Natural Features—Soil—Minerals—Productions—Religion—Finances—Area, ... 687

THE REPUBLIC OF GUATEMALA—Location—Political Changes—Area—Population—Government — Education — Institutions — Railroads and Telegraphs — Mines—Finances, ... 688

City of New Guatemala—Early History—Present Location—General Appearance—Principal Buildings—Population, ... 689

THE REPUBLIC OF SAN SALVADOR — Rank—Boundaries—Area—Population—Mountains—Soil — Forests—Government—Industries—Religion—Education—Finances, ... 690

City of Nueva San Salvador—Location—Destructive Earthquake—Buildings—Population, ... 691

THE REPUBLIC OF HONDURAS—Rank—Boundaries—Coast Line—Area—Population—Mountains and Table-lands—Rivers—Yojoa Lake—Political Divisions—Seaports—Government—Exports—Imports—Finances—Railroads and Telegraphs—Trade—Political History, ... 691

City of Tegucigalpa—Importance —Location—Mineral Wealth of the Department—The Capital City—Business—Population, ... 692

THE REPUBLIC OF NICARAGUA—Rank—Boundaries—Area—Public Interest—Proposed Canal—Principal Rivers—Lake Nicaragua—Rainfall and Climate—Forests—Minerals—Soil—Live Stock—Manufactures—Political Divisions—Principal Cities and Towns—Government—Finances—History, ... 693

THE REPUBLIC OF COSTA RICA—Location—Boundaries—Area—Population—Surface—Climate—Soil—Forests—Products—Live Stock—Mineral Wealth—Political Divisions—Government—Finances—Religion—Inhabitants—History—Railroads and Telegraphs, ... 696

City of San José—Elevation—Situation—Public Buildings—Population—Alajuela—Former Importance—Cartago—Location—Destructive Earthquake, . . 698

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

Portrait of Christopher Columbus (steel) . . . . . . } Frontispieces
Portraits of Delegates to International Am. Conference of 1889-90. }
Boat-House Landing, Newport, R. I., ... 54
The Round Tower, ... 55
Cliff Walk, ... 56
Scenes at Newport, ... 57
Old Fort, ... 58
Plymouth Bay, ... 60
The Home of Daniel Webster, ... 61
Where Miles Standish Lived, ... 62
The Mayflower Nearing Land, ... 62
Pilgrim Hall, Plymouth, Mass., ... 63
A Piece of the Pilgrim Rock, ... 65
Scenes along Cape Cod, ... 67
Provincetown, on Cape Cod, ... 69
Black Fish, ... 71
Views on Cape Cod, ... 72
Buzzard's Bay and Vicinity, ... 75
Views on Sea and Shore, ... 77
Martha's Vineyard, Mass., ... 79
Gay Head Light, ... 81
Views at Nantucket, ... 82
Nantucket, ... 83
Bar Harbor and Mount Desert, ... 95
Moat Mountain, ... 98
Through the Franconia Notch, ... 101
The Old Man of the Mountain, ... 102
The Franconia Mountains, ... 103
The Palisades, ... 109
Fac-Simile of Pass from Arnold to André, ... 112
Northern Entrance to the Hudson Highlands, ... 113
Newburgh, N. Y., Scenes, ... 115
View of the Turk's Face on the Hudson, ... 117
A View in the Catskills, ... 121
Kaaterskill Falls, ... 124

PAGE
View on Lake Minnewaska, ... 125
The Awosting Falls, ... 129
Camping on the Lake, ... 133
View on Lake George, ... 135
Tail Piece, ... 137
A Sharp Turn, ... 138
A Lateral Ravine, ... 138
Long Gallery, ... 139
Point Lookout, ... 140
Cascade and Buttress, ... 141
Rainbow Falls—Spartan Pass, ... 142
Pulpit Rock—Giant Gorge, ... 143
The Gorge, Watkins Glen, ... 145
Glen Mountain House, ... 147
The Horseshoe Fall, ... 149
Niagara Falls, ... 151
Bridge Leading to Bath and Goat Island, ... 152
View of Niagara Falls, ... 153
The Terrapin Tower, ... 154
The Old Table Rock, ... 154
Niagara River Below the Falls, ... 155
Niagara from near Queenstown Heights, ... 156
Suspension Bridge, ... 157
Niagara River—The Whirlpool, ... 159
On the Islands, ... 161
Round Island Park, ... 163
Between the Islands, ... 164
“ Bonnie Castle,” 165
Alexandria Bay, ... 167
Down the Rapids, ... 169
Cresson, on the Alleghenies, ... 171
Lewistown Narrows, ... 173
Horseshoe Curve, ... 175
Scene on the Beach, Atlantic City, ... 184
On the Beach, Cape May, ... 187
Old Point Comfort, ... 189
In the Heart of the Orange Region, ... 195
The Lovers’ Walk, ... 196

PAGE
St. David's Path, ... 197
On the Ocklawaha, ... 198
A Live-Oak Observatory, ... 199
An Everglade, ... 200
Scene on the Mississippi River, ... 201
On the Meramec, ... 202
The Meramec, ... 203
Cathedral Spires, ... 204
Balance Rock, ... 204
Valley Home, ... 205
The Black River, ... 205
In the Ozark Mountains, ... 206
Ribbon Falls, ... 207
Hot Springs Valley, ... 208
View of the Hot Springs, ... 209
Hot Springs, ... 210
Rancher's Cabin, ... 211
On Line of I. and G. T. Railway, ... 211
Hunter's Paradise, ... 212
Sheep Pasture, ... 212
Cotton Field, ... 213
Colorado River, near Austin, ... 215
San Marcos, ... 216
Colorado River, ... 216
San Pedro River, ... 217
Natural Bridge, ... 218
Cotton Platform, ... 219
Scene on the Brazos, ... 220
Trestles, near Canyon, Texas, ... 221
Big Springs, ... 222
Sheep Ranch, ... 223
Sierra Blanca Mountains, ... 224
Road at El Paso and View of Fort Bliss, ... 225
Pueblo De Taos, New Mexico, ... 227
Pertle Springs, ... 229
Stage Route, ... 230
Wheat Field, ... 231
A Scene in Southwestern Missouri, ... 232

PAGE
Scene near Atoka, Indian Territory, ... 233
The Horseshoe, or Twin Cañon, ... 234
Bridal Veil Falls, ... 235
Bailey's Falls, ... 237
Spirit Lake, Iowa, ... 239
View on Little Spirit Lake, ... 240
Lake Minnetonka, ... 241
Hunting Scene, ... 242
Detroit Lake and Hotel Minnesota, ... 243
Scenery on Devil's Lake, Dakota, ... 245
A Western Contrast, ... 247
A Scene on the Leadville Route, ... 249
Mount of the Holy Cross, ... 251
Georgetown, Colorado, ... 252
Devil's Gate, ... 253
Gray's Peak, ... 254
Cheyenne Falls, ... 255
In North Cheyenne Cañon, ... 256
A Glimpse of Manitou and Pike's Peak, ... 257
The Mineral Springs, ... 258
Pike's Peak Trail, ... 259
Rainbow Falls, ... 260
Garfield Memorial, ... 261
Grand Cañon of the Arkansas, ... 262
The Royal Gorge, ... 263
Gunnison's Butte, ... 264
Sphinx Rock, ... 265
Mother Grundy, ... 266
Finger Rock, ... 267
Giant's Tea Kettle, ... 268
Chicago Lake, ... 269
Feeding Ground of the Antelope, ... 271
Snow Range, ... 272
Giant's Club, ... 274
Tower Rock, ... 275
Castle Rock, ... 276
The Devil's Slide, ... 277
Approaching the Sierras, ... 278

PAGE
Nevada Falls, ... 279
Marshall Pass, ... 280
Approach of the Black Cañon, ... 281
Maxwell's Point, ... 282
Following a Cañon, ... 283
Devil's Gate, ... 284
Currecanti Needle, ... 285
Marble Pinnacle, ... 286
Pulpit Rock, ... 287
Toltec Gorge, ... 288
Black Cañon of the Gunnison, ... 289
The Palisades, ... 290
Palace Butte, ... 291
Veta Pass, ... 292
Green River City and Buttes, ... 293
Great Shoshone Falls, ... 294
Entering Boulder Cañon, ... 295
Grand Cañon, ... 296
Dead Man's Falls, ... 297
Salt Lake City, ... 298
Where Brigham Young Lived, ... 299
Near High Bridge, ... 300
Great Salt Lake, ... 301
Hot Springs, Yellowstone Park, ... 304
The "Giant" Geyser, ... 305
Mammoth Hot Springs, ... 306
Pulpit Terrace, ... 307
Crater of Extinct Geyser, ... 308
Upper Yellowstone Falls, ... 309
Views of "Old Faithful" Geyser, ... 310
Yellowstone River, ... 312
Ferry on the Yellowstone River, ... 313
Falls of the Yellowstone, ... 314
Cliff in Grand Cañon of the Yellowstone, ... 316
Falls of the Gibbon River, ... 317
Bridal Veil Falls, Yosemite Valley, ... 319
Hallet's Hades, Columbia River, ... 323
Mount Hood, ... 325

PAGE
Gibraltar, Columbia River, ... 326
Steamer Rounding Cape Horn, ... 327
Cape Horn, ... 329
Multnomah Falls, ... 331
Floating Fish Wheel, ... 332
Pillars of Hercules, ... 333
Sitka, Alaska, ... 336
Alaska's Thousand Islands, ... 337
Devil's Thumb, Alaska, ... 339
An Alaska House with Totem Poles, ... 341
Historical Spots in the City of Quebec, ... 572
Chaudière Falls, ... 578
Parliament Buildings, Ottawa, ... 578
Great South Falls, Muskoka River, ... 579
South Falls, ... 580
High Falls, ... 581
Bridal Veil Falls, ... 582
Toronto University, ... 583
Kingston, from Fort William Henry, ... 585
London, Ontario, ... 587
Wolfe's Monument, Quebec, ... 590
View from the Citadel, ... 591
Wolfe's Cove, ... 591
Montreal, from the Mountain, ... 593
Victoria Square, Montreal, ... 594
Victoria Bridge, ... 596
St. John, New Brunswick, ... 603
Mexican Adobe House, ... 618
Mexican Ox Cart, ... 621
City of Mexico, ... 623
Church of San Domingo, ... 624
Castle of Chapultepec, ... 625
Merchants' Bazaar, ... 626
Entrance to Palace, ... 627
Palace, City of Mexico, ... 628
Scene in the Bay of Vera Cruz, ... 629
The Old Wall and City of Vera Cruz, ... 630
Portal of the Cathedral, Monterey, ... 632

PAGE
A Glimpse of Monterey, ... 633
Scene in the Valley of Mexico, ... 634
View of the City of Durango, ... 636
The Cathedral in Chihuahua, ... 637
The Plaza in Chihuahua, ... 638
A Public Fountain in Chihuahua, ... 638
A Creole Beauty, ... 686

THE WONDERLANDS

AND

CELEBRATED RESORTS

OF

OUR GREAT REPUBLIC.

UNIV. OF
CALIFORNIA

Views in the Great Wonderlands of our Republic;

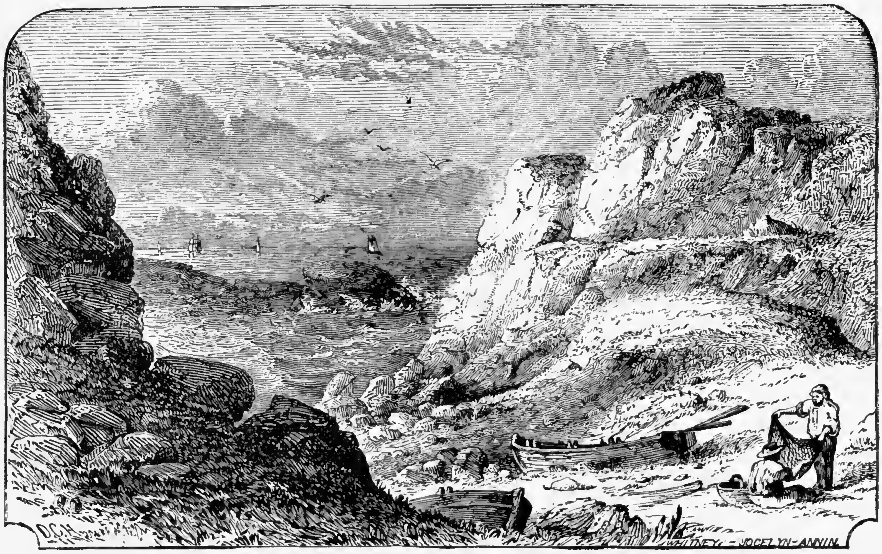
EMBRACING

NATURAL SCENERY AND CELEBRATED RESORTS.

NEW ENGLAND COAST SCENES.

BY the term "New England Coast" we mean to designate that narrow strip of territory lying along our Atlantic shore between the southern boundary of Rhode Island and the northern boundary of Maine. The distance, measured in a straight line, is about five degrees of latitude—say 350 miles—but fully twice as much measured along the winding coast and the deep inlets by which it is everywhere indented. We propose to consider ourselves setting out for a tour along this New England Coast, making New York our starting-point; for such are the facilities for travel that one can well set out from that metropolis for any part of this continent; or, for the matter of that, for any part of the globe. On this journey of ours we shall pass by and through not a few places of much note by reason of their population, their industries, or their historic associations. Of these places we shall speak only incidentally; they will be treated at due length in other portions of this volume.

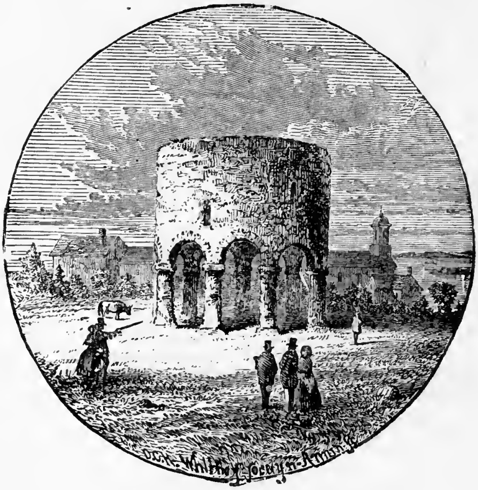
We are now setting out from New York, primarily for Boston, which will be our immediate point of departure along the New England Coast. We might have gone the whole way by rail had we not had it in view first to see Newport, in Rhode Island, which can be best reached by steamer. So we go by what is designated as "The Fall River Line," an association which not only runs the steamers traversing Long Island Sound, but also manages that railroad system known as "The Old Colony Railroad," whose various branches so thoroughly "gridiron" southeastern Massachusetts that it would not be easy for one to put his foot upon a spot more than ten miles from a railroad station. Our steamer runs up the Sound, having the rightly-named "Long Island" on the right, and the opposite shores of a bit of New York, of Connecticut, and of Rhode Island on the left. Unless, as sometimes happens at all seasons, there should be a dense fog, the world cannot show a safer or more charming bit of inland navigation than the hundred miles and more through Long Island Sound.



BOAT-HOUSE LANDING, NEWPORT, R. I.

As we left New York late in the afternoon, it will be in the small hours of the next morning when we round Point Judith, a bold headland in Rhode Island, jutting out just where the Sound begins to widen into Buzzard's Bay, then into Nantucket Sound, and then into the broad Atlantic. If there be any gale blowing hereabouts we shall be sure to find it at Point Judith. But, gale or no gale, we shoot across the narrow mouth of Narraganset Bay, which sets far inland up to Providence, the second city in New England in point of population. But up to Providence we do not purpose to go; so crossing the mouth of Narraganset Bay, we land at Newport. This city, the capital of Newport County and one of the capitals of the State, is the most noted of all American seaside resorts. It practically covers a little island, which the aborigines called *Aquidneck*, which we are told means "Peace Island." The early English settlers found or fancied in this islet some resemblance to the island of Rhodes ("Rose Island"), in the Mediterranean, and called it "Rhode Island;" and this name came to be applied to the entire State—one of the original thirteen—of which the island forms only a small part.

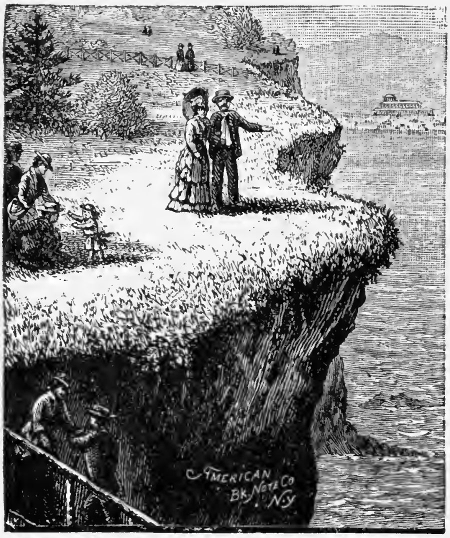
If, a little more than a century ago one had been asked to point out the probable site of the future commercial metropolis of the British colony in America, he would doubtless have placed it upon Rhode Island rather than upon Manhattan Island. During the war for Independence Newport Harbor was the principal station of the British fleet, and when the British were forced to abandon the region, they burned six men-of-war and many smaller armed cruisers, and scuttled and sunk more than fifty transports and other vessels in Newport Harbor. They also, out of sheer wantonness, tried to destroy the curious old Round Tower, the almost perfect remains of which are a puzzle to archæologists.



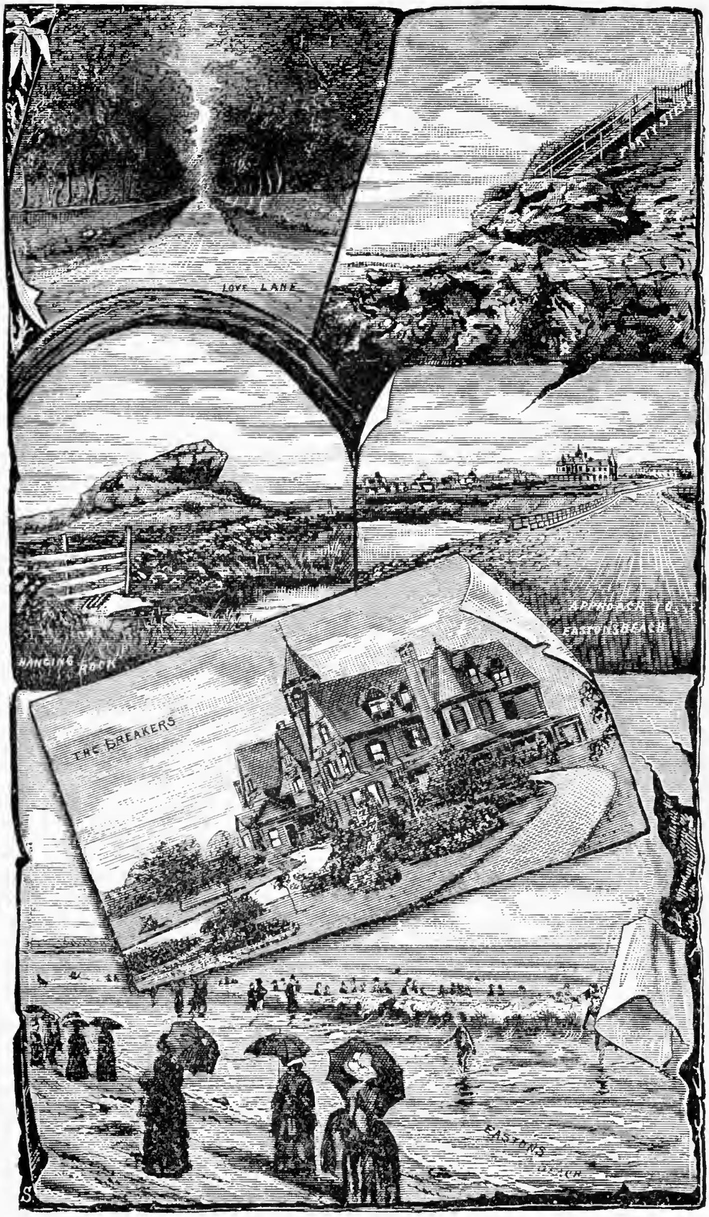
THE ROUND TOWER, NEWPORT, R. I.

Nobody knows, or can more than guess, by whom, or when, or for what purpose, this Tower was built. Some will have it to be the work of the Norsemen, who are supposed to have coasted down from Greenland and settled here and hereabouts some five centuries before Columbus made his first voyage across the Atlantic to find the New World. Others, quite as confidently, and perhaps with quite as good reason, maintain that this Round Tower was built by some whimsical Englishman not more than a century and a half, or at most two centuries, ago, to be used as a windmill, or more probably as a granary. But whoever was the builder, or for whatever purpose it was built, the work was well done. The Tower has existed, substantially as we now see it, for considerably more than a century, and doubtless much longer. It may be safely assumed that it is one of the most ancient structures by human hands now standing in New England; and there seems no good reason to doubt that it will stand for centuries to come. Whatever view as to its origin one may adopt, he may congratulate himself that, if he cannot prove his own theory to be right, nobody else can prove it to be wrong. The Tower, as it stands, consists of an unroofed chamber resting upon eight arches, of about 12 feet from the ground to the crown of the arches. The diameter of the Tower is about 23 feet, and its present height about 24 feet. It is built of blocks of the ordinary stone of the region, laid in a mortar composed of sand and shell-lime, this mortar being now quite as hard as the stone itself. During the latter part of the war for Independence the chamber of the Round Tower was used by the British as a powder-magazine—for which it was admirably adapted. When they attempted to blow it up by exploding a quantity of gunpowder in the chamber, they only succeeded in blowing off the roof (probably of wood and conical), and in throwing down some four feet of the upper part of the stone wall.

But, however interesting the old Tower may be to antiquarians, and the historic associations to the student, the tourist will look upon the city principally in its character as a summer resort. But little observation will convince him that the attractions are manifold and diverse. The natural beauty is of the fairest type. The landscape is charming. Fine trees and ornamental shrubs abound. The turf is green and soft like a rich carpet spread over the ground. On a sunny day the delightful shade and the invigorating air make one wonder whether the original Eden was more beautiful and enjoyable than this celebrated locality. Then, too, the varying appearance of the shore as viewed from different points adds greatly to the scenic attractions. Beaches alternate with ledges. The former, of which there are four, are long and fine. Three of them lie east of the town and form a driveway of great beauty. The other, called the South Beach, is less visited because less easy of access, but, though smaller, it can hardly be considered less beautiful. Here may be seen the "Spouting Rock," from the cavities in which, when the wind and tide are in the right directions, the spray is thrown in a most beautiful manner. This beach is not as much frequented for bathing as the one nearest


AMERICAN BK. NOTE CO. N.Y.

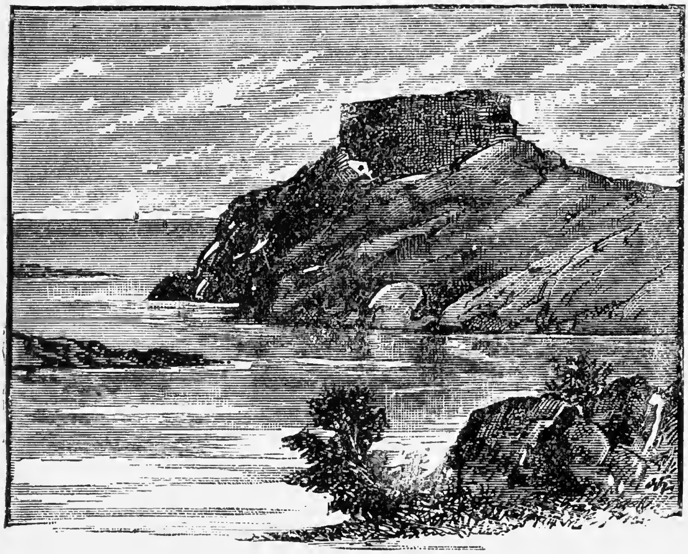
CLIFF WALK, NEWPORT, R. I.


LOVE LANE
FORTY STEPS
HANGING ROCK
APPROACH TO EASTONS BEACH
THE BREAKERS
EASTONS BEACH
S.

SCENES AT NEWPORT, R. I.

the city, which is a favorite because it is readily accessible, has a clear, smooth, sandy bottom, is safe, and its waters are warmed by the Gulf Stream, which, at this point, is only a short distance from the shore.

The cliffs and ledges at various places along the shore impart an air of wildness and exquisite beauty to the scene. As the waves break against these precipitous walls they show the power and grandeur of the ocean as clearly as the beach reveals its placid beauty. Fort Adams, at the mouth of the harbor, is an attractive feature, while on the other shore of the bay may be seen the ruins of some of the fortifications of Revolutionary times.


OLD FORT, NEAR NEWPORT, R. I.

The harbor itself also presents a beautiful and interesting view. Here may be seen small sail-boats and immense ships, diminutive tug-boats and magnificent steamers, while the finest yachts in American waters may here be found. The numberless small boats furnish abundant means for all who wish to take a sail near the shore. The sportsman will find excellent fishing either a little out from the shore or in the streams and lakes of fresh water which are close at hand.

The beautiful drives in the vicinity add not a little to the attractions of the place. A good road is now open all along the coast and passes over hills of considerable elevation and across valleys of the greatest beauty. From some of these hill-tops splendid views of both ocean and shore are obtained. Numerous islands stand like emeralds in the surrounding blue, while looking inland the landscape is beautiful beyond description.

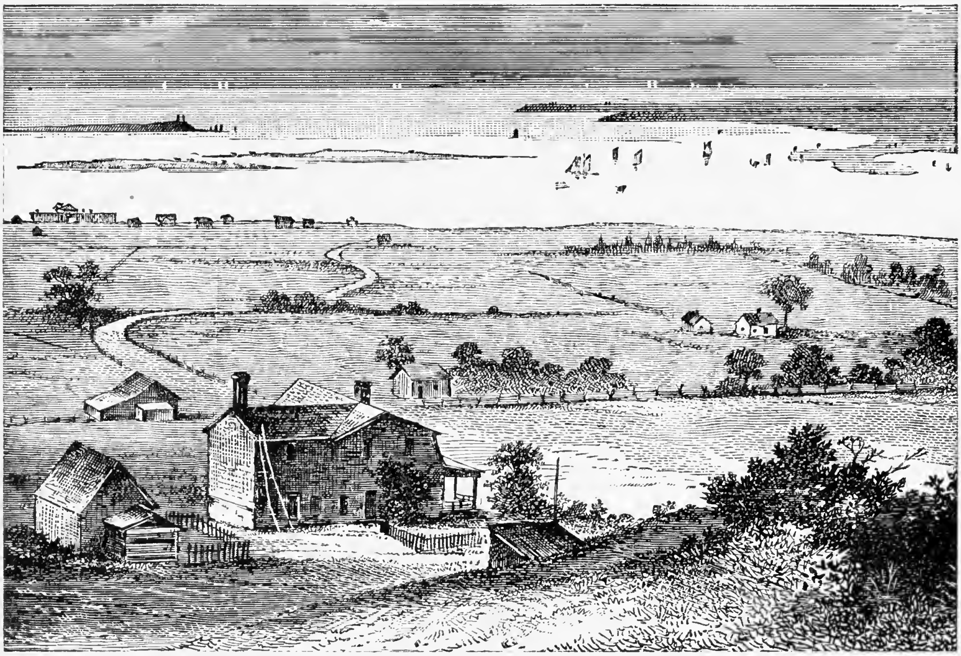
While in a certain sense Newport is an "aristocratic" locality, it is also a favorite place of resort for thousands who have neither wealth nor eminence in the social world. There is room, and the accommodations are ample, for all. Sea and shore present the same beauties to the poor as they do to the rich. The climate is as mild and genial to the one class as to the other. Even the attractions which wealth has added to the natural features of the landscape are in a degree enjoyed by all. The beautiful residences, and particularly the magnificent grounds of the rich are admired by the poor as well as by the owners themselves. In few places have nature and art united so fully and extensively to adorn a locality, and in but few spots upon the coast can there be found such perfect beauty of both sea and shore combined.

The population of Newport in 1889 was over 20,000 besides the summer population, which ranges from 8,000 to 12,000. The city has excellent schools, libraries, and banking facilities, and numerous churches. Newport claims the distinction of having the oldest newspaper in the United States and of being the place of the yearly meeting of the Society of Friends for almost two centuries and a half. During the past few years the permanent population has rapidly increased and the number of summer visitors grows larger year by year.

Bidding good-by to Newport on the Narraganset, a nicer place, we venture to say, than Nice on the Mediterranean, we commit ourselves trustingly to the care of the Old Colony Railroad, whose numerous tracks "gridiron" this region. The central bar of this gridiron is about the best by which one can reach Boston. From Boston we purpose to go over more than one of the bars of the big gridiron, and notably its long crooked handle which men call Cape Cod; and thence, as at the time may seem best, to such out-of-the-way places as Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket. Then, getting back to Boston by the way which seems to be most convenient—and the conjoined Fall River Steamers and Old Colony Railroad will give us abundant means for choice—we shall set out upon the northern part of our trip, up to the extreme boundary of Maine.

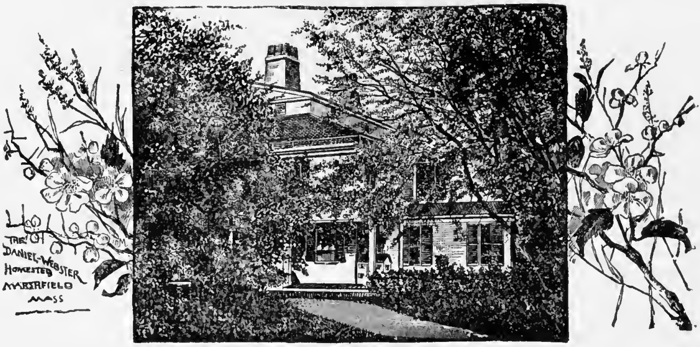
Setting off from Boston, our first objective point is Plymouth, about forty miles southeastward, as the crow flies, but perhaps twice as far by the railway route, which we choose; for it is well worth our while to take one of the short bars of the gridiron, and have a look at Nantasket Beach, which, as we are told at Boston, is the finest thing of the kind in the world.

Perhaps our Boston friends are a little too enthusiastic; but Nantasket Beach is well worth the few hours which will be required to "do" it. The Beach is simply a peninsula of wave-hardened sand, stretching some half-dozen miles northward from the coast-line, the trend of which is here due eastward, though it soon turns sharply to the south, down to Plymouth Bay, whence it seems not to have made up its mind which way to go. At length it seems to have come to the conclusion that an eastward course was worth looking at. If it had kept on this course for two or three thousand miles, it would have linked itself to the Old World, somewhere in France or Spain, which lie in about the same latitude. But after going eastward for a few leagues, the unstable coast went pretty nearly southward for a while; then again turned eastward once more; then bent again to the north, with even a slight westward look. This sickle-shaped inner shore line, with its outer shore line nearly parallel, forms the peninsula of Cape Cod, at whose extremest northeastern point is the village of Provincetown, from which one can look westward across Cape Cod Bay to Plymouth. The distance in a straight line from Provincetown to Plymouth is not far from twenty-five miles; measured around the coast-line of the Cape, with which the railroad runs nearly parallel, the distance is about three times greater.



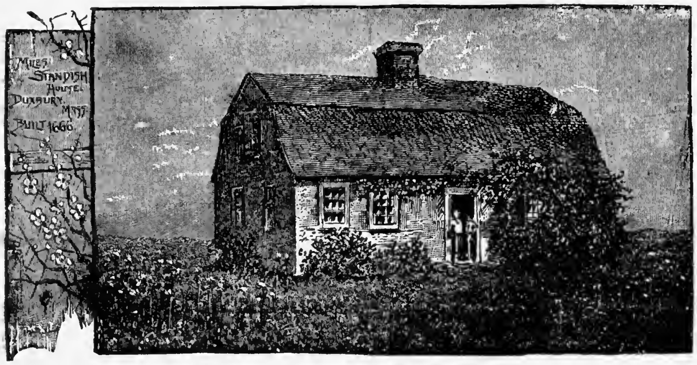
PLYMOUTH BAY.

Leaving Nantasket Beach, the "landscape" around which is rather nice, and the "waterscape" a good deal more than nice—the Old Colony Railroad takes us toward Plymouth. As we approach the venerable and venerated town of the Pilgrim Fathers we shall pass Marshfield, for many years the homestead of Daniel Webster. We shall not see it from the train; but its location will be indicated to us, and our Guide Book will have a picture of it, so that we can congratulate ourselves upon having seen it, after a fashion. A few miles further on, and in the township of Duxbury, overlooking Plymouth Bay, is a quaint, substantial structure known as "The Miles Standish House," said to have been built in 1666. It cannot, therefore, have been built by the valorous little "Captain of Plymouth," who had died ten years before at the goodly age of seventy-two. Quite probably this house may occupy the site of the one where the only Miles Standish of whom we know anything had his abode at and after that "courtship" of his of which Longfellow tells us. At all events, the grim little Captain did not die of a broken heart in consequence of his courtship by proxy of young John Alden, who, upon the hint of the sweet Priscilla, "spoke for himself" with more success—though certainly not more earnestly, than he had been speaking in behalf of his middle-aged friend. Miles Standish lived nearly two-score years after this "disappointment;" and Longfellow tells us—and who will question him—he looked on, with more of pleasure than pain, when John Alden walked away from the scene of his wedding, leading the "snow-white bull," upon which was seated "Priscilla the Puritan maiden," the just-wedded wife of John Alden. It is no unreasonable stretch of imagination for us to believe that in the coming years the little Aldens—and there were not a few of them—children born to John and Priscilla, were wont to visit the valorous Captain Miles Standish, whose fighting days were now over, in his "simple and primitive dwelling," which certainly was not far from Plymouth, and which we hope no accurate antiquarian will be able to show did not stand upon the very spot where now stands the "Miles Standish House."


THE DANIEL-WEBSTER HOMESTEAD MARSHFIELD MASS

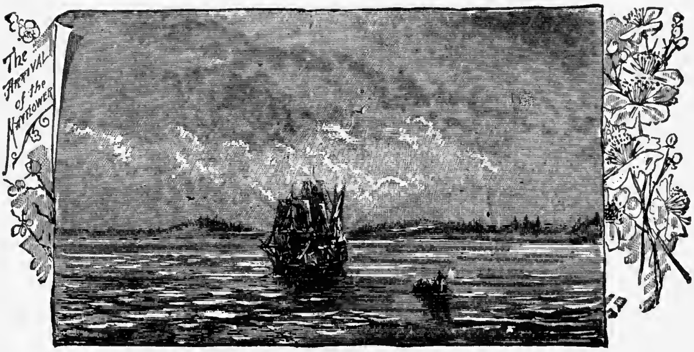
THE HOME OF DANIEL WEBSTER.

Plymouth Bay, which we are now in sight of, in a bright summer afternoon, is a pleasant piece of water. Quite otherwise must it have looked to the voyagers in the "Mayflower," who on a day late in December, 1620, were the first men of the white race who ever saw its waters and forest-clad shores. Shutting our eyes, and calling to mind the narratives which have come down to us, we can picture to ourselves how the scene must have looked to the Pilgrim Fathers and Pilgrim Mothers. Opening our eyes, and looking around, no two pictures could well be more unlike. Yet both are absolutely true. The brightness of glad waters, with their "innumerable laugh," and the white sails darting in every direction will be all the brighter in contrast with the hoarse murmur of the breakers heard by the Pilgrims of the "Mayflower" as their solitary weather-beaten vessel steered into these unknown waters. Yet no vessel freighted with loftier fortunes ever sighted an unknown coast than did this little "Mayflower." In her was potentially the being of our New World. Had she borne other men and women than she did, our social and political institutions would have been quite other than they are: not improbably like those of Mexico or Peru.


MILES STANDISH HOUSE DUXBURY, MASS. BUILT 1666

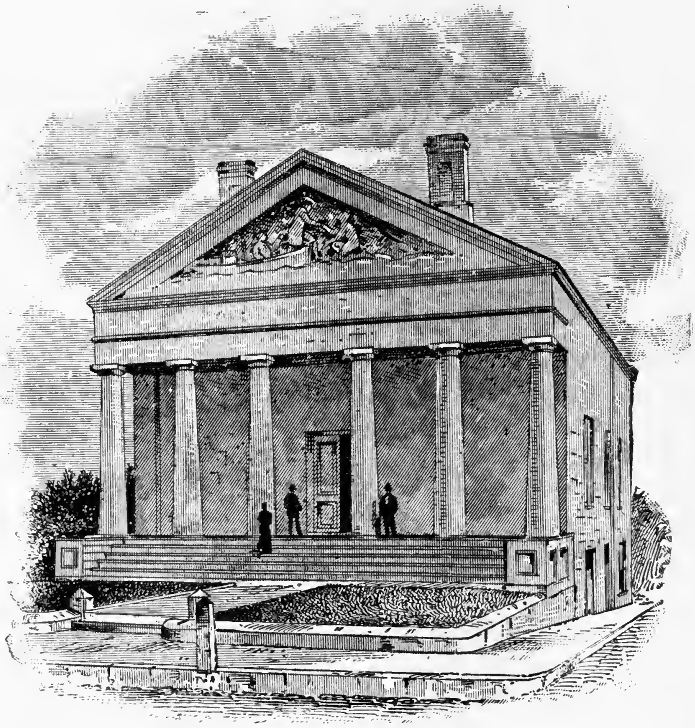
WHERE MILES STANDISH LIVED.

We do not purpose here to narrate the story of Plymouth Colony. Taking the term in its widest sense, it was never more than a small settlement, not covering much more than the present "township" of Plymouth, a tract 18 miles long, with an average breadth of some six miles—the area thus being about 100


The Arrival of the Mayflower

THE MAYFLOWER NEARING LAND.

square miles. Plymouth is the oldest settlement by Europeans of which we know anything certainly on the New England Coast. If Norsemen settled there, as perhaps they did—centuries before, they vanished, leaving behind them nothing which clearly shows that they had ever been there or thereabouts.


PILGRIM HALL, PLYMOUTH, MASS.

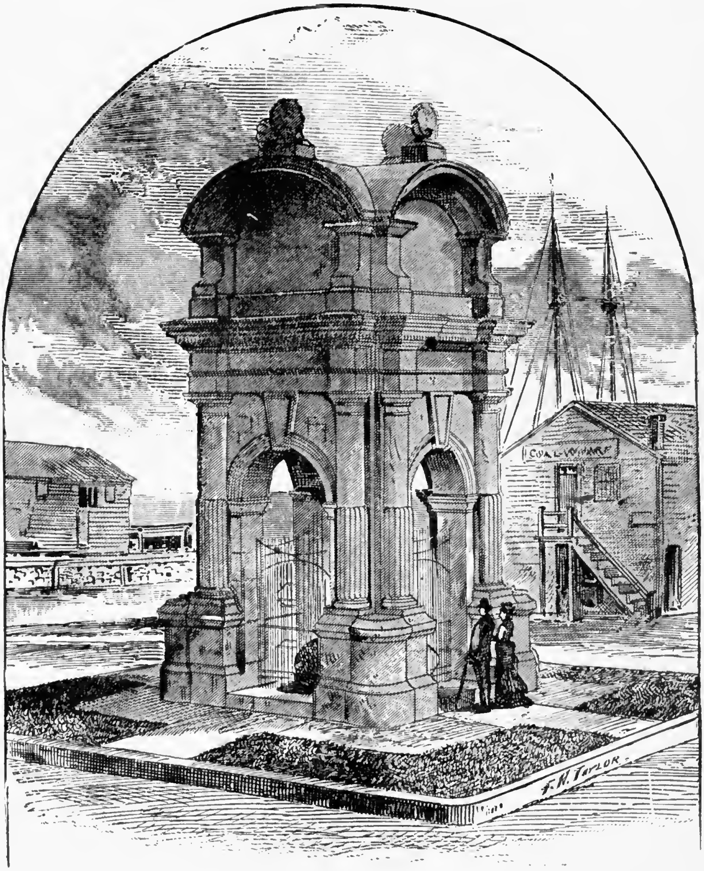
Leaving out of view Saint Augustine, in Florida, where the Spaniards had a post as early as 1565, Plymouth is the third early spot occupied by Europeans within what we now designate as North America. This occupation was made in 1620. In 1608 the English made a settlement at a place in Virginia, which they called Jamestown; this was kept up for many years, but was at length abandoned, and there is now hardly an indication that there had ever been a settlement there. In 1614—six years before the "Mayflower" appeared in Plymouth Bay—the Dutch made a settlement at the mouth of a stream which they called Hudson River. They called this settlement "New Amsterdam," designating the region thereabout as "New Netherlands." All this is what we now know as "New York." Plymouth, though an old place, as we reckon age in this New World of ours, is "very small for its age." Assuming the territorial area of the ancient colony to have been that of the present township, its population in 1885—a little more than two centuries after its settlement—was about 7,000, and there is no reason to suppose that it had ever been greater. The general physical features of this old colony are given by one who knows them better than we can pretend to do, and whose description we give, though with much abridgment.

"The land is broken in outline, and rolling in every part, being heaped up in quick-succeeding hills and ranges, like the billows of the ocean in a strong tideway. This conformation affords situation for numerous ponds and lakelets. The forests are ancient and primeval, sometimes extending for miles without a break, save where great fires have devastated, and showing neither building nor clearing in evidence that man has ever brought the region under subjection. Within the last decade as many as two hundred deer have been killed in these and the adjacent woods of Sandwich during a single year. Skirting the lakes and ponds, and winding over and among the hills, innumerable roads afford the most beautiful driveways imaginable. Delightsome ocean-views are obtained from the summits of hill-tops, extending for miles inland, and outlooks over fair sections of hill and dale. Springs of purest water abound, and bubble over on every side, often proving the source of the finest ponds.

"And where can be found ocean shores or ocean views, or any of the delights that the salt sea can afford when contiguous to the land, superior to those of Plymouth and her surroundings? There are beaches of the hardest and the whitest sand; the shore in places exposed to the ceaseless rolling of the surf, and again receiving the advances of the tides quietly, without the turning of a single tiny sand-crystal. From the rock which marks the landing-place of the Pilgrim Fathers, away around to the 'White Horse,' beyond Manomet and 'Indian Hill' to Sandwich line, isolated boulders, rock-patches and masses, and craggy formations alternate. The rarest of sailing and fishing is afforded along these shores; and every object within sight from the shifting stand-point suggests the most interesting reminiscences and historic associations. Indeed, no situation on the entire Massachusetts coast presents so many varied features which go to make up the ideal summering-place."

Still "Pilgrim Rock"—which some have rather irreverently called the "Yankee Blarney Stone"—is, for an outsider, what really makes Plymouth what it is—a kind of hallowed ground. Apart from the tradition which makes it mark the spot where the Pilgrims first set foot upon the New England shore, there is nothing noteworthy about this rock. It is to the eye as commonplace a boulder as any other of the thousands which lie around. Neither, for the matter of that, is there anything specially notable in the look of the Irish Blarney Stone or in that of the still more sacred Black Stone in the

Kaaba at Mecca, the kissing of which, in the faith of Islam, is held to be a sure passport to Paradise. The sanctity of any material thing rests not so much in the thing itself as in the associations with which it has somehow come to be linked in our own minds. Somewhat more than sixty years ago was erected Plymouth Hall, a substantial granite structure, which does not resemble the Parthenon which crowns the Acropolis at Athens half as much as it was intended to do. It is by no means a mean building, and was designed especially as a repository for relics connected however remotely with the "Mayflower" and her little band of Pilgrims; of these there are here preserved a goodly number of more or less interest.

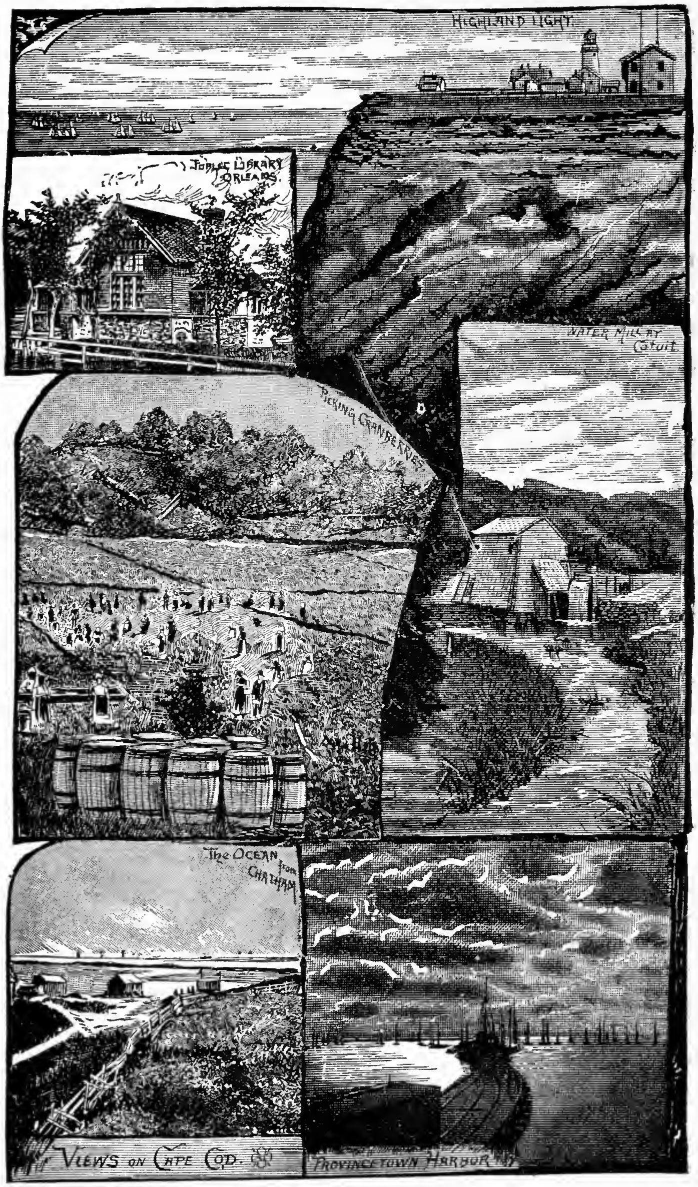


A PIECE OF THE PILGRIM ROCK, *in situ.*

To the projectors of Pilgrim Hall it seemed a good idea to transport "Forefathers' Rock" from its ancient site, which had come to be a decidedly unsightly one, to a more respectable place near the newly-built Hall. An effort was made to raise the rock; but it would not come up entire. A part of it was broken off, which was borne with due ceremony and deposited in front of the Hall, and surrounded with a substantial iron fence. The other, and presumably the larger part, was left where it had always been, on what is now styled Water Street. Over it is built a neat structure of stone; through the railed openings of which, as shown on a preceding page, the top of the rock may be seen. Thus there are at Plymouth two Pilgrim Rocks—or, rather, two separate parts of what was once the original rock. Both are genuine; which is entitled to the higher reverence is an open question. The part in front of the Hall is doubtless that which the feet of the Pilgrims touched; the part remaining near the waterside certainly marks the precise spot of the historic landing.

Plymouth is a sort of jumping-off place on the Old Colony Railroad, for one bar of the big gridiron ends here; and to go anywhere else by rail we must go back a little toward Boston, and take some other bar, of which there is ample choice for us. First we will strike the Cape Cod branch, which, as any map will show, forms the long curved handle of the gridiron. The shape of Italy is not unlike that of a big boot; quite as strikingly does Cape Cod resemble that of a human arm stretched out eastward from shoulder to elbow, where it crooks northward to the wrist, the hand then bending westward, so that the fingers point toward Plymouth, which we may call the collar-bone. The shoulder-joint of this long arm is about a dozen miles in a straight line south of Plymouth, where Buzzard's Bay sets in from Long Island Sound, so deeply that if it had gone some ten miles further it would have met the Atlantic, making our Cape Cod an island instead of a peninsula. Among the plausible projects which have been broached is that of a ship-canal across the narrow peninsula. Should this be carried out there is no saying what changes will not be wrought in our systems of coast navigation.

But as it is, Cape Cod is a peninsula, not an island. Measured from shoulder-joint to finger-tip the length of this long arm is about 65 miles, with an average breadth of some five miles. It constitutes Barnstable County, in Massachusetts, having an area of about 600 square miles, and a population, in 1880 of about 32,000, of whom fully nine-tenths were born on the Cape. Probably the very Yankiest part of all Yankee-land is this sandy peninsula of Cape Cod. However commonplace the name may seem to sound, there is a pretty legend connected with its origin. In very early colonial days, so we are told, a fishing-boat found its way into this almost land-locked bay, which as far as known had as yet no name of its own. A name it ought to have; and what that name should be was piously left to the decision of higher than human powers: whatsoever fish should first be caught should give its name to the Bay. That fish was a cod—" a goodly codfish," it is incidentally mentioned—and so the smooth expanse of water was thereupon named "Cod Bay," and the long sand-arm which nearly encircled it came to be styled "Cape Cod."

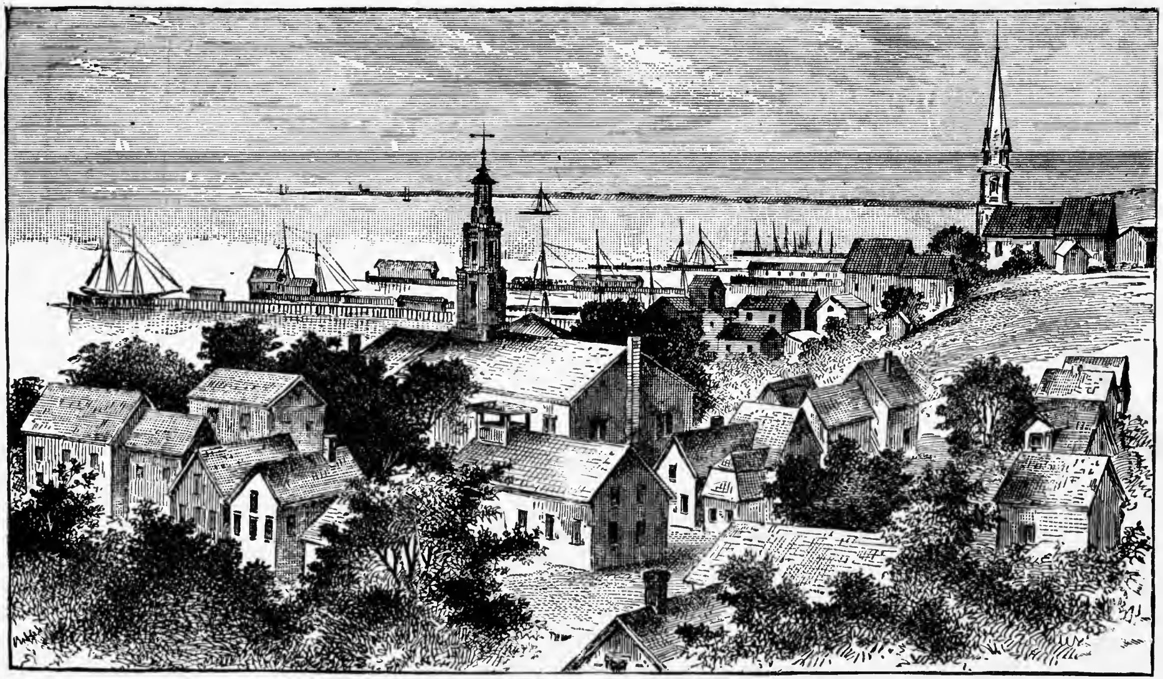

Highland Light
Public Library Orleans
Water Mill at Cotuit
Picking Cranberries
The Ocean from Chatham
Views on Cape Cod
Provincetown Harbor

SCENES ALONG CAPE COD.

The popular idea of Cape Cod—and it could not have come to be a popular one unless it were in a measure founded on fact—is that of a region of sand-dunes stretching for weary mile after weary mile over plains well-nigh destitute of tree or verdure, the loose sand so deep in the roads that a wagon sinks axle-deep into it. Cape Cod, as a whole, is undeniably sandy; and one who is on the lookout for sand—especially if he is looking out from the windows of a railway carriage—will find quite as much as he is looking for; and, moreover, the sharp sand-grains have a fancy for constituting themselves his fellow-passengers; and get on board when they please, without the preliminary formality of purchasing a "ticket" or obtaining a "pass."

Yet in this long narrow sand-sea there is many a green islet. There are not a few cranberry marshes, which are much nicer to look at than to walk upon. Nowhere does this acidulous berry attain higher perfection than upon Cape Cod, and nowhere is anything more carefully cultivated. A good cranberry-bog of a few acres has in it potentially more gold than as many square feet of bonanza in California or Colorado. Few people, we suppose, become very rich by cranberrry-growing on Cape Cod; but still fewer lose all they had, or thought they had, than have done so in the lottery of gold-hunting and gold-mining on the Pacific slope of the continent. We can count up on our fingers all the men who have drawn great prizes in this lottery; but where on earth shall we look for any record of those whose tickets drew nothing? The lucky ones do not seem to have been any better, nor much wiser, than the unlucky ones; only, by what we may call chance, they happened to hold tickets which drew the great prizes.

So, although we do not own a cranberry-patch on Cape Cod or a bonanza in California or elsewhere, we moralize during the few hours which intervene between our departure from Plymouth and our arrival at Provincetown, the very tip of the forefinger of the long arm of Cape Cod, which almost encircles Cape Cod Bay. We shall have passed within sight of—whether we have seen them or not—several pretty spots which, if we could have shut our eyes to everything else, would almost have persuaded us that there was no such thing as sand on Cape Cod. There are several villages—notably those of Barnstable, Yarmouth, and Eastham—the streets of which are shaded by old trees as fine as can be seen anywhere in the valley of the Connecticut. There are several places where are fancy farms hardly to be matched elsewhere on the continent. At the lower end of the Cape—the shoulder of the arm, where it has a width of perhaps a score of miles—there is yet a not inconsiderable



PROVINCETOWN, ON CAPE COD.

growth of native forest. The prevailing tree is the dwarf pitch-pine, the odorous "needles" of which perfume the atmosphere, and are held to have no little to do with the acknowledged salubrity of the region. We know of no region of a couple of hundreds of square miles where so large a proportion of the population pass the age of threescore-and-ten.

Provincetown, at the very tip of the forefinger of the long "arm" of Cape Cod, apart from its being just where it is, presents some things to attract attention. Of it we read in Lippincott's concise "Gazetteer of the World:" "Provincetown, a post-village in Barnstable County, Massachusetts, at the northern extremity of the long peninsula called Cape Cod. It is 55 miles by water and 118 miles by rail E.S.E. of Boston. It has a good harbor, and contains a national bank, a public library, a newspaper office, two hotels, a high-school and several churches. It is mainly supported by cod and mackerel fisheries."

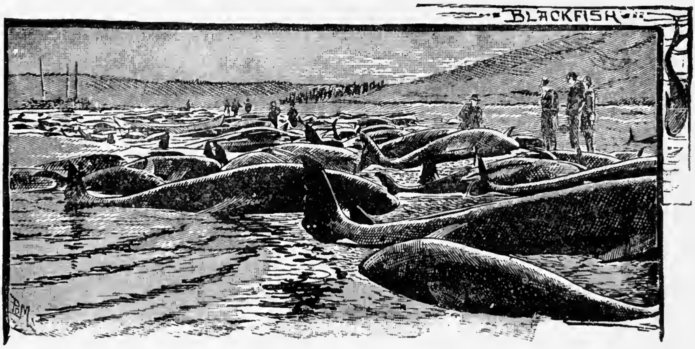
But elsewhere we are told, much less prosaically:

"Provincetown occupies the extremity, the curving finger, of Cape Cod. With the exception of a narrow strip or neck of sand-heaps which unites it to the main Cape, it is surrounded by the salt water of the Atlantic, which rolls unchecked between its shores and those of Europe. Its coast-line, beginning at a point opposite the narrow neck, sweeps around in a grand circle. The inclosed water of this circle is the harbor of Provincetown, the town being built along the inner shore at the bottom of the basin. Outside is the Race, Wood End, and sundry interesting points of light-house, life-saving station, and so forth. Inside is one of the most singular harbors of the world, deep enough and spacious enough to shelter a fleet of hundreds of the largest ships at one time, and with peculiarities belonging to itself sufficient to make it famous wherever those ships may sail."

Undoubtedly the cod and mackerel fisheries are the main pot-boilers of the Provincetown fishermen; but they by no means constitute the entire list. The writer from whom we last quoted, goes on to say:

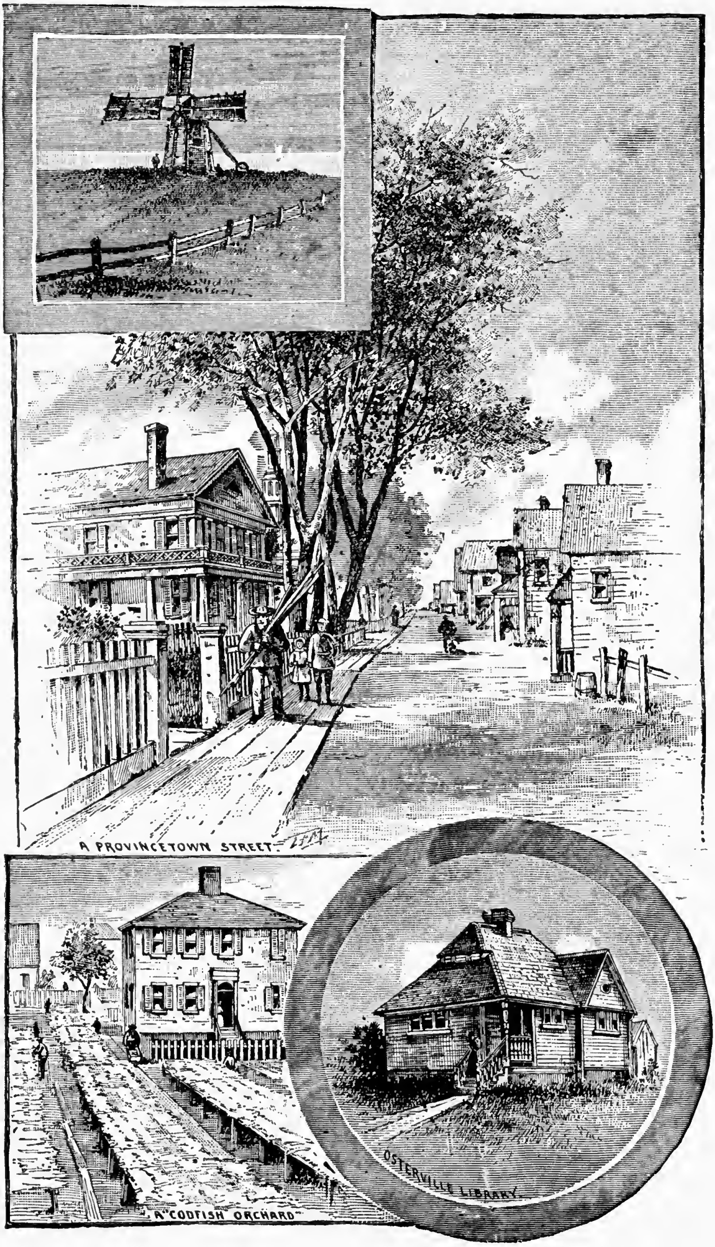
"There are few kinds of fish, or any methods of taking them, which are not familiar to the people of this region. From the fry and minnow for pickerel-bait, up to the 100-barrel 'right whale,' Provincetown waters have witnessed the capture of all kinds. The beaches have received as loot mighty carcasses of whales and blackfish, and shoals of porgies, which all the teams of the region could hardly remove soon enough, so immense was the deposit. A whale in the harbor of Provincetown, at certain seasons, is almost as common a presence as that of a turtle in a mill-pond; but they are usually representatives of a class disliked and scorned by old-school whale-men."

This species of whale is that which is designated as the "finback;" and there are two good reasons why they should be held in slight esteem: they are not easy to catch, and are hardly worth the catching. The finback is described as "a long, clean, perfectly-formed creature usually from forty-five to fifty feet in length, but sometimes reaching seventy-five or eighty feet. He is a most complete model of a craft for speed and easy working in the water; and his tail, when in motion, is a perfect development of the screw-motor." When one is struck with a harpoon he starts off at his topmost speed. An instance is authentically reported when a finback who was harpooned near Provincetown headed straight across Massachusetts Bay in the direction of Boston, dragging the boat after him. In forty minutes the whalemen were in sight of the lighthouse on Minot's Reef, a distance of not less than forty miles, when the crew cut loose, having payed out all their line. For forty miles they had been towed at the rate of a mile a minute. If the finback had headed across the Atlantic, and could have kept up his pace, he would have brought them in sight of the European shores in about a day and a half. In 1885 the population of Provincetown was nearly 4,500.



BLACK FISH.

The following illustration presents a group of characteristic scenes on Cape Cod, most of which explain themselves. That at the top of the page represents a wind-mill surmounting a headland overlooking the water. It certainly does not remind one of the Round Tower at Newport, which may have been built for a wind-mill; at least, no one can prove that it was not. Osterville is a pretty village on the ocean side of the Cape, about thirty miles east of New Bedford, which we shall visit. It is a favorite summer resort, having a large hotel, several churches, a boat-yard, and not a few "cottages." The pretty Library building might well be mistaken for a cozy private cottage. The "Codfish Orchard" is not inappropriately named, if the account be true


A PROVINCETOWN STREET
A "CODFISH ORCHARD"
OSTERVILLE LIBRARY

VIEWS ON CAPE COD.

that codfish is the staple fruit grown on the Cape. The story goes on to say —(but for the truthfulness of this part of it we cannot fully vouch)—that the Cape Cod cows feed mainly upon refuse fish, and when "milked," the pails are found to be filled with the purest "cod-liver oil." No one, however, will doubt this, who has come to put faith in that other story of the thrifty farmer who furnished his cows with green-colored goggles, fed them upon pine-shavings, which they took to be new-mown grass, and, when "milked," gave out "spirits of turpentine" instead of the more usual lacteal fluid.

Retracing our course along the handle of the gridiron, we turn off to the southern rim of its frame, and in an hour or so find ourselves in the city of New Bedford, fifty-five miles from Boston, on the western bank of the Acushnet River, just where it opens into Buzzard's Bay. To reach the city the railroad crosses the river upon a bridge, three-quarters of a mile long. Half a century ago New Bedford was a very different place from what it now is. It was the metropolis of the whale-fishing industry. This was established there about 1750, and flourished for a century. At the time of its highest prosperity in this industry, New Bedford had not less than 400 whaling-ships, which brought home annually 180,000 barrels of oil, besides many tons of "whalebone"—which, by the way is not bone at all, but like big bundles of hairs fastened together along their whole length of a dozen feet or more, and growing inside the whale's mouth; a very useful article for a whale to have about him, since it forms a net in which to catch sundry sorts of small creatures which form its food; for we suppose the true whale could not swallow anything bigger than a herring; and as it has nothing in the way of teeth, could not chew up any larger creature which it might have caught.

The New Bedford industry of whaling has greatly declined within the memory of men now living. In 1880 it did not employ a quarter as many men, or produce a quarter as much oil as it had once done.

The corn-fed pigs of Illinois can produce oil more cheaply than the fish-fed whales of all the oceans can do. And of late years it looks as though the petroleum-wells are likely to drive both whales and pigs out of market as producers of oil for most purposes; and cotton-seed-oil and peanut-oil are trenching upon the products of the immemorial domain of the olive. It does not as yet appear that the petroleum-wells propose to enter the field as producers of oils for edible or culinary use. But for illuminating and lubricatory purposes—such, for instance, as those of lighting our dwellings and "making the face to shine"—the petroleum-wells have fairly put whales, pigs and olive-trees out of the market; to say nothing of certain other important uses of which neither whale, pig, or olive-tree ever dreamed.

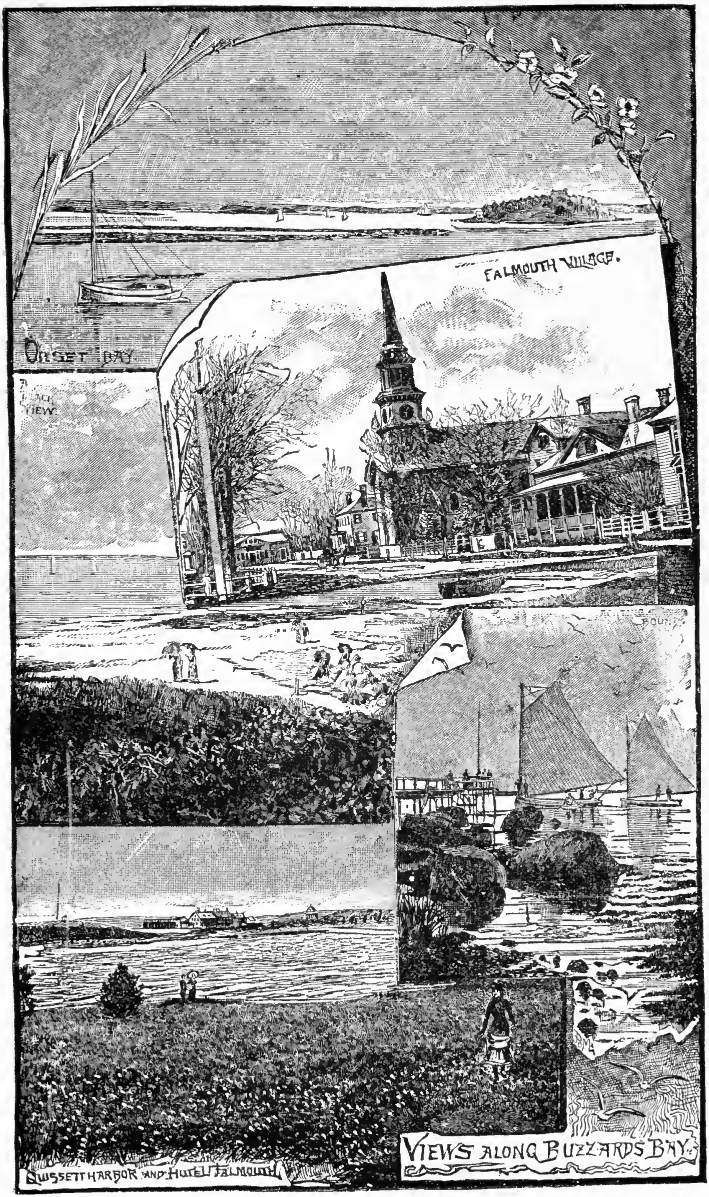
If, however, the whale-fishing has come to be, or is likely to become, an almost extinct industry, New Bedford has been in nowise cast down. Acushnet River, whose chief occupation had been to make a nice harbor for whaling-ships, has been taught how to turn water-wheels for cotton-mills, woollen-mills, and such like purposes, which pay better than whale-hunting ever did. The result is that New Bedford is a much handsomer and richer city than it ever was in its palmiest whale-fishing era. The population, which has rapidly increased during the past decade, numbered in 1885 over 33,000.

But New Bedford, be its attractions what they may, is for us merely the point from which we can most conveniently reach the islands of Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket, which lie not many miles off the southern shore of Cape Cod.

By a steamer of the Fall River line we cross Buzzard's Bay, that inlet from Long Island Sound which, if it had continued half-a-score miles further, would have run into Cape Cod Bay, itself an almost land-locked inlet of the broad Atlantic; Cape Cod in that case, if it had any name at all, would have been styled Cod Island. The shores of Buzzard's Bay present numerous points worth visiting by one who can give a whole summer to this southern bit of the New England Coast. If he has not time for that, the accompanying views will tell him something of what he might have seen on Buzzard's Bay.

Buzzard's Bay sets in about thirty miles. Both shores are deeply indented. Capes, locally styled "necks," project from the land into the water; coves, often dignified as "harbors," set into the land from the water; and every now and then an islet shows its head not far from the shore.

Most of these necks, coves, and islets have names of their own, in which Indian and English stand in close proximity. As we leave New Bedford Harbor, we pass Clarke's Point, with its lighthouse, on the other side Fairhaven pushes its long sandy finger down into Buzzard's Bay. Close off shore lies West Island; a little farther on is Ram Island; then Mattapoisett Harbor sets well into the shore, with Cannonville lighthouse marking its entrance. Passing this, we see Charles Neck; a little beyond are Great Neck; Cromset Neck, Indian Neck, another Great Neck; then we have Bourne's Neck, just beyond which lies the little Buttermilk Bay, the northeastern extremity of Buzzard's Bay, whence "Bourne's Ship Canal"—which as yet exists only on


ONSET BAY
FALMOUTH VILLAGE
A BEACH VIEW
QUISSETT HARBOR AND HOTEL FALMOUTH
VIEWS ALONG BUZZARDS BAY.

BUZZARD'S BAY, AND VICINITY.

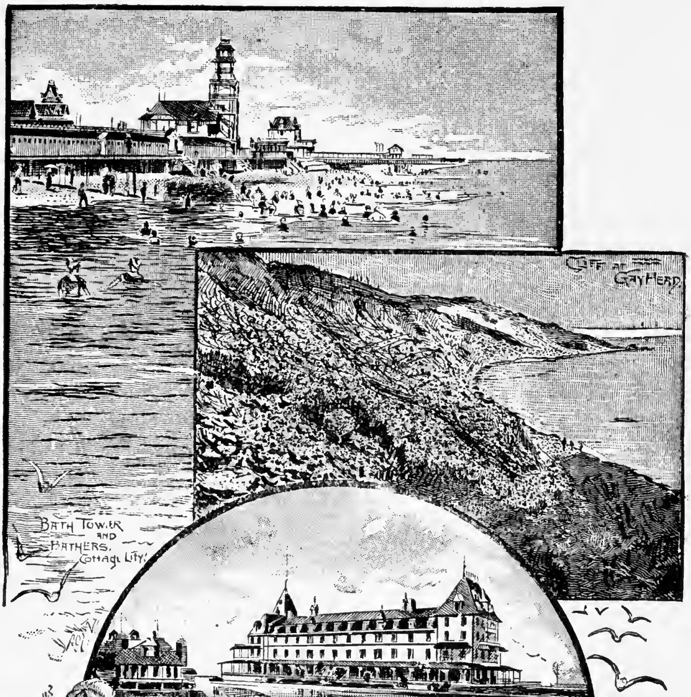
paper—will cut across the neck of Cape Cod, completing the work which Buzzard's Bay had to leave unfinished. Now going down the eastern side of Buzzard's Bay, we pass Monument Beach and Wenaumet Neck, Bassett's Island and Shaggy Neck, Cataumut Harbor, Wild Harbor, Hog Island Harbor, Falmouth, and Quamquisset Harbor, until we reach Wood's Holl, which, as the Gazetteer tells us, "is a post village on the strait which connects Buzzard's Bay with Vineyard Sound; has a safe harbor deep enough to admit large ships, and contains a church, several summer boarding-houses, and a factory for fertilizers."

Wood's Holl (they pronounce it *Hole*) has a special interest from the fact that it was the summer headquarters of the United States Fish Commission, headed until his death by Professor Spencer F. Baird, to whose labors pisciculture owes so much. Across the narrow strait lie the islets of Naushon, Pasque, Nashawena, Cuttyhunk, and a dozen or so more too small to have an inhabitant or even a name. These are collectively designated as the Elizabeth Islands. A little out in Buzzard's Bay is the Penikese Islet, a hundred acres in extent, upon which for many years Agassiz kept up a summer school for the study of natural history.

This tour of ours around Buzzard's Bay, with its long array of names of necks and harbors, has been made only upon paper. As a matter of fact, we take steamer at New Bedford, cross the Bay straight for Wood's Holl, where we might have stopped for a few minutes, but did not, for we were bound for Martha's Vineyard, and thence to Nantucket.

Martha's Vineyard is an island lying hardly five miles from the southern shore of Cape Cod. In shape it is very like a codfish split open and dried. Its length from tail to shoulder—the head being wanting—is a little more than twenty miles; the breadth across the shoulders being about fifteen miles, whence it tapers down to the flukes. The average breadth is about six miles. The island itself constitutes a county, called "Dukes," the smallest by far, save one, of the fourteen into which the State of Massachusetts is divided. The resident population of Dukes County numbers about 4,200, while that of the neighboring island and county of Nantucket is only about 3,100.

Who the "Martha" was from whom the island derives its name; why it was styled her Vineyard, or why a "vineyard" at all, are questions about which not a little has been written more or less wisely. A very early legend, which nobody can now prove to be untrue, has it that in 1602—six years before the settlement was made at Jamestown, in Virginia, and eighteen years


Bath Tower and Bathers, Cottage City
Cliff at Gay Head
Sea View House. Cottage City
Martha's Vineyard
Samoset Ave. Cottage City

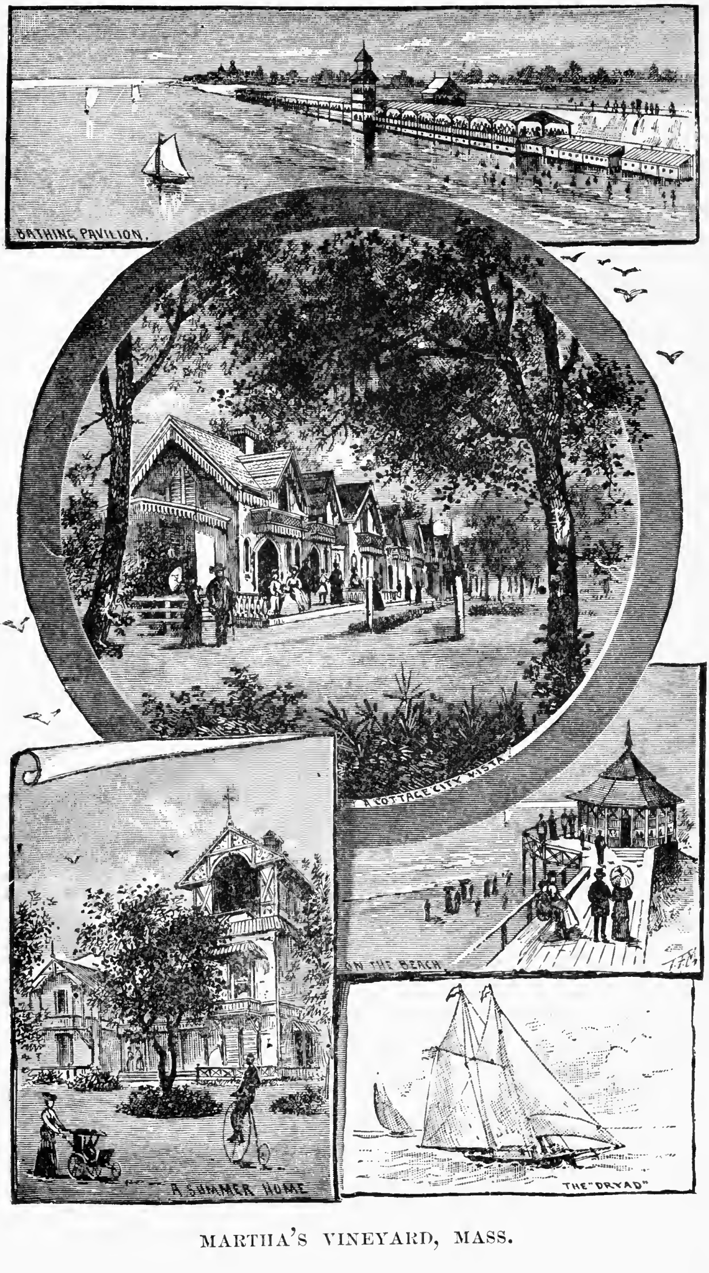
VIEWS ON SEA AND SHORE.

before the Pilgrim Fathers set foot on Plymouth Rock—Captain Bartholomew Gosnold was cruising about in these almost land-locked waters. He sighted this pretty islet, and gave it the name which it bears. Whether he landed upon it is not so certain. Some authorities will have it that Gosnold's "Martha's Vineyard" was a little neighboring islet which now goes by the name of "No Man's Land."

The well-authenticated history of Martha's Vineyard goes back to 1642, when a company of emigrants from Southampton, England, established the settlement of Edgartown on its eastern and broadest end. Edgartown is the shire-town of the county, containing fully a third of the permanent population of the island. The island has several nice roadsteads, such as Holme's Hole, which furnishes a natural harbor of refuge when the weather is foul. Not unfrequently hundreds of water-craft tie up here for a few days, their crews perhaps doubling the regular population of the island, and putting much money into their already fairly-filled purses. Yachtsmen, in particular, are fond of Martha's Vineyard and its surroundings. A good authority, whom we have already quoted, and shall have further occasion to quote, says:

"Whatever of excellences of climate or sanitary conditions any of the localities of this region can boast are enjoyed to their fullest degree on Martha's Vineyard. Owing to the peculiar conformation and extent of this island, it has many natural landing-places for shipping, and as a haven for any kind of sailing-fleets it has no superior in the northern Atlantic waters. Its ocean outlooks in every part are of the finest; and for what may be styled purely marine pleasures it has no equal on our coasts. And as the waters round about Martha's Vineyard present the finest highways for yachting and boating, so the gently rolling grounds of the island, and its long reaches of level country, offer the most excellent drives, the adjuncts of which are peculiar to the place, which in almost every part is in full view of the ocean. Every breeze which prevails here must of necessity be tempered by ocean influences, and the summer winds are deliciously cool and invigorating, even while only a few miles inland on the mainland the most enervating heats are prevailing."

The accompanying views on Martha's Vineyard will tell, better than words can, many things there to be seen in summer time, when the actual population of the island may be four times greater than its normal number of 4,000; the overplus consists of summer visitors who come and go week by week.

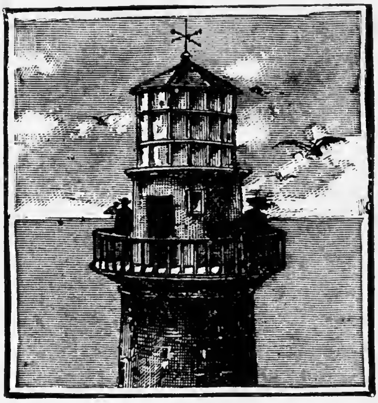

BATHING PAVILION.
A COTTAGE CITY VISTA.
ON THE BEACH
A SUMMER HOME
THE "DRYAD"

MARTHA'S VINEYARD, MASS.

"Cottage City" is one of the prettiest places of its kind anywhere to be found. It stands on the northeastern point of the island, on what used to be styled "Oak Bluffs." Somewhat more than half a century ago the Methodists fixed upon this then secluded spot as a place for their outdoor religious assemblages, or "Camp-meetings." Year by year the frequenters of these assemblages began to put up cozy cottages, instead of tents or tabernacles. The spot was so pleasant that they began to come there a few days before the "meetings" began, and remain there a few days or even weeks after they closed. They, in fact, became summer residents at Oak Bluffs. It was not long before other people learned of the attractions of the spot, built cottages and villas, and made the place their home for half the year. By-and-by men who cared more for profit than praying cast their eyes upon these bluffs. They began to put up summer hotels and such like attractions. The new hotels drew more visitors, and the throng of visitors gave rise to new and more sumptuous hostelries, and more palatial "cottages," until after half a century, Cottage City claims fair rivalry with Newport. Though acknowledging itself to be not quite as big, it asserts itself to be much nicer in more ways than one. If Martha's Vineyard has not the rocky bluffs of the Island of Rhodes, it has much longer and finer drives along the sandy shore. If Cottage City has no antique Round Tower, it has its great annual camp-meeting—an attraction the like of which Newport has nothing to present. We do not here venture to pronounce which of the two resorts is the more enjoyable; but we will maintain against all comers, that both are better than either.

Among the views presented is one of Gay Head, the loneliness of which stands in striking contrast with the urban scenes among which it appears. Gay Head is as far off from Oak Bluff as one can get without leaving Martha's Vineyard. It forms one fluke of the tail of the fish, a shoulder of which is occupied by Cottage City. As one approaches the Head, driving down the shore, nothing more desolate can well be conceived: bare sand, with here and there a patch of scanty verdure. Upon the Head—or rather upon a ledge just off-shore—is a lighthouse which stands sharply against the evening sky, rising to a height of 170 feet above the water. There is nothing especially remarkable to us about this lighthouse; but somehow its revolving light has fascinations for the seabirds who come voyaging along in the gloom. Not a few of these from time to time dash themselves against the stout glass plates which inclose the revolving light, and come to grief thereby. But as these birds are rarely of a toothsome kind, we do not suppose that their numerous dead bodies add much to the dietary of the residents of the post-township of Gay Head, which the Gazetteer tells us, numbers "216, of partial Indian stock."

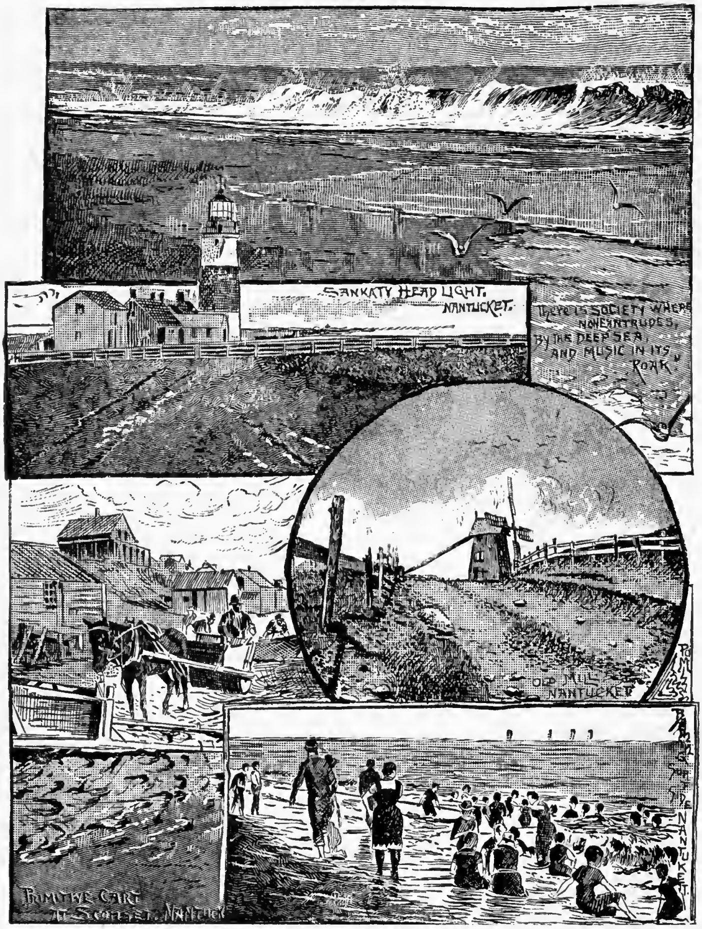
The Gazetteer says, in a few words, "The promontory of Gay Head affords abundant miocene fossils." The authority which we have made our own tells us much more: "This headland is one of the most remarkable natural curiosities of New England, being composed of alternating strata of differently colored clays, red, white, yellow, green, and others, succeeding each other from base to summit, and displaying in the sunlight the most singular effects. Like all the region of southeastern Massachusetts, Martha's Vineyard furnishes the foundation and location for many a legend and tradition." Hardly ten miles southeastward from the shoulder of Martha's Vineyard is the tail of Nantucket Island, which on the map looks much like a huge shrimp. How the "moraine," or pebbly mass which constitutes the geological formation of the island, got here is a problem with which scientists have amused and perhaps wearied themselves. Those who hold that during the "glacial period" huge icebergs, or ice-continents, came slowly ploughing down from the North, got stranded in these shallow waters, warmed by the Gulf Stream, and melted away, depositing the stony fragments which they had torn off from the coasts of Labrador and the summits and slopes of what we now know as the White Mountains and the Green Mountains: those who thus hold and teach are quite likely not far from the truth. At all events, here is Nantucket, a bank of water-worn pebbles rising nowhere more than a few score feet above the present level of the ocean.



GAY HEAD-LIGHT.

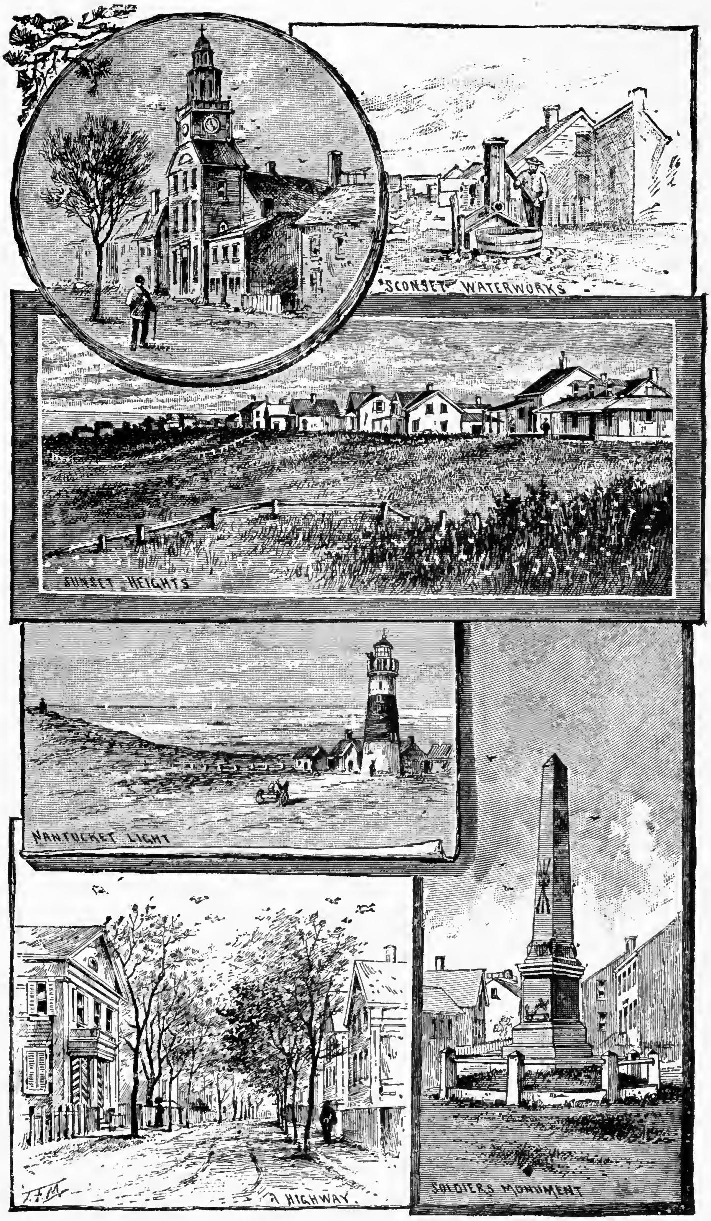
Nantucket island, which also constitutes a county of Massachusetts, though it contains only one township, has an area of barely fifty square miles and is inhabited by about 3,100 people. There is good reason for believing that the Norsemen saw the island eight centuries ago, and that it formed a part of the region to which they gave the name of Vinland ("Wine-land"). They do not seem to have sailed much further south than this. With the exception of the Round Tower at Newport, Rhode Island, and the curious inscribed stone at Dighton, in Massachusetts, we know of nothing on our New England shores which anybody imagines to be the work of these ante-Columbian discoverers of America.

The two following groups of views on Nantucket island will give a fair idea of what is to be seen there during the spring, summer, and autumn months. During the winter, for weeks at a time the few resident dwellers upon Nantucket are practically as far from the rest of the world as they are from the moon. They are frozen in for a time; but when warm weather comes again they do not appear to be any the worse for their hibernation. We here have to do with what we can see in Nantucket during the summer time; and there are contrasts enough to suffice our widest wish for variety. The artist has depicted not a few of these scenes better than we can do in words.


SANKATY HEAD LIGHT.
NANTUCKET.
THERE IS SOCIETY WHERE NONE INTRUDES, BY THE DEEP SEA, AND MUSIC IN ITS ROAR.
OLD MILL NANTUCKET
PRIMITIVE CART AT SCONSET. NANTUCKET
BATHING SURF SIDE NANTUKET.

VIEWS AT NANTUCKET.

Whittier, in one of the most spirited of his legendary poems, tells of what we may hold to be the first establishment of white folks on Nantucket. The date is placed at 1660. Thomas Macey, who lived not far from Newburyport, was threatened with fine, imprisonment, and the whipping-post for having given the shelter of his roof to a "banished Quaker." To escape from their


'SCONSET WATERWORKS
SUNSET HEIGHTS
NANTUCKET LIGHT
SOLDIERS MONUMENT
T.F.M.
A HIGHWAY

NANTUCKET, MASS.

pursuers, he and his young wife sprung into a little boat, and paddled out into the waters. We can trace almost every mile of this adventurous voyage of some 150 miles, mostly in open ocean, until they reached their destined haven, of which they seem to have known nothing:

By green Pentucket's southern slope the small boat glided fast;
The watchers of the "block house" saw the strangers as they passed.
That night a stalwart garrison sat shaking in their shoes
To hear the dip of Indian oars, the glide of birch canoes.
The fisher-wives of Salisbury (the men were all away)
Looked out to see the stranger oar upon their waters play.
Deer Island's rocks and fir-trees threw their sunset shadows o'er them,
And Newbury's spire and weather-cock peered o'er the pines before them.
Around the Black Rocks, on their left, the marsh lay broad and green;
And on their right, with dwarf-shrubs crowned, Plum Island's hills were seen.

With skilful hand and wary eye the harbor bar was crossed,
A plaything of the restless wave, the boat on ocean tossed.
The glory of the sunset-heaven on land and water lay;
On the steep hills of Agawam, on cape, and bluff, and bay.
They passed the gray rocks of Cape Ann, and Gloucester's harbor-bar;
The watch-fire of the garrison shone like a setting star.
Now brightly broke the morning on Massachusetts Bay;
Blue wave, and bright green island, rejoicing in the day!
On passed the bark in safety, round isle and headland steep;
No tempest broke above them, no fog-cloud veiled the deep.

Far round the bleak and stormy cape, the venturous Macey passed,
And on Nantucket's naked isle drew up his boat at last.
And now, in log-built cabin, they braved the tough sea-weather;
And there, in peace and quietness, went down life's vale together.
How others drew around them, and how their fishing sped,
Until to every wind of heaven Nantucket's sails were spread;
How pale Want alternated with Plenty's golden smile:—
Behold, is it not written in the annals of the isle?

And yet the isle remaineth a refuge for the free,
As when true-hearted Macey beheld it from the sea:
Free as the winds that winnow her shrubless hills of sand;
Free as the waves that batter along her yielding land
Than hers, at duty's summons, no loftier spirit stirs,
Nor falls o'er human suffering a readier tear than hers.
God bless the sea-beat island! and grant for evermore
That charity and freedom dwell, as now, upon her shore.

When Macey settled upon the island it had an aboriginal population estimated at 1,500; within the ensuing century this gradually decreased to 350; in 1763 a pestilence carried off 222 of these. The last Indian of full blood died in 1821; the last of half-blood in 1854. Hardly ten years had passed before Nantucket became noted for its off-shore fisheries. The date of the capture of the first sperm-whale by Nantucket fishermen is given at the year 1712, and vessels of larger size, fitted for longer voyages, began to be employed. In 1775 Nantucket had 150 whaling ships, which cruised as far as Davis Strait on the north and the coast of Brazil on the south. The war of the Revolution stopped this industry for the time; but after its close the business was revived with still greater activity. In 1791 the first whale-ship from Nantucket was sent to the Pacific. For another half century the business was a prosperous one. But in 1846 the town of Nantucket was well-nigh burnt down; and from that time the whale-fishery from this place grew less and less, until it has come to be practically extinct. Among the causes of this falling off—total as far as Nantucket is concerned—we find the following enumerated by competent authority: "The scarcity of whales from their being so constantly hunted; the increasing use of gas and mineral oils; and the substitution of steel for whalebone in many articles of clothing, umbrellas, parasols, and the like, and of hard-rubber or vulcanite in other cases." In fact, petroleum wells and the india-rubber tree have pretty well driven whales out of the market as producers of oil and whalebone.

The following figures show the fluctuations in the white population of the island at different periods: in 1763, 3,220; in 1774, 4,545, among whom were one clergyman, one lawyer, and two physicians; in 1784, 4,209; in 1800, 5,617; in 1810, 6,807; in 1820, 7,202; in 1840, 9,712; this was the highest point ever reached, and from this time the population has gradually but steadily fallen off. In 1860 it was 6,094; in 1870, 4,123; in 1880, 3,727. As people do not die off rapidly there, the conclusion is inevitable that the emigration to other sections much more than counter-balanced the natural increase of population.

Among all the locations which have been assigned to the Garden of Eden, we almost wonder that nobody has thought of naming the island of Nantucket. It would require no great strain of the imagination to recognize in the waters which encircle the sea-girt island, the "river which went out of Eden to water the garden, whence it was parted and became into four heads." Pison, Hiddekel, and Phrat, would be fairly enough represented by the waters which circle the northern, western, and southern shores, which have tidal and other currents that might well have led an early narrator, who had nothing but his own observations to rely upon, to suppose them to be veritable rivers. And as for the "Second river Gihon, that which compasseth the whole land of Ethiopia," how better could have been named the broad "ocean river" on the east, whose limits no man then could know, and of which we now know that in it is no inch of dry land until we reach the shores of the Eastern Continent, upon which must have been "the whole land of Ethiopia"—no matter how much or how little of the region may have been in the narrator's mind when he put down the score of words in which he describes it.

As for soil and productions, we must acknowledge that the Nantucket which we know does not well correspond with our ideal of the Garden of Eden, wherein "the Lord God made to grow every tree that is pleasant to the sight and good for food"—to say nothing of those two wonderful trees, the "Tree of Life" and the "Tree of Knowledge of Good and Evil.' Few things are rarer on our Nantucket than a tree of any kind. Instead of fruit-trees it now grows summer hotels, and bathing-places.

As for climate, using the word in its widest sense—Nantucket comes well up to our idea of what the Garden of Eden might have been. For a time in winter the weather must be rather cold, since, as we are told, the surrounding waters are so frozen "that weeks go by without the possibility of passing to or from its shores." But it is not so much winter cold as summer heat that tells upon the human frame. Nantucket hardly knows what we call a "hot day." Year after year the highest temperature indicated by the thermometer is 86°, never going above 90°; and even in a hot day "there is a never-failing succession of breezes blowing over the land," which render the markings of the thermometer no correct indications of the temperature as felt by the human system. In a word, never, for more than a few hours in succession, does anybody think it very hot at Nantucket.

The sanitary effects of the climate are set forth in a paragraph which we quote from what we judge to be good authority: "Within a few years there has happened a period when upward of one-ninth of the population of the island was over 70 years old. During one recent year there were 77 deaths, and of this number 72 per cent lived to the age of 73 years. Five of these deaths were of persons over 90 years of age; fifteen had lived over 80 years, and eighteen over 70 years. There were but eleven deaths under 36 years of age, and of these 8 were babes under one year old. The remaining ages were, one of 16 and two of 25. Surely," adds the writer, "there must be something 'life-giving' in the sanitary condition of the island so to prolong existence and lower the death-rate." He says, furthermore, that those who come here only for a brief sojourn find immediate benefits from this sea-girt sanatorium, "which they are often able to note from the very first hour of their coming; persons sojourning here invariably find the appetite and the inclination to sleep largely increased during their visits; and the benefits to health here received are permanent, and to be carried away and enjoyed by the recipient wherever he may go. It will," he says in conclusion, "be a sufficient recommendation of Nantucket, as a place of summer resort, to say that here one may be sure of finding cool nights for sleeping, and never a mosquito to hum his lullaby."

But Newport and Nantasket, Plymouth and Provincetown, Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket, and all the hundreds of fair places around and between, do not constitute the entire New England Coast. Indeed, they form only a very small part of it, as a glance at any map will show. We propose to continue this summer tour of ours to a region where nature works for our delectation with rock rather than with sand and where there are besides ocean shores inland lakes and ponds innumerable: the region, in short of which Whittier, writing "First, Nov. 26th, 1887," says:

"Gems of the Northland, never yet
Were lakes in lovelier valleys set,
Glassing the granites and the pines
That mark New Hampshire's mountain lines.

'And not less fair the winding ways
Of Casco and Penobscot bays.
They seek for happier shores in vain,
Who leave the summer isles of Maine."

Our proposed trip—already accomplished, notes of which are to follow—covered much more territory than this. From Boston we are to go by rail to Lake Winnipiseogee, in New Hampshire; thence to Portland in Maine, and to the celebrated summer resort near by known as Mount Desert Island.

Leaving Nantucket Island, a steamer carries us back, past Martha's Vineyard to Wood's Holl, at the southwestern shoulder of Cape Cod. A detached bar of the Old Colony Railroad gridiron comes down here. We leave the water, and take to the rail, skirting the western and northern sides of Buzzard's Bay. For want of more exciting topics of inquiry we try to find out how this bit of water came by its name. We are told by one that in former times the "buzzard," a pretty big kind of fishing-bird, which some naturalists describe as "an inferior sort of eagle, having a rather small and weak bill," used to abound hereabouts, where they managed to pick up a comfortable living by catching fish. Another informant was quite as confident that a certain Mr. Buzzard had his home hereabouts, and gave his own name to the bay. After all, the stories are not contradictory. Who knows that both are not "founded on fact?" At all events, we get back to Boston by rail, and the Map and Gazetteers tell us of not a few pleasant places along the route which we might have seen had we looked out from the windows of the cars—which we did not do to any great extent.

We reached Boston late at night, but were ready to set out early next morning for "fresh fields and pastures new." The "Boston and Maine Railroad," a union of several lines originally distinct, but now under one general management, foreseeing our wants, and those of many others with more or less money in their purses, has made provision to carry us as far as we propose to go—and much farther, indeed, if we had wished. The Company furnishes excellent facilities for reaching the various points of interest on the route. It operates three distinct lines between Boston and Portland, a distance of a little more than one hundred miles in a straight course. The eastern line runs along the Atlantic coast, rarely at a distance of ten miles. The western line starts from Worcester, not quite fifty miles southwest of Boston, where it connects with other railways running in every direction. About midway between these routes, and nearly parallel with both, is the middle line by which we are to travel. There is rarely anywhere a distance of a score of miles between one of these lines and the one next to it, and all are connected at frequent intervals.

Starting from the main station in Haymarket Square—so-called because not many years ago sloops and barges laden with hay used to come up here and deposit their bulky cargoes—our train heads northwestward toward the Merrimac River, as though we were going to touch at Lowell, twenty-five miles from Boston, and next to it in the State in point of population, having a few hundred more inhabitants than Worcester, its close rival. The Merrimac, rising among the White Mountains in New Hampshire, and having a total length of about 150 miles, is perhaps the most industrious river in the world. Every cubic foot of its water is set to work spinning or weaving, especially at Lowell, at Nashua, fourteen miles, and Manchester, about as much more above Lowell, and at Lawrence ten miles below. These great manufacturing cities have a population of about 160,000; and not one of them could have been more than a quiet agricultural village save for the Merrimac River which stood ready to turn innumerable water-wheels as soon as anybody should ask it so to do.

Lowell, the oldest and the largest of these cities, was never dreamed of seventy years ago. About 1674, John Eliot, "the apostle to the Indians," was preaching to the natives hereabouts. On one spring Sunday he and his companion, Daniel Gookin, were hospitably entertained "at the wigwam of one called Wannalancet, near Pawtucket Falls in the Merrimack River." Gookin, in his "Historical Collections of the Indians in New England," gives an instructive account of Eliot's method of Christianizing the Indians. We may, with no great stretch of the imagination, believe that he describes what actually took place on that bright May Sunday in 1674, in the very centre of the spot at the foot of the Pawtucket Falls, around which has within the memory of men now living grown up the "City of Spindles." Gookin says:

"Besides preaching to them, he framed two catechisms in the Indian tongue, containing the principles of the Christian religion—a lesser for children, and a larger for older persons. These also he communicated unto the Indians gradually, a few questions at a time, according unto their capacity to receive them. His manner was, after he had begun the meeting with prayer, then first to catechise the children. Then he would encourage them with some small gift, as an apple or a small biscuit, which he caused to be brought for the purpose. And by his prudence and winning practice the children were induced with delight to get into their memories the principles of the Christian religion. When the catechising was past he would preach to them upon some portion of Scripture for about three-quarters of an hour, and then give liberty to the Indians to propound questions; and, in the close, finish all with prayer."

What with preliminary catechising the children, a sermon of three-quarters of an hour, subsequent catechising of the grown-up Indians, and the interspersed prayers, we imagine that this first Christian service of which we have any record held at what is now Lowell, must have occupied some four or five hours. Religious services there are in our days much shorter. A century and a half passes before we get another glimpse at these Pawtucket Falls on the Merrimac, which effectually barred all passage up the river for boats or even fish. But this stoppage of fish was a godsend to the Indians, for it gave them, in proper season, the best fishing-ground in the region. They could literally scoop them up by the boat-load with their bare hands from among the broken rocks at the foot of the Falls, where their upward course was stopped; for we suppose nothing that swims could ascend these falls, or rather rapids, which in the space of three or four miles have a descent of perhaps fifty feet. It happens that the writer of these pages spent several years of his boyhood at Lowell, then rapidly growing into a manufacturing town; and he has seen the fish (notably lamprey-eels) caught by the barrelful by hand. Only once since—and that more than twenty years ago—has he seen Lowell. He would then have scarcely known the place. Still less would he recognize it now, as he found it described in a recent work, which he happened to have with him.

" Pawtucket and Wamesit, where the Indians resorted in the fishing season, are now Lowell, the city of spindles and Manchester of America, which sends its cotton cloth around the globe. The water power was not utilized until 1821, when some Boston men set up a factory here. In 1823 the Merrimac cotton mills were started. Now Lowell's textile factories employ a capital of nearly $20,000,000, running 25,000 looms and almost 1,000,000 spindles. They produce annually 240,000,000 yards of cotton cloth, 10,000,000, yards of woollens, 3,500,000 yards of carpetings, 120,000 shawls, 16,500,000 pairs of hose, and 100,000,000 yards of cloth are dyed and printed. In a word, Lowell weaves enough cotton cloth to furnish every man, woman, and child in the United States with five yards a year. Lowell was incorporated as a city in 1836; in 1840 its population was 21,000; in 1860, 37,000; in 1870, 41,000; in 1880, 60,000; and is now fully 70,000, the larger half of whom are employed in the mills, the wheels of all of which are turned by the water of the Merrimac. It would be a curious inquiry how many hundreds of thousands of human beings could do the mechanical work performed by the Merrimac at this one point. And, moreover, at Lawrence, ten miles below, the river does quite half as much work as at Lowell, and fully as much more at Nashua and Manchester, a few miles above."

These speculations occupy our thoughts while we are carried inland to the beautiful lake Winnipiseogee. This lake, which lies about 470 feet above the sea level, is about 25 miles long, the greatest breadth being less than half as much, and its surface consists to a good degree of narrow bays or coves jutting up into the land in all sorts of directions; not seldom, if these bays had shoved a little further, they would have made their way into other little lakes, or ponds. As it is, however, we suppose that their waters, fed by brooks innumerable, find their own way into Winnipiseogee, and thence into the Merrimac, of which it is the main reservoir, keeping its waters at an almost equal volume throughout the year, and year after year, much as Superior and Michigan and Huron and Erie do for the mighty St. Lawrence. Indeed, were it not for the storehouse of Lake Winnipiseogee, the Merrimac could not have become the useful servitor to man which it now is. It would have been a mountain torrent overflowing in the spring, and with but scanty water in summer and autumn.

One may make a tolerably good map of Winnipiseogee by laying his left hand and wrist, palm downward, upon a sheet of paper, spreading the fingers, and marking around them with a pencil. But he must not omit to adorn thumb, fingers, and wrist with island jewels to his heart's content, for their actual number is almost past counting, and their names, in Indian, Yankee, and what not, afford material for many an hour of philological study.

The most admirable Timothy Dwight, for a full score of years (1795 to 1816) President of Yale College, was wont to spend his annual vacation in what were then considered long excursions; and long they were if we consider the weeks rather than the number of miles which they occupied. Besides his merits as a theologian, Dwight was an ardent lover of nature, and a poet of no mean rank. We are told that, in these excursions, "he journeyed through the neighboring States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and New York; visited the White Mountains, Lake George, Montauk, Niagara, the Kaatskills, etc., keeping notes of his journeys, written out in the form of letters, which were published after his death, under the title of 'Travels in New England and New York.'"

Of one of the earliest of these journeys we find the following prefatory mention in Dennie's "Farmer's Museum," published at Walpole, N. H., under date of September 25th, 1797: "This morning the truly respectable President of Yale College proceeded from this village on a journey to the Upper Coos; whence, we understand, he intends passing over the White Mountains. His rugged tour will, we hope, be relieved by those civilities which are due to the gentleman, the scholar, and the unaffected Christian."

It was not in this journey, but in one made ten or more years later, that Dwight first saw Lake Winnipiseogee; he expresses his wonder that while Lake George was annually visited by numerous people from New England, "Winnipisaukee, notwithstanding all its accumulation of splendor and elegance, is almost as much unknown to the inhabitants of this country as if it lay on the eastern side of the Caspian." The simple fact is that seventy or even fifty years ago Winnipiseogee was actually farther from Boston than any spot in the Heart of the Rockies now is. All this has been changed; and now "this most exquisite jewel in the lake necklace of New England," as it has been well styled, is within a few hours of any point in our Eastern States.

Of some of the neighboring lakes Thomas Starr King—true poet as he was, though we have never seen a line of verse composed by him—writes: "There is Great Squam, singularly striped with long, narrow, crinkling islands, and Little Squam, unbroken by islands, fringed and shadowed by thickets of the richest foliage that are disposed around its western shore in a long sweeping curve-line which will be remembered as a delightful melody of the eye. . . . The larger lake, though not a fourth part so large as Winnipiseogee, is doubtless the most beautiful of all the small sheets of water in New England; and it has been pronounced by one gentleman, no less careful in his words than cultivated in his tastes, more charmingly embosomed in the landscape than any lake of equal size he had ever seen in Europe or America."

In default of any description of our own we quote a few paragraphs from Mr. Ernest Ingersoll:

"Red Hill has a summit at the northern end over 2,000 feet high, the picture visible from which, as many men have gazed upon the noted landscapes of the world will tell you, is unequalled in either continent for that enduring quality which we call loveliness. Its extent alone is worth noting. Kearsarge and Monadnock are plainly visible at the southwest, and in the west the eye reaches far over the hills toward the Connecticut. Turning to the right, where Squam Lake is glittering in the foreground of the west, Mt. Cardigan, the hills along the Connecticut, and more to the northward, the immense mass of Moosilauke are seen; then the Franconia Mountains far away over nearer ranges. The huge dome of Sandwich cuts off the north for a space, hiding the White Mountains and their neighbors as far as Carrigain, of which a portion only is revealed, with a part of the slide-marked Tri-pyramid at its right. And so the eye is led around to the shapely broadside of the Ossipee, and the circle is complete. What fills this circle as you rest your gaze in the southward? Winnipiseogee—'fashioned with every elegance of figure, bordered with the most beautiful winding shores, and studded with a multitude of islands,' as Dwight expressed it; 'liquid silver run into a vessel of unequal surface,' as Isaacs fancied it to be; 'islands and shores that fringe the water with winding lines and long narrow capes of green,' as Starr King paints it in words, more truly than can be done by the pencil of the artist."

From Winnipiseogee one may well hesitate whether to go first to the White Mountains a little northward, or to turn eastward, toward the Atlantic coast. We choose the latter; and what is styled "the Northern Division of the Boston and Maine Railroad" is ready to take us whither we will. We have elected to make Portland, the principal seaport in Maine, our next objective point.

Of Portland, as a city, there is not very much to be said here. We read in a reliable Gazetteer, that it is beautifully situated on a peninsula at the southwestern extremity of Casco Bay. It was first named Falmouth; was settled by an English colony in 1632, and was three times burned in the wars with the French and Indians. It possesses broad, shaded streets, and handsome public and private edifices, at the same time forming a centre to the numerous watering-places within reach, where the purest of sea air can be found The harbor is one of the best on the Atlantic coast; the anchorage being protected on every side by land, the communication with the ocean easy and direct, and the depth sufficient for the largest ships; although in a northern latitude (about 44° N., or some 140 miles north of Boston), it is never entirely closed by ice, even in the coldest weather."

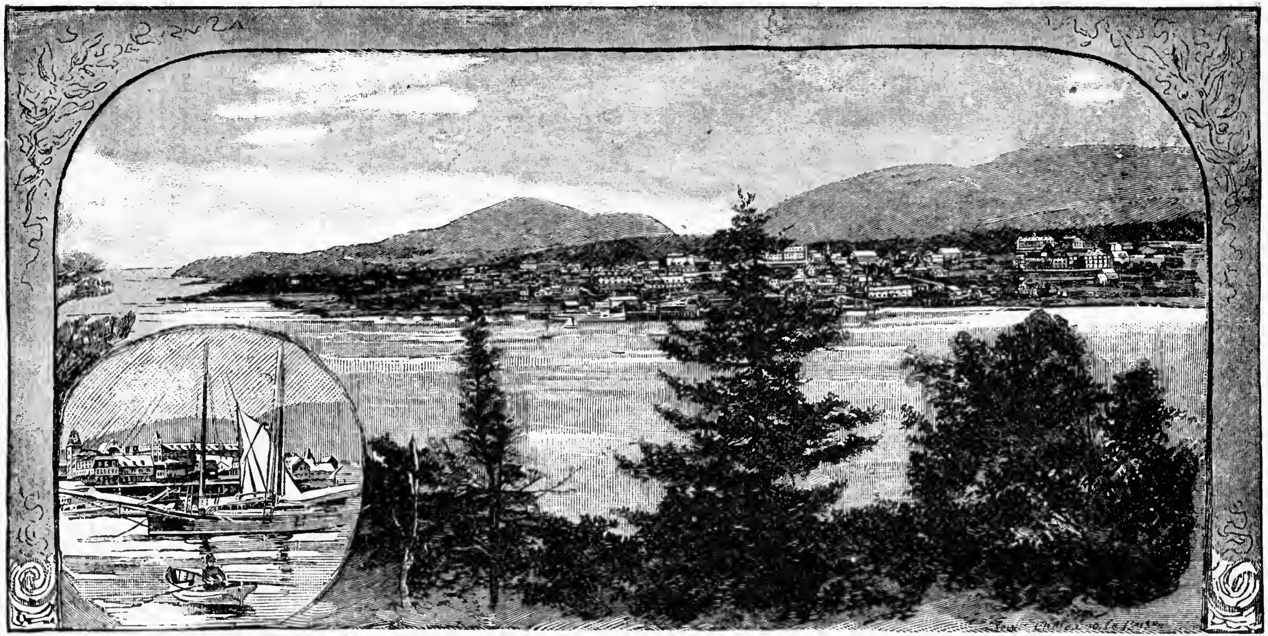
Simply as a harbor, we doubt if there is in the world a finer one than this of Portland. Not improbably, some generations hence, Portland may come to be a great commercial city, being the natural emporium for the trade between the Old World and that vast region which we now know as the "Dominion of Canada." But, as it is, the growth of Portland has not been a rapid one. In 1830 its population was 12,000; in 1840, 15,000; in 1850, 20,000; in 1860, 26,000 in 1870, 31,000; in 1880, 34,000. Its population in 1889 was estimated to be about 40,000.

From Portland there is ready communciation by steamer all along the Atlantic coast as far south as Boston, and as far north as Eastport, on the eastern frontier of the United States, where it abuts on the Canadian province of New Brunswick and looks across the Bay of Fundy to the Canadian peninsula of Nova Scotia, which, with New Brunswick, would at the present time be worth more to us than all the rest of what we used to know as "Upper" and "Lower" Canada. The area is not very large, being about equal to that of the State of New York, with a population of something less than a million —about one-fifth of that of the entire Dominion of Canada.

Our next point, going from Portland, is Mount Desert Island, just off the coast of Maine, from which it is separated by a channel a mile wide. We might have gone thither (that is to a point on the neighboring mainland opposite the island) by rail; but we have decided to go by water. Our steamer (her name is the "City of Richmond") leaves Portland about midnight, upon the arrival of the train which started from Boston at seven in the morning, and is due at Bar Harbor, on Mount Desert, at noon the next day. As morning breaks we find ourselves thridding the islets which stud Penobscot Bay, which, says Mr. Noah Brooks, "are covered, for the most part, with fir, spruce, and larch. The shores are bold and rocky, and rich tones of brown, gray, and purple are reflected in the silvery tide." As the sun begins to approach mid-heaven we see ahead of us the summits of a cluster of hills. These are the precipices of Bar Harbor Head, the southernmost point of the island of Mount Desert, surmounted by a lighthouse.

The island is about fifteen miles long with an extreme breadth of twelve miles, and has a resident population of about 4,000. It embraces seven parallel ranges of granite mountains, with deep and narrow valleys between. The loftiest point attains an altitude of nearly 1,800 feet above its base, against which break the long Atlantic swells. This is the highest point of land along the entire Atlantic coast. One of these valleys, which is cut down clear to the water's edge, almost divides the island, "giving it the shape of a pair of well-stuffed saddle-bags." The northern extremity of the island consists mainly of irregular foot-hills, with an area of arable land along the shore, which here approaches the mainland so closely that the interval is crossed by a bridge. At the southwestern extremity of the island is an almost level plateau. Upon the southern and eastern shores the mountains come sheer down to the ocean, often without a yard of beach. Mount Desert is growing year by year more and more a place of summer resort. At present, if one wants to pass a few weeks in a manner different from that to which he has been accustomed, this is the place for him. How long this will continue to be the case no man can say: most likely not for any very long time.

Even now one, if he so pleases, can live at Mount Desert very much as he might have done at Newport or Coney Island, at Saratoga or Cape May, or anywhere else; for we are told, upon authority of a little Handbook put forth a year ago by the "Passenger Department of the Grand Trunk Railway," that the island has a prosperous community engaged in cod and mackerel fishing, and has some twenty excellent hotels." We may rest assured that the Bar Harbor Bonifaces catch fatter fish on shore than do their neighbors who fling their hooks for cod and mackerel into the briny deep. Not very



BAR HARBOR AND MOUNT DESERT, ME.

long ago Mr. Charles Dudley Warner gave a lively picture of society life on Mount Desert. He says:

"Except in some of the cottages at Bar Harbor, it might be said that society was on a 'lark.' The young ladies liked to appear in nautical and lawn-tennis toilets. As to the young gentlemen, if there were any dress-coats on the island, they took pains not to display them, but delighted in appearing in the evening promenade in the nondescript suits that made them so conspicuous in the morning—the favorite being a dress of stripes, with a striped jockey-cap to match. . . .

"But the principal occupation at Bar Harbor was out-door exercise: incessant activity in driving, walking, boating, rowing and sailing, bowling, tennis, and flirtation. There was always an excursion somewhere, by land or sea; watermelon parties; races in the harbor, in which the girls took part; drives on buckboards, which they organized. Indeed, the canoe and the buckboard were in constant demand. This activity, this desire to row and walk and drive, and to become acquainted, was all due to the air. It has a peculiar quality. It composes the nerves to sleep; it stimulates to unwonted exertion. The fanatics of the place say that the fogs are not damp as at other resorts on the coast. Fashion can make even a fog dry. But the air is delicious. In this latitude, and by reason of the hills, the atmosphere is pure and elastic and stimulating, and it is softened by the presence of the sea."

Commenting upon the foregoing passage, Mr. Ernest Ingersoll says: "We came to know (and hereby testify to) the solemn truth of all that, excepting perhaps the 'dry fogs,' of which we heard much, but saw nothing, though it was a good year for fogs."

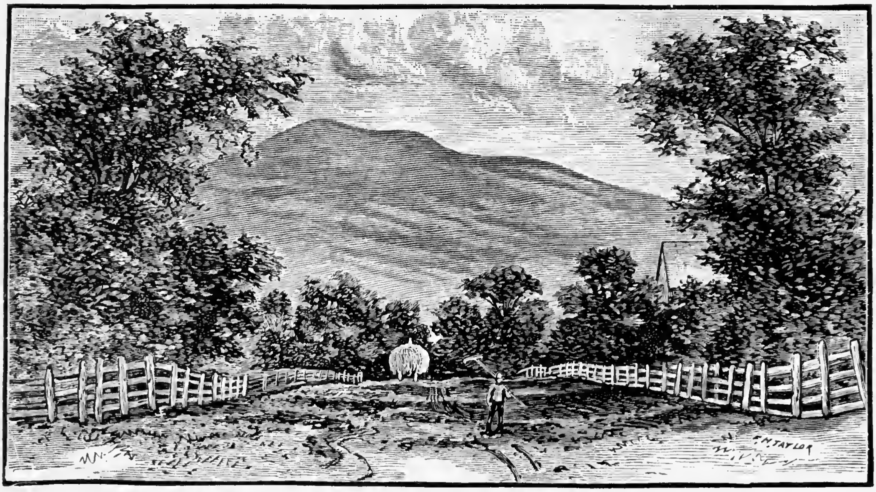
Let us admit, *causa argumenti*, that Mount Desert may be an Arcadia for those who carry such a thing about with them; if otherwise, they will not find it on the New England Coast, or anywhere else.

For a few sentences more we must stand indebted to Mr. Ernest Ingersoll, although we quote with very much condensation:

"Nowhere in America are lovelier summer houses. The island is almost engirdled with a row of cottages, great and small. But the word 'cottage' here is as expansive as at Newport or Saratoga. The rise in the value of real estate has been most extraordinary. A lot of forty acres was bought in 1880 for $2,500, which has since paid its owner $46,000. Land at Bar Harbor is now cheap at $25,000 an acre, and for some $125,000 has been paid. Desirable cottages have appreciated in proportion; one small one was pointed out as having gone from $3,000 to $11,000 between 1882 and 1885. The people of the island are thriving greatly under this new state of things, so that Mount Desert, from being one of the most forsaken, hardest-working and poorest-living corners of Yankee-land, has become one of the most prosperous and easy."

THE WHITE MOUNTAINS.

THIS remarkable range, called by enthusiastic travellers "The Switzerland of America," and known to the Indians as Agiocochook, "The Mountain of the Snowy Forehead and Home of the Great Spirit," is situated in Coos and Grafton Counties, N. H., and consists of a plateau 1,600 feet above sea level and having the general form of a parallelogram, from which rise several clusters of peaks, a number of which are among the highest in the United States east of the Rocky Mountains. It is believed that the first white man who visited them was Walter Neal, who left sufficient records to establish the fact that he was at least partially familiar with the region as early as 1632. Shortly before the Revolutionary war an attempt was made to explore it, with the result of the discovery of the Notch, and after the war considerable attention was turned toward it. That the wonders of the locality had become somewhat known and appreciated at this period, seems evidenced by the fact that a shelter, where warmth, food, and liquors could be obtained, was erected in 1803. The summit of Mount Washington, the highest peak in the eastern cluster, having an altitude of 6,285 feet, was rendered accessible by a bridle path in 1819, and by 1852 travel had grown to an extent that warranted the erection of a hotel. The region then attained a popularity as a summer mountain resort that has never since flagged in the least. As there are two periods in the year when the grandeur of the scenery is presented in its most perfect wealth of tinge and cloud-effects: the latter half of June and the first half of October; it has become a favorite custom with tourists and summer travellers to precede or supplement a season at the popular springs or seaside resorts with a trip to the White Mountains. The location of the principal attractions is such that they may be reached by any one of half a dozen or more routes and from as many starting points. But the course most generally pursued is to begin the ascent at North Conway, N. H., near Mount Kearsarge, which belongs to the southeastern cluster. The village overlooks the intervals of the Saco River, and is surrounded on all sides by mountains. East of it is the Rattlesnake Ridge of hills, Middle Mountain topping them all, and but a short distance northward is Mount Kearsarge or Pequawket, rising to a height of 3,367 feet. To the westward is seen the cluster called the Moat Mountains, with the peak of Chocorua, "The Old Bear," a mass of granite with but little vegetation, 3,358 feet high, in the distance. The chief attraction of the place is the magnificent view of the valley of the Saco, where the great dome of Mount Washington, changing almost hourly in appearance, forms an impenetrable curtain across the vista. In the immediate neighborhood of North Conway are the Artist's Falls, a pretty descent of water in the midst of a patch of forest; Echo Lake, a beautiful sheet of water lying at the foot of Moat Mountains, and on the opposite side of the river; the Cathedral, a cavity in the granite, with a wall eighty feet high, which, inclining outward, forms a magnificent arch that is met on the other side by a wall of great trees; the White Horse displayed upon the perpendicular sides of the cliffs that extend a distance of four or five miles and are from 100 to 800 feet high; Diana's Bath, a little to the north of the Cathedral, and Mount Kearsarge, the highest peak south of the mountains in this direction, from which the best view of the entire White Mountain range is obtained.



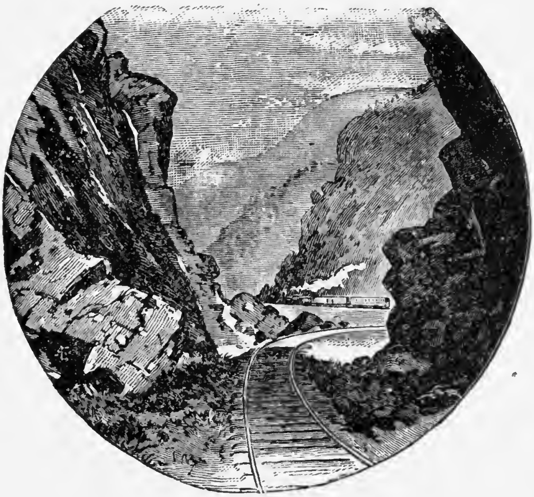
MOAT MOUNTAIN FROM NORTH CONWAY, N. H.

While the spectacles of natural grandeur that are visible at every turn are thrilling and awe-inspiring, the supreme pleasure of a trip to this region is to be found in the ascent of Mount Washington. The bridle path alluded to went up the mountain side in almost a straight line; but the carriage-road, begun in 1855, completed to The Ledge—four miles from the base—in 1856, and opened for travel from base to summit in 1861, winds round the ledge and up the mountain side, making nearly double the distance. In 1866 the construction of a railroad to the summit was begun, and three years afterward completed. Of these routes the carriage-road is doubtless the most popular; but many tourists make the journey of eight miles at least one way by rail. During the four first miles of the carriage-road trip, but little is seen save the forest. At the Ledge, however, the vehicle emerges from the thick woods, and the first glories of the ascent appear. The road winds between Mounts Washington, Clay, and Jefferson, passes eastward at the Great Gulf, and then rises over several plateaus till it reaches the level ground of the summit. By making the ascent by way of the old bridle-path the tourist will pass over the tops of four lower summits of the ridge after leaving the Notch, each one a little higher than the preceding, and from the Glen directly up Mount Washington itself. On the right is an enormous ravine, down which a singular view is afforded of Mounts Jefferson, Adams, and Madison from base to crown. The Glen is eight miles from Gorham, and among the attractions of its vicinity are the Imp, a peak of the Moriah Mountain whose summit resembles a grotesque human face from a distance; Mount Carter, 3,000 feet high and an unbroken mass of forest from base to crown; the great "Gulf of Mexico," across whose waters fall the changing shadows of Mount Clay according as its upper regions are clear or enveloped with clouds; the pyramidal peak of Mount Adams, the grandest of all in shape and impressiveness; and Mount Madison. The remarkable effect which this scenery has upon the imagination will be greatly intensified when it is known or remembered that Mount Washington is 6,285 feet high, Mount Clay 5,400, Mount Jefferson 5,700, Mount Adams 5,800, and Mount Madison 5,361. Beside these peaks there are in the vicinity the Garnet Pools, a series of basins in the Peabody River near the Gorham road, exhibiting many curious phases of natural rock sculpture; Thompson's Falls on the North Conway road, and two miles below the Glen House, a series of charming cascades and water-slides; Emerald Pool; the Glen Ellis Fall, where the Ellis River shoots twenty feet over the cliff and then falls sixty feet into a dark-green pool; Crystal Cascade, one mile from Glen Ellis Fall and three from the Glen House, where the water, part of which comes from the very dome of Mount

Washington, has a fall of eighty feet, seen to the best advantage from the high bank opposite the foot of the fall; and Tuckerman's Ravine, which carries the water from Mount Washington to the Crystal Cascade, an enormous gulf in the southerly side of the peak with walls 1,000 feet high, and containing a beautiful snow cavern formed by a spring stream flowing through the mass of snow several hundred feet deep that collects there during the winter season.

From the village of Gorham, N. H., on the eastern side of the mountains, the ascent of Mount Washington can be made in one day by way of the Glen House. The distance from Gorham to the Notch is thirty-two miles, and the Cherry Mountain road abounds in pretty spectacles. The beauties of Mount Moriah, Mount Carter, and the Imp are here seen to better advantage than elsewhere; the Pilot range of mountains rise on the northwest; while at the east and southeast stand the Androscoggin hills, from the highest of which, Mount Hayes, 2,500 feet high, a magnificent view is obtained of Mounts Adams and Jefferson, while Washington itself from this point seems invested with additional grandeur. Fronting Mount Hayes is Mount Surprise, a spur of Moriah, 1,200 feet high, whose crown is easy of access by foot or horse. At its summit there is no obstruction to the view of the "Presidential" mountains, and there is no other eminence where one can get so near those monarchs of rock and forest. This point also commands a grand view of the great cleft between Mount Carter and the White Mountains, through which the Peabody River flows, as the summit of Mount Willard commands the Notch and the Saco River. A capital pedestrian tour for those who can depend upon their legs may be made from the Alpine House at Gorham by riding to the base of Mount Madison, at the foot of Randolph Hill, then footing it up Madison, passing over its summit, continuing around or over the sharp pyramid of Adams, over Jefferson between the humps of Clay, and thence to the summit of Washington. The tramp can be made between sunrise and sunset. Another attraction of Gorham, and by many considered the best, is Berlin Falls, six miles from the Alpine House. The entire scenery is wild and noble. The Androscoggin River here pours down a rocky gateway. The mountains seem to overhang the stream, which, having the appearance of a long, swift rapid, is broken here and there by a direct and powerful fall. In the course of a mile the river descends nearly 200 feet, and as the road winds directly by the river the entire panorama may be viewed without the effort of rock climbing.

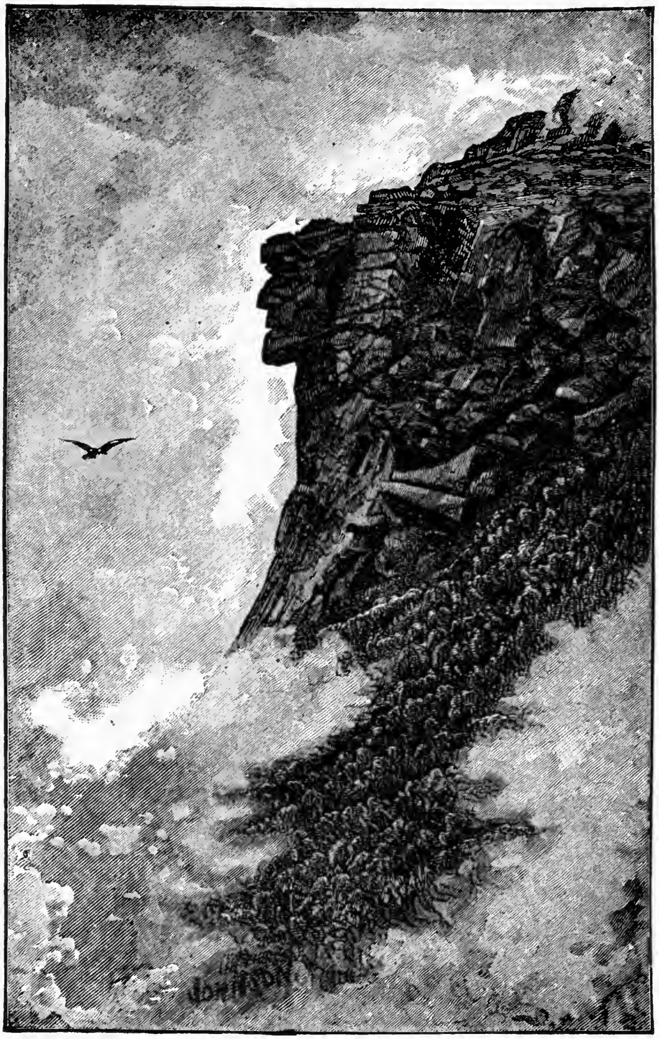
The ascent of Mount Washington may also be made from the Crawford House, and at one time this route was very popular. A bridle-path leads over the summits of Mount Clinton, Mount Pleasant, Mount Franklin, and Mount Monroe, but the railroad and carriage-path from the Glen House are now usually preferred. The ascent by rail may be made from the Crawford House, the Twin Mountain House, and the Fabyan House. The grade of the road is 3,596 feet in three miles, and in some places is one foot in every three. The rails are three in number, bolted to a heavy trestlework of timber, the centre one resembling a ladder, between whose rounds the cogs of a wheel on the engine find an unfailing purchase. However great the inclination of the cars may be, the seats maintain a uniformly horizontal position. The ascent is made in an hour and a half.

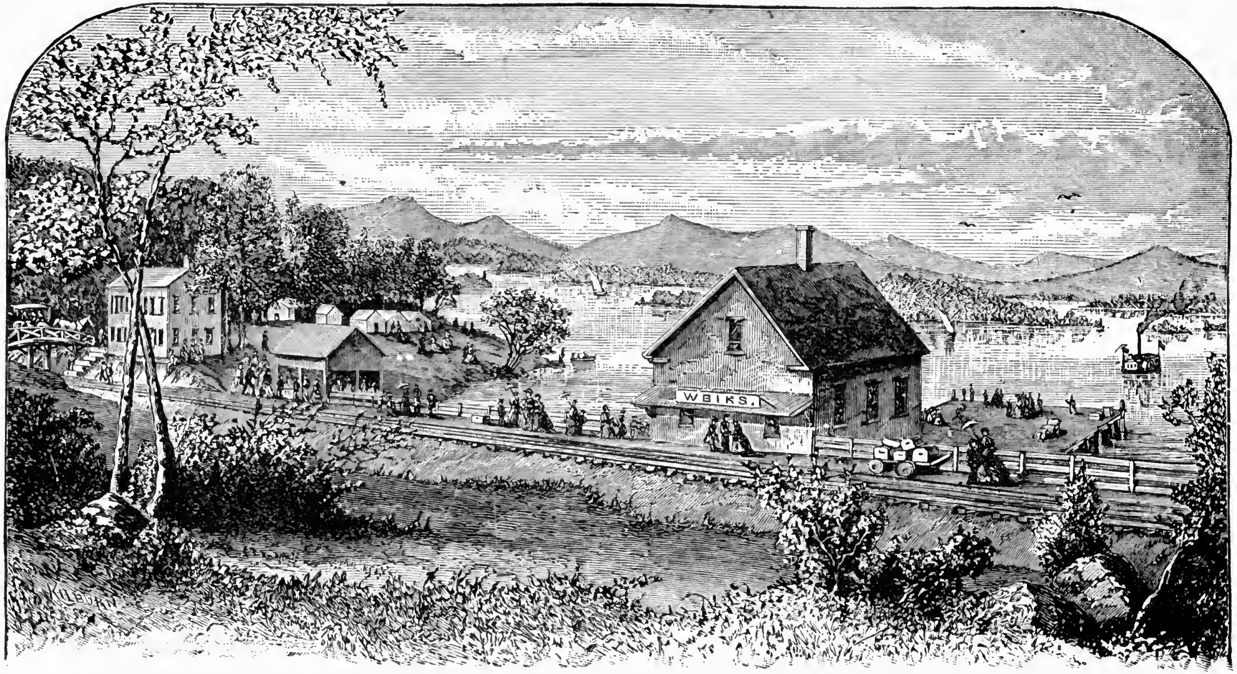


THROUGH THE FRANCONIA NOTCH.

The Notch, the gate to which is near the Crawford House, is a great gorge in the mountains which rise on either side to a height of 2,000 feet. At the Gateway these mountains, Webster on the right and Willey on the left, are only twenty-two feet apart. Ethan's Pond lies placidly at the top of Willey Mountain, and the great stone face of the Old Maid of the Mountain peers out from a spur of Mount Webster. The Devil's Pulpit is near the gate of the Notch, and close by are the profiles of the Infant and the Young Man of the Mountain. Near the summit of Mount Willard is the Devil's Den, a cavern accessible by means of ropes. Proceeding a short distance down the Notch, the tourist meets the Flume, a narrow, deep gorge through which the waters rush with great rapidity; and the most beautiful of all the falls on this side the mountain, the Silver Cascade, which is seen to admirable advantage on a moonlight evening. Three miles beyond the Willey Memorial House is the Sylvan Glade Cataract, considered by veteran travellers the most beautiful and impressive waterfall in the entire range of mountains. A mile above the cataract are several minor falls, the chief of which is the Sparkling Cascade. The following is the name and height of each mountain of the range, in its order, beginning at the Notch: Mount Webster, 4,000 feet; Mount Jackson, 4,100; Mount Clinton, 4,200; Mount Pleasant, 4,800; Mount Franklin, 4,900; Mount Monroe, 5,400; Mount Washington, 6,285; Mount Clay, 5,400; Mount Jefferson, 5,700; Mount Adams, 5,800; and Mount Madison, 5,400.

The Franconia Mountains, though totally distinct and peculiar, are usually considered a part of the White Mountain range, and are always visited in connection with it. Two roads lead from Bethlehem to the Notch in this range, and both extend over a high hill, from the summit of which the whole of the range is comprehended in front, with the head of Lafayette rising above them all, and the dark portal of the notch appears on the right. The Profile House is in the immediate vicinity of Echo Lake, a sheet of water of great depth and transparency, surrounded by green hills, and navigable by small boats; Cannon Mountain, or, as it is sometimes called, Profile Mountain, receiving its first name from the resemblance to a great gun which a rock upon its summit exhibits, and the second from the great stone face, or Old


THE OLD MAN OF THE MOUNTAIN.


WBIKS.
KILBURN

THE FRANCONIA MOUNTAINS. FROM WEIR'S STATION.

Man of the Mountain, that appears on the southern extremity of its crown; Eagle Cliff, a huge columnar crag, separated from the rest of the mountain, and rising perpendicularly, the former eyrie of a family of eagles; Bald Mountain; the Cascade; Profile Lake, known also as Ferrier's Pond and the Old Man's Washbowl; and Mount Lafayette, 1,200 feet below Mount Washington in height. Among the other attractions of the Franconia range are the Basin, a granite bowl, sixty feet in circumference and fifteen feet deep, into which the waters of the Pemigewasset River, flowing from Profile Lake, and passing over a rocky ledge, fall; the Cascades below the outlet of the Basin; the great Flume, where the walls of rock approach within ten feet of each other, and hold in their unrelenting embrace about midway to the bottom a huge granite boulder weighing several tons; the Cascade below it; the Pool, directly in front of the hotel; and Georgianna, or Harvard, Falls, two miles below the Flume House, where the water plunges over the precipice in two leaps of eighty feet each.

Another great curiosity of this part of New Hampshire is a remarkable pass, some sixty miles north of the White Mountains, and narrower than either of the great notches of the White Hills, known as the Dixville Notch. About half-way through the notch is Table Rock, a lofty, projecting pinnacle, from which one may look into Maine, Vermont, and Canada.

To fully enjoy the marvellous scenery and grand monuments of nature in the White Mountains, at least two weeks' time should be allowed. And even with that and a constant riding and tramping, there will be much left over for a second season. But whether the weird region is visited once or more frequently, there can never be any lessening of interest, exhaustion of novelty, or regret at the expenditure of time, money, and energy.

THE RANGELEY LAKES.

THE Rangeley Lakes, often called the Androscoggin Lakes, are principally located in the western portion of the State of Maine, but about one-half of the lowest lake in the chain is situated in New Hampshire. There are six lakes in this remarkable series, but they are all connected by streams and form a continuous water-course for almost sixty miles. For the most part they lie in a densely wooded region, and they are among the most picturesque sheets of water to be found in the country.

The one unfortunate thing pertaining to them is the character of the names which they have received. They are known as the Oquossoc (the original Rangeley), Cupsuptic, Mooselucmaguntic, Molechunkamunk, Welokennebacook, and Umbagog. The latter is partly in New Hampshire, and along its southern shore agricultural operations have been commenced. In the valley of the Magalloway River, one of the connecting streams, and around a considerable portion of Oquossoc Lake, there are also a good many farms. The remainder of this large territory remains in its original condition of a wilderness.

While the region of the Rangeley Lakes is very beautiful and will prove attractive to all lovers of Nature, it is especially adapted to meet the wants of those who like to spend a considerable portion of their time in hunting and fishing. There are several good hotels, though they are not as numerous as they are at many summer resorts. But for parties who wish to "camp out," hunt, fish, take long walks, and spend most of their time in the open air it is a magnificent place. It is one of the very best sections for the sportsman, both as regards the quality of the game, and the degree of success attending its pursuit. Animals of various kinds, and in large numbers, are found in the adjacent mountains, while beautiful trout and other fine varieties of fish abound in the lakes. During the last of June and the first half of July, flies and mosquitoes are somewhat troublesome, but by proper precautions their attacks may be largely prevented. The lakes are from 1,250 to 1,500 feet above the sea, and lie among high mountains. Consequently the air is cool, even in summer, and an extra supply of warm clothing is indispensable to the comfort of the tourist who takes his vacation in this elevated region.

The Rangeley Lakes are easily reached by the Grand Trunk Railroad. Portland, Maine, is the best point of departure. There are several trains per day, which are met at Bethel, about seventy miles from Portland, by stages which make the trip to Cambridge, New Hampshire, in about five hours. This town is located at the foot of Lake Umbagog. The route is through a broken country, but the scenery, including the valley of the Androscoggin River with its surrounding mountains, Mount Washington, and quite a portion of the White Mountain Range, is extremely beautiful and makes the trip, in spite of minor disadvantages, one of the finest in New England. From this point the other lakes of the chain are easily reached. Steamers ply upon the lakes, and upon the largest rivers in the vicinity, and boats are readily obtained on the smaller streams. Where water communication is impossible, teams are supplied by a local transportation company.

The tourist who enters the Rangeley Lakes region, should not fail to visit the Dixville Notch, which is in the western portion of the district therein included. This notch is in the State of New Hampshire, and sharply divides the mountain range to its very foundations. The ravine is a mile and a quarter in length, and much narrower than the celebrated Franconia Notch in the White Mountains. The cliffs rise almost perpendicularly and present a general aspect of grandeur combined with desolation and decay. From Table Rock, which rises some 800 feet above the road and which is only about eight feet wide at the top, a magnificent view may be obtained. Points in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Canada, are easily seen from this elevated station. The mica-slate of which the cliffs are composed, is being rapidly disintegrated by the action of the elements, and many of the pinnacles of rock by which they are adorned, are being destroyed. The road through the Notch was constructed with great difficulty, and a large annual outlay is required to keep it in repair. Just outside the Notch, at the eastern end, there is an entire change of scene. Instead of the rugged, crumbling walls of the desolate chasm, we see the beautiful and luxuriant verdure of a meadow, through which flows a lovely stream. The mountains stand around, looking like solemn guards to keep the peaceful vale from harm. In the woods, at only a little distance from the road, there is also a series of cascades which are extremely beautiful. Many other objects of interest will be found by the tourist who will take the time and trouble to explore this attractive region. A hotel in the vicinity furnishes excellent accommodations to visitors, and those who have spent some time here seem agreed that while the locality is not as famous as some of the White Mountain resorts, its attractions are unsurpassed by those of its more widely-known rivals.

ALONG THE HUDSON.

THE Hudson, or North River, is one of the most majestic and important of North American streams. It rises in Essex County, New York, in the Adirondac Mountain region, about 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. After a devious course among the mountains it flows toward the east until it reaches Sandy Hill. Thence it continues nearly due south for 190 miles, when it empties into New York Bay. It is formed, in the mountains, by the union of two small streams and in its course receives several small tributuries before it reaches Cohoes. Here the Mohawk, a larger stream than the Hudson itself, unites with it. At Kingston, 88 miles from New York, the Wallkill River is received and many small streams join it at different points.

The Hudson River is 300 miles in length, and is a tidal stream for nearly half its course. At Albany, 145 miles from the mouth of the river, the tide rises one foot. The fall in the bed of the river in this long distance is only five feet. Large steamers pass as far as Hudson, 116 miles up the river, and boats of considerable size are able to reach Troy, six miles above Albany. Beyond this place, sloops and smaller craft pass to Cohoes, which is the highest point to which the river is navigable.

Between Hudson and Albany there are various obstructions, principally caused by shifting sand, which interfere with rapid navigation. To remove these obstacles the State of New York has at various times made large appropriations, and the United States government has expended more than $1,500,000. The United States also has erected more than twenty light-houses along the banks of the river.

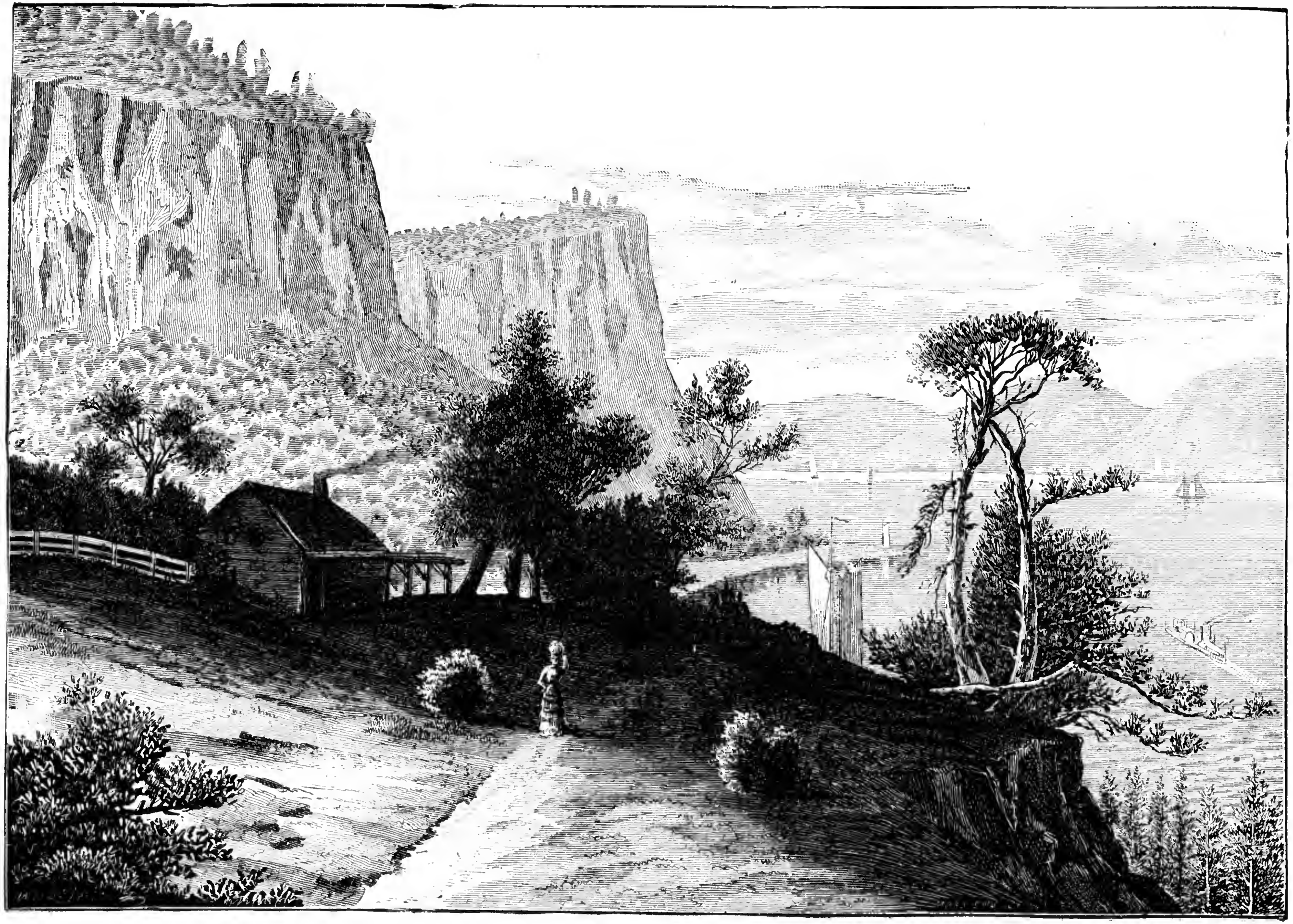
Above the point to which the river is navigable, the scenery along the shores is beautiful, and in many places romantic. There are also various rapids in the river and near Sandy Hill, about fifty miles north of Albany, are Glens Falls, which are well worth a visit. Here is a deep and wild ravine, 900 feet in length, through which the river rushes over a rocky bed down a descent of fifty feet. Not only is it a picturesque locality, but it also has an interest to a multitude of readers from the fact that it was the scene of some of the important incidents in Cooper's famous novel, "The Last of the Mohicans." The place has been well fitted up as a summer resort and is quite popular with a large number of visitors. As the region of the Adirondacs is entered the scenery is pleasantly diversified and in many places is extremely picturesque and delightful.

Many thousands of tourists who take a trip up the Hudson do not go beyond the point which gives the most convenient access to the Catskill Mountains, which have become a sort of Mecca to pilgrims on the Hudson, whether from the South or the North. Still, large numbers wisely extend the trip from New York to Troy. Unfortunately, many of these tourists have but little time at their command and are consequently obliged to pass many interesting places and a great deal of beautiful scenery unnoticed.

The trip along the Hudson can be made either by rail or by boat. If made by daylight the latter will give the most extensive views. Several steamers leave New York daily, except Sunday, for various points up the river—some of them going as far as Troy. On the east bank, the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad runs from New York to Albany, while on the west bank the West Shore Railroad takes passengers to the same city.

Passing up the river on one of the large steamers, said to be the finest and the fastest which ply upon American inland waters, the tourist will obtain excellent views of New York City and harbor, of Jersey City, and of various suburbs. Soon the Palisades will appear on the western shore. This remarkable line of precipices, rising from 300 to 500 feet in height, is composed of trap rock and extends for a distance of about twenty miles. Upon the summit is a fine growth of forest trees. Upon this lofty height may be seen Fort Lee, which stands upon the site of an old Revolutionary fortification. Fifteen miles from New York, on the east side of the river, is the Convent of St. Vincent. Two miles beyond, on the same side of the river, is the large and growing town of Yonkers. At the end of the Palisades is Piermont. It is on the western shore, and is a terminus of a branch of the Erie Railroad. Its principal feature is a pier a mile long, which runs from the shore to a point at which the water is deep enough for large steamers. About three miles distant is the historic town of Tappan, at which Washington at one time had his headquarters and which was the place of execution of the unfortunate Major André.

Beyond Piermont the river becomes much wider and assumes the form of a lake, which is called Tappan Zee. Its extreme width is about four miles and its length is nearly ten miles. On the east bank of this broad expanse of water, and about twenty-three miles from New York, is the little town of Irvington. This place derives its fame from the fact that here Washington Irving spent the last years of his life. His little cottage, "Sunnyside" still remains and is "one of the shrines of American pilgrimage." It stands upon the bank of the river, but the surrounding trees and shrubs hide it from the sight of parties on the boat. The east wall is covered with ivy which has grown from slips presented by Sir Walter Scott, and planted by Irving's own hands. A short distance above is Tarrytown, a favorite summer resort, and famous as the place at which Major André was captured. A valley, lying a little north of the town, through which flows the stream known as Mill River, is the original of the Sleepy Hollow with which Irving made the English-speak-



THE PALISADES.

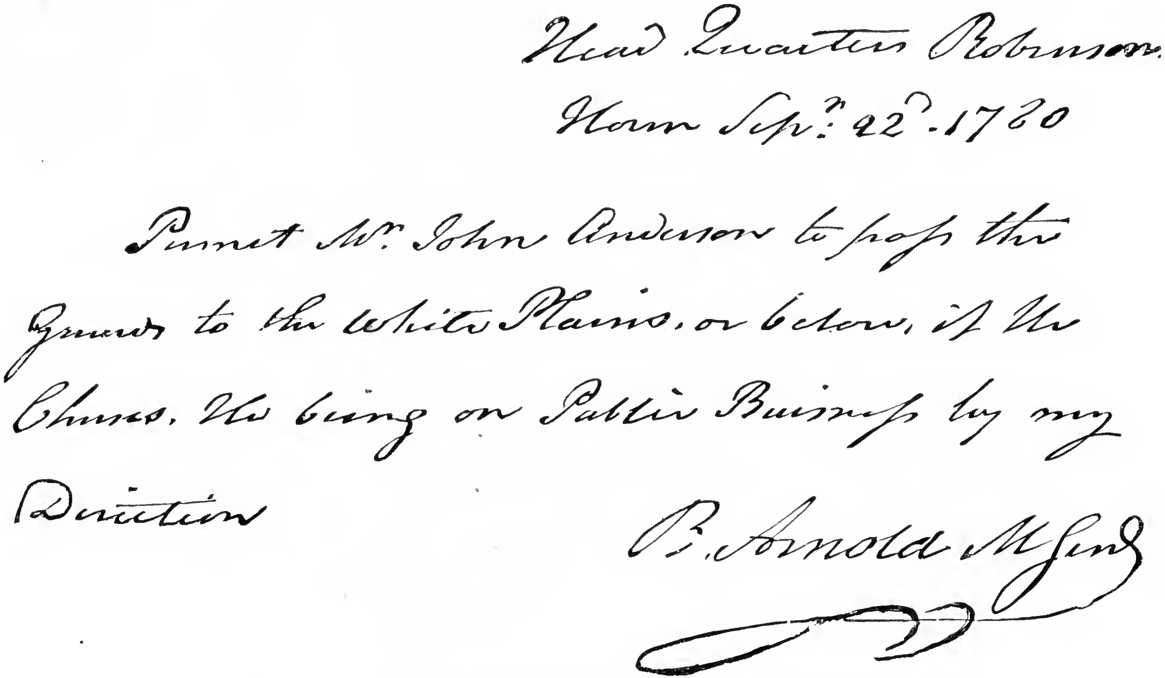
ing world acquainted. The stone bridge referred to in the story of Ichabod Crane still remains, as does the Dutch church, which was built in 1699, and which is the oldest building in the State used for religious purposes. In the cemetery belonging to this church and located in Sleepy Hollow is Irving's grave. In Christ Church, of which Irving was one of the wardens during his last years, is a handsome tablet, which has been placed there to commemorate his virtues, and perpetuate his fame.

Opposite Tarrytown is the beautiful town of Nyack, which is principally built on the river bank, but has many fine residences on the wooded hills which lie just back of the main part of the town, and rise above it to a considerable height. The large building on the bluff just south of the town is known in winter as the Rockland Female Institute, but in the summer it is used as a boarding-house, and is called the Tappan-Zee House. A little farther up the river is Rockland Lake, a pretty sheet of water lying among the hills, and of special interest to the inhabitants of New York City, from the fact that from this lake a large part of their ice supply is obtained. The lake itself is not seen from the boat, but a large pier from which the ice is loaded, and numerous storehouses, indicate its vicinity.

Almost directly across the river from the lake is Sing Sing. The peculiar name comes from an Indian word signifying a "stony point." The town is most widely known as being the seat of one of the State Prisons. This celebrated institution is located about three-fourths of a mile south of the village. The main building is nearly 500 feet long, is five stories high, and "accommodates" 1,200 persons. Instead of the high walls by which prison grounds are usually inclosed the place is guarded by armed sentinels. But without regard to this somewhat exceptional feature of a popular resort the town is one of the most beautiful in the country, and is a desirable place for the tourist to visit. It is built on sloping ground, some of the streets being more than 200 feet higher than others which run parallel with them, and commands a magnificent view of the Hudson at its widest, and also one of its most beautiful points. Tappan Zee lies spread out in all its beauty below, and another broad expanse of the river, known as Haverstraw Bay, is in full view just above. Across the river Mount Taurn rises to a height of 640 feet, Nyack, Stony Point, and several other villages and towns are easily seen, and numerous other features add to the general attractiveness of the landscape. The Croton aqueduct is also an interesting point. The stone arch which supports the aqueduct has a span of eighty-eight feet and is over eighty feet above the water of the Sing Sing Kill. The town contains several important schools, fine church edifices, and many beautiful residences.

Four miles above Sing Sing, Croton Point separates the Tappan Zee from the similar expansion of the river known as Haverstraw Bay. This peninsula, now noted for its splendid vineyards, was formerly known as Teller's Point. It is the place where the Vulture was to remain for Major André while he negotiated for the betrayal of West Point by the traitor Arnold, but from which position, fortunately for the colonists and the cause of liberty, she was driven by a few zealous patriots with an old iron cannon which carried only a six-pound ball. Here the Croton River, from which the water supply of New York City is obtained, joins the Hudson. A dam across the stream, six miles from its mouth, converts it into an artificial lake. The dam is 250 feet long, seventy feet thick at the bottom, and forty feet high. From this lake an aqueduct more than forty miles in length conducts the water to the city. The capacity of the aqueduct is from two million to two and one-half million gallons of water per hour. The lake is easily reached by team from Sing Sing, or Croton, and attracts many visitors.

On the western shore of Haverstraw Bay is the town of Haverstraw. Here, on "Treason Hill" stands the house in which Major André and Benedict Arnold arranged the terms for the betrayal of West Point. This house now does service as a summer boarding-house. On the shore of the river there are valuable banks of clay, and several miles of brick yards in which vast numbers of bricks of the finest quality are made every season. So valuable are these beds of clay that the West Shore Railroad follows a circuitous course to avoid crossing them. In the neighborhood of Stony Point are some limestone cliffs from which immense quantities of lime are obtained. This town also has historical associations, having been the scene of a hard-fought battle during the Revolutionary War. The fortifications then secured by the British were afterward retaken by the Americans without a blow. A lighthouse now stands on the ground formerly occupied by the magazine of the old fort. On the opposite bank, and a little above Stony Point, is Peekskill, a small but pretty town, located on the steep hill which rises from the river. It received its name from Jan Peek, a Dutch explorer, who settled here, in 1764. For a while during the Revolution, General Putnam had his headquarters here and Washington also remained here a short time. To the present generation it became somewhat noted as the summer home of the late Henry Ward Beecher. East of the town, and some 900 feet above the



Head Quarters Robinson
House Sepr. 22d. 1780

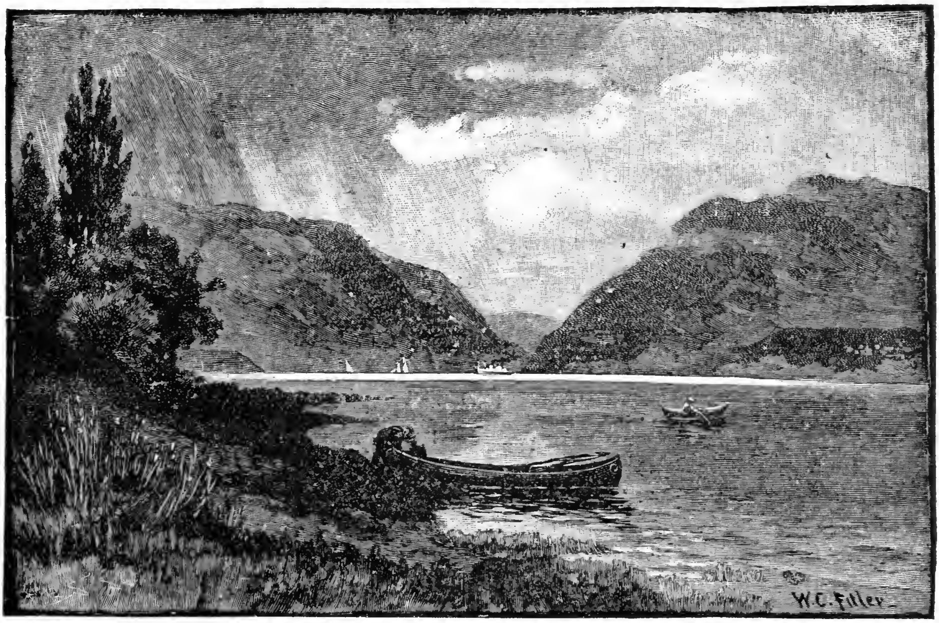
Permit Mr. John Anderson to pass the
Guards to the White Plains, or below, if He
Chuses. He being on Public Business by my
Direction

B. Arnold M Genl

FACSIMILE OF PASS FROM BENEDICT ARNOLD TO MAJOR ANDRE.

river, is Lake Mohensick. The distance is about six miles, through a picturesque region. The lake is a beautiful sheet of water, and the scenery in the vicinity is delightful. Nearly opposite Peekskill lies Dunderberg Mountain, the first peak of the celebrated Highlands reached in the journey from New York.

From this point, for a distance of fifteen or twenty miles through the Highland region, the scenery is magnificent. Its beauty gives the Hudson a valid claim to the title of "The Rhine of America," and fully justifies the claim that it is unsurpassed by any river-scenery in the world.

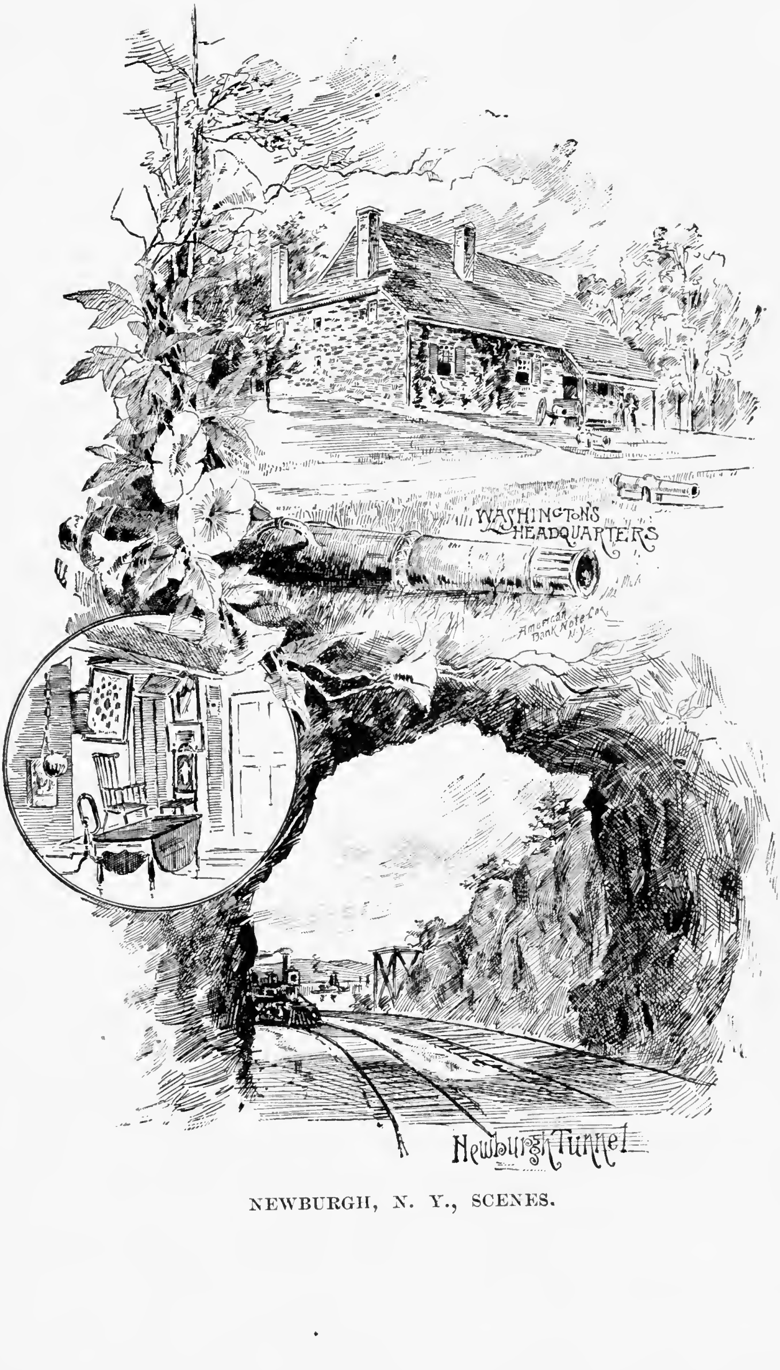


NORTHERN ENTRANCE TO THE HUDSON HIGHLANDS.

In the midst of the Highland region is the famous Military Academy at West Point. This town is on the west side of the river, on a plateau some 160 feet above the bank, with still more elevated points lying at but little distance to the west. On account of the school, the historic association of the locality, and the magnificent views which it presents, West Point is one of the most noted resorts in the State. Some of the buildings are very fine specimens of architecture, and have many interesting features and associations. The Museum contains a large collection of relics, models, trophies of the various wars in which the country has engaged, and numerous other articles of interest. From the ruins of Fort Putnam, of Revolutionary fame, a splendid view may be obtained. There are many beautiful walks and drives in the vicinity and large and fine hotels furnish ample accommodations for visitors. In the river, a little distance above the town, is Constitution Island, on which Elizabeth Wetherell (Miss Susan Warner), author of "The Wide, Wide World," "Queechy," and other famous novels, had her home for many years with her younger sister, Anna, who wrote many popular stories under the name of Amy Lathrope.

Cornwall, a small but beautiful town on the west bank of the river, is probably the most popular of all the summer resorts on the Hudson. Here are many beautiful and fruitful vineyards and delightful scenes open to the eye in every direction. From this point Storm King, the last and one of the highest peaks of the Highlands, can be reached. From the summit, 1,529 feet above the sea, a wide and magnificent view is obtained. In the village are several large and well-kept hotels. The place is of interest to people with literary tastes from the fact that Idlewild, the home of the late N. P. Willis, is on one of its beautiful elevations. Here, too, the late Rev. E. P. Roe wrote nearly all of his wonderfully successful novels, and also gave an impetus to the business of small fruit culture which has been of immense benefit to all the region around as well as an indirect advantage to the country at large. Four miles above Cornwall, and nearly sixty miles from New York, is the historic city of Newburg. It is located on a slope rising some 300 feet above the river, has about 18,000 inhabitants, is beautiful in itself and commands fine views of other localities. The old stone house in which Washington for a time had his headquarters in the War for Independence still remains, and is now owned by the State. This house was built in 1750 and contains a large number of interesting relics. It is freely opened to the public. From this place the proclamation disbanding the army was issued, and at a little distance is a monument erected jointly by the United States and the State of New York to commemorate the successful termination of the Revolution. Immediately across the river is Fishkill. Immense ferry boats, each large enough to take a full train of cars at a trip, ply between the two places. Here the West Shore road connects with the New York and New England Railroad, which has its western terminus at Fishkill. This gives a through line to Boston by way of Hartford, and passes through several important manufacturing centres.

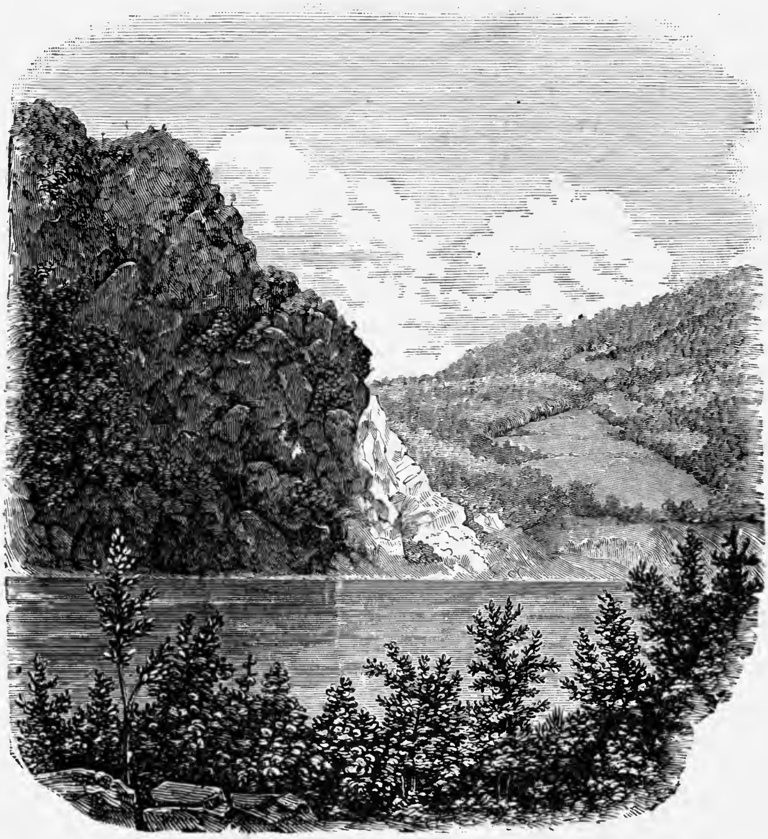
Above Newburg the scenery is charming, but presents no very imposing


WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS
American Bank Note Co. N.Y.
Newburgh Tunnel

NEWBURGH, N. Y., SCENES.

features. The region is celebrated for the immense quantity and excellent quality, as well as for the great variety of fruit which it produces every year. At Poughkeepsie, seventy-five miles from New York, there are large manufacturing and commercial interests. The plain on which the city is built rises some 200 feet above the river, with a range of high hills in the rear. This elevated and protected location renders the name, derived from an Indian word meaning "a safe and pleasant place," singularly appropriate. In early times considerable latitude was allowed in the manner of spelling the name. It is asserted that in existing records it is spelled in forty-two different ways. The city is noted for its educational interests. Vassar College, the largest among the female colleges of the country, is on a beautiful and elevated site about two miles east of the city and attracts large numbers of visitors as well as students. There are half a dozen other important institutions of learning and many fine public and private buildings. A little north of the city are the large buildings of the State Lunatic Asylum. The great railroad bridge across the Hudson, which connects New England with the coal regions of Pennsylvania, is well worthy a visit. Including the approaches, it is about one and one-third miles in length. In its construction about 15,000 tons of steel and more than 6,000 tons of iron were used. It is built in the cantilever style and its construction is one of the great engineering feats of the age. The end spans and the centre span give a clear space to the water of 160 feet, while the others rise 130 feet above the surface. From the water to the top of the rail is 212 feet. This bridge is one of the finest and strongest ever built.

Across the river from Poughkeepsie is New Paltz Landing. It is reached by a ferry, and from it a line of stages runs to the beautiful Lake Mohonk, in the Wallkill Valley region. Passengers on the West Shore Railroad, or on the Erie, going up the west bank of the river, reach New Paltz by rail and from thence go to the lake by stage or private conveyance. Kingston, 88 miles from New York, is an interesting place, and is also a favorite point of departure for the Catskill Mountain region. Directly opposite is Rhinebeck Landing. Here may be seen the Beekman House, erected nearly 200 years ago and said to be the most perfect specimen of the old-fashioned Dutch homestead now remaining in the Hudson River Valley. Catskill, 110 miles above New York, on the west side of the river, is a famous summer resort as well as a point from which passengers leave for the Catskill Mountains. Hudson, a few miles further up the river, and on the east bank, is built upon a rocky cliff and extends up the slope of the hill to a point 500 feet above the river. From the high ground splendid views of the Catskill and other mountains may be obtained. Five miles away, in the Claverack Valley, is the quiet and pleasant resort known as Columbia Springs. There is a beautiful lake near by offering excellent opportunities for boating and fishing. Not far distant are the Claverack Falls, where the water passes over a precipice ninety feet high, and the scenery presents many picturesque features.



VIEW OF THE TURK'S FACE ON THE HUDSON.

At Albany the visitor finds one of the oldest settlements by Europeans in the United States. It has been an incorporated city more than 200 years, and the permanent capital of the State for more than ninety years. It is located on the west bank of the Hudson and extends for more than three miles and a half along the river. The ground is very low along the shore, but gradually rises until it reaches a tableland 150 feet high a few miles west, thus giving, when viewed from the east, a splendid presentation of its public and private buildings. Of the many objects of interest the new Capitol building easily holds the first rank. This enormous structure will cost, when completed, about $20,000,000. More than $2,000,000 were required to complete the foundations and the walls of the basement. The building is 390 feet long, 290 feet wide, and four stories high. The corner stone was laid in 1871. With the exception of the National Capitol at Washington, this is considered the finest public building in the country.

It is an interesting fact that on the banks of the Hudson that curious relic of the Middle Ages known as the Feudal System was established soon after the settlement of this nominally free country and continued in existence for a long period. Large tracts of land were granted to various parties, who were known as patroons. In the vicinity of Albany a grant of a tract of land, twenty-four miles square on both sides of the Hudson was made to the Van Rensselaer family in 1629. The lands thus obtained were leased by the patroons to settlers, who paid them a certain fixed rental each year, either in cash or in the products of the soil. The system, though nominally done away in 1787, was not entirely abandoned until after the political party known as the Anti-renters, in 1846, secured the insertion of a clause in the State Constitution abolishing feudal rights and tenures and prohibiting the leasing of land for farming purposes for a longer term than twelve years. The old manor-house of the Van Rensselaer family is still standing and there are various other buildings in the older part of the city which have an interest to the tourist as well as to the antiquarian and the historian.

At Troy, the final landing place of the boat and the last point to visit on the trip, the tourist will find various educational institutions, many beautiful buildings, and several large manufactories. But the chief point of interest will be Oakwood Cemetery, and a visit thereto will be well repaid. This Cemetery is located on high land, from which may be obtained a splendid view of the Mohawk Valley and of the falls at Cohoes. Within the inclosure are the graves of two Major-Generals of the United States army—George H. Thomas and John E. Wool. The obelisk erected as a monument to General Wool is seventy-five feet high and is said to be the largest stone taken out of a quarry during the last 3,000 years.

THE ADIRONDACS.

THE Adirondac region lies in the northeastern corner of the State of New York. Thirty years ago it was almost entirely unknown. At the present time, although mainly a wilderness, it is a very popular summer resort. It is a vast plateau extending from the St. Lawrence River on the northwest nearly to the Mohawk River on the south, and to Lake George and Lake Champlain on the east, and lying about 2,000 feet above the level of the sea. It is crossed from southwest to northeast by five ranges of mountains. Several of the peaks are about 5,000 feet in height and Mount Marcy reaches an altitude of 5,370 feet. Though there are peaks in New Hampshire and in North Carolina which rise to a greater height, the general elevation of the Adirondacs is greater than that of any chain east of the Rocky Mountains.

These mountains form the watershed between the St. Lawrence River and the Hudson and Mohawk Rivers. Among them, at an elevation of about 3,000 feet, the Hudson has its rise. At only a short distance from this point, which is in the Indian Pass, one of the wildest portions of the region and to a great extent still unexplored, are the springs of the Ausable River, which flows into Lake Champlain. Though starting close together, the waters of these rivers are hundreds of miles apart when they reach the Atlantic Ocean. The most beautiful river in the region is the Raquette, rising in Raquette Lake and flowing a distance of 120 miles until it reaches the St. Lawrence.

In this region there are said to be more than 500 mountains. Only a small portion of them have yet been named. Except at the summits of those which rise above the timber line, these mountains are covered with heavy forests. On the lower lands there is also a dense growth of trees, largely evergreens, which at many points are almost impenetrable. In the woods, and especially upon the mountains, various kinds of game abound. There are some ferocious animals as well as deer and several fur-bearing animals.

The number of lakes and ponds in the Adirondacs which have received names and been definitely located exceeds 1,000. They vary in extent from an area of a few acres to a length of twenty miles. The general elevation of these lakes is some 1,500 feet above the sea level, but many of them are much higher, and at least one, Lake Perkins, lies at an altitude of over 4,000 feet.

The shores of these lakes are covered with rank grass and aquatic plants and their waters are liberally stocked with fish of good size and fine varieties. The largest lakes are the Saranac, Raquette, Schroon Lake, Blue Mountain Lake, Long Lake, Lake Placid, Tupper Lake, and the chain of Fulton Lakes.

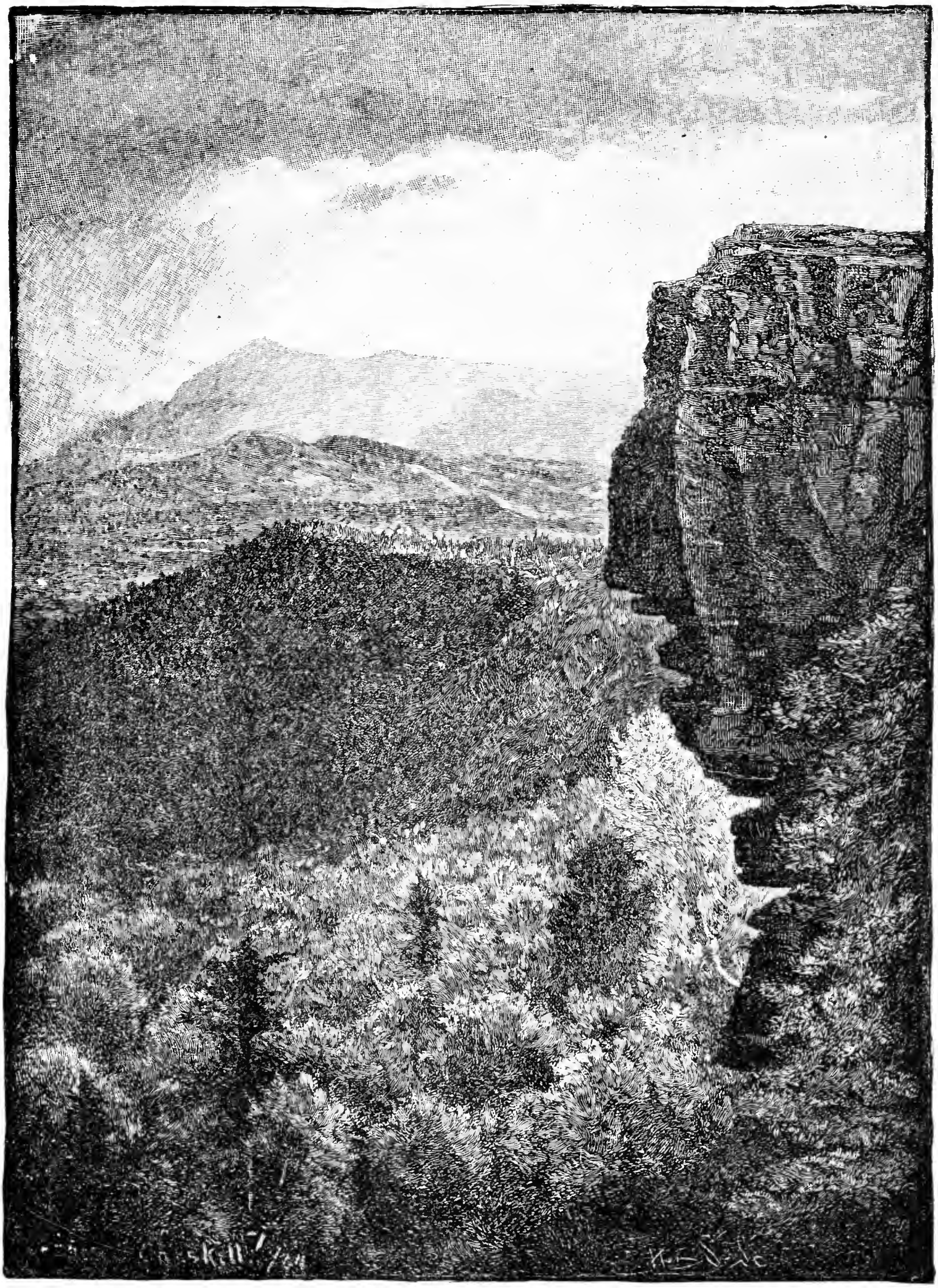
Travelling throughout the region is largely done by means of small boats. The lakes are connected by rivers and small streams. A guide is needed for the double purpose of leading the way and carrying the boat where sailing is impracticable. Camps will be found at various points and in the most frequented sections hotels have been erected. Within a few years railroads have been constructed and stage lines established, and it is now comparatively easy to reach the most popular portions of the region. The Adirondac Railroad from Saratoga to North Creek leads directly into the district. The Chateaugay Railroad from Plattsburg, lying on Lake Champlain, reached from New York by the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company Railroad, runs to Saranac Lake. From Boston the tourist reaches Burlington by the Vermont Central Railroad and crosses the lake by a steamer to Plattsburg.

The general aspect of the Adirondac region is said to closely resemble that of the Highlands of Scotland and the more elevated regions of Switzerland before they were settled. There are areas of considerable extent which no white man has ever traversed and in which "untamed nature in all its purity" holds undisputed sway. Throughout the whole region the scenery is wild and romantic and we can easily believe the assertion of experienced travellers that it has "no parallel in the world."

THE REGION OF THE CATSKILLS.

THOUGH somewhat separated from the main line, the Catskills belong to the great Appalachian range of mountains, which extend, in a southwesterly direction some 1,300 miles from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to the State of Alabama, and which throughout their entire course are but a comparatively short distance from the Atlantic coast. The Catskills lie principally in Greene County, N. Y., rising from a plain about ten miles wide on the west bank of the Hudson River.

One of the principal points, and for many years the only place of departure for the interior of the mountain region, is Catskill, 110 miles from New York City, and itself a famous summer resort. Situated on the west bank of



A VIEW IN THE CATSKILLS.

the river, at the mouth of Catskill Creek, it long ago became known as the "Gem of the Hudson," and although many new rivals have been brought to public notice it still maintains its popularity. The beautiful and varied scenery, the plains and cliffs, the forests interspersed with cultivated fields, the mountain-brooks and the quiet glens, combine to make it a place for rest and peace. In this town Thomas Cole, the famous painter, lived for many years, and here, in 1848, he died. It was while residing here that the two series of his celebrated allegorical pictures entitled "The Voyage of Life," and "The Course of Empire," were painted. While Catskill is a most attractive place, and in some portions very quiet, the town is also quite a business centre, a fact which makes it a favorite resort of city people who desire to find rest and refreshment, but who also wish to remain in close connection with the active affairs of the world. It is a point from which either the mountains or the city can be very easily and quickly reached.

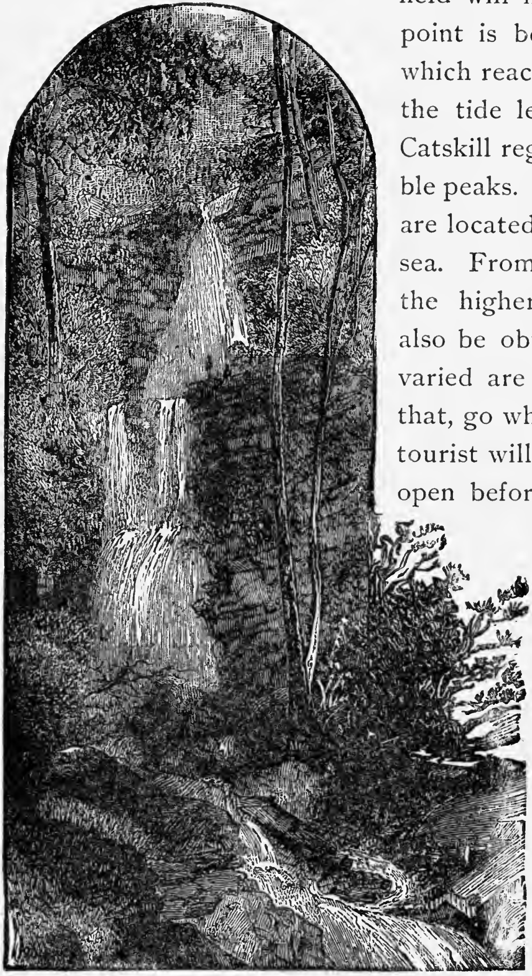
The opening of new railroads has made it easy to reach the resorts in the Catskills from Kingston, also on the west bank of the Hudson River. This city, eighty-eight miles from New York, is readily reached from that point by the West Shore Railroad on the west side of the river; by the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad on the east side, connecting at Rhinebeck with Rondout, a suburb of Kingston, by a steam ferry; or by steamer up the Hudson. Kingston was settled by the English in 1614. Here the State Constitution was adopted and the first Legislature of the State of New York was convened. The old house in which the Constitution was written is still standing. In 1872 the villages of Rondout and Wilbur were incorporated with Kingston as a city. Here the Delaware and Hudson Canal has its eastern terminus. Through this canal 1,500,000 tons of coal are brought every year. From this port enormous quantities of blue flagging stones for paving the sidewalks of New York City are annually shipped and here is located the largest cement manufactory in the United States. Rondout Creek, about a mile south of Kingston, is crossed by trains on the West Shore Railroad by means of a bridge a fourth of a mile long and 195 feet above the water. Just beyond the bridge the train passes through a tunnel 400 feet in length. From this point it is only a short distance to the fine Union Depot, built in the Queen Anne style, which is used by the West Shore, the Wallkill Valley, and the Ulster and Delaware railroads. It is at Kingston that the traveller passing up the Hudson by the West Shore Railroad gains his first clear view of the Catskills. Leaving this ancient town by the Ulster and

Delaware Railroad he can pass to the very centre of the mountain region, where the breezes are fresh and cool, and the most beautiful scenery greets the eye in whatever direction it may be turned.

From time immemorial the Catskills have been famed for their beauty and grandeur. Before the advent of the white man the Indian rejoiced to gaze upon their massive forms and feast his eye upon their wondrous beauty. He imagined that in this glorious region was the home of the Great Spirit who ruled the Universe, and he looked with awe upon the peaks which to his untaught mind were the visible dwelling place of a Being who was clothed with the glory and mystery of a mighty power of which he saw many evidences, but which he could in no-wise comprehend. To him they were the "blissful regions," the land of rest and peace. The early Dutch settlers also had a certain degree of superstitious reverence for this locality. They imagined that from the beautiful heights the soul of Henry Hudson watched with joy and pride the ceaseless flow of the magnificent river which he discovered and which bears his honored name. And when Washington Irving, the first and foremost of the great American writers of fiction, wove the various legends of the section into his charming tales, he attracted the attention of the English-speaking world to the manifold beauties of the region and gave to the Catskills, as well as received for himself, a deserved and an enduring fame.

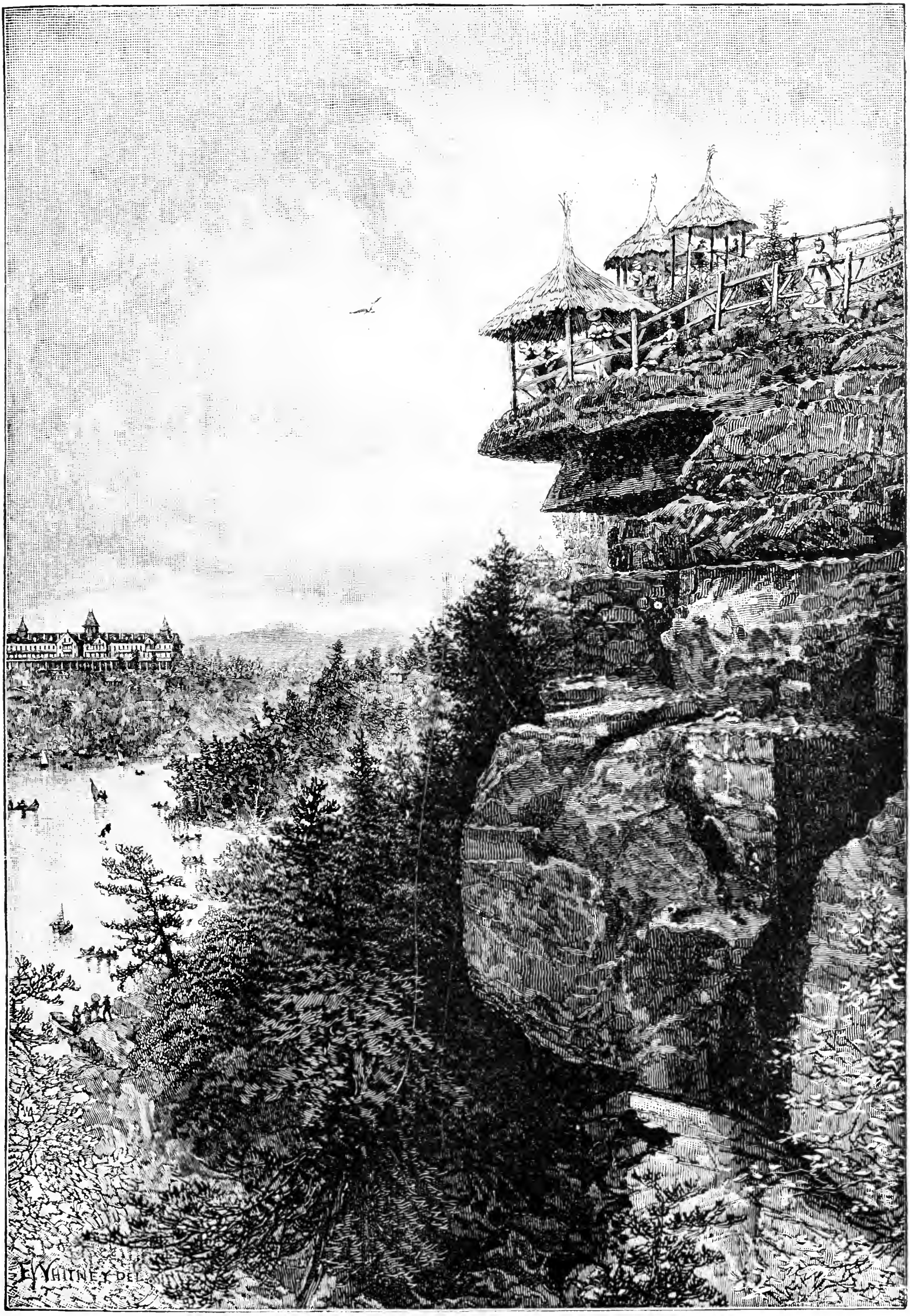
The proximity of the region to New York, and the ease with which it can be reached from the principal points in the Eastern and Central States, unite with its wonderful natural attractions to make it a favorite summer resort for multitudes of the residents of these sections. Yet, while close to the great centres of civilization and easily reached by parties who need rest as well as recreation, the Catskill region to a great extent maintains its primitive simplicity. Large hotels are numerous, boarding houses abound, many beautiful private residences have been erected, and there are various centres of business life and activity. But close to these are quiet walks and silvery streams, the beautiful trees and the towering mountain peaks, and the peace and quiet of nature unchanged by man. The mountain roads pass through a wonderful variety of scenery and at many points seem to bring the traveller to a "fairy land." Those who long for the life and gayety of fashion will find all they desire at the large hotels, while those in search of rest can readily find quiet and peaceful homes. There is room enough for all and nature spreads her beauties and her glories with a lavish hand for all who come.

Though none of the mountains rise to a great height, the views from many of the peaks are really magnificent. Not only is the adjacent region spread out to view, but far outlying localities can be plainly seen. From some points the Hudson River and the fruitful valley through which it flows can be seen for nearly a hundred miles. They form a picture of beauty which once beheld will never be forgotten. The highest point is believed to be the Slide Mountain, which reaches an altitude of 4,220 feet above the tide level. It is near the centre of the Catskill region and is one of a group of notable peaks. Several of the hotels of this region are located from 2,000 to 3,000 feet above the sea. From many lower points, as well as from the higher elevations, splendid views may also be obtained. Indeed, so numerous and varied are the attractions of the landscape that, go where he will in all this section, the tourist will find a scene of beauty constantly open before him. The several railroads and stage lines make it comparatively easy to reach any part of the region, and a long distance can be passed and many views obtained in a limited time, though it is far more satisfactory to move slowly and allow the pictures to become indelibly impressed upon the mind. Some of the railroads are narrow gauge, and have very steep grades to overcome. In one case, there is a grade of 180 feet to the mile, while a rise of 140 feet in that distance is not uncommon. Even with these steep inclines it is often necessary to choose a winding pathway, and make the running distance between stations several miles farther than it would be if a straight line could be followed.



KAATERSKILL FALLS.

Among the many points of interest in the Catskill region Sunset Rock is deserving of special mention. It is located in the Eastern Catskills, only a


E. WHITNEY DEL.

VIEW ON LAKE MINNEWASKA.

short distance from the famous Hotel Kaaterskill, and overhangs the Kaaterskill Clove. It is a table rock with an almost perpendicular descent of 1,500 feet, while lying opposite is the Kaaterskill High Peak, which rises in full view for its entire height of 4,000 feet. Looking down the Clove, the valley of the Hudson is seen spread out in wondrous beauty. At the head of the Clove Haines's Falls glimmer in the sun, while looking far inland the giant form of Hunter Mountain comes into view. The Clove itself is also one of the grandest features of the region. It is a ravine some five miles in length, at the head of which two rivulets unite. The stream thus formed flows rapidly to a point where a division in the mountain leaves an immense hollow forming a cataract of 180 feet, while just below are two falls of eighty feet and forty feet respectively. This cascade of 300 feet makes a wonderful scene of beauty in summer, and is said to be still more attractive in the winter when the sunlight is reflected by the ice, which in a multitude of fantastic forms beautifully decorates the falls.

Overlook Mountain, which has been styled "the corner stone" of the Catskills, is also an important point of observation. From the hotel located here a fine view can be obtained, while from Grand View Rock, only a mile away, the outlook is beautiful beyond description, and is said by experienced travellers to be one of the finest in the world. The Hudson River can be seen for nearly 100 miles, five ranges of mountains besides the Catskills are in full view, as are also portions of seven different States. The range of vision is said to cover the vast area of 30,000 square miles. From the little observatory which has been erected at the top of Slide Mountain, in the Western Catskills, the view is also extensive and magnificent. The Berkshire Hills in Massachusetts, the Hudson River, and many mountains in New Jersey and Pennsylvania are clearly seen in the distance, while the Catskill region lies spread out in beauty and grandeur close at hand. Less imposing, but perhaps not less beautiful, views are to be obtained in many of the valleys of this "enchanted land." Beautiful drives and pleasant walks abound. The merry flow of the mountain streams, the beauty of tree and flower, and the silent grandeur of the adjacent peaks rearing their heads to the sky, combine to form a scene of loveliness of which the beholder never tires. If more sombre scenes are desired, the deep gorges of the region, in which snow and ice remain during the entire year, their sides covered with rich, dark evergreens which shut out the sun yet which point toward the light will give the thoughts a tinge of sadness and solemnity which brighter views do not impart.

In this wild region Nature can be seen in all her varied moods and the visitor can choose the aspect in which to him she shall appear.

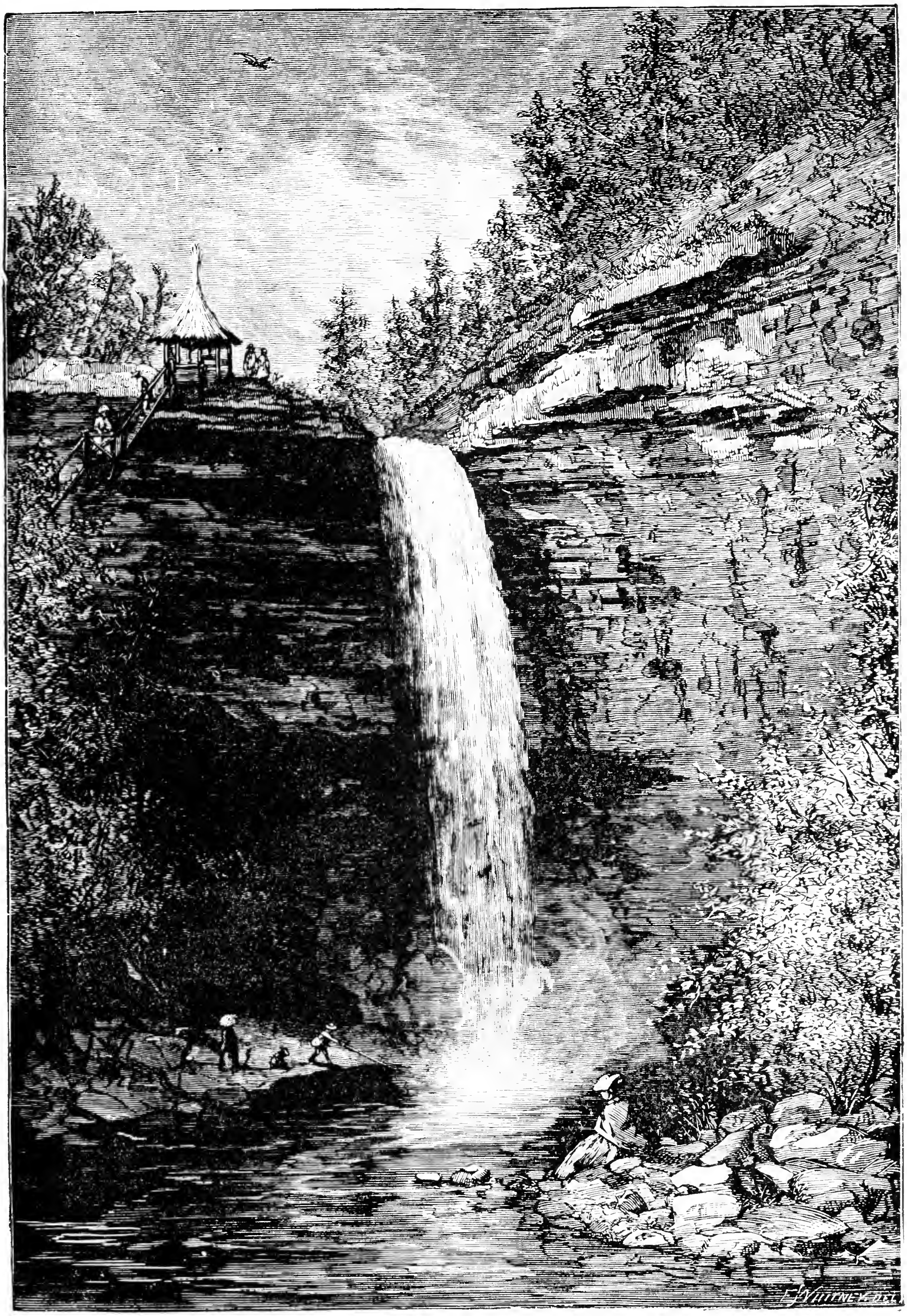
The sportsman, as well as the admirer of natural beauty, may here find abundant diversion; excellent hunting and fishing being found throughout the section. The routes from New York to the Catskills have already been mentioned. From Boston this delightful region is easily reached by the Boston and Albany Railroad, or the Hoosac Tunnel Route, with their connecting north and south lines, while our Canadian friends who wish to visit it will find excellent accommodations on the Grand Trunk road with its connecting lines. Several recently constructed railroads have made all portions of the Catskill section easily accessible, and it is now possible to start from the Hudson, pass through the entire length of the region, and return in a single day. A less hurried trip will be found far more satisfactory, but even this brief visit will be remembered with joy as long as life remains.

Lying a little to the south of the mountains, but properly noted in connection with the Catskill region, is the Wallkill Valley, which presents numerous beautiful scenes and through which a path can be found to many charming resorts. It is easily reached from Kingston by the Wallkill Valley Railroad. The fertility of its soil as well as the attractions of its scenery made it a favorite locality with the early settlers of the country. It was discovered and settled by Huguenot refugees who fled from France to avoid religious persecution. They cleared a portion of the land, planted vines upon the hillsides, and made the former wilderness to "blossom as the rose." The town of New Paltz, on the east side of Wallkill Creek, and on the Wallkill Valley Railroad, was settled in 1683. It still bears, after the lapse of two centuries with the tremendous progress which has been made and the vast changes which have taken place in all the civilized world, the impress of the quaint and industrious toilers who here found civil liberty and freedom to worship God. Some of the houses which they erected are standing to-day, and afford a curious contrast to the structures of modern times.

From New Paltz the Shawangunk Mountains are in view and a stage route leads to their various places of interest. Sky Top, one of the highest peaks of the range, is an interesting as well as prominent feature of the landscape. Near its summit is Lake Mohonk, a beautiful sheet of water, lying nearly 1,250 feet above the level of the sea. A carriage road has been constructed by which the lake can be readily reached. The view from all the upper portion of the route is rich and varied, while the lake itself, inclosed with rugged cliffs and massive rocks, is wonderful in its placid loveliness. Upon this mountain peak a fine hotel has been erected and many winding paths lead to the points from which the finest views may be obtained. The lake, though comparatively narrow, is about half a mile in length, and the water, which is 80 feet deep, is always clear and cold. About six miles farther on, and also located on a mountain peak, is Lake Minnewaska. This beautiful sheet of water is about 1,650 feet above the level of the sea and, like Lake Mohonk, is hemmed in by rocky walls. On Minnewaska Heights, a cliff overlooking the lake, two hotels have been erected, and from their windows very fine and extensive views may be obtained. The Green Mountains of Vermont, the Berkshire Hills of Massachusetts, the Housatonic Mountains of Connecticut, the Catskills and several other groups of mountains in New York, are all in sight, while many valleys, and lakes, and rivers, with villages and towns, add their attractions to the general beauty. Only a short distance from these houses may be seen the Awosting Falls, where a small stream of water has a clear fall of 60 feet, while about half a mile farther on its course, by a series of beautiful and rapid descents, it drops to a level one hundred feet lower still. In the vicinity are many other places of interest, including several caves and bluffs, a magnificent forest of hemlocks, and the placid Lake Awosting; all of which are within easy reach and by the beautiful views which they present will amply repay a visit from tourists who find their way to this delightful region.

SARATOGA SPRINGS.

THE town of Saratoga Springs has long been famous as a summer resort and for at least a quarter of a century has held the position of "Queen" of the inland watering places in America. It owes its fame to the wonderful mineral springs which it contains and to the large and elegant hotels which have here been erected, and which are said to be more luxurious and magnificent in their appointments than those of any other watering place in the world. Of these hotels the United States accommodates about 2,000 people, the Grand Union 1,800, and Congress Hall 1,000, while several others care for from 250 to 750 each. At several of the hotels fine orchestras are kept throughout the season. In all there are more than 50 hotels and there are also a large number of boarding-houses. The town is


E. J. WHITNEY, SC.

THE AWOSTING FALLS.

located in Saratoga County, New York, 186 miles from New York City, 36 miles north of Albany, and 238 miles west and north of Boston. The name is from an Indian word meaning "the place of the herrings," and was doubtless suggested by the sight of large numbers of this variety of fish which formerly passed up the Hudson River to Saratoga Lake. The region around the Springs is also an historic locality. In 1693 it was the scene of conflict between the English and the French, and in this vicinity the great battle of Saratoga was fought in 1777. The latter was not only one of the most important battles in the struggle of the colonists for independence, but, on account of its far-reaching results, is included among the fifteen decisive battles of the world.

The mineral springs, and their value in the treatment of disease, were known to the Indians at a very early period. When Cartier, the French explorer, was in the region of the St. Lawrence in 1534 he was told of the springs by members of the Iroquois tribe with whom he came in contact. But he did not visit them, and it is supposed that the first white man who ever saw the springs or tested the waters was Sir William Johnson. He was the first white resident in the region. He settled among the Mohawk Indians, and by his kind treatment and fair dealings soon acquired their respect and confidence. One of the various offices which he held under the government of Great Britain was that of superintendent of matters pertaining to the Indians in this vicinity. In 1767, during a period of illness, some of his Indian friends carried him to the High Rock Spring, and by the use of its water he was soon restored to health. The first framed house was built at the Springs in 1784 by General Schuyler and the first hotel in or about 1815. The popularity of the waters rapidly increased and in 1826 their exportation in bottles was commenced. This business has assumed vast proportions and the waters of some of the springs are now sent to all parts of the civilized world. Several new springs have been discovered and a few have been opened by drills. There are now twenty-eight springs, from six of which the water spouts into the air. Among the most popular of the springs are the Congress, discovered in 1792; the Hathorn, discovered in 1868; the Empire, High Rock, and Columbian. Among the spouting springs are the Geyser, opened in 1870 by an artesian well 140 feet deep, and the Glacier, opened in 1871 by boring a well to the depth of 300 feet.

The different springs vary greatly in the chemical constituents of their waters, and the effects which they produce upon the human system. Some contain iodine, sulphur, and magnesia. Some also contain lime and others are strongly impregnated with iron. All are charged with carbonic-acid gas. The waters of some of the springs are cathartic in their action and are valuable for liver and kidney troubles, dyspepsia, and gout. Those of other springs act as a tonic, while those of the remaining classes seem to be useful in various other ways. The waters of some of these springs are used for bathing, and are very efficacious in certain forms of illness. For the diseases to the treatment of which they are specially adapted these waters are among the most efficient curative agents yet discovered.

Saratoga Springs is not less famed as a fashionable summer resort than it is for the medicinal quality of its waters. While many invalids frequent the place in search of health, the great majority of the visitors go merely for pleasure, which, if their purses are well filled, they can pursue here with less difficulty and greater success than they can elsewhere. Multitudes of the wealthiest and most fashionable people of the country spend a few weeks of the summer season at this beautiful retreat. The air is clear, splendid trees abound, the streets and avenues are well laid out, and the excellent roads leading in all directions into the country furnish beautiful and attractive drives. A camp of Indians is located near by and adds variety if not beauty to the scene.

Saratoga Lake, lying four miles from the Springs, is a beautiful sheet of water and offers one of the finest courses for boating found anywhere. The fishing is also excellent. There are ample hotel accommodations, and the lake is a favorite place of resort both for day and evening parties. Only a short distance from the village there is one of the finest race-courses in the country. It is controlled by a local association, but is famous throughout the land for the brilliant races which have here been held. Many of the most noted horses in the United States have been speeded upon this track, and regular and largely attended meetings for racing are held during the months of July and August of each year.

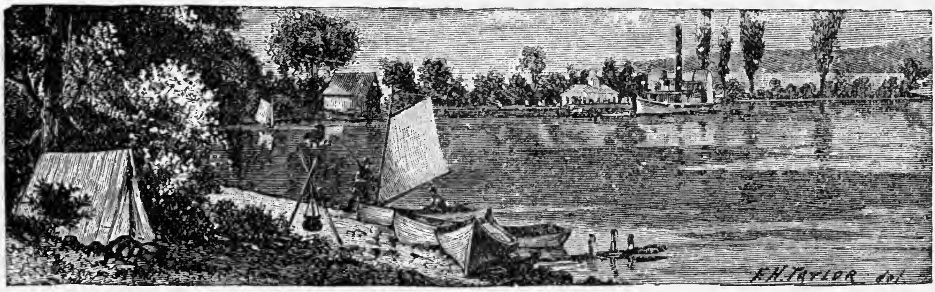
Saratoga Springs is also an excellent place from which to make excursions to various points, including the Saratoga Battle Ground, Lake Luzerne, in the Adirondacs, Lake George, Lake Champlain, and Mt. McGregor. The latter point is reached by the Saratoga, Mt. McGregor, and Lake George Railroad. It is about 1,200 feet above the sea. The distance is 11 miles and the trip is made in 40 minutes. From many points along the route very fine views of both the Catskill and the Adirondac mountains are obtained. At the summit is a large hotel and a park of 1,000 acres, with fine walks and drives. Within a short distance there is excellent fishing and good boating. The scenery, including both the near and the more distant views, is diversified and beautiful. The air is remarkably clear and pure. To large numbers of people, especially to soldiers, the principal object of interest will be the cottage in which General Grant died, and which has since become the property of the State of New York.

As already intimated Saratoga Springs is pre-eminently a pleasure resort. Quiet houses can be found in which one can rest, but the large hotels are the recognized centres of fashionable amusements. There "the days are given up to ease, and the nights to mirth and pleasure," and the season is a constant round of the gayest enjoyments. There are several newspapers and each of the leading religious denominations has one or more churches. The permanent population is from 8,000 to 10,000 and the additional summer population ranges from 15,000 to 20,000. During the season, special and luxurious railroad trains are run from several large cities, as Boston, Washington, Philadelphia, and New York, to accommodate the large number of visitors who want to make the trip to the Springs as quickly and as comfortably as possible.

LAKE GEORGE.

FROM the day that Fenimore Cooper began describing the glories and emphasizing the historical associations of its vicinage, this beautiful sheet of water has possessed a remarkable interest for all Americans. No other similar resort has so much of history, of romance, of natural beauty, of the very essence of quietude and repose, and no other is so popular to-day. It is the most democratic resort in the country, and its frequenters are thoroughly cosmopolitan. Unlike almost all other summer recreation grounds, it offers equal opportunities to the rich and poor to enjoy its myriad advantages. It is not an exclusive resort for the wealthy, for beyond the extravagances of the ultra-fashionable class, one may obtain as much health-giving recreation and enjoyment out of the little as out of the much. On the one hand wealth can find just as many avenues for expenditure as at the most exclusive caravansery, and on the other the means that have to be estimated and counted frequently can secure an equal amount of invigorating profit. The pure mountain air is free to all, the rare beauties of the lake and its surrounding scenery are open to all for the mere looking; and the scrambler in the woods along the shore stands a fair chance of receiving more real benefit from the natural advantages of the place than he who pays a summer's income for a suite of rooms in the finest hotel. Camping out is the favorite method of seeking enjoyment at a comparatively small expense, and in many respects it is the best. With few exceptions the numerous islands in the lake belong to the State, and camping parties are privileged to locate on any of them. A trip up the lake at any time during "the season" will reveal hundreds of tents half hidden by the trees that line the shores, in which whole families pass the entire period of their annual outing.

The lake lies partly in Warren and partly in Washington counties, N. Y., extends north-northeast and south-southwest, is thirty-six miles long, and from one to four miles wide. It is encircled by the foothills of the Adirondac Mountains, is 310 feet above tide, and has a northern outlet into Lake Champlain. The water is remarkably clear and of variable depth, the extreme being about 400 feet. At the present time it contains about 300 islands, though once it was locally claimed that a person could spend every day in the year upon a separate island. In the days of the Indian occupation it was known as Lake Horicon, "silvery waters," which, like all Indian nomenclature, was at once indicative of truthfulness and suggestive of picturesque description. Early in the seventeenth century it was discovered by the French, who piously named it Le Lac du St. Sacrament, "Lake of the Holy Sacrament," and were in the habit of carrying its water long distances for baptismal purposes. Later on, and after the English had captured all that section, Sir William Johnson, prompted by his loyalty, named it Lake George,

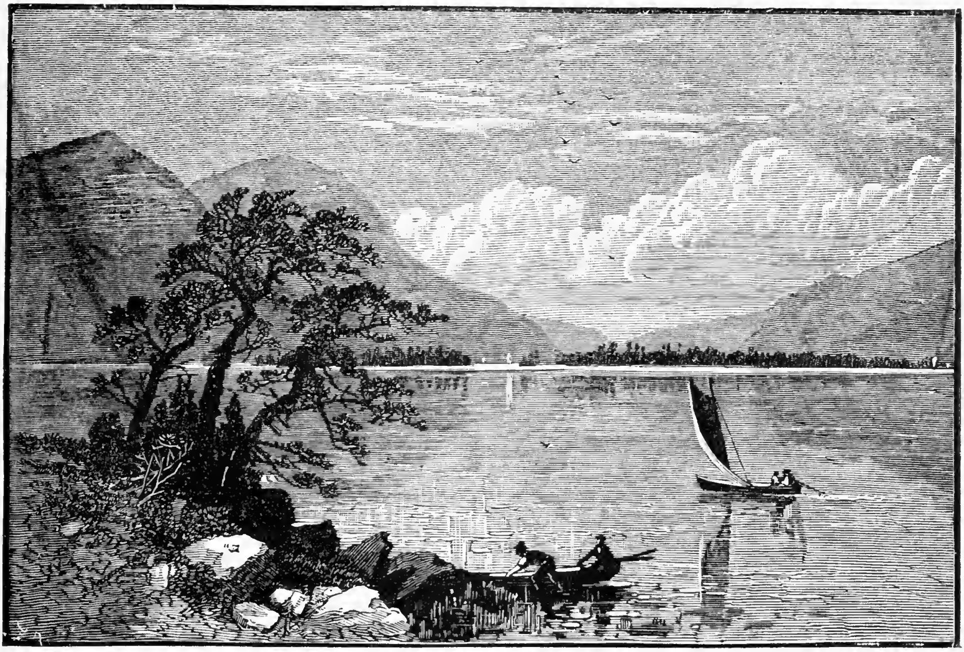

F.H.TAYLOR del.

CAMPING ON THE LAKE.

after King George II., then on the throne. Though this name has since clung to it, and is in no wise appropriate, any one who has enjoyed its attractions cannot but regret that the descriptive Indian designation has been allowed to become obsolete. History, as well as tradition, lingers around it, investing many spots with more than ordinary interest. It was the scene of important military operations during the French and Indian war of 1755–59, Fort George, Fort William, and other defensive works were erected there, and their remains are still visible. Col. Williams, the founder of Williams College, Mass., was killed, and Baron Dieskau, the French commander, severely wounded and his force totally routed by the English near the southern end of the lake on September 5th, 1755; the French General Montcalm besieged Fort William near by with 10,000 men, and forced the English garrison to surrender, after which they were massacred by the Indian allies, in 1757; General Abercrombie, with 15,000, attacked Ticonderoga unsuccessfully, after passing up the lake in boats, in July, 1758; and General Amherst, with about the same force, repeated the journey and captured both Ticonderoga and Crown Point, in July, 1759. There, too, General Burgoyne, before starting on his memorable march to Saratoga, established the depot of his military stores at the head of the lake.

Starting from Caldwell, the post office village of the locality, the first object that strikes the attention of the tourist is Williams' Rock, where Col. Williams was killed. Close by is Bloody Pond, into which the bodies of those slain in the battle were flung. A hotel now stands on the site of Fort William, from which a glorious view of the lake may be obtained. The ruins of Fort George are seen less than a mile away, while French and Prospect Mountains and Rattlesnake Hill loom up, tempting an ascent that may be comfortably made. Passing from Caldwell, at the south end, to Baldwin, at the north, in one of the steamboats that ply regularly, Tea, Diamond, the Two Sisters, Long, Dome, Recluse, and Sloop Islands successively come into sight, beside Ferris's, the North-west, and Ganouskie Bays, Shelving Rock, and Tongue, Black, Buck, and Sugar-Loaf Mountains. Near the narrows on the north is Sabbath-Day Point, the scene of several bloody encounters with Indians, previous to and in the early part of the Revolutionary war. Nearly all these places received their names from circumstances indicated thereby, the recital of which adds not a little to the charm of the tour. Near Sabbath-Day Point the boat enters the broad bay, and soon afterward is steaming between two precipices nearly 400 feet high—Anthony's Nose on the right, and Rogers's Slide on the left. Beyond the slide the lake is narrow, and relatively devoid of interest till the boat approaches the landing at Baldwin, where two other attractions are found, Prisoners' Island, where the English confined their French prisoners, and Lord Howe's Point, where that officer landed his army previous to the attack on Ticonderoga, five miles distant on Lake Champlain.

It will thus be seen that there is a vast amount of material for historical study and contemplation; and it may be accepted as trustworthy that the narratives and traditions of local occurrences will furnish sufficient of the elements of romance and daring to cheer many a long winter evening. Beyond sailing, canoeing, mountain climbing, and the thousand and one time-killing employments of camping life, good fishing can be found at almost any point. The summer population of Lake George is now very large, and constantly increasing. Eighteen commodious hotels were scattered along its shore in 1888, none of which were able to shelter all the season guests, to say nothing of the transient ones.


VIEW ON LAKE GEORGE.

CHAUTAUQUA.

ALTHOUGH of a very different nature from most of the famous summer resorts, and managed upon unique principles, Chautauqua attracts a large and a rapidly increasing number of visitors every summer. It is beautifully located on Chautauqua Lake, in the extreme western part of the State of New York. It is in the county of Chautauqua, which has the peculiarity of being bounded on two sides by the State of Pennsylvania. The lake is from one mile to three miles wide and is about 18 miles long. Although but a short distance from Lake Erie, it lies 726 feet higher than that large body of water and is about 1,400 feet above the ocean level. This is the greatest altitude of any navigable lake east of the Rocky Mountains, and with the exception of Lake Tahoe, in the Sierra Nevadas, the highest on the continent. The lake itself is extremely beautiful and its surroundings are picturesque and charming. Steamers ply upon its waters and small boats may be had by those who prefer a more quiet or a more leisurely trip.

On the shores of the Lake are several popular resorts. At the southern end is Jamestown, on the New York, Pennsylvania Railroad, connecting with the Erie from New York City; and Lakewood, on the same railroad, is close by. Both have hotels and are charming places. Mayville, perhaps equally attractive, is at the northern end of the lake, and on the Buffalo, New York and Philadelphia, and the Buffalo, Pittsburg and Western railroads. This place also has abundant accommodations for visitors. Between these places are Point Chautauqua, a popular Baptist resort, and Chautauqua, the celebrated educational centre.

Chautauqua is located on a point which pushes out into the lake and which, to quite an extent, is still covered with forest trees. The original name of the place was Fair Point and for many years it was a famous locality for camp meetings. It is some 125 feet higher than the water of the lake. The ascent is gradual and the view from the elevation is delightful.

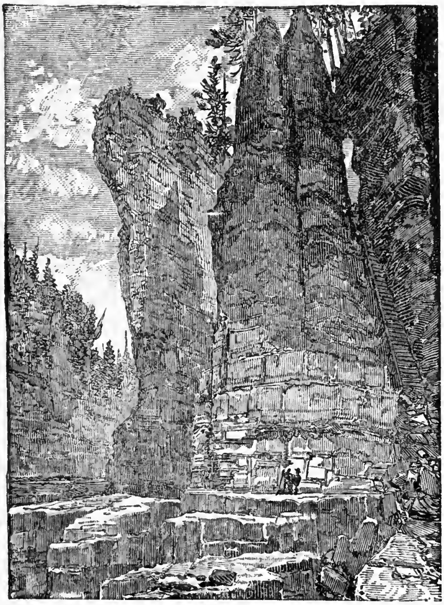
In 1874 the grounds now occupied were purchased by the Chautauqua Sunday-school Assembly and since that date the place has been the recognized centre of a peculiar and important educational movement. A portion of the forest was removed and buildings were erected. There has been an increasing interest in the work of the association and the place has had a steady growth. Nearly 150 acres have been inclosed. Several hundred "cottages," many of them elegant houses, have been erected, together with stores, public buildings, places of recreation and amusement, and a hotel which cost $100,000. Electric lights have been introduced, water is obtained from the purest part of the lake, the streets are well laid out, the sanitary conditions are excellent, and in every respect the place compares favorably with older and far more pretentious resorts.

But it is principally the intellectual and educational features which draw people to Chautauqua. As the headquarters of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle it has a strong attraction for many thousands of people who are pursuing the course of study prescribed by the managers of that organization. The School of Languages is also held here, as is also a Missionary Institute and a Sunday-school Assembly. Secular educators have here their Teachers' Retreat and literary and scientific, as well as religious matters are kept prominently before the attention of visitors.

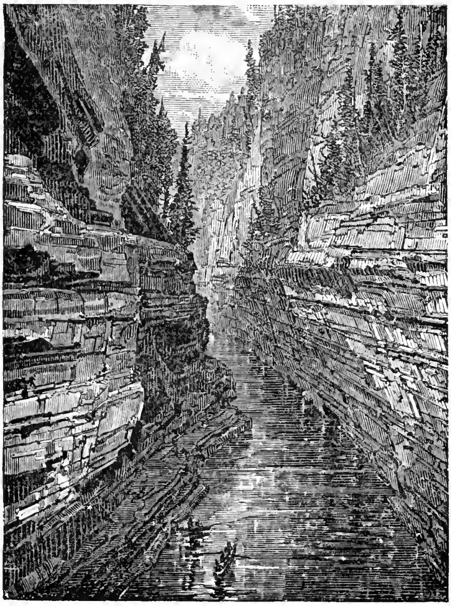
The season at Chautauqua lasts for six weeks. Many lectures by some of the ablest men in their respective lines are delivered, numerous meetings are held, and studies are pursued. Interspersed with these are splendid concerts, fireworks, illuminations, and many and various recreations. Improvement is sought as well as pleasure, and the large numbers who attend the sessions each year and the growing popularity of the resort indicate that the plan here adopted is both practical and profitable.

AUSABLE CHASM.

THE wonderful chasm of the Ausable River is reached by a delightful drive of about twelve miles from the city of Plattsburg, N. Y., through a section of country that presents many natural objects of curiosity and interest. Beyond its weird scenery, the chasm derives an additional attractiveness from the fact that it is an isolated formation, wholly independent of, and disconnected from, any other similar panorama. The surrounding country is comparatively level. But here a slight depression and a wooded valley with gently sloping sides suddenly arrest the attention of the tourist, without, however, giving indication of the extent or variety of the scenes close at hand. At a point about eight miles from Plattsburg and one mile from Keesville, the river makes a leap of twenty feet into a semicircular basin of rare beauty; and about a mile further on, and in a spot of the wildest scenery, it makes another leap, this time down a declivity of 160 feet, where it forms the Birmingham Falls. Still further on and nearly opposite the entrance to the chasm, it plunges over the Horse Shoe Falls, where great blocks of sandstone are piled on one another, assimilating the smoothest cut masonry.



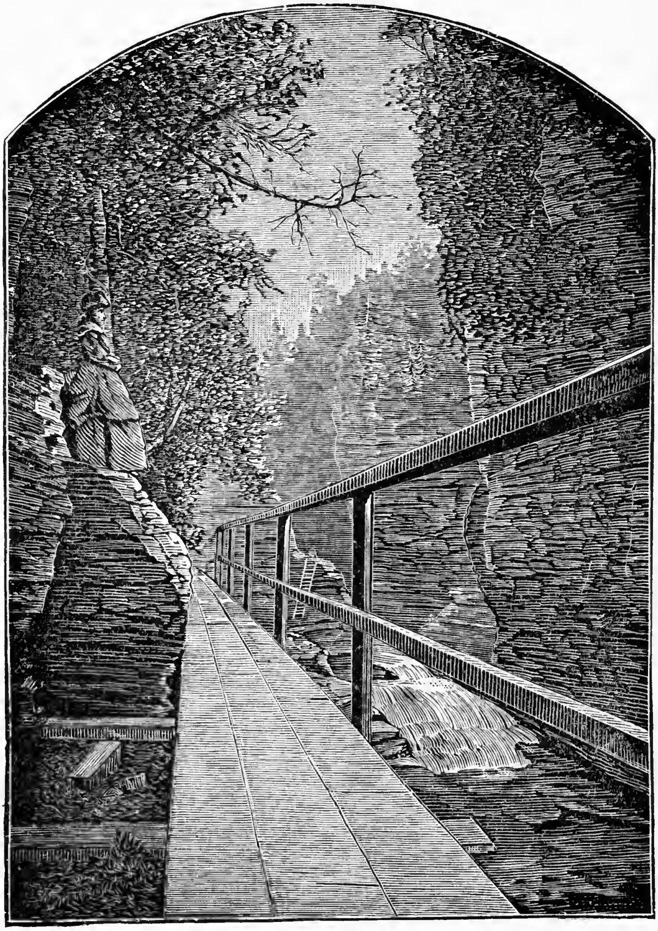
A SHARP TURN.



A LATERAL RAVINE.

From the base of the falls the river begins to deepen and grow narrower, and maintains for a considerable distance an angry foaming.

At the beginning of the chasm proper, the river is hemmed into a channel not over ten feet wide by walls of rock that rise abruptly to a height of from 100 to 200 feet. Lower down and toward the lake, the walls gradually spread apart till in some places there is a distance between them of fifty feet, and then extend into a lateral canal, with sharp turns and occasional enlargements for a distance of nearly two miles. Lateral fissures, deep and narrow, project from the main ravine at nearly right angles, and through one of these the abyss is reached by a stairway of over 200 steps. The entire mass of the walls is formed of laminæ of sandstone, laid in such regular and precise order by the hand of nature as to produce the effect of a grand architectural ruin. From the crevices of these walls, innumerable hardy pines and cedars rise in stately form, as if planted by man to heighten the artistic beauty of the landscape; or, from apparently less secure footing, threateningly project their trunks at angles that give them the appearance of being about to be drawn into the depths of the chasm by an irresistible power. Dark branches and darker

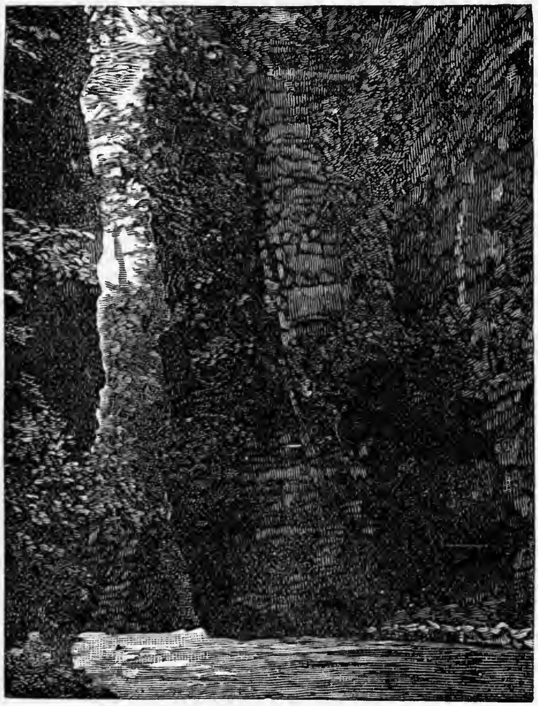


LONG GALLERY.

shadows thus lie athwart the gorge, suggestive of the additional charm of rugged-nature danger.

The trip through the chasm may be made either in a small boat, which is much preferable, or on foot and with absolute comfort, as the distance is not sufficient to entail more than a healthful amount of fatigue. A boat ride over the last half-mile is one of the pleasantest features of the excursion, and the novel sensation of shooting the rapids and floating over unknown depths is something long to be remembered. The chasm is owned by a company, by whom stone walks with substantial iron railings, firm bridges. and safe and commodious boats have been provided.

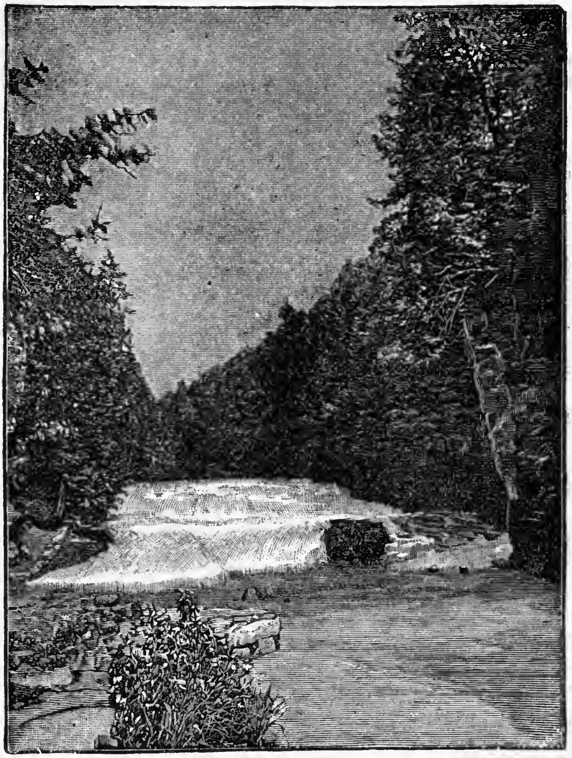
CHATEAUGAY CHASM.



POINT LOOKOUT.

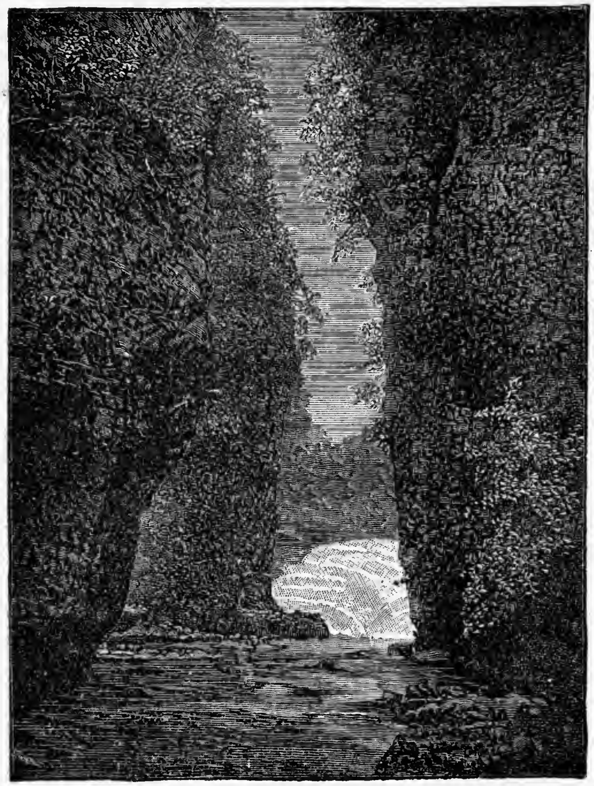
IF the thousands of tourists who visit the Adirondac region of New York State each season, and content themselves with camping, climbing, and hunting, would extend their journey a little further northward than has heretofore been customary, they would find ample recompense in the vistas of rugged grandeur that are displayed in the marvellous chasm of the Chateaugay River. The locality is just within the western boundary line of Clinton County, due west of Plattsburg, and north-northeast of Lyon Mountain. Norway Mountain rises on the southeast, Rand Hill is directly east, Owl's Head, in Franklin County, west. The vicinity comprehends a number of lakes and large ponds, chief among which are Chateaugay

Lake, Lower Chateaugay, which is geographically the upper, Ragged, Chazy, Meacham, Leon, Silver, Branch Lakes, and Round and Ingraham Ponds. The chasm is about a mile and a half north of the village of Chateaugay, and is reached by rail from Plattsburg, from the central and western portions of New York by the Rome, Watertown, and Ogdensburg Railroad, and from the latter city by the Ogdensburg and Lake Champlain Railroad. The waters of the Chateaugay River and the two lakes of the same name find an outlet to the St. Lawrence River through a hilly country. At the chasm the whole volume is forced through a narrow gorge, walled in on either side by high and perpendicular cliffs, and with but one or two places where a descent can be made in safety. From the banks above splendid and most interesting views may be had of the charming cascades and falls, and when the tourist has once gained the bottom sufficient attractions will be found to engage the attention for hours. Ample provisions have been made to guard against accidents, and the descent is accomplished with but little fatigue, though in places it is very abrupt.



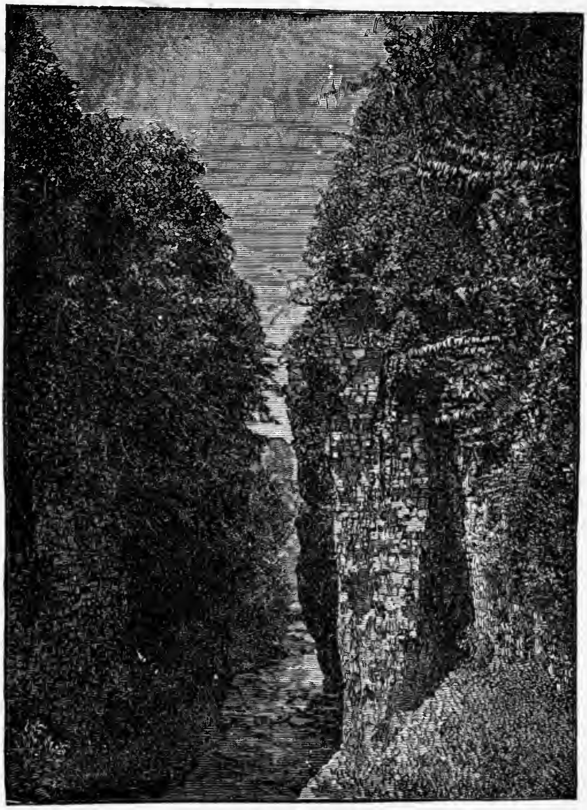
CASCADE AND BUTTRESS.

After leaving the pavilion on the edge of the cliff and passing down the steps cut in the solid rock, the tourist comes first to a broad flat rock by which the river dashes over a high ledge which forms the upper or first falls, a cascade of considerable volume and much brilliancy. Above is seen the rugged masonry of sandstone blocks formed by the regular stratification of the natural deposit, with frequent irregular fissures and seams nearly at right angles with the strata. It is quite natural, in viewing such scenery, to allow the imagination to mould what really exists into forms and shapes that have a similitude to mystic creations. Just as one's fancy discerns the most grotesque objects and structures in moon-illumined clouds, so here, but slight elasticity of imagination suffices to transform the rugged rocks that are really seen and may be felt into far-off vistas of feudal buildings with mighty embattled towers, arches, minarets, and the thousand and one architectural features of a lord's manor in the romantic days of King Arthur and his valiant knights of the round table. Such is the character of Cathedral Rock, the Bastile on the left, and the Niches of Jupiter on the right, all comparatively close to Vulcan's Cave. The Niches and Cave are seen high up among the cliffs, as the tourist wends his way still downward and along the narrow gallery of stone smoothed by nature, and past the rippling surface of the stream, to a point where the gorge begins to widen, and where the fury of the water is somewhat calmed by its extension in a wide, thin sheet over the sandstone base that unites the two walls of the chasm. A little further on, the water that here sparkles in seeming rest glides down from one to another of a series of stone terraces, worn smooth by its own action in unnumbered years, seething and foaming at each interruption in its hasty progress, and sending up clouds of spray that exhibit in the sunlight a succession of iridescent bows spanning the verdure-clad walls. This spot is known as Rainbow Basin.



RAINBOW FALLS—SPARTAN PASS.

Then passing close by the leaping waters down a natural stairway of nearly 100 steps, formed by the stratification of the stone, the Giant Gorge is reached. Pausing at the entrance a moment and looking backward through the chasm, a magnificent spectacle is presented. Upward the walls gradually approach each other, so that the distance at the top is scarcely twenty-five feet. The ferns and foliage that clothe the towering cliffs seem almost close enough to interlace and arch the heights of the gulf. Entering the gorge the first object that rivets the attention is the mouth of Vulcan's Cave, sixty feet above the bed of the river and fully 120 feet from the top of the over-hanging cliffs. So far as is known the interior of this cave was never visited by human beings till within a few years. It was first reached by means of long, spliced ladders and with considerable difficulty, but now an inclosed stairway is provided, and whoever has the hardihood to attempt to penetrate its recesses will be rewarded with the view of a chamber thirty feet square, with a number of gothic arches supported by massive pillars, dormer windows in miniature, irregularly disposed niches, and ceiling and wall decorations of nature's sculpture-work in the most weird, fantastic shapes. Near the entrance to the cave is a plateau from which a view of another mile or so down the chasm, and into a region as yet accessible only with great danger, may be had; up to 1888 it had not been sufficiently explored to determine its attractions, but evidences were found of the presence of other caves. Descending from Vulcan's Cave the tourist passes the foot of Pulpit Rock, and leaving the walk at its edge, picks his way along the margin of the stream for a distance of half a mile, and then reaches the grottoes of Juno, Venus, and Minerva,


PULPIT ROCK—GIANT GORGE.

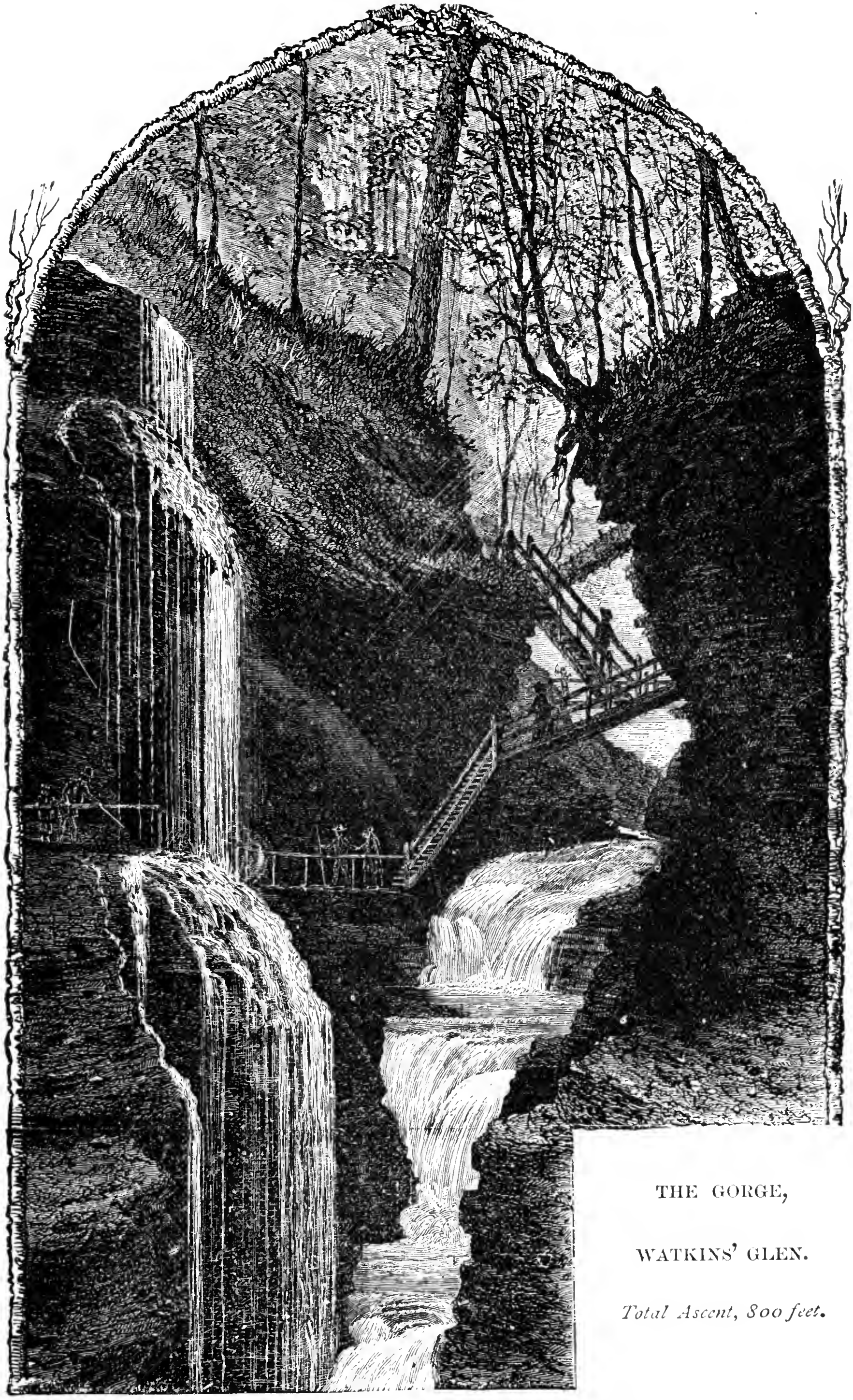
which constitute a cluster of the most interesting features of the entire locality.

As a popular resort Chateaugay Chasm is still in its infancy. We have illustrated and described sufficient of its most accessible attractions to interest the tourist and direct attention to it, believing that within a few years venturesome travellers will discover so much more to please the eye and excite wonder, that it will be said of the chasm as it was of the wealth and wisdom of Solomon, the half has not been told.

WATKINS GLEN.

THIS beautiful Glen is situated west of and partly in the village of Watkins, Schuyler County, N. Y., near the head of Seneca Lake. It is 20 miles from Elmira and 40 from Geneva. It is on the Geneva and Corning Railroad, also on the Northern Central Railroad, which connects at Canandaigua with the New York Central Railroad. It is also reached by a line of steamers, running from Geneva to Watkins, over Seneca Lake, touching at all points. This is a delightful way of reaching the Glen from the north, as the scenery of this beautiful lake is equal to anything on the continent. The word Glen gives but a faint idea of the gorge; it is a marvellous rift in the mountain, which appears to have been made by some stupendous earthquake.

The Glen, with its dashing, flashing, cascading stream, is a really wonderful natural curiosity. It is not properly a glen, but a numerous succession and variety of glens. At every turn there is material for a wonderful picture. It is one of Nature's reservoirs of eternal coolness. Even in July and August the air is cool, fresh, and bracing; laden with sweet odors, the fragrance of many flowers. It is renowned the world over for its wonderful scenery. It is as well worthy a visit as the Falls of Niagara. The total ascent of the Glen is about 800 feet. Looking upward, what a sight bursts upon us! Towering and irregular cliffs of dark rock, angular and sullen, rise one above another till they appear to meet in the clouds, and seem to forbid approach. At numerous places in the Glen we pause, and wonder how it is possible to go much farther, the way appears impassable, and the distance so inaccessible; but as we advance the path always opens, and gives far more interest to the ascent than though we could clearly mark our way before us.



THE GORGE,

WATKINS' GLEN.

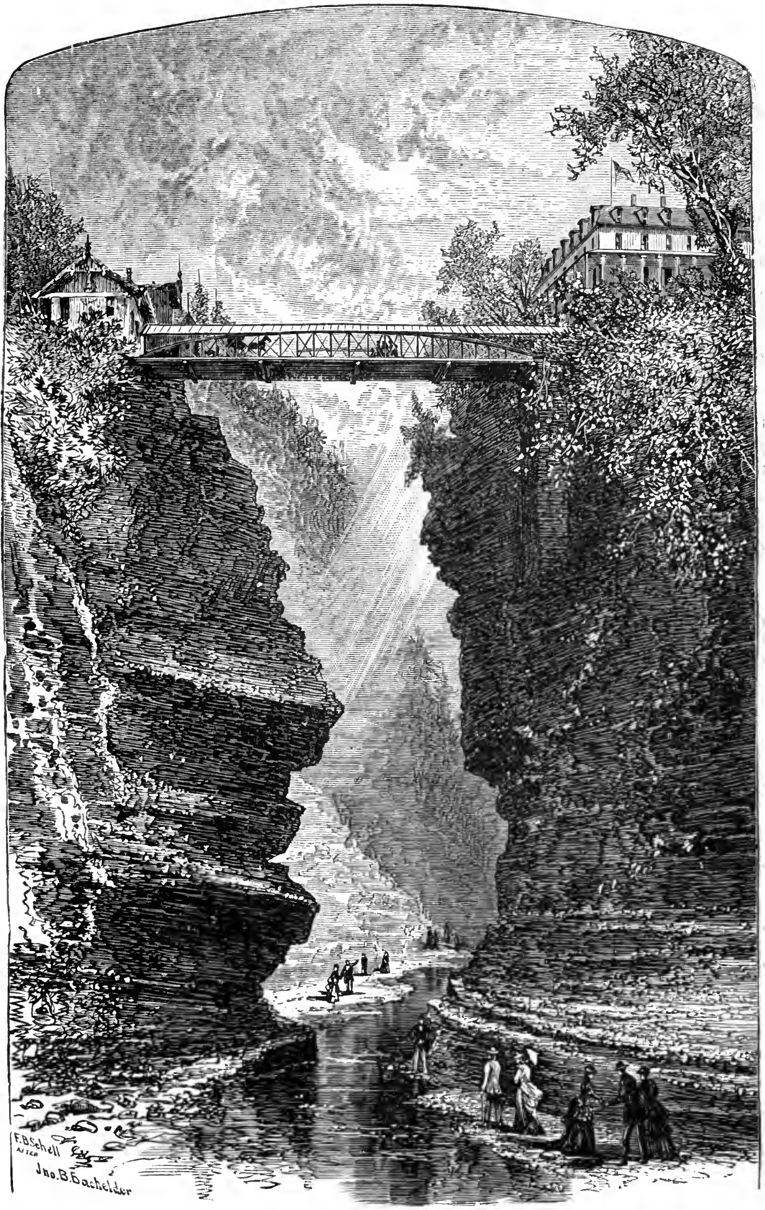
Total Ascent, 800 feet.

Minnehaha is one of the numerous beautiful cascades; it is irregular, yet full of grace. The water, broken several times in its fall, is dashed into foam and spray, which forms a brilliant contrast to the dark, rocky surroundings. About 100 feet beyond Minnehaha is the Fairy Cascade, which, with one graceful bound, leaps into Neptune's Pool. For sublimity and grandeur Cavern Gorge is probably unsurpassed by any in the Glen. Near this beautiful cavern is another, known as Cavern Cascade, which leaps 60 feet in a single column from the rocks above into what is known as the Grotto, which is a dark, damp, weird cavern.

After emerging from the dark chasm, we see before us silvery cascades, quiet pools, and moss-garnished walls overarched by stately forest trees and thick shrubbery, with a broad light flooding the distance; and far above through the emerald foliage, like a web of gossamer, is seen the beautiful iron bridge spanning the Glen. The beauty of the foliage is very impressive, and the vegetation is almost tropical. From this point along the verge of the gorge is a "new" pathway, with a fine stairway, broken by platforms recently erected, and which leads to the building known as the "Swiss Cottage," now a cottage of the Glen Mountain House, the only hotel connected with the Glen, which is located on a sort of natural shelf, 100 feet above the level of the stream, and 200 feet above the level of Glen Alpha, overlooking The Vista, and nestling among the trees and shrubbery. Thousands of feet of pathway and many of the stairs are cut in the solid rock.

A few rods above the Mountain House is situated Hope's Art Gallery, which was built by Captain J. Hope, late of 82 Fifth Avenue, New York, and contains a superb collection of more than 100 of his finest and most celebrated paintings. From this point Sylvan Gorge is not far distant. It is considered one of the wildest, most beautiful, and interesting portions of the Glen. A succession of little rapids and cascades leap into Sylvan Gorge, of which the upper termination is called the Sylvan Rapids, and they glide and dance very beautifully through their irregular rocky channel. Here we have a delightful bird's-eye view down through Sylvan Gorge, with its many windings and mysterious recesses.

Looking upward we find ourselves in Glen Cathedral. All attempt at description fails, and words are inadequate to paint a picture that would do this subject justice, or convey to the mind an idea of its grandeur. The Cathedral is an immense oblong amphitheatre, nearly an eighth of a mile in length. Here the Glen is wider than at any other point; the rocky walls tower to a


F.B.Schell
AFTER
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GLEN MOUNTAIN HOUSE, WATKINS GLEN.

great height—over 300 feet—and are richly tapestried with mosses and clinging vines, and crowned with lofty pines and other evergreen trees. The floor is composed of a smooth and even surface of rock; the vaulted arch of the sky forms the dome. In the upper end the Central Cascade forms the Choir, and, as it dashes from rock to rock, sings continual hymns of praise to the Infinite Power that created this mighty temple.

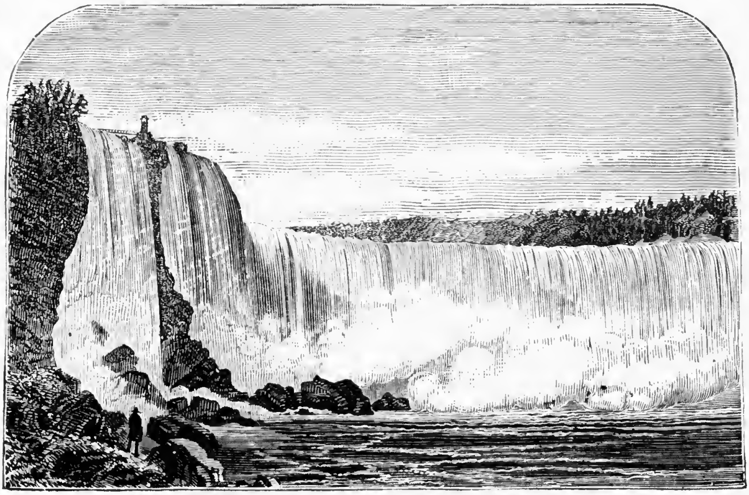
Central Cascade has a beautiful fall of about 60 feet, and while far above, projecting through the trees, is seen Pulpit Rock, close by is the Glen of the Pools, so called from its great variety and number of rock basins. Situated near the upper end of the Cathedral is a large and beautiful pool, called the Baptismal Font. The Grand Staircase, which is close by, is 170 feet high. We have to ascend this before we can reach the "Poet's Dream," which presents a magnificent scene, and affords new phases of magical beauty like the ever-varying changes in a kaleidoscope.

The Triple Cascade is considered by many to be the finest in the Glen. As its name indicates, it is composed of three portions, one above another, each different in form from the others, and forming a beautiful combination. Just below the Triple Cascade, on the south side, a little brook leaps over the brow of a great cliff nearly 400 feet high down into the Glen. The water does not descend in a smooth sheet, but in a myriad of tiny threads and drops, forming a sparkling crystal veil, behind which our course leads. This novel cascade is known as Rainbow Falls. The space between the fall and the cliff is narrow, but sufficiently wide to allow free passage. In the afternoon, from June to September, when fair weather prevails, the rays of the sun fall into the gorge, and the enraptured visitor, in looking through the veil, beholds two most beautiful rainbows, a primary and secondary—a sight that, once enjoyed, can never be forgotten.

Glen Arcadia well deserves its name, for a more beautiful scene cannot be imagined. It has been called "The Artist's Dream," where all the beauties of the other glens, silver cascades, and crystal pools, light and shadow, sharp angles and graceful curves, foliage, sky, and rock, mingle and produce a picture that more resembles an ecstatic dream than anything that can elsewhere be found. Other scenes of great beauty or interest are Pluto Falls, on which the sun never shines; the Arcadian Fall, which is a beautiful cascade, falling into a kind of natural grotto, and at its foot is a beautiful basin; Elfin Gorge, which is a scene of wondrous beauty; Glen Facility, at which point the most important of the great natural beauties of the Glen terminate; but many visitors go half a mile beyond, to see the magnificent new iron bridge of the Syracuse, Geneva and Corning Railroad Company, which spans the Glen at a height of 165 feet above the water. In our description we have passed through 2½ miles, and gained a level 600 feet above our starting-point.

NIAGARA FALLS.

AMONG the sublime sights of the world the Falls of Niagara easily hold the highest rank. There are other cataracts with a much greater descent and other falls with far more picturesque surroundings. But, so far as is known, nowhere else is there such an immense volume of water pouring over a mighty precipice, or such a majestic and unceasing exhibition of terrific power. It is estimated that 2,000,000 tons of water pass over this enormous ledge every minute. Its name, Niagara, is remarkably appropriate. It is derived from an Indian word meaning the "thunder of water"—a term which is naturally suggested by the constant and terrific roar of the falls.



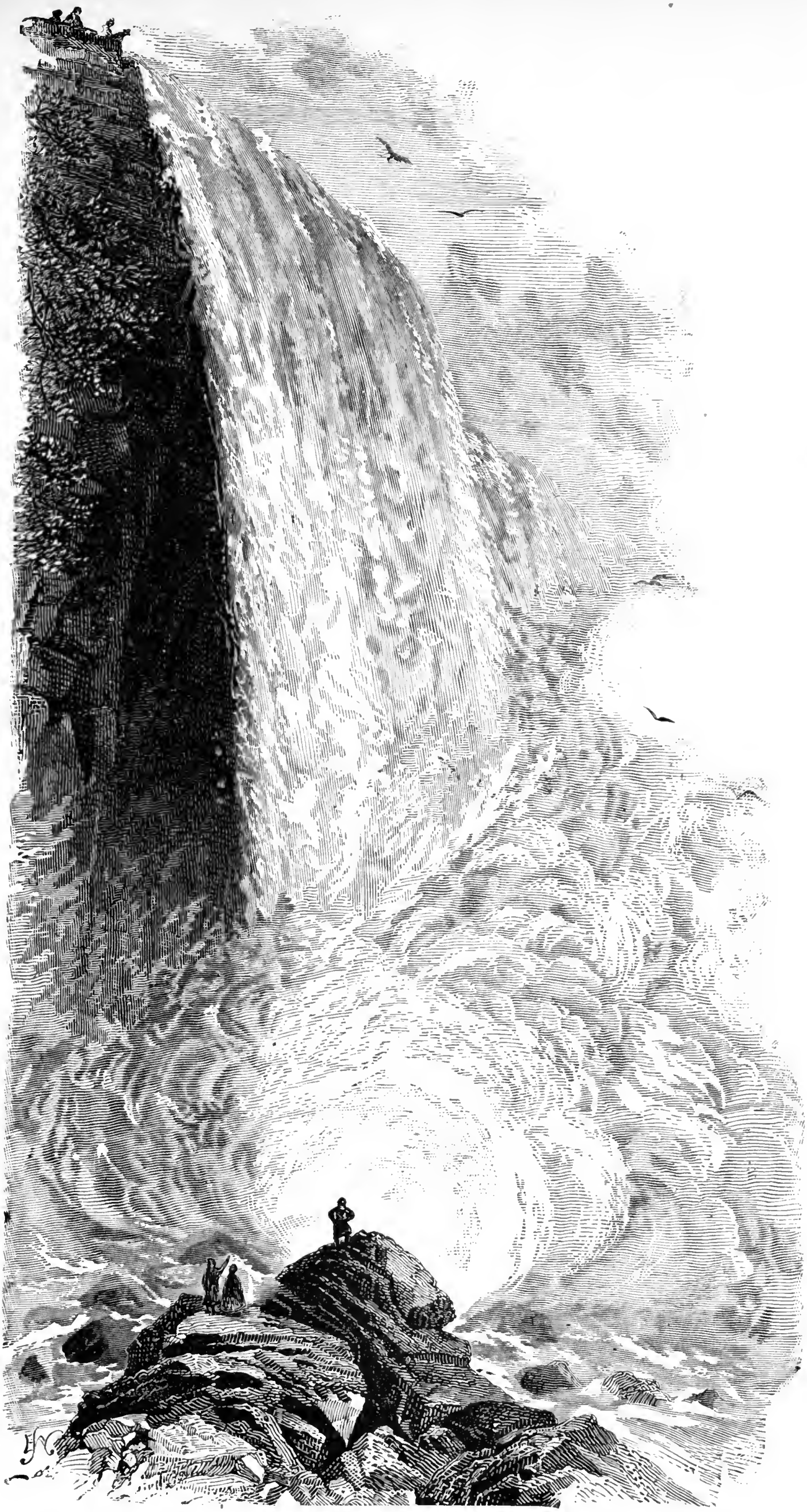
THE HORSESHOE FALL.

In this mighty cataract the beautiful, the magnificent, and the sublime are intimately blended. The visitor is at once charmed and astounded. The beauty is indescribable, but the majestic predominates, while the grandeur is altogether beyond the power of the human mind to portray. A few of the leading features can be imperfectly outlined, but the grand view of the falls and the impression which it makes upon the visitor cannot be adequately presented by either words or pictures. Writers and painters of great renown have endeavored to portray the scene "only to find in the end that the English language was too poor and the scope of human skill too narrow to render justice to so sublime a theme."

The Niagara Falls are on the Niagara River, which flows northward from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario and which carries the surplus waters of the upper great lakes, and of several smaller ones, toward the St. Lawrence. It also forms the boundary between the State of New York and the Province of Ontario. The distance is only thirty-six miles, but there is a total descent of 333 feet. Of this but twenty feet occurs in the first sixteen miles from Lake Erie. The river contains several islands, the largest of which is Grand Island, situated only a few miles from Lake Erie. This island is several miles long, has an area of about 17,000 acres, and is famous as the place at which an enthusiastic Hebrew once attempted to found "Ararat, a city of refuge for the Jews," in which he hoped to gather all the Jews in the world. As it leaves Lake Erie the river is about three-fourths of a mile wide, but below Grand Island it reaches a width of nearly three miles and, with its small islands and quiet surface, resembles a picturesque lake. Further down, by a contraction of the channel and a fall of fifty-two feet in the bed of the river in a distance of about one mile, the mighty current known as the Rapids is formed. Although there is an immense volume of water and the river is of great depth, the surface is always covered with a white foam. The rapids terminate in the falls, the distance from Lake Erie being about twenty-two miles.

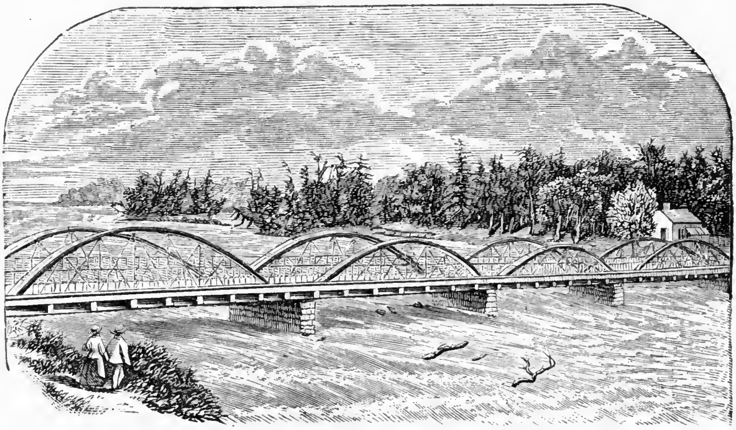
The earliest printed mention of the falls was contained in an account of the explorations of Jacques Cartier in 1535. In 1613 Samuel de Champlain marked the location on a map of his voyages. But the earliest known description of the falls was given in 1678 by Father Louis Hennepin, a French missionary. With this description there was a drawing of the falls as they then appeared. A comparison of this sketch with the falls at the present time shows that they have undergone great changes in outline during the past two centuries. But their grandeur still remains as unspeakable as it was when he wrote of the "vast and prodigious Cadence of Water which falls down after a surprising and astonishing manner, insomuch that the Universe does not afford its Parallel."

Scientists assert that the falls were originally near Lewiston, and were caused by the filling up, by glacial action, of the old bed of the river. When the new channel was opened the water fell over the edge of the plateau which fronts the low region around Lake Ontario. Since then it has been constantly cutting its way backward toward Lake Erie, having now covered a



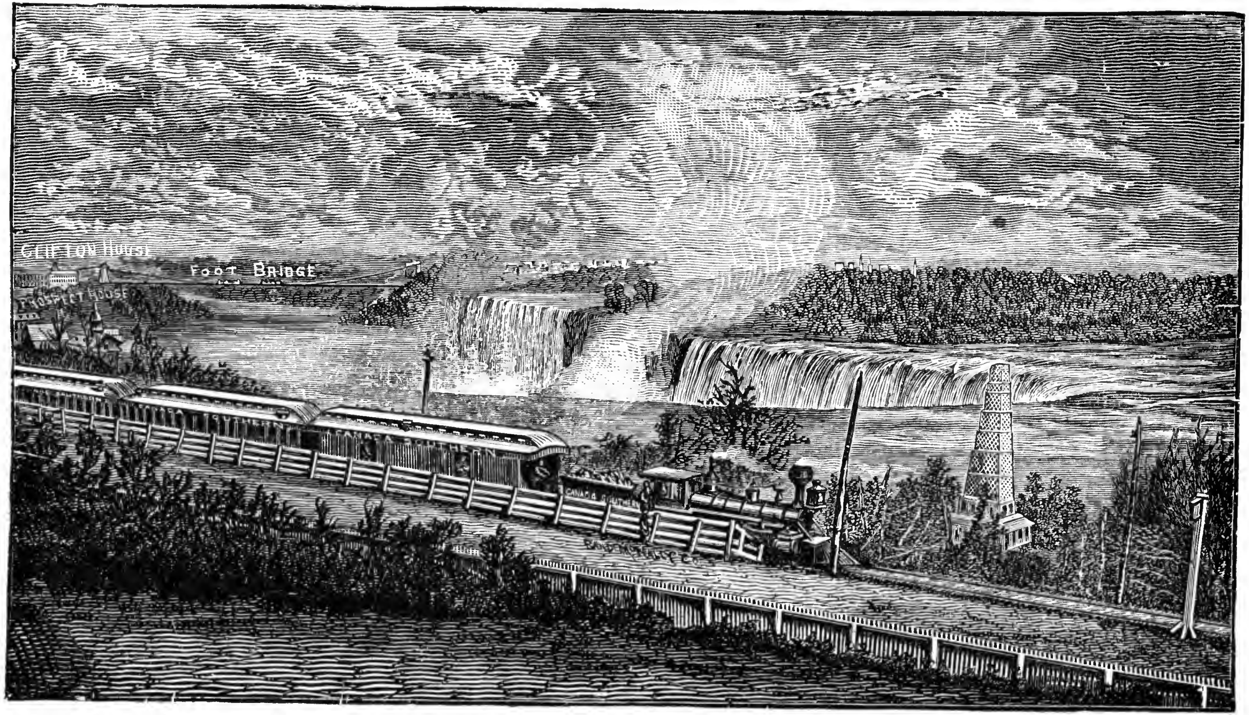
NIAGARA FALLS.

distance of about seven miles. The rate of its retrocession is unknown. The estimates of scientists vary from one foot per year to three feet per century. Even at the most rapid rate designated a period of over 30,000 years has passed since the river commenced wearing away the face of the plateau over which its waters fell. At the present location of the falls the bed of the river is of hard limestone to a depth of about ninety feet. Underneath this is a much softer material which is more rapidly dissolved and washed away. By this uneven wearing of the rock there has been formed, at some portions of the cataract, a projecting ledge which will eventually break off and instantly carry the falls backward a distance of several feet. It is predicted that a bed of sandstone will be reached which will lower the falls so that they will be only eighty feet high, and which will be so hard as to almost wholly resist the erosive action of the water. To reach this sand stone formation will, according to the estimates of geologists, require a period of about 10,000 years.

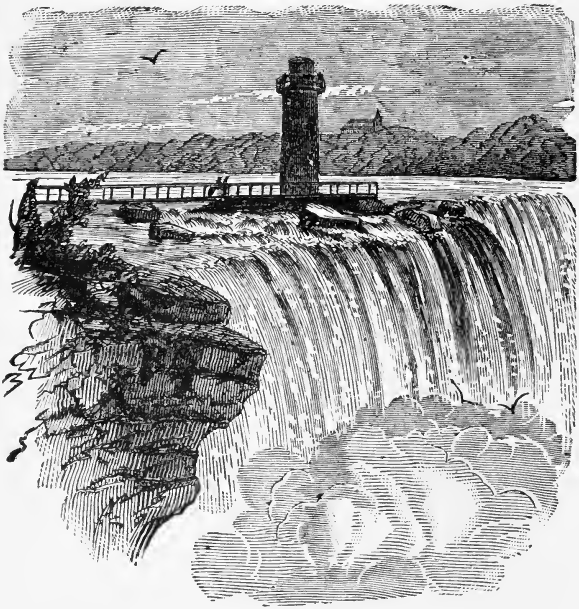


THE BRIDGE LEADING TO BATH AND GOAT ISLAND.

At the falls the river is divided into two portions by Goat Island. This is a small tract of land about 150 rods long by 70 rods wide, and contains about 65 acres. It rises about 40 feet above the water and is one of the most beautiful spots in the vicinity. It is reached by an iron bridge, 360 feet in length, built upon piers. From this point a splendid view of the rapids is obtained. Between this island and the shore is Bath Island, a beautiful spot which in summer is covered with luxuriant verdure. At a little distance from Goat Island is a massive rock projecting to the brow of the falls. Many years ago a stone structure, some 20 or 30 feet in height, and called Terrapin Tower, was built upon this rock. It was reached from Goat Island by a bridge, and but for the feeling of insecurity which the visitor could not throw off it would have been one of the pleasantest places, as it was one of the

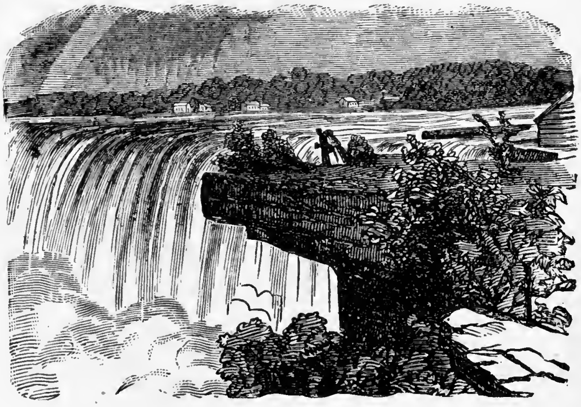

CLIFTON HOUSE
FOOT BRIDGE
PROSPECT HOUSE

VIEW OF NIAGARA FALLS, LOOKING TOWARD THE FOOT BRIDGE, finest points of view, at the falls. The constant motion caused by the steady fall of such an enormous quantity of water, and the gradual wearing away of the face of the falls, at length rendered it so manifestly unsafe that it was destroyed with gunpowder.



THE TERRAPIN TOWER, DESTROYED IN 1873.

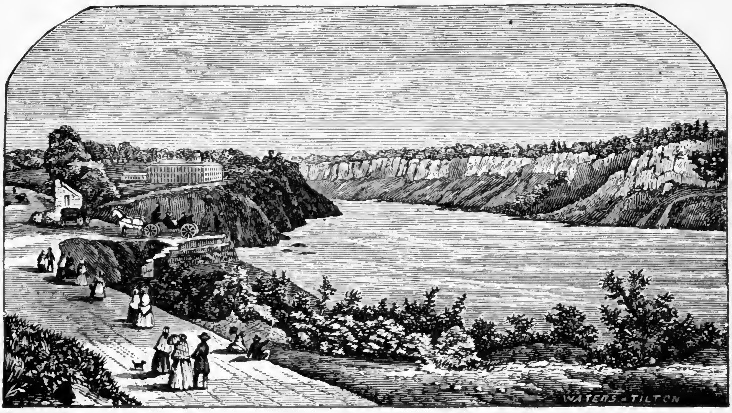
The width of the river at the falls is 4,750 feet, of which Goat Island occupies about 1,000 feet. The width of the American Fall is about 1,100 feet, broken, however, by a small island, while the Canadian Fall is more than twice as wide. The line of the latter, or Horseshoe Fall, is curved to such an extent as to make the measurement of the face of the fall much greater than the distance from Goat Island to the shore in a straight line. On account of the direction of the current, as well as the greater width of the channel, the quantity of water passing over the Canadian Fall is many times greater than that going over the American side. The height of the precipice is 158 feet on the Canadian side and 167 feet on the American portion. The Horseshoe Fall has worn away very much faster in the middle than it has near the outer edges and is rapidly assuming an angular form. On the American side also there is, of late years, a tendency to cut away in the middle much faster than elsewhere. By the falling of vast masses of rock the outline of the falls is frequently modified. Table



THE OLD TABLE-ROCK.

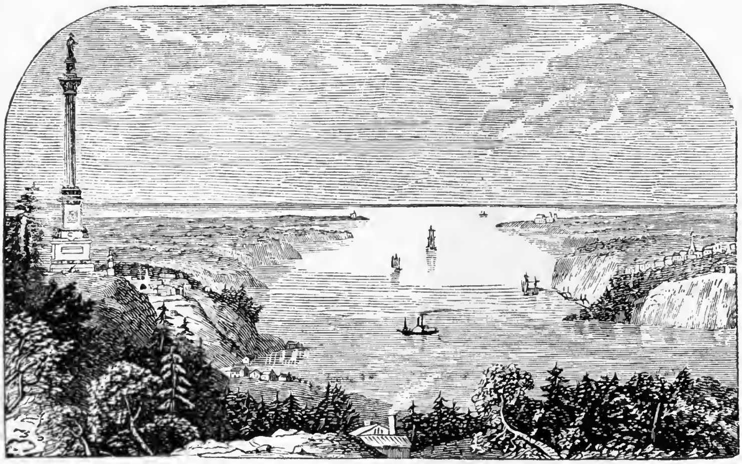
Rock, once a very prominent feature on the Canadian side, has entirely fallen in, though a spot near its former location is still called by that name. Other large portions have fallen in recent years, but the essential features of the falls remain unimpaired.

From Goat Island there is a bridge leading to Luna Island, a mass of rock occupying an area of about three-fourths of an acre, which separates what is known as the Central Fall from the American Fall. Just beyond is a spiral stairway leading to the foot of the falls. This is known as the Biddle Stairway and received its name from Nicholas Biddle, president of the famous United States Bank, by whose direction it was constructed. By this stairway access is gained to the Cave of the Winds. As already noted the rock near the bottom of the falls is dissolved and washed away much faster than is the harder rock near the top. This process of undermining seems to have gone on quite rapidly at the Central Fall, and the overhanging rock projects for quite a distance. The tremendous force of the current also throws the water many feet beyond the brink of the precipice. Thus there is left a sufficiently wide but a "rough, slippery, half-subterranean half-submarine pathway" by which one can go behind the vast torrent of water. Waterproof clothing must be worn and an experienced guide should be secured. The air is greatly compressed, the mist is heavy and the roar is terrific. The first view from beneath the falls is absolutely appalling. But when the instinctive feeling of fear has passed the scene appears magnificent beyond description. A plank road has been laid to rocks outside, and near the foot of the falls, from which point another splendid view may be obtained. From Goat Island bridges lead to the Three Sisters, a cluster of pretty little islands lying in the rapids. There are also islands nearer the Canadian shore.

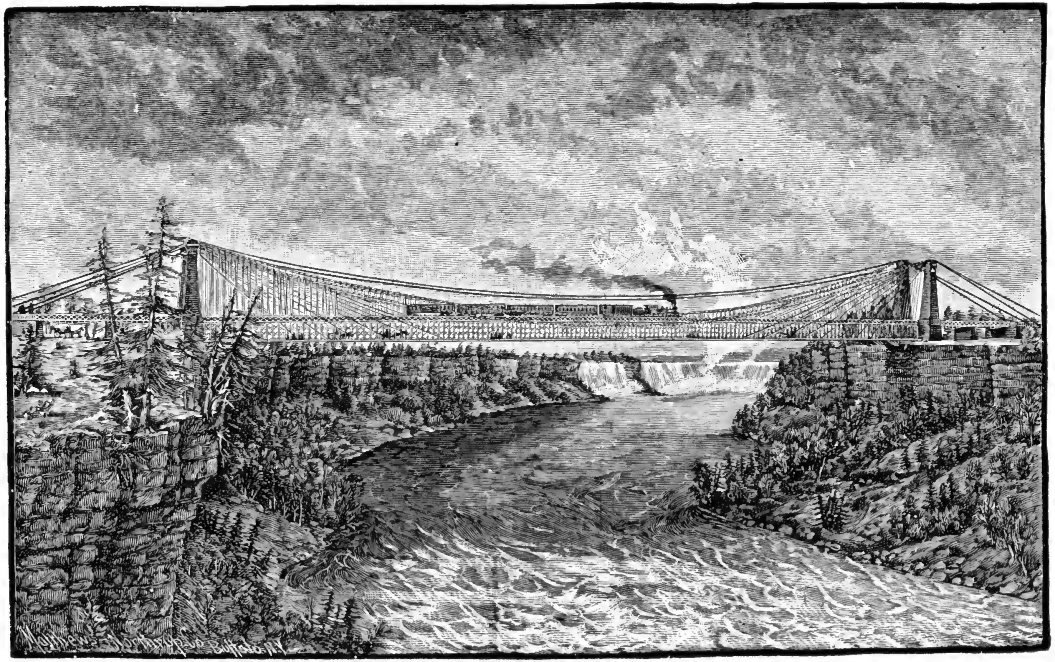


NIAGARA RIVER BELOW THE FALLS—THE CANADA SIDE.

In order to make free to the people of the world the wonderful attractions of the falls, place and keep the grounds in suitable condition, and put an end to the annoyances as well as the extortions to which visitors had been subjected, Governor Lucius Robinson sent a message to the Legislature of New York, in 1879, in which he recommended that the State take possession of a suitable area of land in the vicinity and set it aside as a public park. The subject was agitated until 1883, when commissioners were appointed to locate the lands which it seemed desirable to secure. The property designated in their report was appraised, by parties appointed by the courts, at $1,433,429.-50, which sum was duly paid by the State.


NIAGARA FROM NEAR QUEENSTOWN HEIGHTS.

On the 15th of July, 1885, "The New York State Park at Niagara Falls" was opened to the public with appropriate ceremonies. The grounds, which include Goat Island, with several smaller islands, and a strip along the bank of the river, comprise an area of about 107 acres. They are under the care of commissioners, who are authorized to maintain the property in good condition and make necessary improvements. The bank of the river has been terraced, fences, and barns, with other unsightly objects, have been removed, a reception house has been built and various other means have been taken to promote the comfort of visitors, while an elevator at the Cave of the Winds is to be constructed, and certain other improvements are either being made or will soon be effected. A railway has been built from the park to the foot of the falls, and a steamer, called Maid of the Mist, crosses the river. From this little craft a splendid view of the falls may be obtained. Passengers in the car and the steamer are charged a small sum and there is a charge for a guide in the Cave of the Winds, but entrance to the park, and to all points of interest, is entirely free.

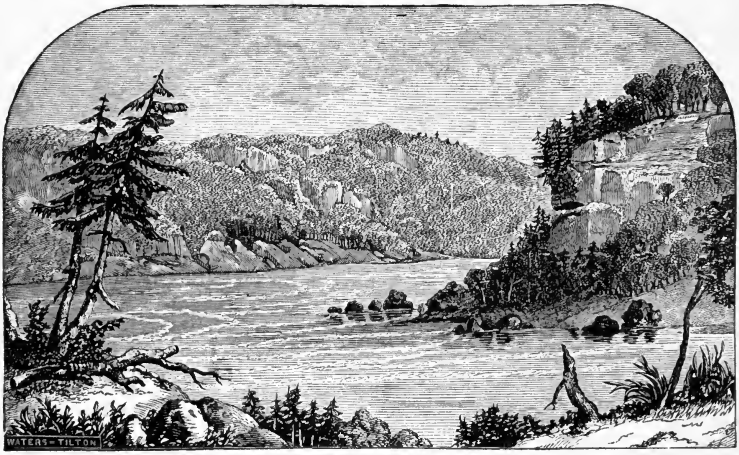

Matthews-Northrup & Co. Buffalo, N.Y.

SUSPENSION BRIDGE, NIAGARA FALLS.

At a somewhat later date measures were taken by the legislature of Ontario to secure a public park on the Canadian side of the falls. After some delay these efforts were successful, and on the 22d of June, 1887, the Queen Victoria Niagara Falls Park was opened without ceremony to the public use. Roadways have been laid out, platforms built from which to view the falls, and an elevator has been constructed to take people from the cliff to a bank 80 feet below. From the latter point access is gained to the recess behind the Horseshoe Fall. The stairs leading to the foot of the falls are steep, but can be passed without much difficulty. Waterproof clothing and a guide are required if one is to pass behind the fall. The air is so greatly compressed that it is impossible to go a long distance in this direction. This park contains 118 acres of land, is some two and a half miles long, and embraces several small islands. To some portions of the park a small admission fee is charged. An immense Crystal Palace has been constructed and various other attractions have been added.

The bridges across the river below the falls are objects of interest. The first to be erected was a suspension bridge which was built under the direction of the celebrated civil engineer, John A. Roebling. It is about two miles from the falls, was in process of construction about three years, and was opened for use in 1855. It measures 821 feet and 4 inches between the towers, is 245 feet above the water, and has a public roadway at the bottom and the Grand Trunk Railroad track on top. Thirty-one years after its completion the stone towers built to support the cables upon which the bridge was hung were replaced by towers made of steel. What is known as the New Suspension Bridge was built in 1868. It measures 1,268 feet between the towers and is 230 feet above the water. It is only about 50 rods from the falls, and from the top, which is reached by an elevator on the Canadian side, an excellent view may be obtained. It is used for foot passengers and carriages. The most remarkable bridge in the vicinity, and the first bridge of the kind ever built in the United States, is the cantilever bridge, which was built in 1883. It is 895 feet in length and 245 feet above the water. The cantilevers are supported by two enormous steel towers, 130 feet high, resting upon stone piers 39 feet high, which, in turn, are supported by massive masonry resting upon solid rock. This bridge is about 300 feet above the railroad suspension bridge, and is used for railroad purposes only. It has two tracks, one of which is used by the New York Central Railroad and the other by the Michigan Central road. The span across the river is 500 feet in length and is the longest truss span in the world which carries two lines of railroad track.

Between the falls and Lewiston, a distance of seven miles, there is a descent in the river bed of 104 feet. The water flows through a gorge varying in width from about 800 to 1,200 feet, with sides so steep that stairways are needed to enable one to get from the bank to the river's edge. Much of the way the banks are from 200 to 350 feet high. Some three miles below the falls is the famous Whirlpool, which is caused by a short bend in the channel of the river by which the water is violently turned toward the Canadian shore and quickly forced back to the American side. Trunks of large trees have been kept in constant motion in this whirlpool for several weeks before getting into the current beyond. In the rapids above the whirlpool the motion of the water is so violent that the middle of the stream is said to be 30 feet higher than the edges. From Lewiston to Lake Ontario the course of the river is tranquil and the gorge is reduced to a depth of about 30 feet.



NIAGARA RIVER—THE WHIRLPOOL.

At the village of Niagara Falls, situated on the river and close to the cataract, are many hotels, some of them very large and well appointed, which furnish ample accommodations to visitors. The village of Suspension Bridge, one and a half miles below, also contains popular hotels. The former village has about 3,500 and the latter about 2,500 inhabitants.

THE THOUSAND ISLANDS.

THE St. Lawrence River is the volume of the overflow of Lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario. Its course is in a general northeasterly direction. From the point of its *déboucher* from Lake Ontario to the crossing of the 45th parallel at Cornwall, it forms the boundary line between New York State and the Province of Ontario, Canada, a distance of 85 miles. For a further distance of more than 400 miles it leads through the Canadian Provinces of Montreal and Quebec. The final 200 miles, or nearly all of that portion below the city of Quebec, is practically a vast sound, varying in width from 6 to 30 miles. The ever-varying features and the constant change of vista afforded the voyager, overflowing at every turn with unexpected instances of those combinations of water, land, and sky which we recognize as beautiful, make up the charm and glory of the Upper St. Lawrence River.

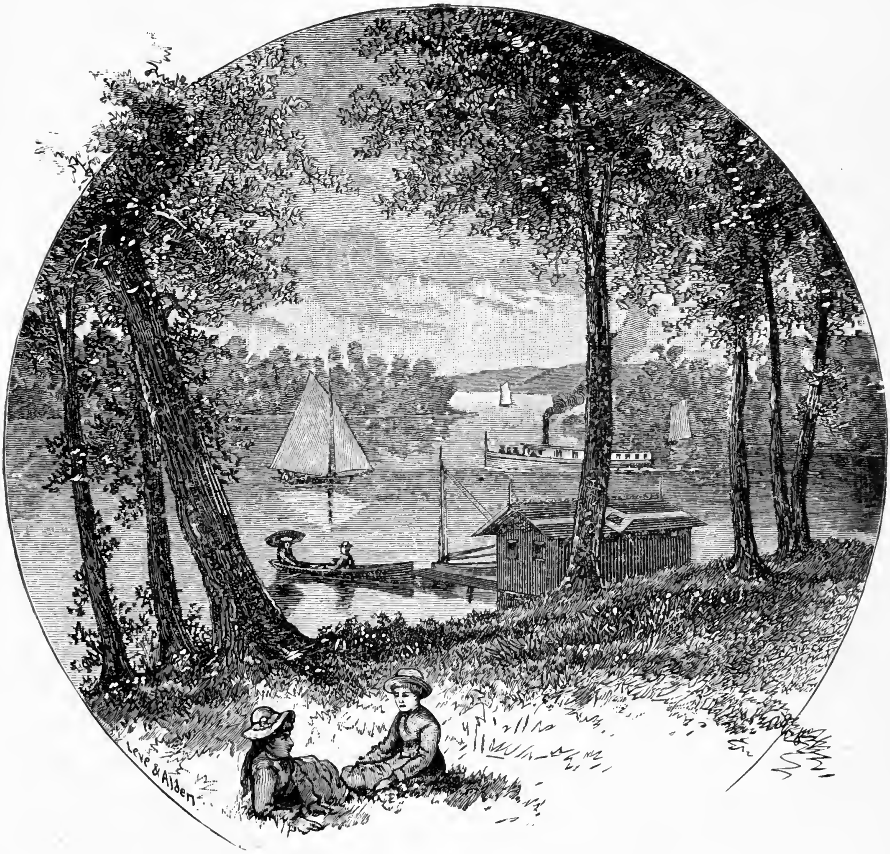
Much has been said by a multitude of writers concerning the rapids of the St. Lawrence, down which the large and staunch passenger steamers daily perform their exciting and apparently perilous descent. These rapids are seven in number, and are divided by intervals of smooth waters and broad lakes. Between the passage of the Long Sault and the Lachine there is an interval in voyaging down-stream of about five hours; the return is made by all craft around the rapids through a series of costly canals.

The St. Lawrence was originally known as the Great River of Canada, and was also known by the names of Cataraqui and the Iroquois. The name it now bears was bestowed upon it by the explorer Jacques Cartier, who first penetrated its mouth upon the festival day of St. Lawrence.

The steamboat express, which is a part of the through route via the St. Lawrence River to Montreal, leaves Niagara Falls over the Lake Shore Division of the Rome, Watertown & Ogdensburg Railroad, arriving at the thriving town of Clayton, where close connection is made with the steamer for Alexandria Bay and the trip down the St. Lawrence. Through sleepers arrive here every morning, also from New York, which is only 11 hours distant via Utica and Albany. All lines of steamers stop at Clayton.

If you come from the West, you will be on board the steamer at Clayton just as the sun has fairly thrown off the rosy drapery of his couch, and touching at Round Island, Thousand Island Park, Central Park, and Alexandria Bay, within the next hour you will find the pretty skiffs or convenient steam yachts of scores of cottagers waiting to capture and bear away among the islands their happy, newly-arrived guests, and you are indeed fortunate if you are numbered among these.

There is a strange enchantment in the stilly mornings here. The city, its pressing cares, its hurry; its heedless, and often heartless, strife for supremacy, seem far away, and as unreal as a troubled dream that is past. Sometimes the voices of nature hint to us that here is the true life to lead—that all else is dross and a delusion. Dawn ushers in the beginning of the through traveller's trip down the river, and he makes up his mind whether or no the vaunted Thousand Islands are all that they are claimed to be. First, let it be understood that all of the land you can see to the left is made up of islands,



ON THE ISLANDS.

one overlapping the other along the distance until they give the impression of being continuous coast line. Not so; they are threaded by many devious and charming channels.

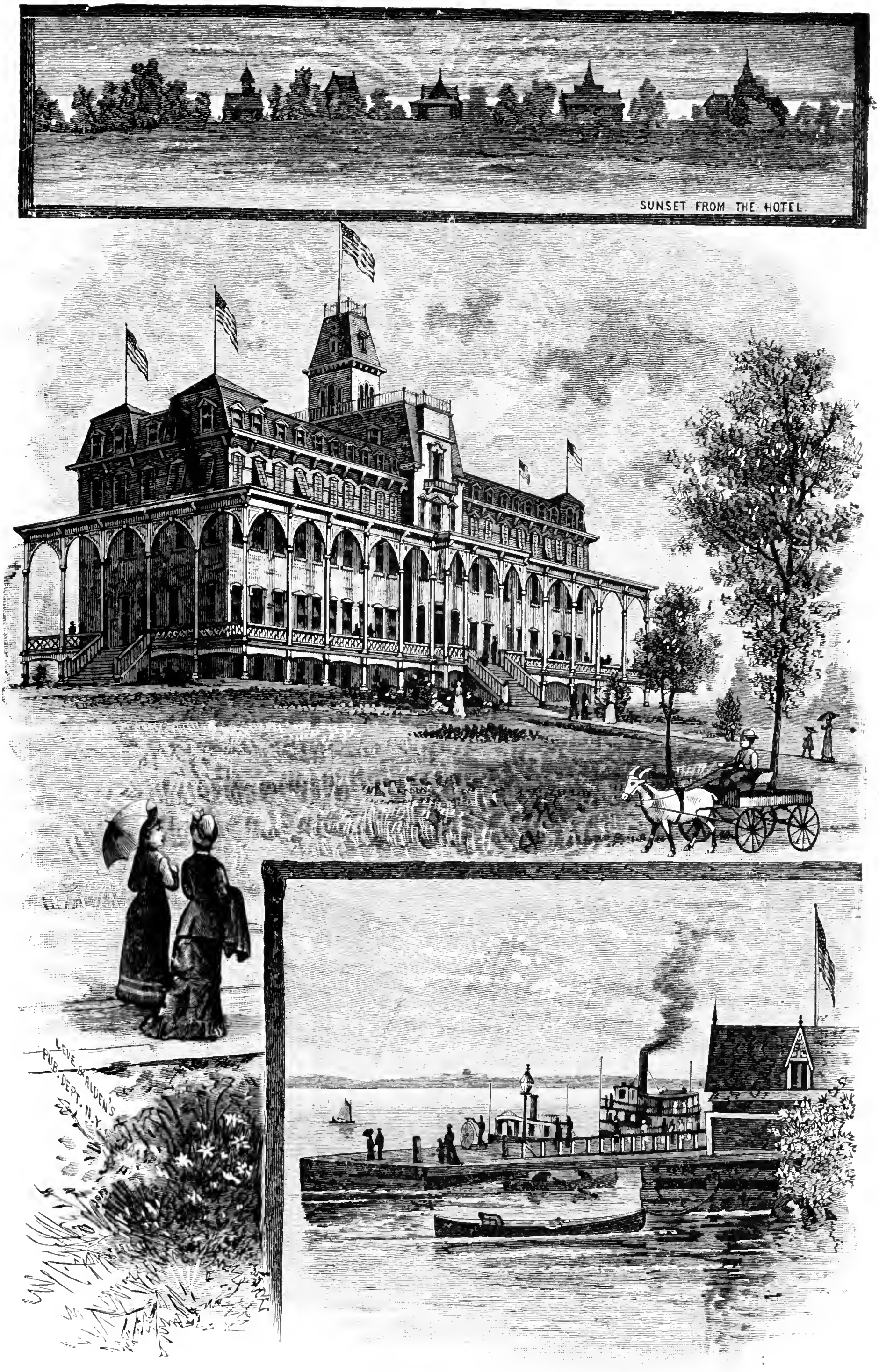
As Round Isand is approached the graceful proportions of the large hotel in its centre are revealed through interstices in the dense foliage along its shores. From this point there is a charming succession of pretty, brightly painted cottages all along the cliff-like frontage of the island. Each year witnesses the rearing of scores of costly and beautiful villas upon coigns of vantage, and island property appreciates rapidly in value. After passing Round Island we have a fine view of Thousand Island Park and the clustered islands in its vicinity. We soon enter the narrow precinct of the American channel, which for several miles separates Wellesley Island from the mainland. Rock Island is on the right, and beautiful cottages are here, there, and everywhere.

At the lower end of Densmore Bay, which indents Wellesley Island at this point, are the "Seven Isles," a most romantic spot, which one must needs explore with a row-boat to discover its hidden charms. "Bella Vista," a large and costly place, is now noted upon the right, distinguishable by its square tower and ultra-modern style of architecture. Perched upon the cap of a cliff stands the villa known as "Louisiana Point." The tall tower looming above the trees of a mid-stream island ahead is the large villa upon Comfort Island.

Within easy hail down-stream is Nobby Island. It hides modestly behind Friendly Island. To the west of Nobby Island stands Welcome Island. A pretty cottage stands in its centre. A notable property passed by the steamer just before reaching the "Bay," and the last in the channel, is that of Mr. Albert B. Pullman, of Chicago, known as Cherry Island.

As the steamer rounds up to her dock at Alexandria Bay, the wealth and variety of picturesque surrounding, in which the natural and artificial are so happily blended, almost bewilder the new-comer, whose imagination must be vivid indeed if he has conjured from the recesses of expectation anything half so beautiful. The huge and shapely hotels loom up close beside the water, and sable representatives of each lay in wait for the coming tourist upon the wharf. In the foreground of the accompanying picture of Alexandria Bay is seen the famous Thousand Island House.

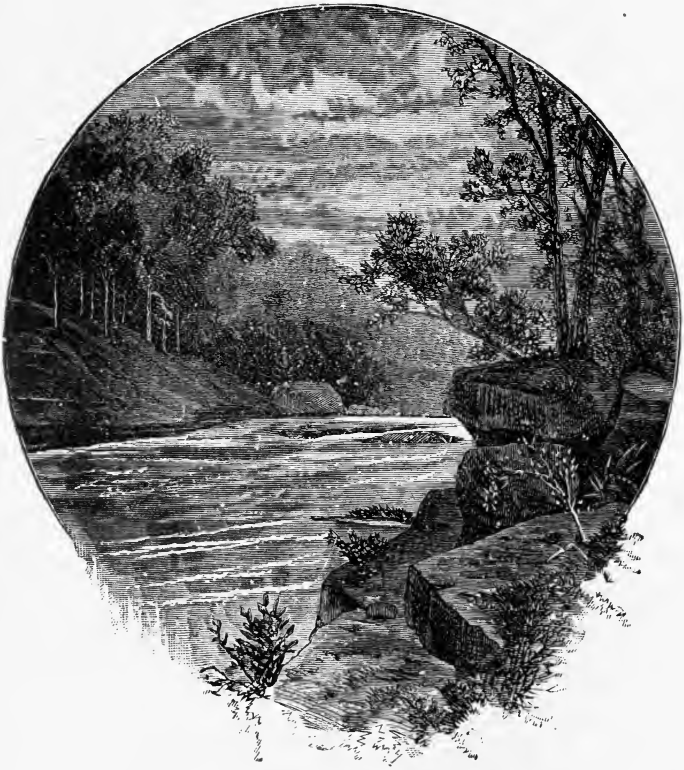
Round Island, occupied as Round Island Park, is located in the centre of the American channel, 8 miles above Alexandria Bay. One hundred and fifty


SUNSET FROM THE HOTEL.
LEVE & ALDEN'S PUB. DEPT. N.Y.

ROUND ISLAND PARK.

acres of land, beautifully diversified by sun and shade, are contained in the island, every portion of which has some special attraction. The entire island is under the management of "The Round Island Park" Company, a stock company with a capital of $50,000. The hotel is modern, and well conducted.

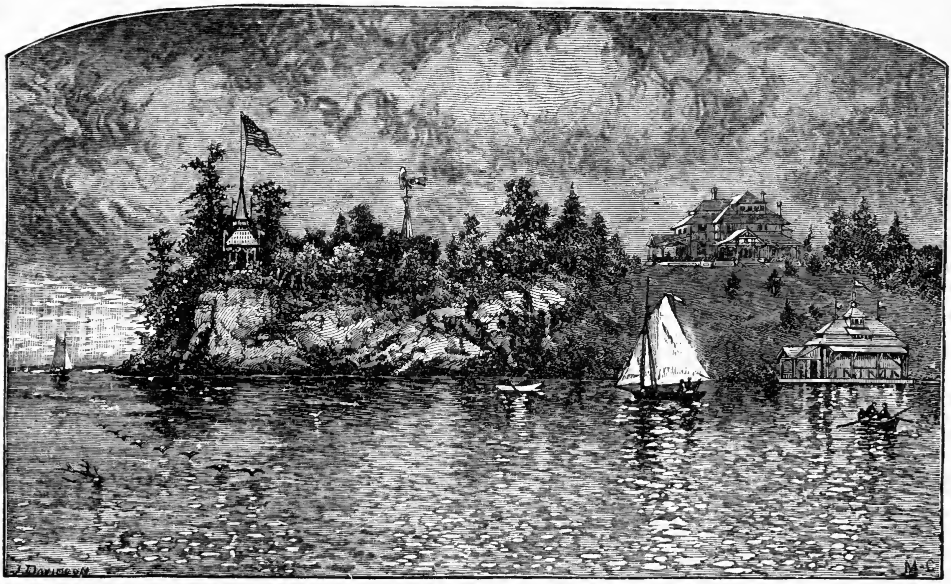
There are no two sunsets just alike at Round Island. Each day brings some special beauty. The going down of the sun, as it sinks upon the green Canadian hills, realizes the finest phenomenon in nature, save only that of light itself. Whether the declining orb drapes himself with the purple and gold of a royal couch, or sinks amid the tears and sackcloth betokening a coming storm, he is always grand in his leave-taking. Men in all ages have contemplated this phenomenon with awe and admiration—even to adoration. What a place for a moonlight row! What enchanted islets to thread between, if one but knows the way! In midsummer there are veritably but five hours of darkness upon the St. Lawrence. At 10 o'clock the sunset yet stains the western sky; and soon after 3 there are manifest tokens of the coming of another day.



BETWEEN THE ISLANDS.

The Methodist organization, known as the Thousand Island Park Association, began its operations in 1875 by the purchase of a large territory at the head of Wellesley Island, aggregating 1,000 acres. Thousand Island Park now stands, with its 300 tasty cottages, as the most extensive of the denominational resorts upon the river. The large hotel recently erected is a fine and costly structure, which must aid greatly in advancing the interests of the park. As at Chautauqua, a regular programme of the season's exercises is announced.

It is a mooted question if the islands which dot the broadened river in front of Alexandria Bay look prettiest at sunrise or eventide. At evening the camp-fires begin to twinkle out of the mellow purple gloom, and the merry sounds of human occupancy float out from the island homes. It is an hour of repose which even the wordy wrangling on the dock concerning the "catches" of the day can scarce disturb; but wait, a finer thing is yet to come. Take supper and come out half an hour later. Now, displayed against the black masses where the islands stand, beneath the lingering stain of the sunset, are a score of devices, wrought in twinkling lamps; here an anchor, there a star, a harp, or initial letter. Far up toward the cap of the lofty tower upon the Thousand Island House glows the white heat of an electric lamp, and along every cornice through the garden below and over among the rock and verdure of the illuminated Crossman House, a thousand lamps and torches dance in the eddying night-wind, each tiny flame caught up and reflected on every ripple of the deep black stream; and as we gaze and admire, the night is pierced by the swift flight of rockets, which mount into the dome of heaven, and, shattering there, scatter particolored stars far out upon the silent tide.

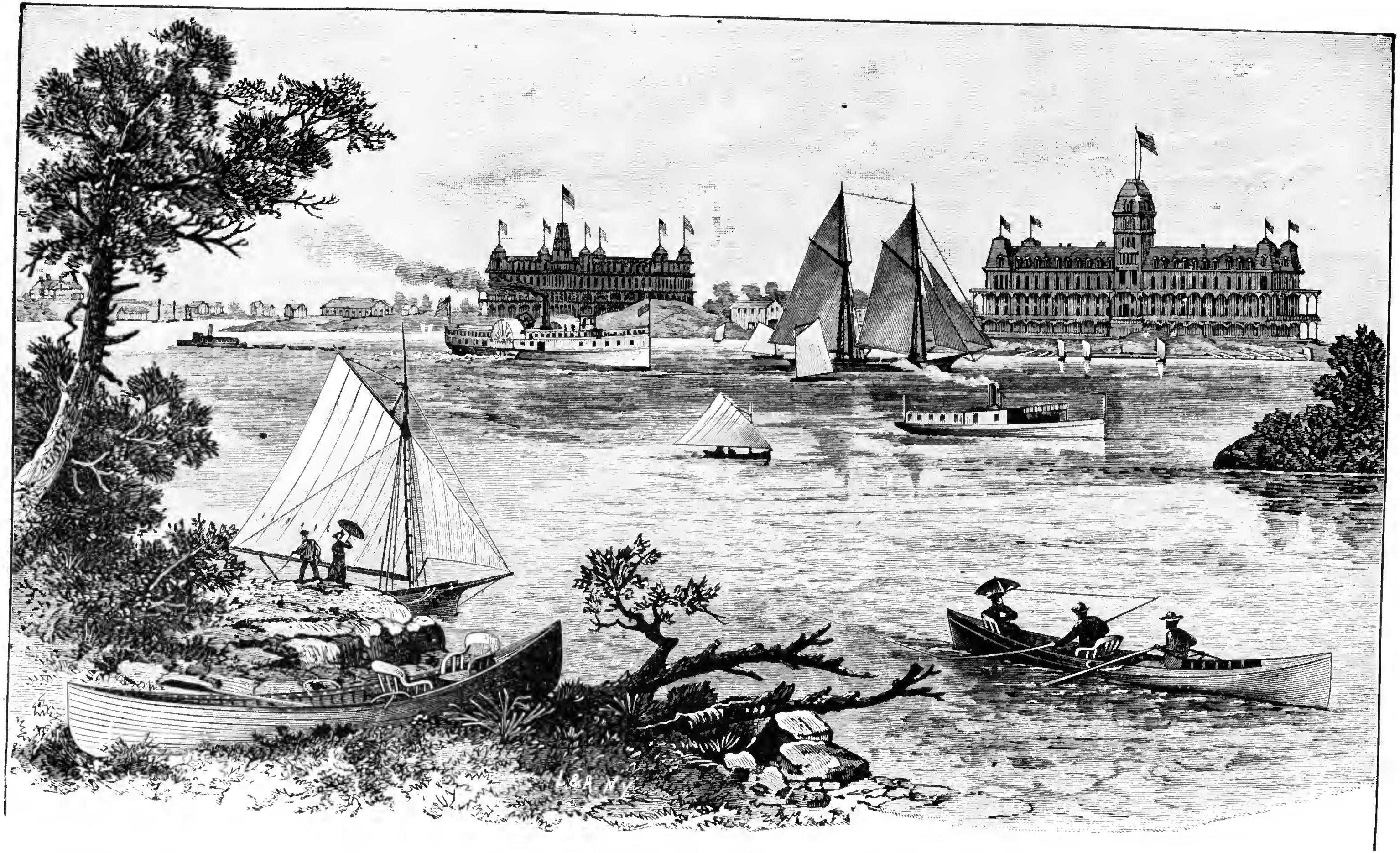


"BONNIE CASTLE."

The largest and most costly, if not the most picturesque, of the many hundreds of cottages along the river are found in the vicinity of Alexandria Bay, many of them being within an easy row of the dock. The passing voyager, who only looks at these places from the steamer's deck, can have but slight idea of the loving care, even extravagant outlay, lavished upon many of them. One of the best-known properties in the vicinity is "Bonnie Castle," the property and favorite home of the late Dr. J. G. Holland. It is said that the final words of that genial and popular writer, who died in October, 1881, after a joyous summer at "Bonnie Castle," related to his life here, which had extended through five summers. "It is to me," he said, "the sweetest spot on earth." He then went on to speak of the constant, all-winter longing he felt, almost counting the days to the approach of the time when he could escape the weariness, or, as he expressed it, the "incessant grind," of the city to this delightful home. Dr. Holland is also credited with the *mot:* "We *stay* in New York, but we *live* upon the St. Lawrence."

Over beyond the islands which shut out the western horizon when looking from the bay, is Westminster Park, which occupies an extensive domain upon the lower end of Wellesley Island. This park, like others upon the river, is under denominational influence, being Presbyterian in form. The hotel, known as the Westminster, is composed of two roomy buildings. In Poplar Bay one finds a commodious dock, and a semicircle of bright and pretty homes. Just here is the entrance to the weird Lake of the Island, a large pond hidden away in the midst of Wellesley Island, to which access is had through a narrow and precipitous channel. This pond or lake is two miles in length and nearly a mile in width.

On leaving Alexandria Bay for Montreal, scattering islands, many of them quite as wild as when the white man first voyaged here, are passed all the way down to Brockville, where the Thousand Island system terminates in a group called the "Three Sisters." Brockville is a substantial Canadian city of 10,000 people. It is 125 miles from Montreal by the river. The traveller will note the large number of fine private properties along the rugged river front, both above and below the town. Immediately opposite is the American town of Morristown. Fourteen miles beyond, the Canadian town of Prescott and the American city of Ogdensburg stand *vis-a-vis* upon the banks of the river. A railway connects the St. Lawrence at this point with Ottawa, the Canadian capital. Ogdensburg is the focal point of three lines of railway, and a depot for a vast transshipment of grain and lumber from the West. It has an ener-



ALEXANDRIA BAY.

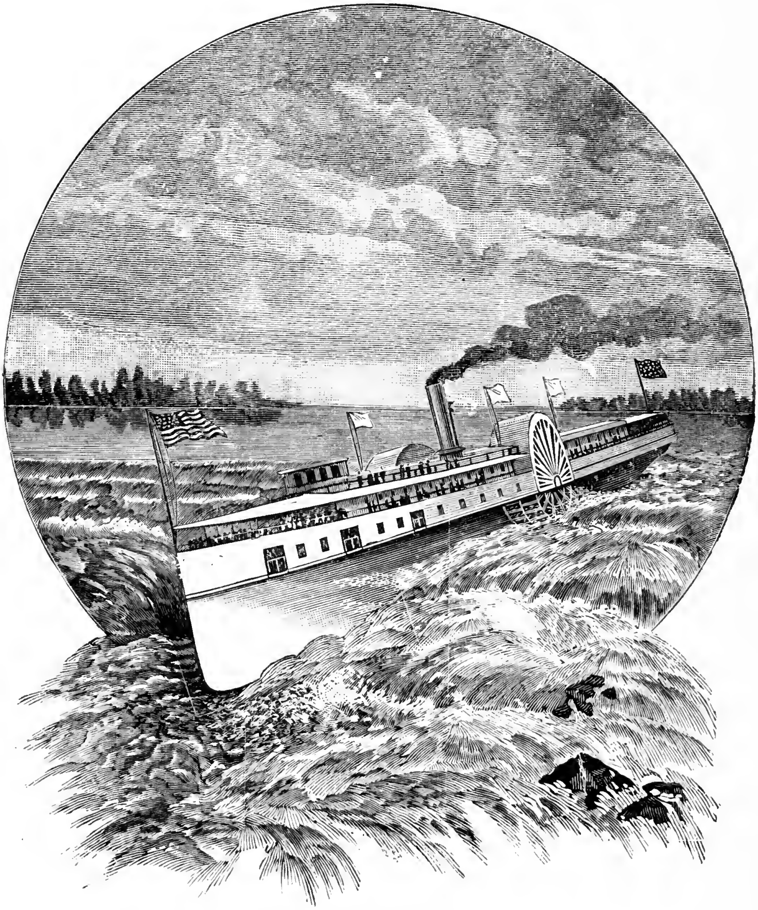
getic population of nearly 12,000, largely engaged in manufacturing and internal commerce.

Five miles below Ogdensburg is Chimney Island, where vestiges of French fortifications still exist, and immediately below are the first of the series of rapids, the Gallopes, and shortly thereafter the Rapide de Plat is met. Neither of the swift places is especially exciting, but they serve as a preliminary to the great Long Sault (pronounced *long sou*), which is next in order. A long reach of smooth water intervenes, however, during which we pass the small American town of Waddington and the attractive Canadian city of Morrisburg. Just below this place is the battle-field of Chrisler's Farm, where an engagement occurred in 1813 between British and American forces, while the latter were marching to the capture of Montreal and Quebec. Over upon the American side is Massena Landing, whence a stage connecting with a steam ferry runs to the fine old medicinal resort known as Massena Springs, which, aside from its picturesque and healthful location, the excellent Hatfield House, and good fishing, boasts of remarkably strong and potent sulphur waters.

At Dickinson's Landing, the boat, which is well fitted for her daily task of breasting the wild surges of the rapids, turns in the swift current, and a mile ahead the passengers see the white, stormy waters of the Long Sault stretching from shore to shore. Now the real fun begins. There is a sudden hush to the monotone of the steamer's pulsations. We are in the grasp of the current. Extra men are at the wheel, and others are aft in charge of a spare tiller. If you are inclined to be nervous now, remember that steamers have been going down here ever since 1840, and no passenger vessel has ever been wrecked in the rapids. The first plunge is over a cascade at "the cellar," and is exhilarating. In the vast expanse of broken waters fresh sensations await us. Now across our way a vast green billow, like the oncoming surge of the ocean upon soundings after a nor' easter, disputes our passage. It is of the beautiful green where the sunlight shows through its wedge-like cap that one sees upon the coral beds of Nassau, or at the deep centre of the Horseshoe Fall at Niagara, or in drug-store jars. It does not rise and fall, advance and recede. It simply stands there forever, a vast wall of water through which we cleave our way with a fierce, brief struggle, only to meet a second, a third, a fourth like wave beyond.

The rapids are about two miles in length, but there is a continuance of reasonably swift water for several miles further. The actual *fight* between the boat and the angry billows is over in less than three minutes. The important town of Cornwall, where several large factories are located, is shortly seen upon the Canadian shore. After leaving Cornwall we bid good-by to American soil, for here the international boundary line intersects the river.

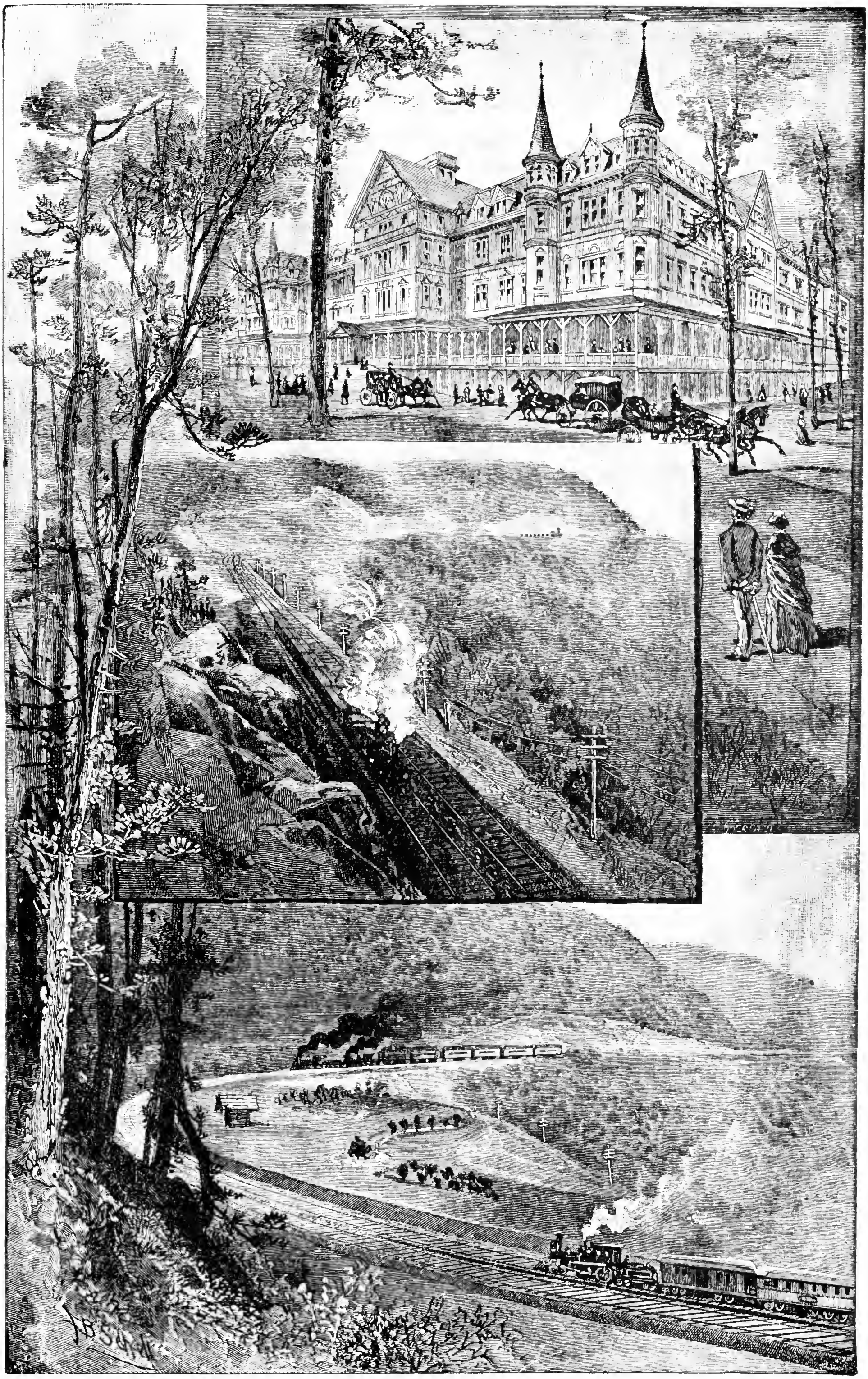
Four miles below Cornwall the Indian village of St. Regis is noted on the right shore. We are now on the broad Lake St. Francis, which is about 25 miles long. We pass the village of Lancaster on the left shore of the lake, when we arrive at the river once more. It dashes off impetuously just after leaving the village of Coteau du Lac, and carries us headlong down the "Coteau Rapids," which are about two miles long; then the "Cedars," three miles, and the Cascades, the village at the foot of which is Beauharnois; and now a second lake is met, as if the river dreaded the final plunge down the famous Lachine. Passing down the lake we soon come in sight of the great city of Montreal. The village of Lachine is simply a picturesque suburb of the city. The reader may ask why the curious name, *La Chine* (The China), is applied to this point. It is said that the earlier voyagers believed that the St. Lawrence opened a way to the Pacific, and therefore to the Flowery Kingdom.



DOWN THE RAPIDS.

From the deck of the steamer the passenger may see the bold outline, standing out against the sunset, of a huge stone watch-tower, and if close enough the crumbling remains of two stone forts built to protect the settlements along Lake St. Louis from the savages. Onward forges our speedy craft, and ere long the troubled waters of Lachine are seen far ahead, a snowy breastwork across our path. The lake is again a river. We are abreast the village of Lachine, where the canal from Montreal *débouches* into the St. Lawrence. The muddy Ottawa pours its tide into the pure blue waters in which we have voyaged since morning, as the Missouri pollutes the Mississippi. We are drifting steadily down toward the rapids. The bell signals "go ahead," and the Indian pilot, who has come aboard from a skiff, takes supreme command at the wheel. A little while later and we are in the vortex; the current grows swift and swifter; all the mighty outpouring of the stream is pent up in a single channel; all the bosom of the river is covered with reefs and rocks. The boat heads this way and that; down we plunge, and onward straight toward a rocky islet! Which side? Just as destruction seems imminent, the vessels sweeps round to the right, and shoots like an arrow between two sunken ledges. We are through, and can look back up the watery hill we have descended, and admire the courage of the men who first navigated this wonderful channel.

The once marvellous Victoria Bridge comes into view. In a few moments we steam beneath it and swing around the dangerous shoals that bar the terminus of deep-water navigation, and heading up-stream are speedily at the lock, within which, as the steamer rises to the upper level, the passengers are landed. In Montreal, an account of which is given elsewhere, the Windsor, stately and American-like, plays an important part in the pleasures of spending a portion of each year upon the grand and changeless St. Lawrence. It is the memory of happy days in other years when the picture of care-free hours has included our warmest friends, the whole framed with the exquisite environment of the islands, which solaces us for the cold and cheerless days of winter which must intervene before we can again take up this ideal habit of life. All indications point toward a brilliant future for the island region and the tour of the river.



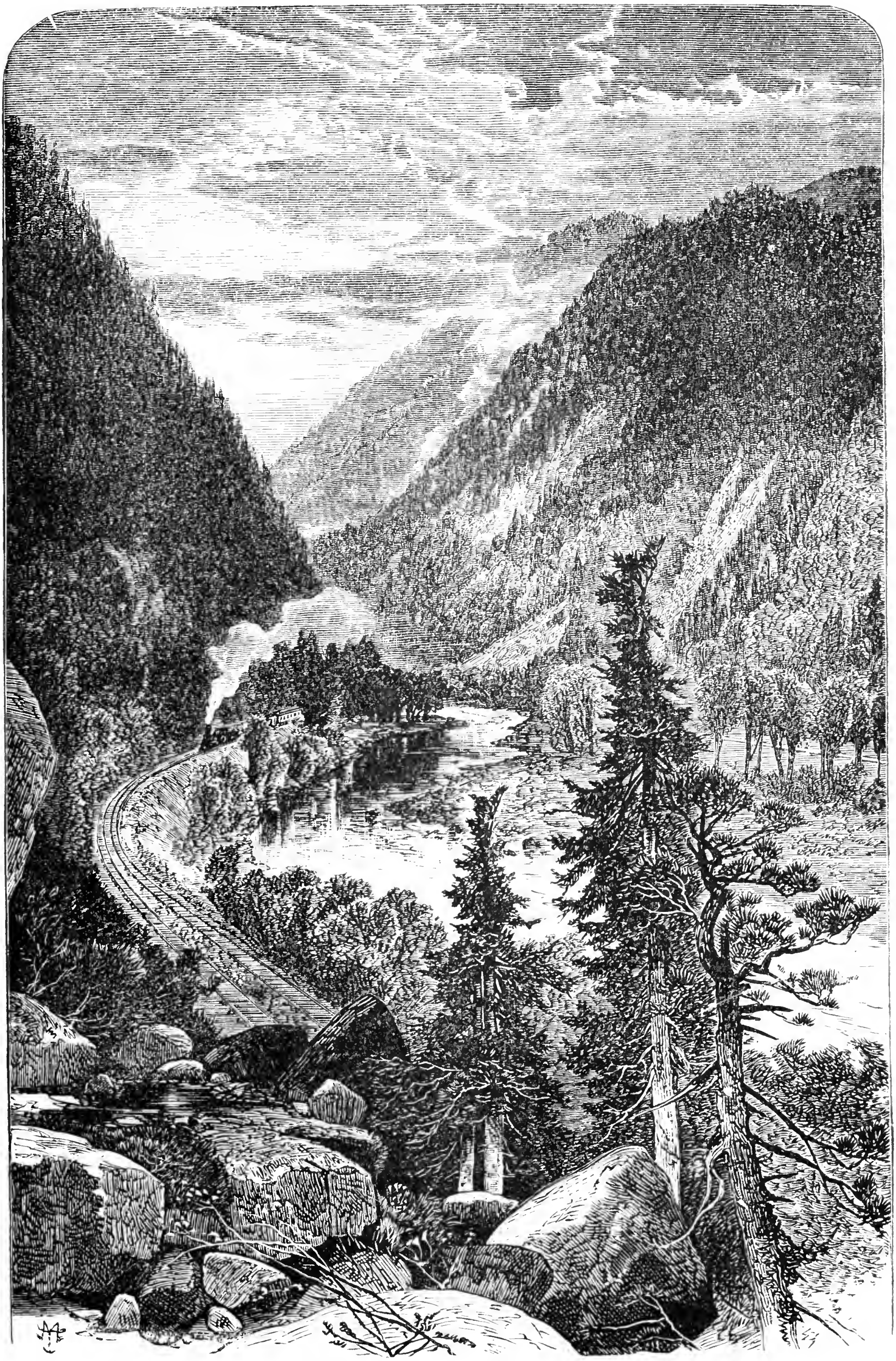
CRESSON, ON THE ALLEGHENIES, PA.

CRESSON.

CRESSON, one of the most recently developed resorts for summer travel and residence and an especial favorite of Philadelphia, furnishes a complete contrast to that city's home-life at Cape May and Atlantic City. It is in Cambria County, Penn., on the Pennsylvania Railroad, and 15 miles southwest of Altoona, 102 miles east of Pittsburg, and 252 miles west by north of Philadelphia. It is on the crest of the Allegheny Mountains, at an elevation of 2,300 feet above tide-level, and is reached in eight hours from Philadelphia and four from Pittsburg. Beside the Mountain House and the public cottages, which have combined accommodations for about 1,200 guests, the summit and sides of the mountains are dotted with tasteful residences. The air of the locality is the purest on the continent, and is a thorough antidote for malaria and hay-fever. The hotel is built on a wide plateau, of a mixed oriental and Queen Anne style of architecture, and is surrounded by extensive grounds laid out in the handsomest forms of landscape gardening. But a little back of the building is an attractive stretch of woodland, through which one passes into the heart of the primeval forest, thickly studded with trees of enormous growth. Good roads have been cut through this forest land, one of which, occupying the bed of the old Portage, furnishes an unusually romantic drive. The Portage, with its then inclined planes, was formerly used by the Pennsylvania Railroad in its wonderful climb over the mountains, and in its day was one of the engineering wonders of the continent. Beyond the benefits of the air and the charm of the locality, Cresson has already achieved wide renown for the purity and medicinal properties of its numerous springs. These are of magnesia, alum, iron, and one that scientists have pronounced to be absolutely and faultlessly pure water. As a natural sanitarium Cresson is provided with all the requisites for coaxing robust health, restful recreation, and good fellowship, and its reputation grows daily wider and stronger.

LEWISTOWN NARROWS.

LEWISTOWN, the capital of Mifflin County, Penn., is renowned in legend and history as the home of the famous Mingo Indian chief, Logan, who was converted to Christianity by Moravian missionaries, and whose pathetic speech beginning: "I appeal to any white man to



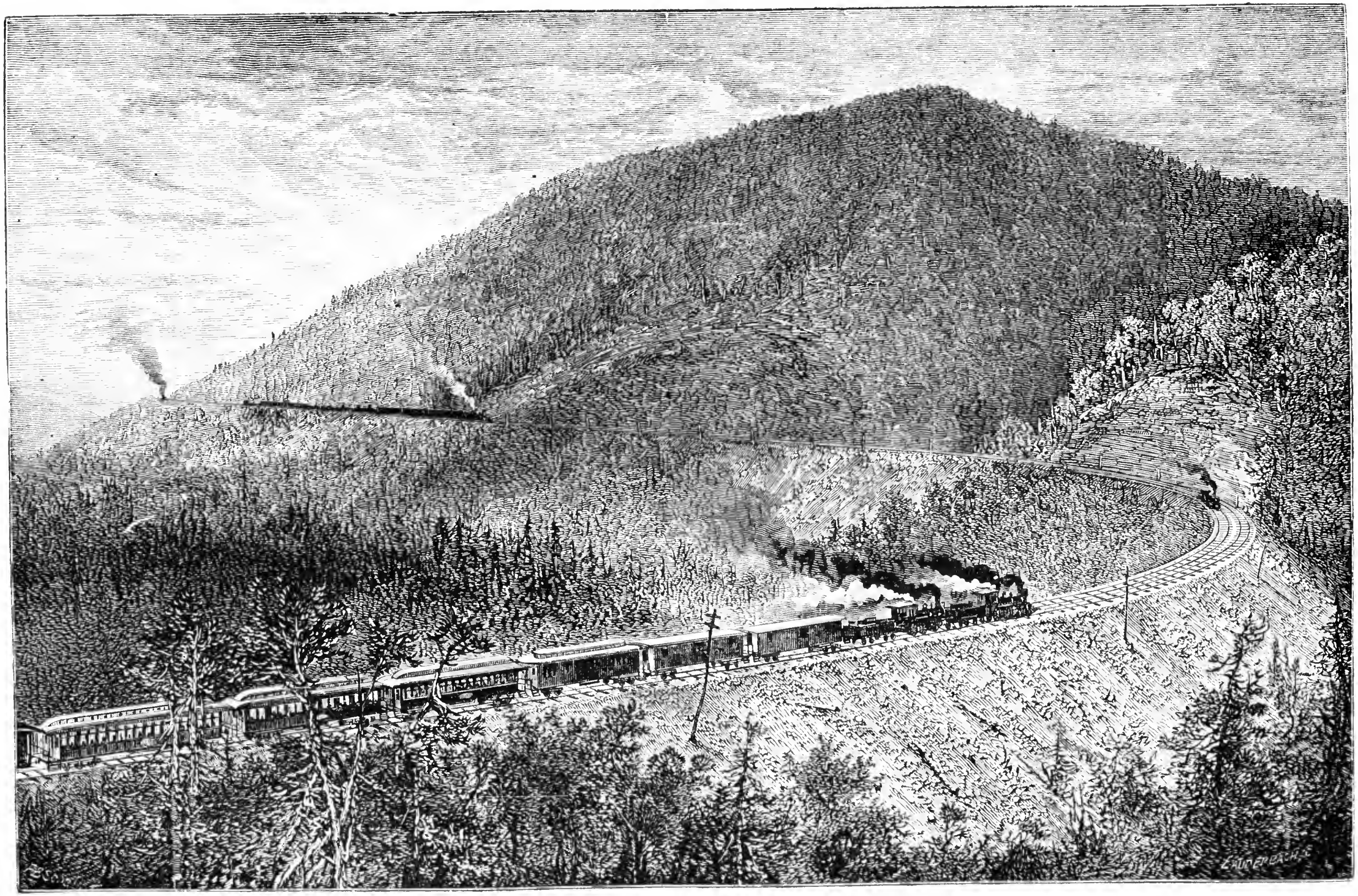
LEWISTOWN NARROWS, PA.

say if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry and he gave him not meat?" and closing: "Who is there to mourn for Logan? Not one," is familiar to every school-boy in the land. The neighborhood of the town abounds in natural curiosities, none of which are more interesting than the caves. Alexander's Cave, in Kishicoquillas Valley, is full of stalactitic and stalagmitic formations, and preserves in solid shape through the summer the ice formed in winter; Hanewall's Cave, near McVeytown, is enormous in proportions, and contains calcareous concretions and much commercial saltpeter. Bevins's Cave is on the summit of a limestone ridge, and near it was a noted Indian mound, full of bones, pottery, war weapons, and arrow-heads, which was razed for the construction of the canal. Lewistown itself is on the left bank of the Juniata River, so famed in song and romance, was laid out in 1790, and incorporated in 1795, and contains two furnaces, two tanneries, three flour-mills, two carriage factories, large boiler works, and numerous minor industries. There are six churches, three banks, an academy, several large hotels, and substantial county buildings. It is 60 miles from Harrisburg on the Pennsylvania Railroad, and controls a large trade. Population of Mifflin County, 1880, 17,508; of Lewistown, 3,222.

The Lewistown Narrows, which appear in the illustration, are formed by the Black Log Mountain on the south, and the Shade Mountain on the north, and are directly east of the town, and between it and Mifflin. As may be seen, the mountains rise abruptly from the river, and in many places attain a height of over 1,000 feet. A dense forest growth spreads over their sides, which would give the gorge an appearance of deep gloom were it not for the weird contrast of lights and shadows when the sun pencils the verdure. With few exceptions the giant walls are unbroken, and between them the river flows as placidly as if it had never occasion to form its beautiful channel by erosive action.

THE HORSESHOE CURVE.

SOON after leaving the city of Altoona, the tourist on the Pennsylvania Railroad becomes aware by a peculiar motion of the train as well as the apparent downward tendency of the surrounding scenery, that the locomotive has begun its marvellous feat of mountain climbing. The roadbed changes from the level to a grade of something over ninety feet to the mile. As the train steadily ascends, the valley appears to sink and



HORSE-SHOE CURVE, NEAR KITTANNING POINT, PA.

the perspective, instead of narrowing by natural laws, seems to widen and deepen. New formations of scenery break upon the view at every glance. The valley becomes a gorge, and the cottages below diminish to mere specks on the green drapery of the mountain. Up and still upward the train proceeds, till at Kittanning Point, 242 miles from New York, the road winds around a curve in a manner at once thrilling and bewildering, and at the same time suggestive of extreme engineering confidence and skill. The valley, along which the train has moved for six miles, then separates into two chasms, where nature seems to have said: "Thus far shalt thou go and no farther." But the mind of man has achieved a remarkable triumph over the material barrier; and by building a great horseshoe shaped roadbed, carrying it over both chasms on a high embankment, and extending it around the enormous western wall, he has provided a way for the train to resume its singular transit.

When the point of the curve depicted in the illustration is reached, the tourist has before him a unique delusion. The sides of the curve are parallel with each other, and many a wager has been laid upon the direction in which various trains are moving, for their actual course is directly opposite their apparent course. On entering the new pass the train continues its ascent through the very heart of the great dividing range of the continent. At Allegrippus the scene begins to change. The mountains seem to sink and the valleys rise. A rugged plane gradually gives way to mountain walls. Furnaces, mills, and cottages are disclosed. Evidences of vast mining operations are discovered just as the train rushes through a night-black tunnel, and a moment later the tourist is being whirled over the summit of the range, at an elevation of over 2,000 feet above sea-level. Kittanning Point is named from a great Indian path or trail, between Kittanning and the valley of the Delaware River, which crossed the mountain through this gorge.

GREENWOOD LAKE.

AMONG the summer resorts which have become popular within a comparatively recent period Greenwood Lake is one of the most attractive. The village is situated in Orange County, New York, but the lake, which is the principal attraction, lies partly in this county and partly in Passaic County, New Jersey.

The lake is some ten miles long by one mile wide, and lies about 1,000 feet above the level of the sea. It has been called the miniature Lake George, and in picturesque beauty is a close rival of the most famous lakes either in this country or in Europe. The water is deep and clear and is also quite cold. Fish of various kinds, including bass and pickerel, abound and are easily taken. There are excellent facilities for sailing and bathing. Those who prefer the woods to the water will find beautiful walks and charming retreats upon the hills and mountains by which the lake is surrounded. Only two or three miles from the lake is a picturesque glen and a series of cascades of remarkable beauty. Wild flowers and ferns abound and several species of game birds find their home in this secluded region.

Several hotels furnish ample accommodations for visitors. Those who prefer to "camp out" can find plenty of suitable and attractive places either by the shore, or upon the small islands which the lake contains. The distance from New York is only forty-nine miles. The trip is made by the New York and Greenwood Lake division of the Erie Railroad as far as Sterling Forest. From this point, a distance of five miles, the visitor is conveyed by a steamer, belonging to the same corporation, to the village, which is located at the head of the lake. The scenery for nearly the whole distance along the line of the railroad is very fine and the sail on the lake at the close of the trip is both charming and refreshing. The town has a permanent population of about 250, and is supplied with churches, schools, and stores. It also contains a sanitarium for poor children of Newark, New Jersey, maintained by benevolent people, where each summer many hundreds of the little ones are given a brief period of unalloyed pleasure.

CONEY ISLAND.

WITHIN the past few years Coney Island has become one of the most famous summer resorts in the United States and it now has but few equals in any part of the world. In point of area it is a small island, being only about five miles in length with an average width of less than one mile. It lies in the Atlantic Ocean, west of Long Island, from which it is separated by a small creek, and forms a part of the township of Gravesend, in Kings County, N. Y. It was discovered by Henry Hudson in September, 1609, and was the first point in the State of New York at which Europeans landed. The island was then inhabited by Indians. Since its discovery it has been considerably diminished in size by the encroachments of the sea. As lately as 1800 quite a proportion of the land was under cultivation and the farmers were greatly troubled with rabbits and foxes. In 1819 a hotel was built, but, with everything else that was movable, it was swept away by a violent storm in 1821. The retreating tide left the island almost entirely barren and in that condition it has remained until the present day. With the exception of only about sixty acres the surface is almost entirely covered with sand.

By the year 1830 the island had become so well known as a pleasure resort that a turnpike road was built to connect it with Brooklyn. A stage, running once a day, was soon put on and a steamboat line from New York was opened. The first horse railroad to the island was built about 1865 and a road for steam cars was soon afterward constructed. By these means the number of visitors was considerably increased, but nothing like a general interest on the part of the vast population in the vicinity was awakened until 1874. Up to this time only a small portion of the island, at the extreme west end, was used. There were a small number of restaurants and bathing-houses of cheap construction, but no fine buildings had been erected and the beach was almost wholly bare and desolate.

But in 1874 the Prospect Park and Coney Island Railroad was opened, hotels were built, and many and varied attractions were added by capitalists who invested their money liberally and, as the event proved, wisely, in order to make the island a really popular summer resort. During the succeeding four years there was an almost marvellous change. Many very large and costly hotels were erected, hundreds of fine bathing-houses built, and places of amusement of various kinds and in large numbers were also constructed. This was the beginning of an era of great and permanent prosperity for the island. Popular interest has appeared to increase year by year, and multitudes of people from New York, Brooklyn, Jersey City, Newark, and other cities in the vicinity visit the island many times during the summer.

There are various reasons why Coney Island should be an exceedingly popular summer resort. It has a magnificent beach extending five miles along the Atlantic. The undertow is slight and there is a very gradual increase in the depth of the water. Consequently, it is one of the safest places for bathing which can be found along the coast. The island is also very easy of access from several great centres of population. It is distant only five miles from Brooklyn, and ten miles from New York. There are several railroads and steamboats by which it can be reached quickly and cheaply. There is room enough for all, and attractions which will gratify every taste from the most fastidious to the least critical. Here "the rich and the poor meet together," not exactly on terms of social equality, of course, but the same views are open to both, the air is as fresh and cool, and the sea is as inviting to the one class as it is to the other. It would be hard to say which of the two classes obtains the greatest degree of enjoyment.

From Prospect Park in Brooklyn there is a magnificent drive, some 200 feet wide and five miles long, to the Concourse on the island. This Concourse is a broad, asphalt roadway a mile in length, under the control of the city of Brooklyn and maintained for a drive and walk. Near this drive are two immense iron piers, which extend some 1,000 or 1,200 feet into the ocean. They are each about 50 feet wide, but near the outer end one is about 85 and the other 125 feet in width. These piers furnish excellent places for promenades, open-air concerts, and restaurants. They also accommodate bathers and furnish landing places for the numerous steamers which every pleasant day in summer bring many thousands of people to the island.

Among the numerous hotels on Coney Island are several of immense size. The Manhattan Hotel faces the ocean for 600 feet, and at high tide is only 400 feet from the water. The Brighton Beach Hotel has about the same ocean frontage, is 525 feet wide and five stories high. Near this hotel is a celebrated race-course, where horse races are held almost daily during the warm season.

The four divisions of Coney Island, known as Manhattan Beach, Brighton Beach, West Brighton, and the West End, are connected by carriage roads, and also by railway. The former is at the eastern extremity and is by far the most aristocratic portion. West Brighton is the most popular with the masses. Here is located one of the observatories which attracted much attention at the Centennial Exhibition in Philadelphia and by means of which an elevation of 300 feet may be attained. From this point magnificent views of the ocean, and of the many cities and towns in the vicinity, may be secured. Here, too, is the famous hotel which is built in the form of an immense elephant. There is also an aquarium, and many other objects of interest on this portion of the island. Considering the many and varied attractions at Coney Island, perhaps it is not strange, though it certainly appears so at first thought, that each summer the railroads alone carry more than 2,000,000 people to this beautiful resort.

LONG BRANCH.

AMONG the fashionable seaside resorts of the United States there is none which has a higher standing than Long Branch. The great popularity of the place is due to numerous causes. Among them may be named its beautiful location; its splendid beach; the fine drives; the beauty of the adjoining inland region; the elegance of the buildings and grounds, upon which vast sums of money have been expended; the excellent facilities for reaching it from New York, Philadelphia, and other cities, and from numerous smaller places; and the ample accommodations which are provided for all visitors. It long ago became a favorite resort for the wealthy and fashionable classes of the eastern portion of the country. It is also visited by thousands of people of more limited means.

Long Branch is situated in Monmouth County, N. J., on the coast of the Atlantic Ocean. It lies about thirty miles south of New York City. Its name is said to have been derived from a brook upon which the Indians formerly had important fisheries. The original settlement was made quite early in the history of the country, but it did not become prominent for a long period. It was located about a mile from the shore, but the newer and fashionable portion of the town has been built upon the bluff, about twenty feet in height, which rises almost directly from the beach. This bluff is covered with vegetation and the landscape is very attractive. The presence of many large trees adds greatly to the beauty of the scene, and to the comfort of the summer residents. The beach which, within the town limits, extends more than four miles, is one of the finest in the country, and the bathing is unsurpassed. A fine carriage road upon the bluff gives a beautiful drive extending for several miles and constantly keeping near the sea. Those who are particularly interested in fast horses will find Monmouth Park a centre of attraction. The course, which cost a quarter of a million dollars, is very fine and races are frequent and exciting.

Some of the finest hotels and many of the most elegant and costly summer residences in the country, are found at Long Branch. The grounds around many of these residences are fitted up in magnificent style. The place is divided into several sections, known as North Long Branch, Long Branch, Long Branch City, West Long Branch, West End, Deal Beach, and Elberon. Each section has post office facilities, but all lie within the corporate limits of Long Branch. Several other famous watering places are only a few miles away. Long Branch has churches, banks, and newspapers. Its permanent population is about 6,500, and it has a summer population of from 25,000 to 30,000.

ASBURY PARK AND OCEAN GROVE.

ALTHOUGH a comparatively new town, Asbury Park has become one of the most famous of our sea-side resorts. It is located in Monmouth County, New Jersey, fifty-one miles from New York City, and five miles south of Long Branch. It is about seventy miles from Philadelphia, and is easily reached from all prominent points.

It seems hard to believe that as lately as 1869 the region now embraced within the corporate limits of this celebrated resort was an unbroken wilderness. But such is the fact. In that year Mr. James A. Bradley, of New York City, purchased a tract of land one mile square, for which he paid $90,000. Here he determined to found a strictly temperance town. All the deeds which he gave prohibited the manufacture and sale of intoxicants on the property thus conveyed. The penalty of violation of this clause was to be the reversion of the land to the seller. The strict enforcement of temperance principles has been continued to the present time.

In 1872 the place was incorporated as a borough and its government delegated to seven commissioners, three of whom were to be non-residents. Its affairs have been wisely managed, the town has made a rapid growth, and is in a prosperous condition.

Asbury Park has an excellent beach of white sand. There is a fine driveway by the shore and a plank promenade, a mile or more in length, extends along the ocean front. It is furnished with seats and has several pavilions extending into the water. The surf bathing is good and there is a beautiful grove close by. The place is well laid out, with wide streets, has gas works, is supplied with excellent water, maintains a good fire department, and has a complete system of sewerage.

The 250 hotels and boarding houses furnish ample accommodations for the thousands of visitors who from all parts of the country come to Asbury Park every season. Some of these hotels are among the best in the country, and there are large numbers of fine private residences. There are churches of different denominations, three public halls, good schools, several newspapers, published daily during the season, and two national banks. There are also manufactories of various kinds which do considerable business.

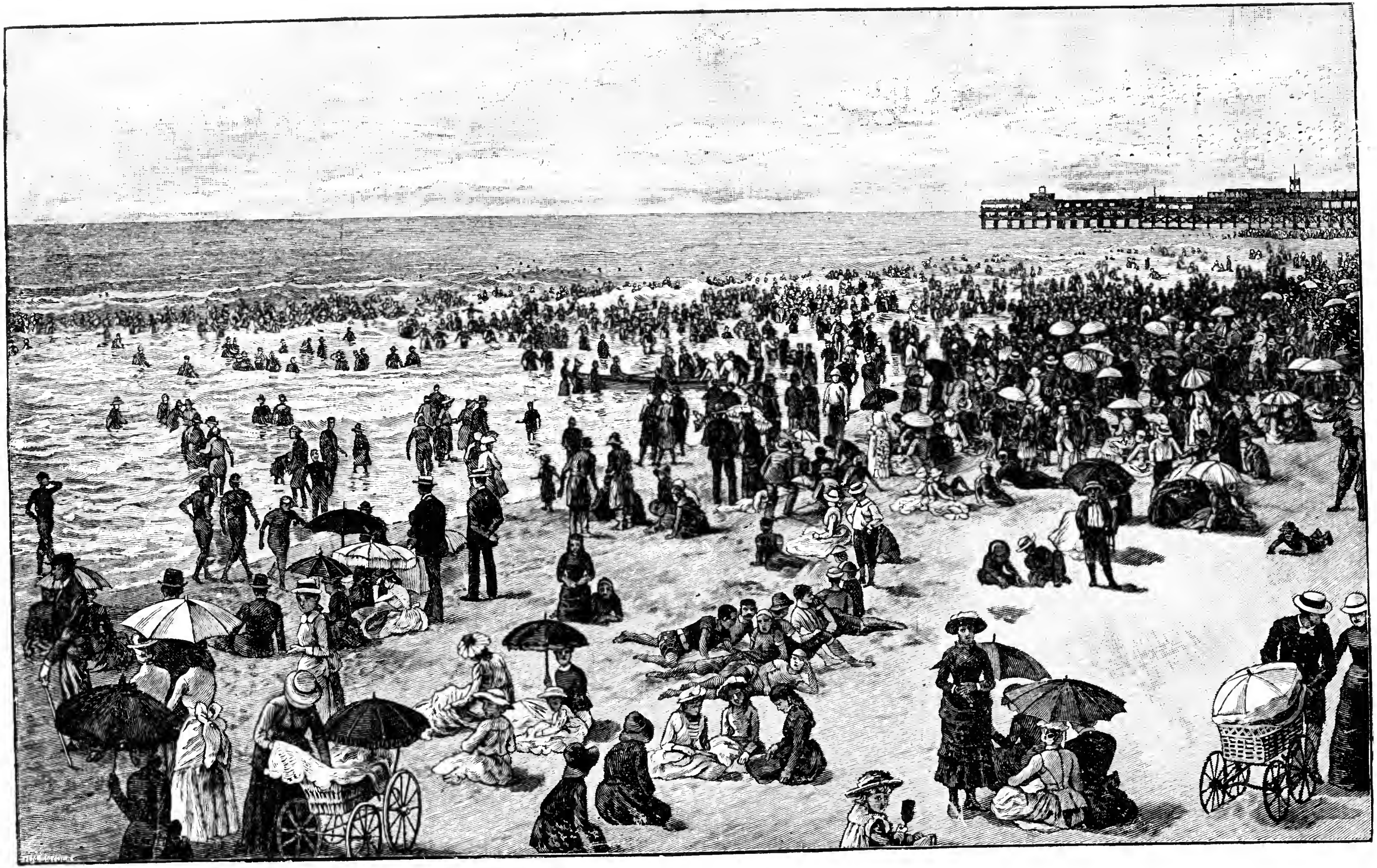
Within the limits of Asbury Park are several lakes, which are quite pretty in themselves and which furnish the best of facilities for boating and fishing. It would seem that, as far as outward things are concerned, everything needed to make one happy could here be found. The climate is remarkably fine and attracts a large number of winter visitors, for whose accommodation some of the hotels are kept open during that season. The population numbers about 3,000 during the winter, and from 25,000 to 30,000 in the summer months.

Just south of Asbury Park, and separated from it only by a small lake over which two pretty iron bridges have been built, lies another, and an equally noted, resort named Ocean Grove. A single railroad station accommodates both places, and in the attractions which they present and the principles upon which they are governed the two are very nearly alike.

Twenty years ago the present site of Ocean Grove was covered with a growth of pine trees. Thinking it would be a good place for their out-of-door services some Methodists made a small clearing and started a camp-meeting. The fine beach and pleasant surroundings attracted many people of this and of other denominations, and the place soon became not only a centre for great religious meetings, but also a famous pleasure resort.

Ocean Grove is controlled by the Ocean Grove Camp Meeting Association. Like its neighbor, Asbury Park, its affairs are managed upon strictly temperance principles. The sale of intoxicants within one mile of the town is absolutely prohibited, and there are various other restrictions designed to promote the quiet and prosperity of the people. A tabernacle has been erected which is said to accommodate 10,000 people, and has additional buildings capable of seating about 5,000. Abundant provision is made for recreation as well as for devotional exercises, and the place is as truly a pleasure resort, of the highest and best kind, as it is a centre of religious activity.

There are a large number of hotels and hundreds of cottages, while multitudes of people live in tents during their stay at this unique resort. The streets are wide and at night are lighted by electricity, artesian wells supply plenty of water of the purest quality, and the sanitary conditions are excellent. There is an ocean frontage of a mile, with all facilities for bathing, and the beautiful lakes in the vicinity are pleasant resorts for those who delight in boating or fishing. The permanent population is about 1,200 and the summer visitors number some 20,000 to 30,000.



SCENE ON THE BEACH, ATLANTIC CITY, N. J.

ATLANTIC CITY.

ATLANTIC CITY is one of the most popular ocean resorts in the United States, and is especially notable as possessing exceptional advantages as a winter resort as well. Many eminent physicians in Northern cities who have been in the habit of recommending Florida, Colorado, and California to their pulmonary patients for climatic relief, are now urging the advantages of Atlantic City during the winter months; and hundreds of the leaders and followers of Fashion in New York and Philadelphia run down there for a few weeks of rest and recuperation. A number of the hotels are kept open the year round, and the rest are the earliest to open and the last to close for the strictly summer season. The resort is thus rapidly becoming the American Brighton and Margate, and like them its seasons attain a "height" twice a year, during the usual summer weeks of sea-side loitering and in the months of March and April.

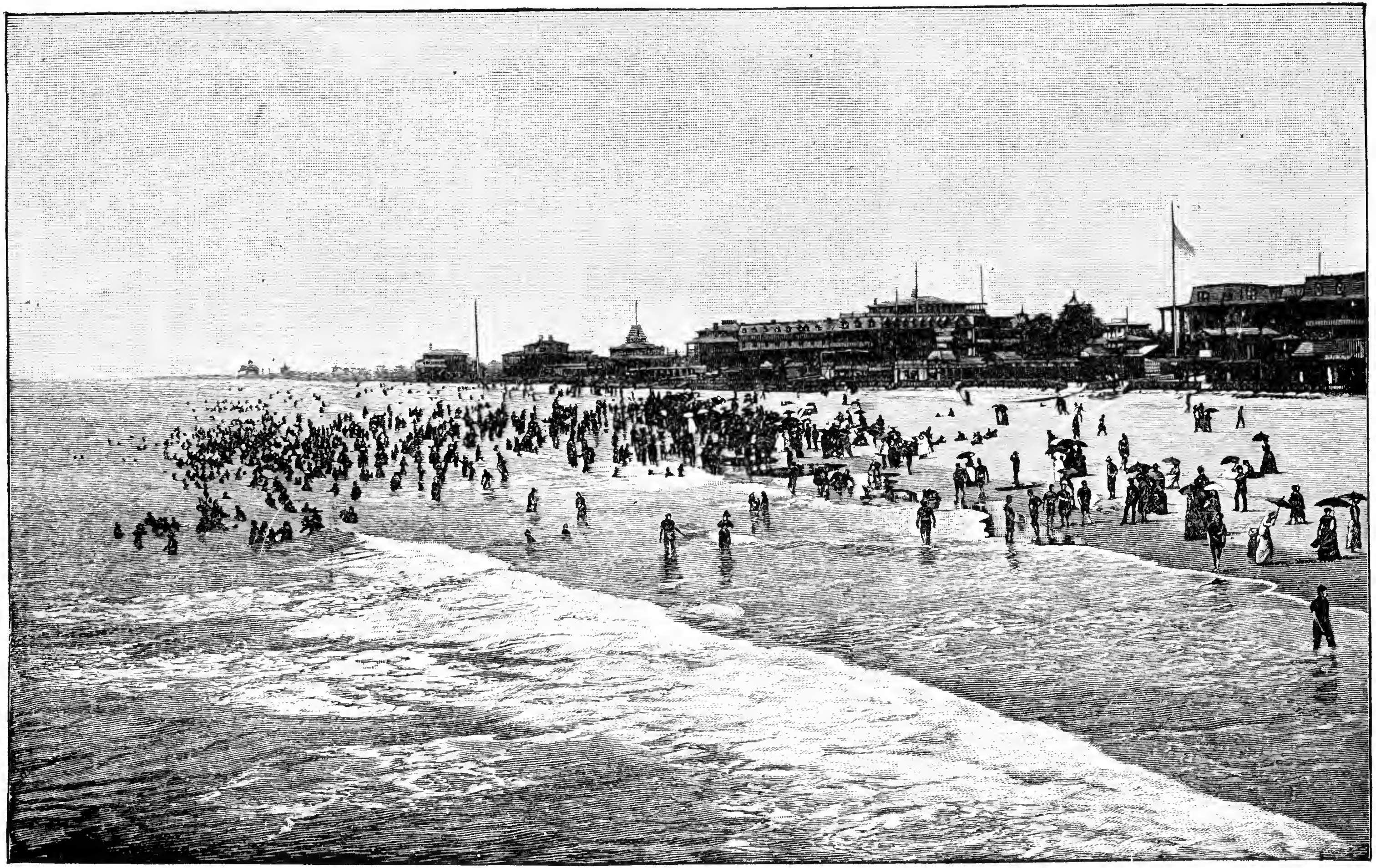
Atlantic City is situated in Atlantic County, N. J., on Absecum Beach, a sandy island extending from Absecum Inlet on the north to Great Egg Harbor Inlet on the south, ten miles long, and nearly one mile wide, and separated from the mainland by a strait locally known as "Thoroughfare." It is sixty miles southeast of Philadelphia, with which it is connected by three railroads, two broad gauge and one narrow gauge, and is reached in ninety minutes from the Quaker City, at an ordinary cost of $1 for the round trip, and of fifty cents for numerous special excursions. The railroads maintain several excursion houses at the southern end of the island for trip or day tourists, and there are ninety-four hotels, beside many cottages and boarding houses, furnishing an aggregate accommodation for 40,000 time or season guests. The city was incorporated 1854, has Roman Catholic, Protestant Episcopal, Methodist Episcopal, Presbyterian, and Friends' churches, and publishes regular and season newspapers.

The long avenues, named after the different oceans, stretching up and down the island, and the cross streets, bearing the names of the various States in the American Union, and running down to the water's edge, are all delightful drives. The sandy roads are kept well sprinkled, hard as concrete, and free from dust; and in the early morning and late afternoon are filled with phaetons, victorias, and larger vehicles of the richest style. At low tide the beach is a most attractive place for driving, and the horses go prancing and pattering over the hard sand just out of reach of the waves for miles along the coast. At low tide, also, the adventurous walk out in the wake of the surf to a distance that would surprise them could they accurately measure it when the tide was full. The bathing is superb, there are ample facilities for the little folks to disport in the sand to their heart's content, and bathing and playing are adequately guarded against danger. A striking feature of Atlantic City as a seaside resort is the large number of private cottages, owned chiefly by the business men of Philadelphia, and occupied by their families through and beyond the season. Permanent population, 1870, 1,043; 1880, 5,477; 1885, 7,942; 1889, 10,150.

CAPE MAY CITY.

CAPE MAY CITY, a sea-side rival of Atlantic City, and possessing many attractive features of its own, is built upon the extreme point of the cape from which it takes its name, the southern end of the State of New Jersey. It is eighty-one miles from Philadelphia; and is reached therefrom by the West Jersey Railroad, operated by the Pennsylvania Railroad company, in a little over two hours, or from Camden, N. J., in one hour and fifty minutes. The county, cape and city, derive their name from Cornelius Jacobus May, a navigator in the service of the Dutch West India Company, who visited Delaware Bay in 1623. The territory embraced in the county was purchased from the Indians in 1630 by a company of Dutch colonists, whose deed is still preserved in the archives of the State of New York at Albany. A local tradition asserts that William Penn, on his voyage to the Delaware River in 1682, landed at this point, and was charmed with its attractiveness as a bathing place. For more than fifty years it has possessed a wide-spread reputation as a summer resort, and within that time has experienced changes and improvements that only its intrinsic worth could justify.

Among the attractions peculiar to the place are the drives to Cold Spring and Diamond Beach, where thousands of sparkling pebbles, known as Cape May diamonds, are found. Cape May Lighthouse stands within the limits of the city, and across the waters of Delaware Bay at Cape Henlopen is its twin light, the two defining in the darkest night the entrance to the bay and the river. The Cape May Athletic Club and the Cape May Driving Club furnish exciting and gentlemanly sporting features, to which are added in "the



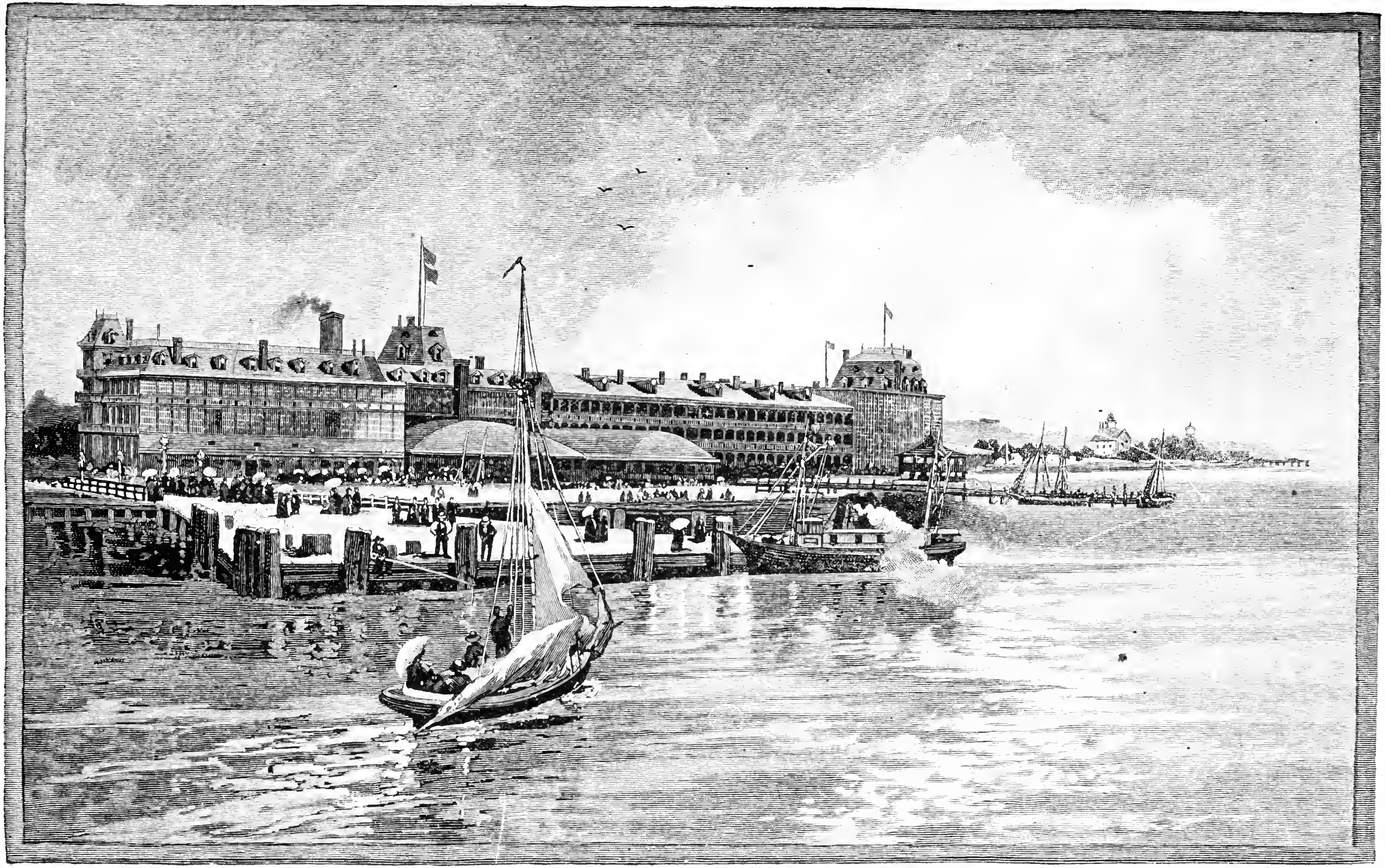
ON THE BEACH, CAPE MAY, N. J.

season," regattas, concerts, balls, and the choicest social diversions. Within a few minutes' ride by rail is Cape May Point, a delightful suburb of the older city. The Point is charmingly situated, and, as its name indicates, is the extreme southern end of the New Jersey coast. With Delaware Bay on the west, and the Atlantic Ocean on the east and south, the cape presents what is justly considered not only the best but the safest bathing-ground on the entire coast of the United States. Thousands of bathers, of all ages and both sexes, sport in the waters, while white sails and puffing steamers glide by, in plain sight of the beach, to all parts of the world. A magnificent drive, fifty feet wide, extends along the whole sea front, flanked on the ocean side by a broad promenade ten feet wide, that sweeps along in graceful curves for a distance of nearly two miles, and is as smooth as a ball-room floor.

The principal avenues of the city are covered with shells from the sea, well rolled, sprinkled, and kept free from dust. The hotels and cottages—there are thirty-one of the former with accommodations for 6,000 guests—are in close proximity to the unsurpassed beach, and the latter are so numerous and tasteful as to justify the popular name of "The Summer City by the Sea." Though well-known and appreciated long before society demanded sumptuous ways and means of combining pleasure and recreation at seashore and on mountain annually, Cape May City has gradually become a summer suburb of Philadelphia, to which the wealth, culture, and refinement of the world are made welcome. Permanent population, 1889, 2,000.

OLD POINT COMFORT.

OLD POINT COMFORT is not only one of the oldest hygienic resorts in the United States, but it is one of the very few old ones whose popularity has not been suffered to wane with time. Its climate is unsurpassed for salubrity, and it possesses a marked advantage in its equability. The averages in thermometer range during a period of ten years were 48°, 52°, and 63° in spring; 60°, 74°, and 76° in summer; 70°, 59°, and 46° in autumn; and 45°, 44°, and 42° in winter. This record shows an absence of sudden and depressing changes in temperature which commends the resort to the really sick, the invalid, and the convalescent. It is, too, for this reason, a favorite stopping-place for invalids seeking recuperation in the balmy groves and beside the tropical waters of Florida, as well as those returning



OLD POINT COMFORT, VA., NEAR FORTRESS MONROE.

therefrom with a dread of encountering the weather of northern months. Boating, fishing, bathing, and the delights of Lynhaven oysters, may be enjoyed there almost the year round, and with the choicest, safest, and most pleasurable accompaniments.

Old Point Comfort, as the place was generally known before the civil war, or Fortress Monroe, as it has since been designated, is 14 miles from Norfolk, Va., and from the historic Hampton, and may be reached by steamers from New York, Washington, Richmond, Norfolk, and Yorktown, and from Baltimore by steamers connecting with through trains from New York, Philadelphia, and all northern points. It is built on a sandy projection from the mainland on the western side of Chesapeake Bay, and its great hotel—the Hygeia—stands upon the beach at the head of the broad and substantial landing constructed by the Federal government. The unique defensive work, the only fortification in the country denominated a fortress, built in 1816–19 at a cost of nearly $3,000,000, and designed by the French engineer, Lieut.-General Bernard, for a fortified post like those of European countries rather than a fort as Americans understand the word, is close to the hotel, and offers many attractions to the tourist. It was the first landing-place in Virginia of the famous Army of the Potomac and the point of its departure for home four years later. It contains the chief artillery school of the army, and a notable war museum, and has a grand military band that plays morning and evening at guard mount and dress parade. The National Soldiers' Home, the National Normal and Agricultural College, and the quaint old town of Hampton, are a few miles away by an admirable shell road; and Norfolk, Portsmouth, and Newport News, the scene of the momentous fight between the "iron-clads" *Monitor* (Union) and *Merrimack* (Confederate) in 1862, are points of destination for pleasant sails. From the balcony of the hotel or its two miles of sun-shaded verandas, a grand view of Hampton Roads and Chesapeake Bay is obtained, and in the evening the glimmering lights of the lighthouses on Cape Henry and Cape Charles may be discerned. There is a constant panorama of vessels of all classes and every maritime nation passing to and fro in the offing; and nearly every day brings new scenes to divert the attention and relieve the eye. The evenings are one enjoyable round of social festivity. Army and navy officers in full or tasteful undress uniform mingle among the belles of the North and South, and add a vast charm to the german and other popular diversions. Life there seems a dream that, like all happy dreams, ends far too soon.

THE WHITE SULPHUR SPRINGS.

THE WHITE SULPHUR SPRINGS, known also as "The Old White," and "The Greenbrier" Springs, are located in Greenbrier County, West Virginia. This county is not far from the central portion of the State measuring from north to south, and it joins the State of Virginia on the east. The Springs are easily reached from Richmond, a distance of about 227 miles, by the Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad. They are also readily accessible from other large cities, there being excellent railroad communication with all principal points throughout the country.

The town is located in a valley which lies among high and beautiful mountains which are only a few miles away from the Springs. The valley itself is nearly 2,000 feet above the level of the sea. It forms an immense lawn upon which the grass grows luxuriantly and which contains hundreds of beautiful forest trees. Among the mountains in the vicinity are Kate's, and Alleghany, the latter a large and beautiful peak, and the Greenbrier range. The scenery, both in the immediate region of the Springs and as far as the eye can reach, is extremely beautiful. All around Nature has been lavish in the distribution of her charms.

The medicinal spring, which has become famous the world over, was probably discovered in 1778. It is certain that its waters have been used with most gratifying results ever since that date. For about a century the town has been a fashionable resort as well as a sanitarium. Large numbers of celebrated people gather here every summer. They come from various portions of the country, but the South, is, as would naturally be expected, the most fully represented. On account of the wealth and high position of a large part of its patrons, as well as for the medicinal character of the waters, this region has been styled "the Saratoga of the South."

The spring yields about thirty gallons of water per minute and the quantity is remarkably uniform during all seasons. It is subject to no special modification either by excessive rainfall or by long-continued drought. Neither does its temperature change, in summer or winter, from 62°. The water is used in a large class of diseases and is remarkably efficacious. This is especially true in cases of rheumatism, diseases of the liver, dyspepsia and malaria. The external use of the water is also highly beneficial in the treatment of skin diseases. While the water acts as a cathartic and diuretic, its special excellence over the waters of other mineral springs is seen in its immediate and powerful effects as an alterative.

The climate in the region of the springs is remarkably fine and does much for the restoration to health of the invalids and for preserving the health of the well. The mercury seldom rises much above 80° in the summer, and during the hottest weather the nights are cool. The air is very clear and invigorating, which, with the moderate temperature, makes out-of-door exercise very pleasant as well as highly beneficial.

The hotel accommodations are ample and there are numerous cottages for those who wish to avoid the excitement and fatigue incident to fashionable life at a crowded watering place.

The White Sulphur is located near the centre of a region remarkable for the number, variety, and importance of its medicinal springs. The Hot Springs, located in the Warm Spring Valley, some thirty miles north, prove very beneficial in many diseases. The temperature of the water at some of these springs reaches 110°. At only a short distance there are other springs in which the temperature of the water is only 50°. A few miles from these springs are what are known as the Warm Springs. They lie in a beautiful valley, nearly 1,000 feet below the surrounding region. The temperature of the water is 98°. The quantity of water yielded by these springs is immense. The water is used both for drinking and bathing and has effected many remarkable cures. From this point the Healing Springs are only a few miles distant. They are four in number and are most beautifully located. The temperature of the waters is 85°, and they flow throughout the year. It is claimed that both in the constituents revealed by chemical analysis of the water and in the effects of its use these springs are equal to some of the most famous springs of Germany and of this country. The water is used internally and for bathing.

Some sixteen miles east of the White Sulphur Springs are the Sweet Springs, and the Sweet Chalybeate Springs. The water of the Sweet Springs has a temperature of 73° and it is strongly impregnated with carbonic acid. Its use is said to be eminently beneficial in cases of rheumatism and neuralgia. The Sweet Chalybeate Springs are two in number, varying principally in the proportions of iron which they contain. The temperature of the water is from 75° to 79°. The quantity of water yielded by these springs is very great. Like that of the other springs the waters are used both internally and externally. About forty miles southwest of the White Sulphur Springs are the Red Sulphur Springs, also celebrated for the curative effects of the waters. They are located in Monroe County, West Virginia, and have been famed for half a century, but until recently were not largely visited on account of the difficulty of reaching them. This objection has been removed by the construction of a fine carriage road from Lowell Station. The springs are beautifully located in a valley lying several hundred feet below the road by which the traveller winds around the mountains on his journey thither. Reaching the valley the visitor finds two springs issuing from marble cisterns, some ten feet below the surrounding surface. Descending a series of steps he reaches the springs and finds himself under a beautiful pavilion built in the shape of a Greek temple. The water contains phosphorus as well as sulphur, and is said to be a specific remedy for consumption and diseases of a similar nature. With the exception of the Eaux-Bonnes in the Pyrenees, no similar spring is known in the world.

In the same region as those which have been mentioned are numerous other springs of lesser note, but many of them having quite a degree of local popularity, their waters proving very useful in the treatment of diseases of various kinds. The natural scenery around some of these springs is also beautiful. Both on account of the number and the valuable character of the springs which it contains, this section has been very properly called "The Spring Region" of this portion of the United States.

JEKYL ISLAND.

ALTHOUGH belonging to a private corporation, this new, yet famous, resort is entitled to a brief description. Its intrinsic charms and the unique principles upon which it is managed, combine to make it an object of popular interest.

Jekyl Island is situated in the Atlantic Ocean, about eight miles from Brunswick, Georgia, itself not unknown to fame. The town was laid out in 1735 by no less a personage than General Oglethorpe, and under one of its oak trees, which is still standing, the illustrious preachers John Wesley and George Whitefield delivered some of their powerful discourses. The Island, too, was noted in "the olden time," not, however, for the eminence of its settlers or its visitors, but for the high quality and great value of its cotton crop. Here a large quantity of the long-fibre Sea Island cotton was produced with great profit to the owners of the soil. The demand for this grade of cotton having largely decreased, and the plantations being somewhat difficult to manage under the conditions which now prevail, the islands which were formerly devoted to this crop have been largely given over to other purposes.

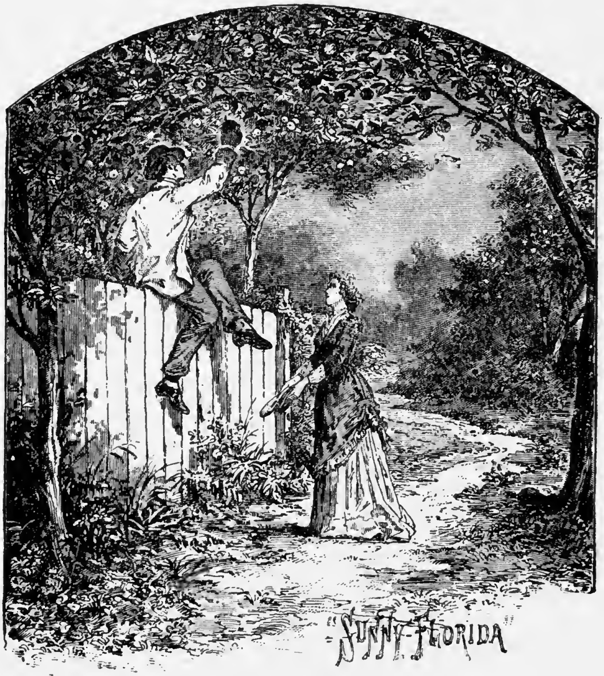
Early in 1886 an association of wealthy gentlemen purchased Jekyl Island, with the house and live stock then upon it, for $125,000, and formed the Jekyl Island Club to control the property. A large part of the members were Northern men of wealth and leisure who wished a winter resort which in every respect should be the equal of Newport as a place of residence in summer. After the purchase was effected an elegant hotel was built at a cost of about $60,000 and various improvements in the appearance and condition of the property were made. The number of members of the club is limited to 100, and the annual dues of each are $100. In the spring of 1889, there were about seventy-five members, and the price of admission had advanced to $4,500. Members are allowed to bring their families, but are obliged to pay for their board. A number of fine cottages have been erected for members of the club, and a large building for their sixty employees.

The island is about ten miles long and two-and-a-half miles wide. Game had been carefully preserved by the former owners for at least a century, and quail, woodcock, and snipe, abound. Wild turkeys are also found, and there are a few deer, and several hundred wild hogs. The ocean front is of fine, white sand. It is quite wide and furnishes an excellent driveway. There are also the best of facilities for sea bathing. On the inland shore is a large and prolific oyster bed from which bivalves of the finest quality are obtained. The fishing is very fine and the opportunities for yachting are unsurpassed. Many members of the club are owners of yachts, and numerous fine craft of this description may be found here during the season. The island contains several ponds, some of which are fresh water, and quite a quantity of oak and pine timber, which adds to the beauty of the landscape and furnishes shelter for game.

As the island is farther north than the fever line and receives breezes from both the land and sea, its climate is very pleasant and healthful. There is none of the lassitude which affects the residents of heated regions, and the place is free from mosquitoes and various other ills which prove serious drawbacks to many popular resorts. Grounds have been laid out for the various games, including polo; gas has been introduced, and an abundant supply of pure water is obtained from an artesian well. In fact, everything needed for the comfort and pleasure of the members of the club seems to have either appeared naturally or been added by man, and we can easily believe the statement of a visitor who asserts that Jekyl Island "has not its equal, north or south."

ST. JOHN'S RIVER.

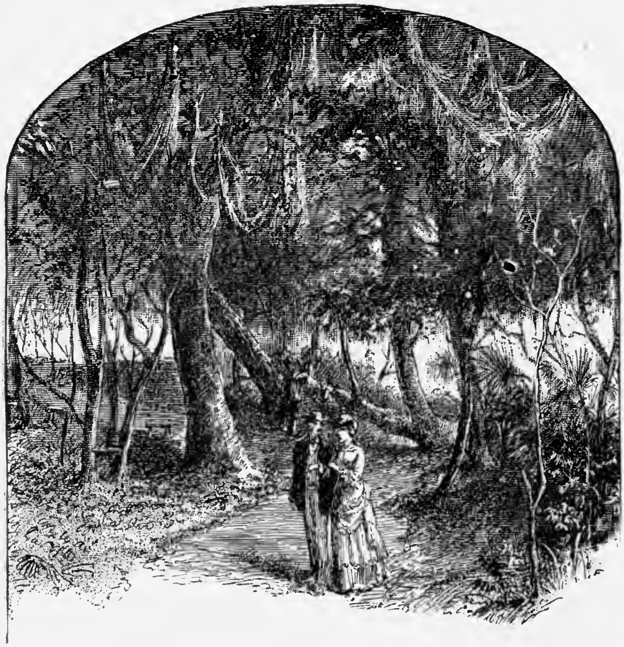
THE ST. JOHN'S RIVER in Florida is in many respects one of the most attractive and interesting streams on the entire continent. It is in every characteristic a perfect antipode of the roaring, rushing, city fringed and commerce-ladened St. Lawrence; a river of surprising, enchanting beauty; a river of peace and quietness. It has its rise in Lake Washington, between latitude 28° and 29° north, and longitude 80° and 81° west, and empties into the Atlantic Ocean between latitude 30° and 31° north and longitude 81° and 82° west. From its source just below the northern boundary of Brevard County, it soon forms and maintains for a long distance the boundary between Volusia and Orange Counties; above Lake George it flows on the east of Clay and Putnam Counties and on the west of St. Johns and a portion of Duval Counties, and finds its outlet in the latter. From source to mouth it passes through numerous lakes, among them the cluster of which Lake Monroe is chief, and then through Lake George, the largest in the State. Between Palatka on the south and Jacksonville on the north, it spreads out over a much greater area, and after a considerable narrowing at its turning point near Jackson-



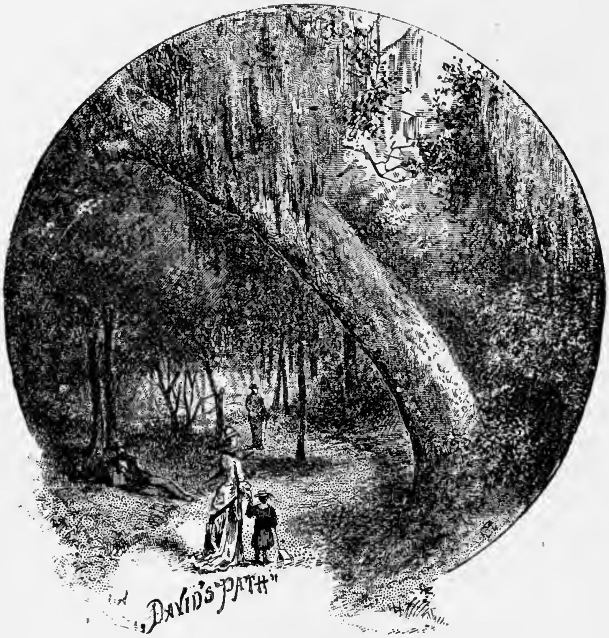
IN THE HEART OF THE ORANGE REGION.

ville it again widens on its eastward flow to the ocean. At Jacksonville, the first city below its mouth, it has a width of 2,390 feet and a mean rise and fall of one foot, thence to its source it is irregular in width, depth, and current, but invariably clear and always attractive.

The steamboat trip up the river begins at Jacksonville. At Picolata a stoppage is made to let off passengers who desire to reach St. Augustine by the inside route, and such are conveyed across the narrow strip of country in stages. The first place of consequence at which the boat stops is Mandarin, eleven miles beyond Jacksonville, and famous as containing the valuable orange grove of Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe. Her house is surrounded by some magnificent live oaks, and the grove lies just back of it. Between Mandarin and Lake George are many settlements, all of exceeding beauty and all containing orange groves. They consist, generally, of a long wharf, a freight house, a hotel or two, a church, perhaps, and several private residences, all built of wood and painted white. Among them are Magnolia, Hibernia, Picolata, Green Cove Springs, and Palatka. The two latter are the most important. Green Cove Springs derives its name from a large sulphur spring in its midst, and is a most charming place. Numerous paths have been cut through its wealth of forest, ever swaying with its parasitic drapery, and hither hie the young and romantic sojourners of Jacksonville for a season of quiet communion with tropical nature and themselves. Palatka is the largest town on the river except Jacksonville, and is noted alike for its comforts as a winter resort and for its manufactures of moss into stuffing for mattresses and cushions. Large quantities of vanilla leaves, from a ground plant that grows wild in Florida, and when dried emits a delicious

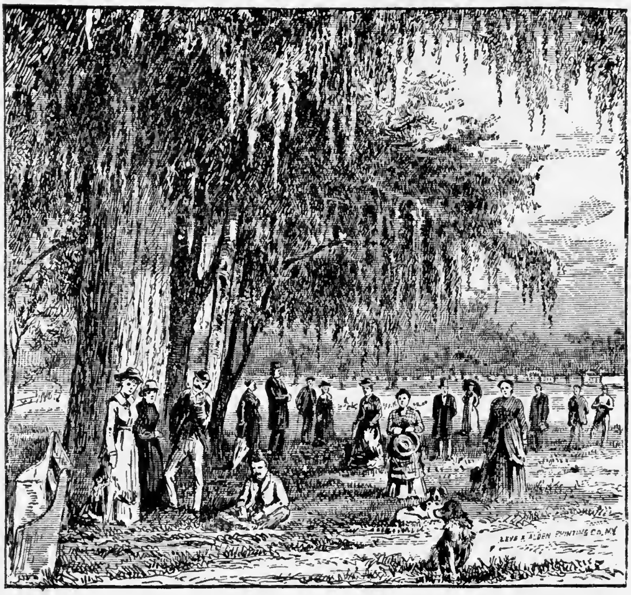

THE LOVERS' WALK, GREEN COVE SPRING.

perfume, are also prepared here for use as an adulterant and a scent in the manufacture of tobacco. Lake George is apparently twenty miles long by about twelve broad. Its surface is dappled at the edges by vast irregular fields of lilypads. As the steamer passes onward, countless ducks swarm up from among these pads and blacken the sky in all directions, and thousands more, in no wise alarmed at the passage of the boat, sit like black dots among the broad, green leaves as far on every side as the eye can discern.



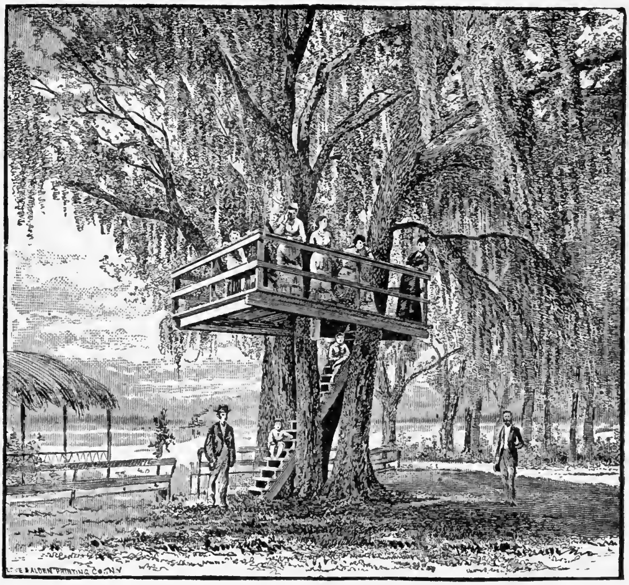
ST. DAVID'S PATH, GREEN COVE SPRING.

After the boat has made the passage of the lake, it enters a portion of the river averaging from 50 to 150 feet in width. The luxuriance of the vegetation is as astonishing to Northern eyes as the trees are novel. Palmettos spread out their immense vivid green, fan-like leaves; pines rear their lofty deep green heads, from the base of which long streamers of gray moss float on the wind; cypresses, white and bare, except for ball-like clumps of mistletoe or here and there a half withered bunch of tiny leaves, and the inevitable moss between them. Vines grow everywhere, and along the banks trail in masses, sweeping the dark waters with their leafy fringe. Here are seen the swallow-tailed hawk, a rare and beautiful bird, with gray back and wings and snow-white breast, the water turkey, the white crane, the blue heron, and, in the warm months, any quantity of alligators of all ages sunning themselves on the river bank. The long moss which hangs in such profusion from the cypresses and live-oaks of the South is an epiphyte; growing upon trees, but deriving no nourishment from them. Having no roots, it hangs in festoons and clusters as if thrown over the branches by accident. Its flowers are inconspicuous, and their seeds are so light that they are blown easily through the foliage, vegetating wherever they fall. The parasite differs from the epiphyte in that it not only grows upon the tree, but derives nourishment from it. The cabbage palm or palmetto, so abundant in this locality, has a terminal bud somewhat resembling a cabbage. This is edible, but it is death to the tree to remove it. The branches of many of the large trees are enveloped with the bright scarlet sprays of the air-plant, a species of tillandsia, and of the same family as the long gray moss, though so curiously different in general appearance. The scarlet tillandsia looks like a small pineapple and has a flower stock composed of branches like heads of rye, of the brightest scarlet; the stamens are of a rich azure-blue, tipped with golden anthers. The dew accumulates within the trough-like leaves, and thus the plant is cared for during the dry season. This plant sometimes germinates upon a rail-fence or a dead tree, and fastening its twine-like roots around the wood, seems to thrive as well there as upon the trunks and branches of living trees. The mistletoe, which grows upon the oaks of England, is of parasitic origin, and also abounds in Florida. There are nearly a dozen specimens of the tillandsia family growing in this part of the State; some of them very delicate and wax-like, climbing the trunks of trees and drooping in festoons from their branches. Flowering plants abound here in the greatest profusion, and frequently old friends of the Northern hothouse are met with that seem out of place, yet are in their own homes.


LEVE & ALDEN PRINTING CO. N.Y.

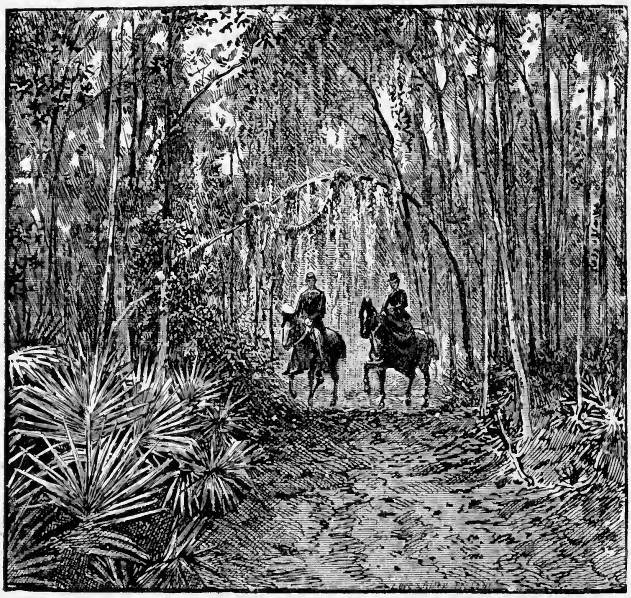
ON THE OCKLAWAHA.

The course of the tourist lies through three more lakes, Dexter, Beresford, and Monroe, and stoppages are made at Blue Spring, Volusia, Cabbage Bluff, Manhattan, Orange Mound, Sanford, Melonville, Enterprise, and other landings. As the entire trip is an exceedingly leisurely one, where haste is utterly out of the range of possibility, it should not be undertaken on limited time. When one can be unconcerned in this respect, it will be found very delightful to lay over a trip at any of the "towns" possessing a hotel, and after feasting on the prodigality of nature in her tropical attire in one place, re-embark for another. A short distance from the river bank on either side will be found the most beautiful parks and gardens, and the great groves of oranges for which Florida is famous the world over. One can scarcely tire of a tramp here. The trees seem greener, the flowers brighter, their perfume sweeter than elsewhere; it is a perfect paradise of bird-life. Here and there along the riverbank, beside some tributary stream, or in the interior, will be found some noble live oak or cluster of pine, maple, or cypress, among whose moss-covered branches a wooden balcony or observatory has been built, where a deliciously lazy *siesta* may be spent. The Ocklawaha, which empties into the St. Johns, is a large stream, and a great resort for excursion parties from Palatka and Enterprise, who charter a steamboat and run up it several miles for the purpose of shooting alligators and wild turkeys, fishing, and having a good time generally.


THE ALDEN PRINTING Co. N.Y.

A LIVE OAK OBSERVATORY.

No trip to this region is properly completed that does not comprise a glimpse of a Florida everglade. Beside the great tract in which the Seminole Indians fought the United States troops and some of their best strategists so many years, there are patches more accessible to the pleasure-seeker of to-day. Formed in a low, yet not absolutely level country, these magnificent examples of semi-tropical richness strike the beholder with surprise. An experienced European traveller, after revelling among the beautiful openings which occur in the swampy scenery of the peninsula, wrote that "it seems a waste of nature's grandest exhibition to have these carnivals of splendid vegetation occurring in isolated places, where it is but seldom they are seen by the appreciative eye of cultivated and intellectual observers." Nature, certainly, is here bountiful to a marvellous extent. Grand towering trunks, loaded with strange parasitic plants, and vines of enormous dimensions, like huge serpents, coiling around them, combined with the singular forms of air-plants that vie in color with the birds and insects that alight upon their blossoms, comprise a scene more frequently expanded in the mysterious labyrinths of dreamland than on the more tangible earth.



AN EVERGLADE.

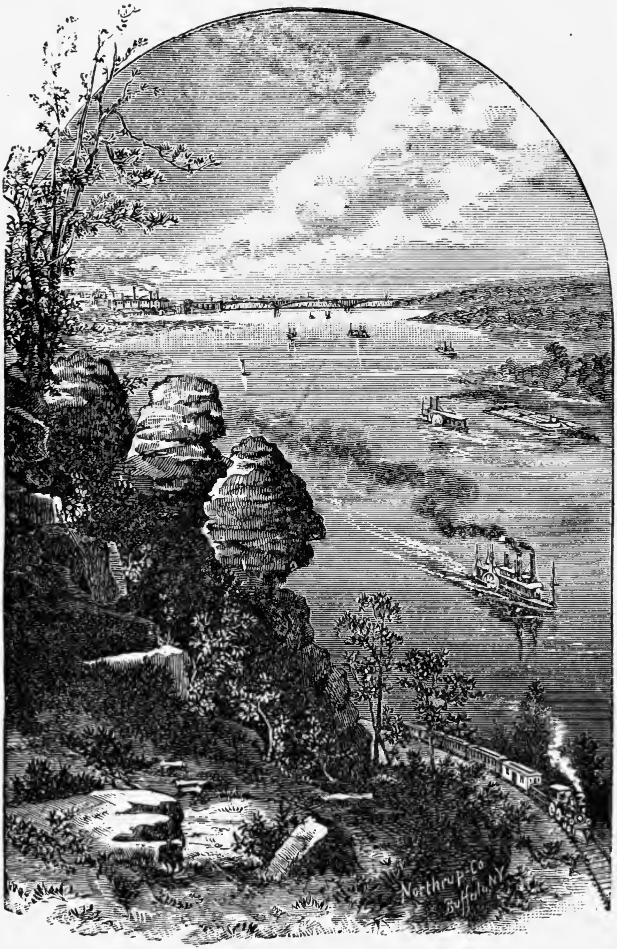
As a permanent winter resort, Florida is without a peer. At St. Augustine and Jacksonville will be found some of the largest and handsomest hotels in the line of pleasure travel anywhere, while the smaller towns on the St. John's River are well provided with hostelries that, if not of metropolitan proportions and accommodations, afford all necessary comforts, including, in general, good board.

SCENES IN TEXAS AND THE GREAT SOUTHWEST.

IF the tourist chooses to visit the "Sunny South," instead of the far West or the still more distant regions at the northwestern corner of our national domain, he will be wise if he makes the journey during the cold season of the year. While to people who are acclimated, the heat of summer in the localities to which we now turn our attention is not extremely severe, the Northern man going there in the mid-summer months would find it somewhat enervating. But during other seasons it is generally agreeable. And the traveller from the North will at this time avoid the rigors of the severe climate which he would experience if he remained at home. Thus there will be a double gain in making the trip in the autumn or winter. The marked contrast, too, between the scenery at home and that which will come under the observation of the tourist in the South will add a charm to what would, aside from this element of variety, be really delightful.

The scenery of the region we now propose to enter is very different from that of the Northwest. While it is, in its finest localities, far from tame, it is characterized by beauty far more than it is by grandeur. There is less of the sublime and the overpowering. Nature presents herself in quiet grace rather than in majestic form. But picturesque scenes abound, and their lovely images will permanently remain upon the mind of the beholder.

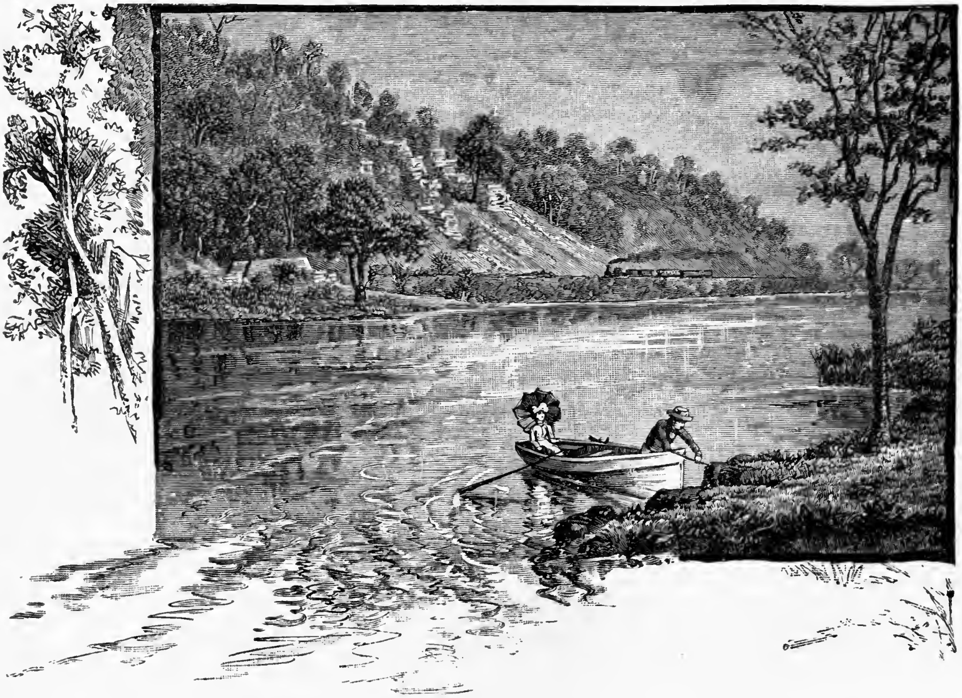
For various reasons St. Louis will be the best point of departure. But before leaving the city and commencing our search for natural wonders we shall do well to pay a brief visit to one of the marvellous works of man, the steel arch bridge across the Mississippi River. The end spans of this wonderful structure are each 504 feet in length and the centre span measures 522 feet. It was built under the direction of Cap-



A SCENE ON THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER, SOUTH OF ST. LOUIS.
On line of St. Louis, Iron Mountain and Southern Railway.

tain James B. Eads, and is said to be the finest work of the kind in the world. Captain Eads had proposed to erect a suspension bridge at this point at an estimated expense of $600,000, but his plan was defeated on the ground that it involved too great an outlay. The present structure cost more than ten times as much, the exact expense being given as $6,536,729.99.

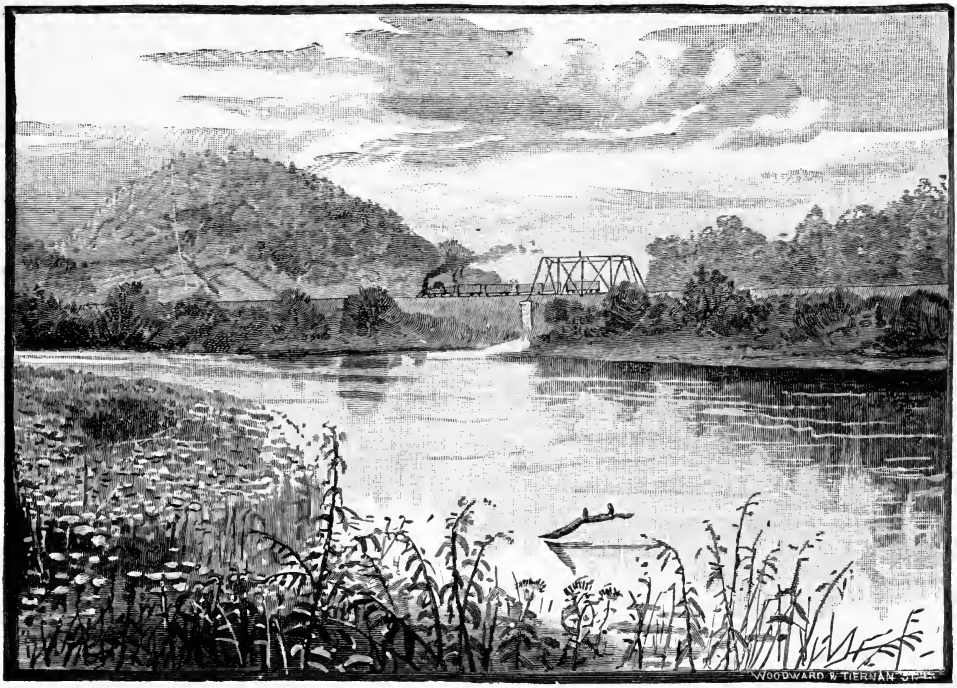
Leaving St. Louis by one of the lines of the Missouri Pacific Railroad there will be many fine views of towns and cities as well as of rural scenes. For quite a distance, too, we shall be near the mighty Mississippi River, whose surface is dotted with sailing craft of numerous, and in many cases, very peculiar forms.



ON THE MERAMEC—VIEW OF GRAND CAÑON, SULPHUR SPRINGS.
On line of Missouri Pacific Railway.

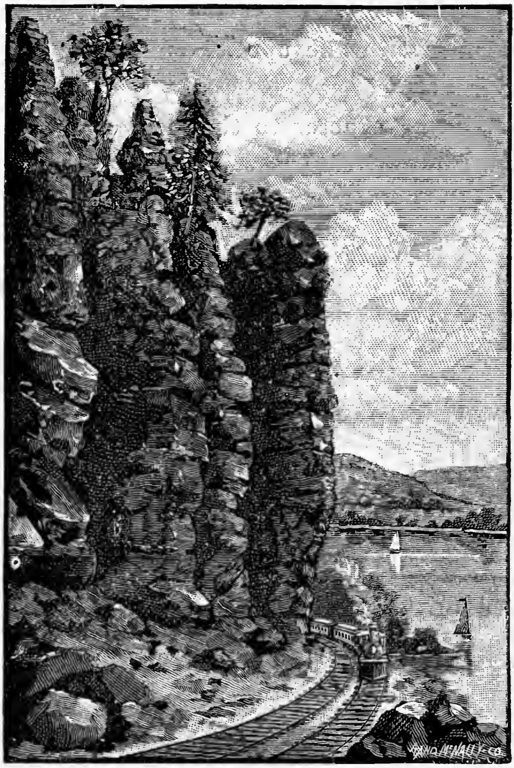
When the Meramec River is reached the land becomes more broken, and the scenery far more picturesque and delightful. Not the least element of pleasure is found in the frequent changes of outline which are observed. Here, all is serenely beautiful. A little farther on the land has a more rugged appearance, telling of great convulsions of nature in the distant past. Hills of beautiful form are close to the track. The railroad seems, at some points, to dispute with them for the possession of the river bank. Picturesque valleys lie between the hills. Creeks come down from the higher land and through these valleys enter the river, while upon the hills a forest growth adds to the general beauty.

Yet, while there is in general a subdued character to the scenery, there are portions of the route upon which we find more that is grand and inspiring. Rocks rising from near the river bank, and within a few feet of the track of the railroad, tower aloft like the spires of some great and desolate cathedral. The bold outlines, the rough faces, as though huge rocks had been piled one upon another by some mighty power, the air of coldness and desolation which pervades these great pinnacles relieved slightly by the few trees which appear upon their tops, combine to give to these peculiar towers a sombre yet majestic appearance.


WOODWARD & TIERNAN ST.

THE MERAMEC—MOUTH OF KEIFFER CREEK.
(On line of Missouri Pacific Railway.

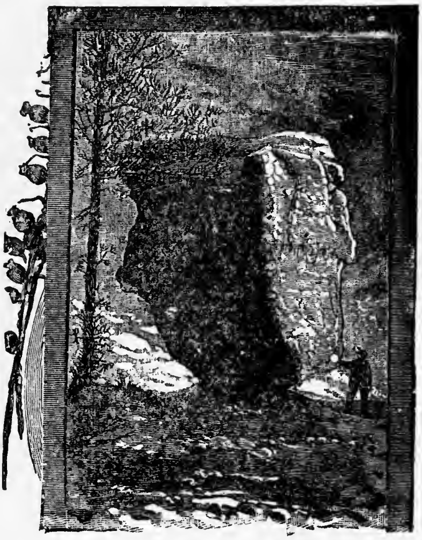
After the Meramec River is passed, the country presents a rugged and broken appearance. The hills become higher and more numerous and the contrasts in the scenery are more sharply defined. Entering the Iron Mountain region the elevations increase and the wildness of the scenery is intensified. This section will also have an element of interest on account of its vast


RAND McNALLY CO.

CATHEDRAL SPIRES, ON THE MERAMEC.
On line of Missouri Pacific Railway.

mineral wealth. The Iron Mountain is said to be both the largest and the purest body of iron ore yet discovered in any portion of the world. The peak rises to the height of 228 feet and its base has an area of 500 acres. The ore is very soft, of excellent quality, and yields from 55 to 69 per cent of iron. It also possesses a strong magnetic quality. A number of furnaces have been erected, and quite a village has grown up around them, and the various manufactories which have been established in their vicinity. There are several other large deposits of iron ore in this portion of the State. Of these the most important is the Pilot Knob Mountain. This is an immense deposit of ore which contains from 53 to 60 per cent of iron and with but small proportions of phosphorus, sulphur, or other deleterious matters. During the past forty years about 1,000,000 tons of ore have been taken from this point, and the supply is practically inexhaustible. Among the natural curiosities in the vicinity is the famous Balance Rock, an enormous stone of which only a small portion touches the rocky foundation upon which it stands.

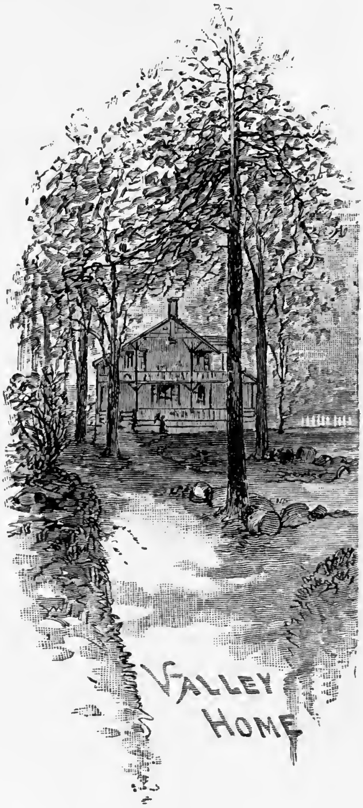
Leaving this interesting region the tourist passes to the table land in the southern portion of the State known as the Ozark Mountain section. The line of demarcation betwe.n the two regions is



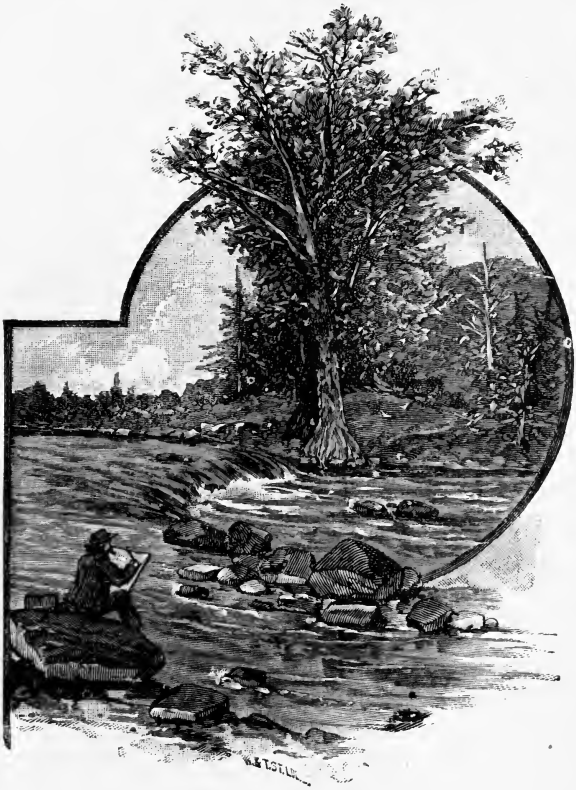
BALANCE ROCK, NEAR PILOT KNOB.
On line of the Iron Mountain Route.

not very distinct and by some writers the Iron Mountains are classed with the Ozark. The name, however, is immaterial. The views will be numerous and picturesque.

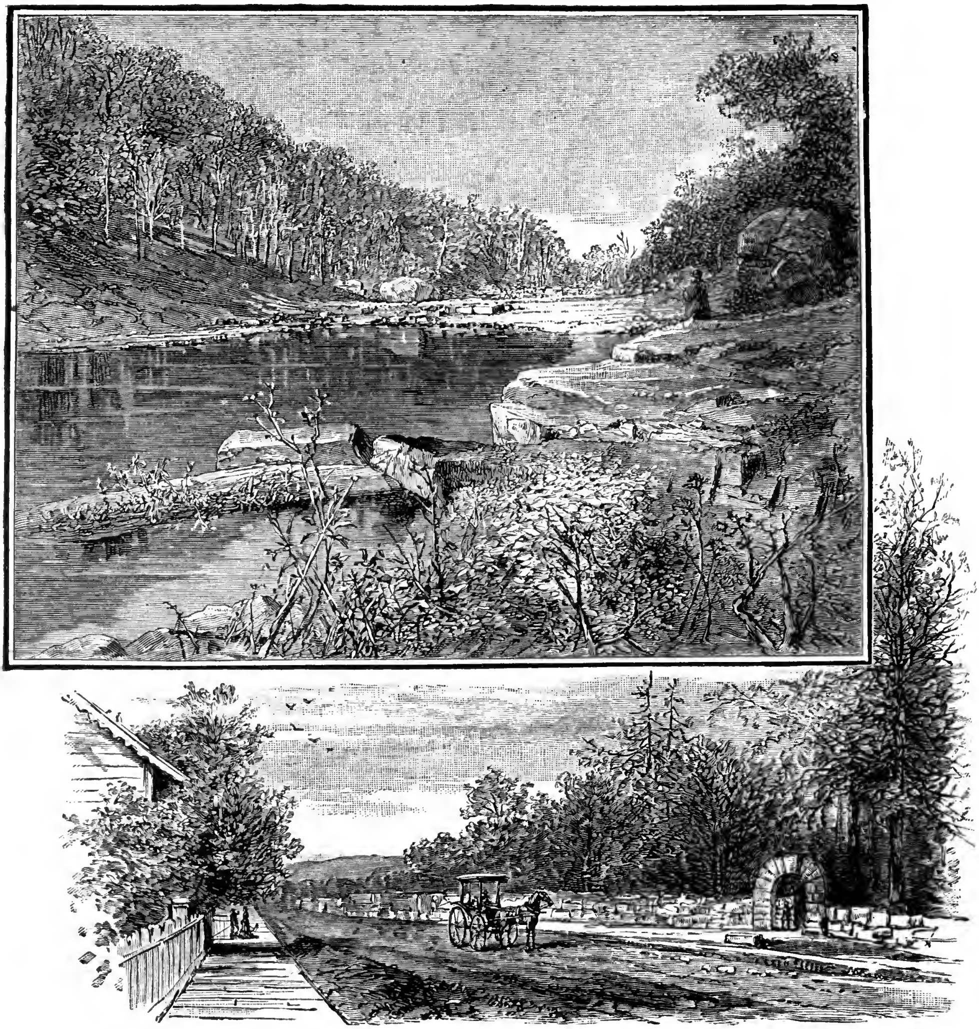
Near Arcadia, a station only three miles beyond Pilot Knob, is a most beautiful "shut in" of a creek which is walled by hills and forests in a picturesque manner. The traveller who turns from his course for a few hours to visit this scene of beauty will not have cause to regret the delay which it has occasioned.



The line of travel is in the direction of Texas and passes entirely through the State of Arkansas. The objective point of the tourist in this State will be the town of Hot Springs, a locality widely famed for its wonderful medicinal waters, and annually visited by many thousands of people from this country and by considerable numbers from foreign lands. But there are many other places of interest on the route and the tourist will be strongly tempted to turn from his main course and spend a brief period in these charming retreats.


THE BLACK RIVER, ARKANSAS.
St. Louis, Iron Mountain and Southern Railway.

Many beautiful scenes will be found on the Black River, sometimes called the Big Black River of Missouri and Arkansas. This beautiful stream has its rise in Iron County, Missouri. Until it reaches the Arkansas line its course is nearly south, but after entering the northern portion of the State it takes a southwesterly direction, which it maintains until it reaches the White River at Jacksonport, in Arkansas. The course of the river measures about 350 miles. Except in time of low water, steamers pass up the river to a distance of 100 miles. The scenic attractions are in the

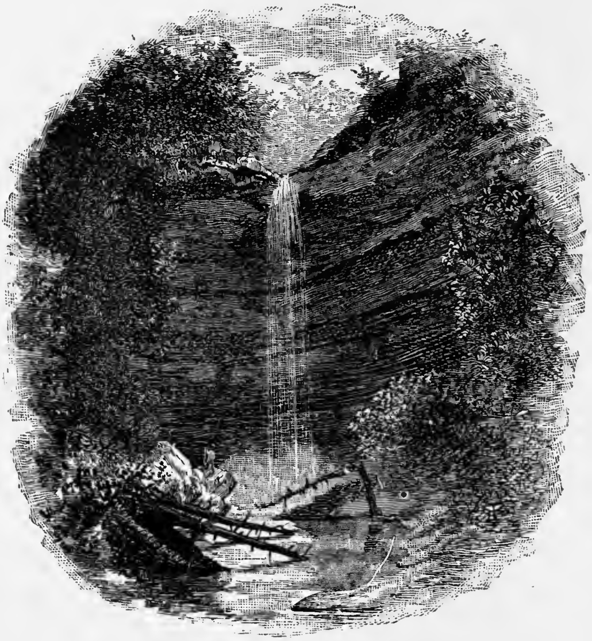


IN THE OZARK MOUNTAINS—THE SHUT-IN ON STOUT'S CREEK, NEAR ARCADIA.
On line of St. Louis, Iron Mountain and Southern Railway.

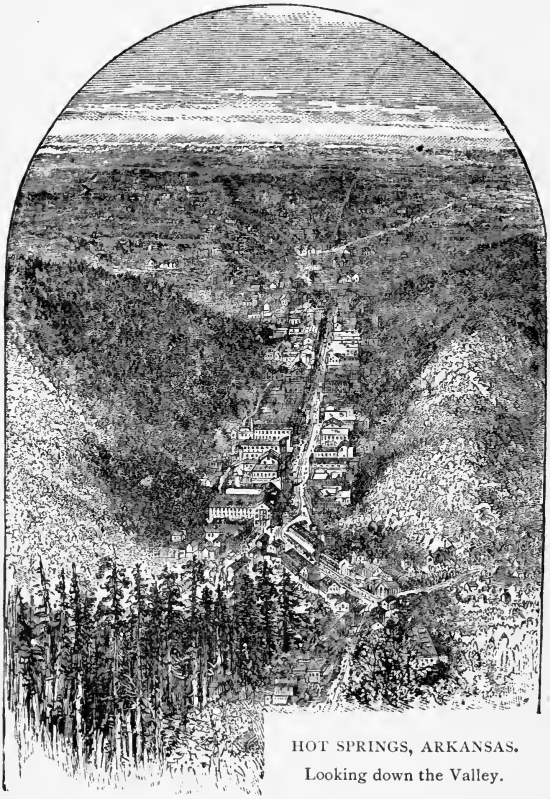
line of beauty rather than in the direction of grandeur and magnificence. About many of the localities there is a quiet and restful charm which causes the visitor to linger long in their presence and leave them, at last, with regret.

Another point of interest, and one which should certainly be visited, is Little Rock, the capital of the State and a great railroad centre. It is located in the central part of the State, on the Arkansas River, and some 250 miles above its mouth. Up to this point the river flows through a low country and during more than half the year is navigable for large steamers. Opposite the city the river is about 1,200 feet wide. It soon grows narrower as we pass in the direction of its source, but for a distance of 300 miles it has sufficient volume to admit the passage of steamers of moderate size.

The United States arsenal, the State Capitol, and other public buildings will interest the visitor in his trips through the city, but the scenic attractions will be principally found at the bank of the river. The city is built upon a cliff, from which it takes its name, which rises about fifty feet above the water. This is the first rocky formation, and the first high land reached in ascending from the mouth of the river. But farther up the stream the surface is broken and many fine views are obtained. Only about two miles above the city the Big Rock range rises sharply from the river to a height of 400 or 500 feet. Here are massive rocks, charming dells, beautiful water-falls, and other features of a pleasant resort. As he returns to the city the traveller may be interested to remember that as lately as the spring of 1811, all the region was a wilderness. In that year a wanderer from Louisiana located on what is now the site of the city and had a corn field on the spot now occupied by the United States government buildings.


RIBBON FALLS, MOUNTAIN PARK, LITTLE ROCK, ARK.

Leaving the capital city the tourist will pass to Malvern at which point he will take the Hot Springs Railroad for the city of that name, which lies twenty-two miles away. On the last part of the trip the course lies through a rough and broken country, and many fine views are obtained from the car windows as the train glides along.



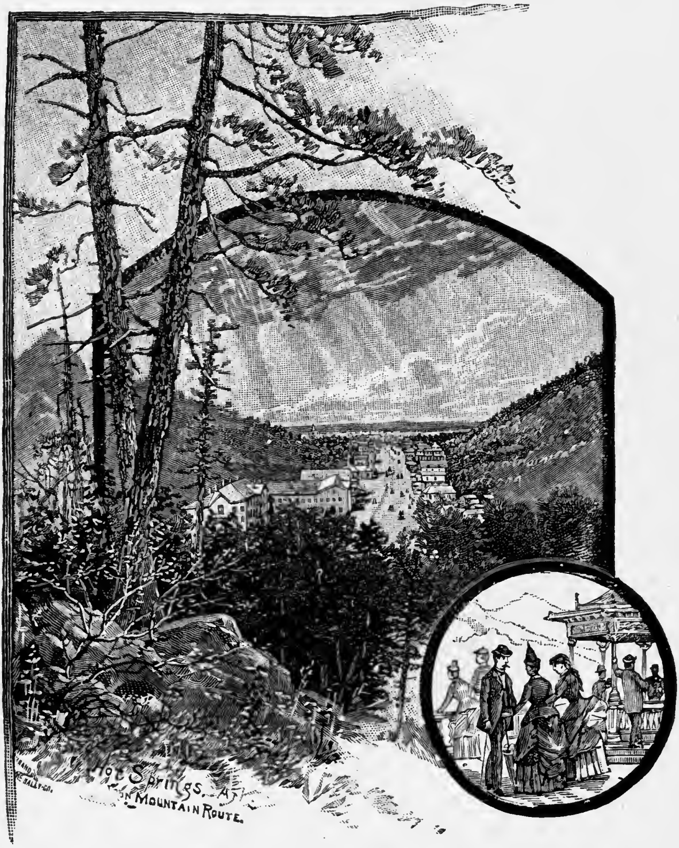
HOT SPRINGS, ARKANSAS.
Looking down the Valley.

The city of Hot Springs is situated about 65 miles southwest of Little Rock. It is located in a narrow valley of the Ozark Mountains on a small stream known as Hot Springs Creek. This valley is only about one and one-half miles in length and lies some 1,500 feet above the level of the sea. In this small area are from 75 to 100 hot springs, which are noted for the medicinal properties of their waters. These springs have been famous for a long period. Before the advent of the white man upon these western shores, the Indians frequented the Springs when suffering from ills which their "medicine men" were unable to relieve. Many who were unable to make the journey alone were carried by their companions. The whites were not slow to test the merits of these warm springs. The efficiency of the waters in the cure of rheumatism, malarial fevers, and numerous chronic diseases soon gave the locality a widely-spread fame, which has seemed to steadily increase with the passing years. Of course, such a peculiar locality is not without its traditions. Among them is one to the effect that this is the place of which the famous Ponce de Leon was in search when, early in the sixteenth century, he landed on the coast of Florida and made extensive explorations in hope of finding the fabled fountain of eternal youth.

The temperature of the water of these springs varies from 105° to 160° F. The springs issue from the sandstone hills which form the walls of the valley.

It is claimed that by the use of their waters many thousands of people whose diseases had been pronounced incurable have been restored to perfect health. In the bed of the creek there are also thermal springs which make the water sufficiently warm for bathing even in the coldest weather of winter.

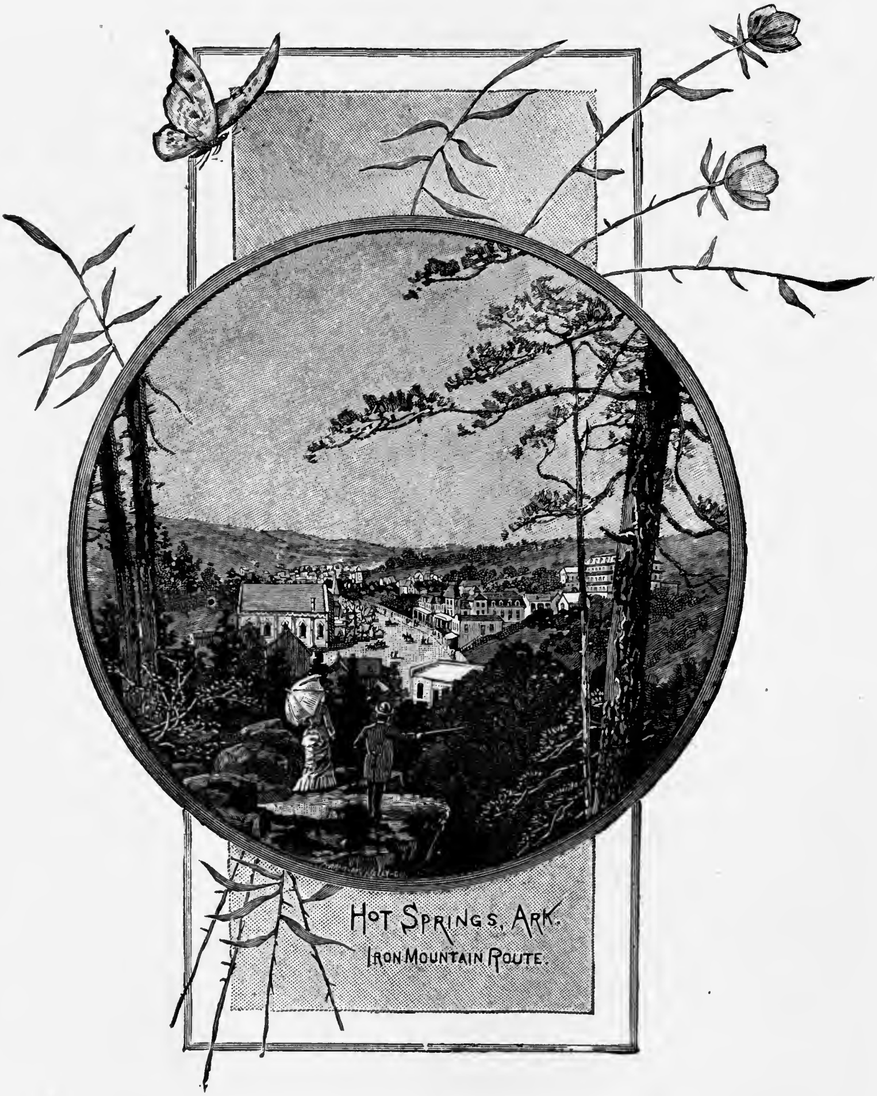
But great as is the number of invalids who flock to these health-restoring springs, this class furnishes only a portion of the visitors who find their way to this lovely mountain retreat. The charms of the scenery, the unique and extremely beautiful situation of the town, the pure and invigorating air, and the excellent accommodations for travellers which are furnished by many large and well-conducted hotels, have combined to bring to this favored place multitudes of people who are merely and only in search of pleasure. So great is the number of visitors of this class that in winter Hot Springs presents the characteristics of a fashionable pleasure resort in almost as strongly marked a degree as it bears the impress of a great sanitarium. During a period of seven years from 1880, the permanent population of Hot Springs was nearly doubled. In 1887 it had reached about 7,000.


Hot Springs, Ark.
Iron Mountain Route.

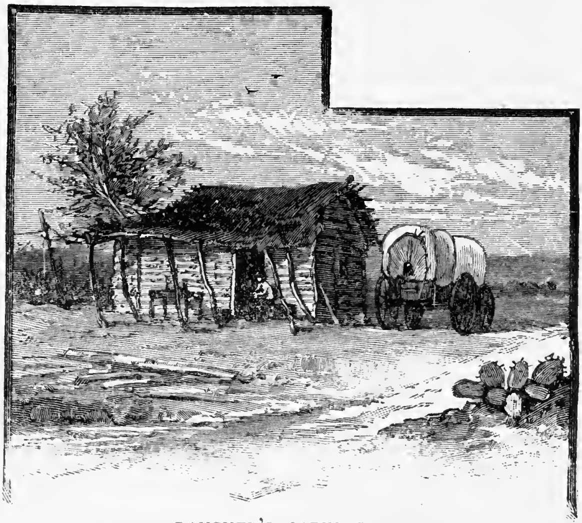
A VIEW OF THE HOT SPRINGS, ARKANSAS.
On line of the Iron Mountain Route.

Returning to Malvern by the route by which he came—the only one unless he is willing to make a slow and tedious journey by the wagon road—the tourist will proceed on his trip to the "Lone Star" State.

The State of Texas will have an interest to the tourist outside of the beautiful scenery which it presents to his gaze. Its vast area, sufficient for an empire and much larger than either the German Empire or the French Republic, will fill him with amazement. If he explores the region with any degree of thoroughness, he will be astonished at the great variations of climate. In one portion he will find a temperate range, neither extremely cold in winter nor oppressively hot in the summer. In another section he will find a sub-tropical climate with the vegetation natural to regions with a

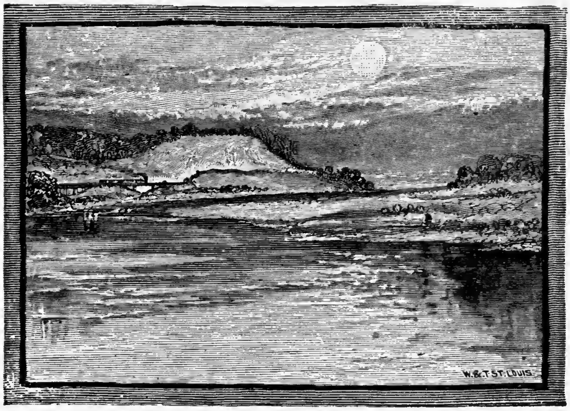

HOT SPRINGS, ARK.
IRON MOUNTAIN ROUTE.

high temperature. Between these points he will find a section of moderate warmth and producing the plants of more northern regions in great abundance and variety. The character and appearance of the soil also varies greatly in different portions of the State. There are remarkably fertile sections in which an abundance of forage is produced and multitudes of cattle and sheep are kept at very little expense. Many of the cattle ranches in this region are of immense extent. The climate is so warm that buildings to shelter the animals are not required and the mildness of the winters also makes it unnecessary to provide crops for their sustenance during this period. In this respect, as well as in the low price of land, the Texas cattle grower has an immense advantage over the Northern farmer and stock-raiser.

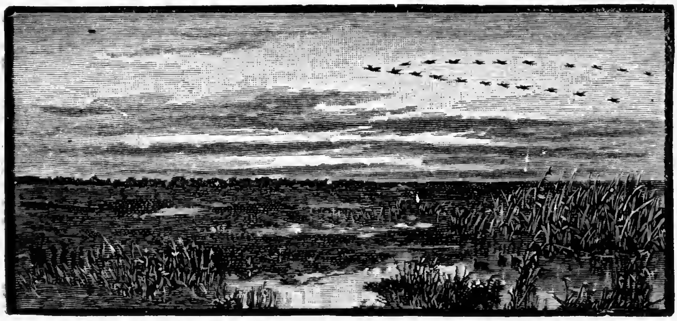


RANCHER'S CABIN, TEXAS.
On line of International and Great Northern Railway.

The contrasts in elevation are also very strongly marked. Near the Gulf coast, and for quite a distance up the large rivers, the land is low, and of a marshy nature. In some parts this low region extends inland a distance of sixty miles. Still farther from the coast are numerous plains lying about 1,000 feet above the level of the sea, with many bluffs, and presenting a somewhat rolling surface. Toward the west there is a mountainous region in which are found many peaks belonging to an extension, or off shoot, of the great Rocky Mountain Range. In the northwestern portion of the State is the

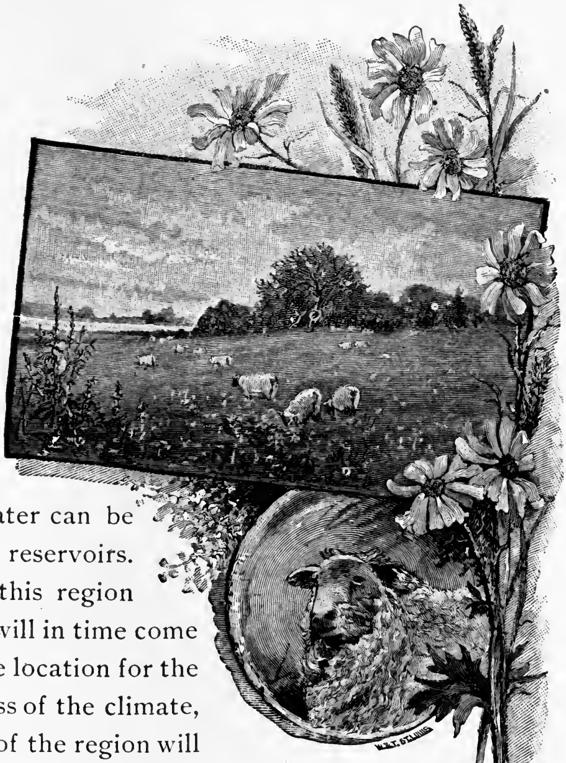


ON LINE OF THE INTERNATIONAL AND GREAT NORTHERN RAILWAY, TEXAS.



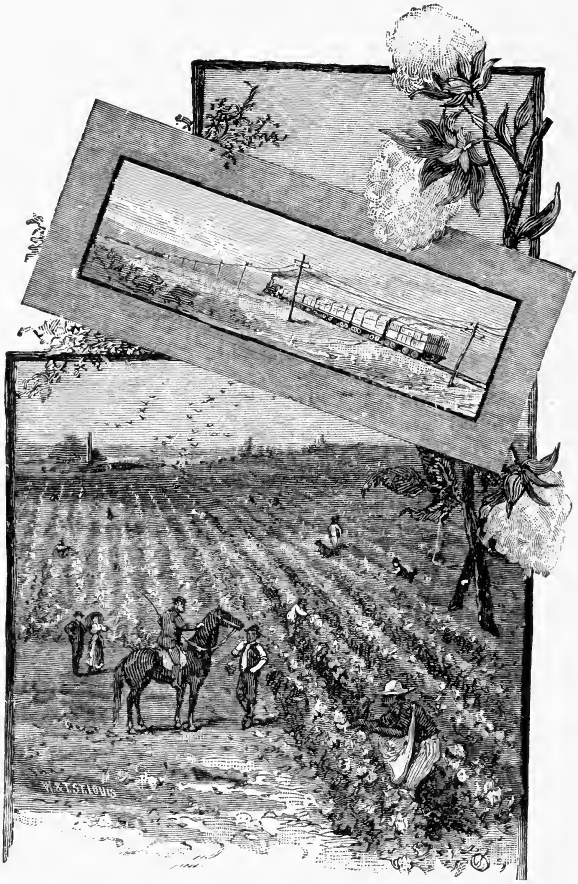
HUNTERS' PARADISE, HOUSTON, TEXAS.
On line of International and Great Northern Railway.

famous "Staked Plain." This is an elevated region forming a continuation of the Great Plains which, beginning in British America, pass down the eastern side of the Rocky Mountains to the Rio Pecos River. It derives its peculiar name from the immense number of yucca stems which, rising to a height of from ten to fifteen feet, give the plain an appearance of being thickly covered with upright stakes. The plain lies from 2,500 to 4,000 feet above the sea and contains a number of small lakes, in some of which the water is salt. As the rainfall is scanty and there are but few streams, the whole region was formerly considered worthless either for cultivation or for grazing. But investigation has shown that the soil is rich and produces a good quality and an abundant quantity of grass. It has also been found that with but little difficulty plenty of water can be obtained from wells and from reservoirs. Many cattle are now kept in this region and it is not improbable that it will in time come to be considered a very desirable location for the live-stock business. The mildness of the climate, together with the healthfulness of the region will attract settlers from other States. With the increase of population the area under cultivation will be extended. This will undoubtedly increase the rainfall and make a marked improvement in the appearance of the section.



SHEEP PASTURE ON THE BIANCO RIVER, TEXAS.
On line of International and Great Northern Railway.

To the sportsman Texas offers a magnificent field for the exercise of his skill. Game and fish of almost numberless kinds abound. The antelope may be found in the northwestern portion of the State, and it is thought that a few specimens of the buffalo still remain in this section. In some of the forest regions several somewhat ferocious animals are found. Of these the most important are the black bear, the puma, the lynx, the wild-cat and the jaguar. There are many districts in which deer, foxes, raccoons, opossums, and squirrels abound. Birds are also found in great variety and in immense flocks. Wild geese, wild ducks, quail, snipe, pheasants, and others which are valued for their flesh, can be obtained in large numbers, while hawks, herons, pelicans, cranes, flamingoes, and even vultures, are easily secured. In some cases splendid hunting grounds are found at only a little distance from a city or large town. Fishing is also excellent, both as pertains to the quality of the fish and the numbers in which they can be obtained. In this, as in the case of hunting, the sportsman does not have to go out of the range of civilization in order to obtain the pleasure of which he is in search.


COTTON FIELD, HEARNE, TEXAS.
On line of International and Great Northern Railway.

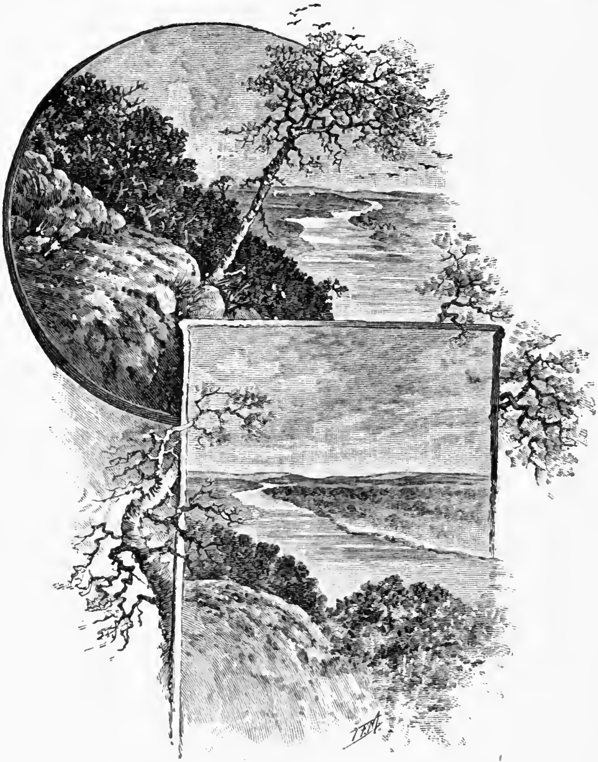
Viewed from an agricultural standpoint, Texas is also a remarkable State. Although it has more cattle than any other State in the Union, it also, according to late returns, ranks first as a cotton-producing State and second in the number of sheep maintained. In the production of sugar it is in the second rank, and it grows about five and one-half million bushels of wheat, twelve million bushels of oats, and seventy-six million bushels of Indian corn each year. Notwithstanding this vast production, Texas still has in its public domain more than sixty-seven million acres of land. In other words, its unoccupied territory is larger than the entire area of any other State except California and Nevada. And the vast agricultural development described is of quite recent date. We do not have to go back very far to find a time at which there was little interest in agricultural affairs. Texas was a comparatively dead country in the early part of the present century, and its progress was very slow until quite a period had elapsed after its annexation to the United States in 1845.

In the splendid agricultural region through which the International and Great Northern Railroad passes there are almost numberless beautiful scenes. At Hearne immense cotton fields will be found, with their naturally picturesque surroundings. At Austin, the capital of the State, the tourist will find many points of interest. The city is located near the centre of the State, and is largely built upon a range of hills, about 550 feet in height, which rise from the left bank of the Colorado River. It is an important railroad point. The streets are wide and some of the avenues measure 120 feet. A public park, 23 acres in extent, has been laid out and both park and streets are nicely shaded. There are several educational institutions and various manufactories. The new Capitol building is a magnificent structure and ranks among the finest public buildings in the country. It is four stories high, 566½ feet long, 288⅚ feet wide, and surmounted by a dome 311 feet in height. It is built of limestone quarried near by and the interior is handsomely finished in various shades of Texas marble. For its erection the contractors were given 3,000,000 acres of land located in the northwestern portion of the State—an area nearly as large as that of the entire State of Connecticut and more than one-third larger than the combined areas of the States of Rhode Island and Delaware. The city was named for Moses Austin, the leader of the first American colony which settled in Texas. It was incorporated as a city as early as 1839, and was the capital before, as it has been since, Texas was annexed to the United States. The scenery in the immediate vicinity is very fine. The tourist should also visit the numerous beautiful localities which, at only short distances, are to be found along the banks of the Colorado River.

Farther down the line a stop should be made at San Marcos, the capital of Hays County, and a very pretty town. But it is celebrated principally for the great beauty of the river of the same name near which it is located and for the boiling spring in the bed of the stream. The spring, which forms the source of the river, comes from the base of the mountain which here rises from the surrounding plain. Except in the constant flow of the water it closely resembles a lake. Its width is about 300 feet and it is nearly a quarter of a mile in length. The water is perfectly transparent and the scenery for quite a distance around is remarkably beautiful. An enthusiastic admirer of this river has compared the openings between the trees which line its banks to

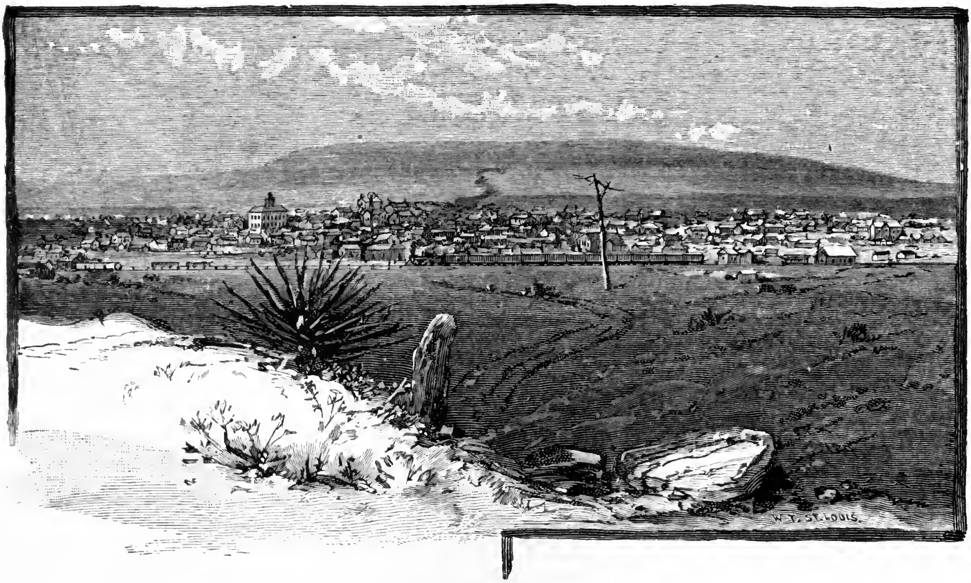
> " Golden paths
> That lead through Eden to Heaven's
> fairer fields."

San Antonio will also prove a picturesque spot and the tourist will examine with interest the ruins of the mission churches established by the Catholics early in the eighteenth century. These churches served as places of defence from Indian attacks and for schools as well as for religious purposes. The famous Alamo will also be a place of interest to every one who appreciates heroism and who values liberty.



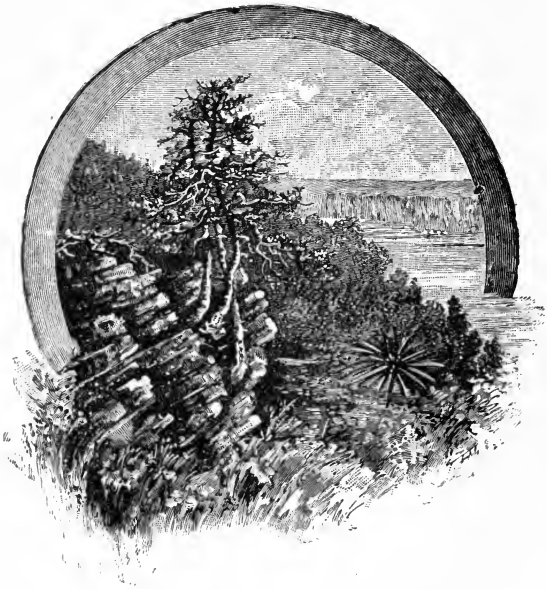
COLORADO RIVER, NEAR AUSTIN, TEXAS.
On line of International and Great Northern Railroad.

In the growth of her cities and the extension of her commercial and manufacturing interests, Texas presents an interesting study. The tourist may enter a thriving city in which there is abundant evidence of skill and energy on the part of the inhabitants and which has all the stability of an ancient town and yet he may find on inquiry that the whole city has been built within a dozen or fifteen years. The great development of the railroad interest has had a wonderful effect in bringing settlers to this section of the country, while the natural advantages which it offers to merchants, mechanics or farmers not only draw multitudes of people here, but keep a large proportion of them as permanent residents. So it occurs that fine towns and prosperous cities have been erected on sites which a few years ago were portions of a wilderness crossed only by the trails of Indians who roamed over the country at will.



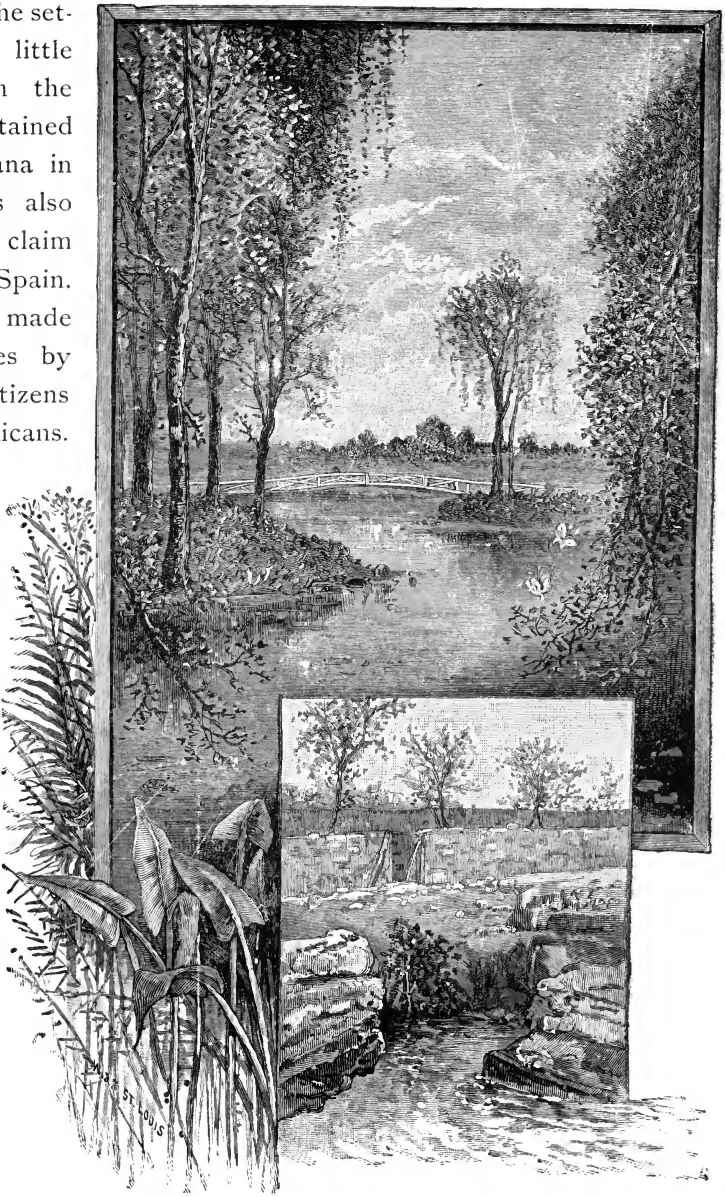
SAN MARCOS, TEXAS.
On line of International and Great Northern Railroad.

Still another element of interest to the tourist, in many instances the predominating sentiment, will be found in the historical associations which are connected with so many localities in this great land. As early as 1683, Texas was visited by the great explorer La Salle, who afterward built a fort and prepared for a permanent settlement. After an unsuccessful attempt to found a colony in



COLORADO RIVER, NEAR AUSTIN, TEXAS.
On line of International and Great Northern Railroad.

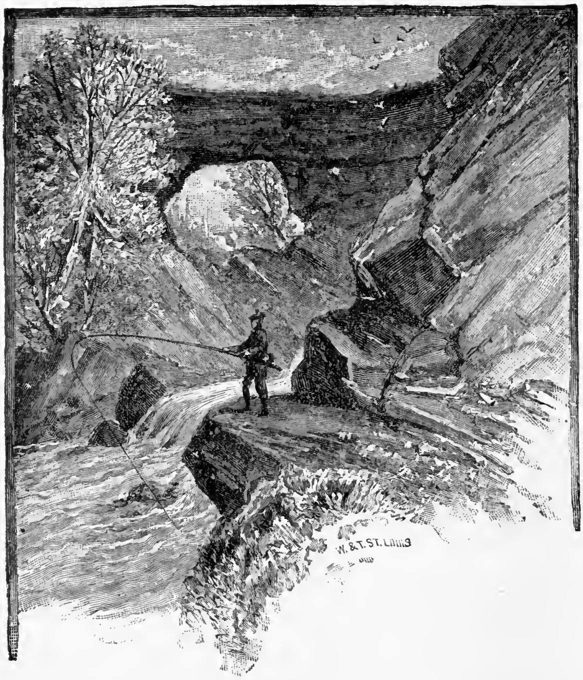
1690, the Spaniards succeeded in 1715 in establishing several missions. They called the country New Philippines. The Indians in the region proved hostile and the efforts of the settlers met with but little success. When the United States obtained control of Louisiana in 1803 Texas was also claimed, but the claim was resisted by Spain. Settlements were made at various times by United States citizens and also by Mexicans. Within a few years Mexico claimed the region, and to a certain extent the Mexican government exercised control over its affairs. In 1833 an effort was made to form the section into an independent Mexican State, but it was defeated, and two years later the Americans, under the leadership of their chosen General, Sam Houston, drove the Mexicans from the country. Then followed the invasion of Texas by the Mexicans, the massacre at the Alamo, the usual horrors of war, the defeat of the invaders and



SAN PEDRO RIVER AND SPRING, SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS.
On line of International and Great Northern Railroad.

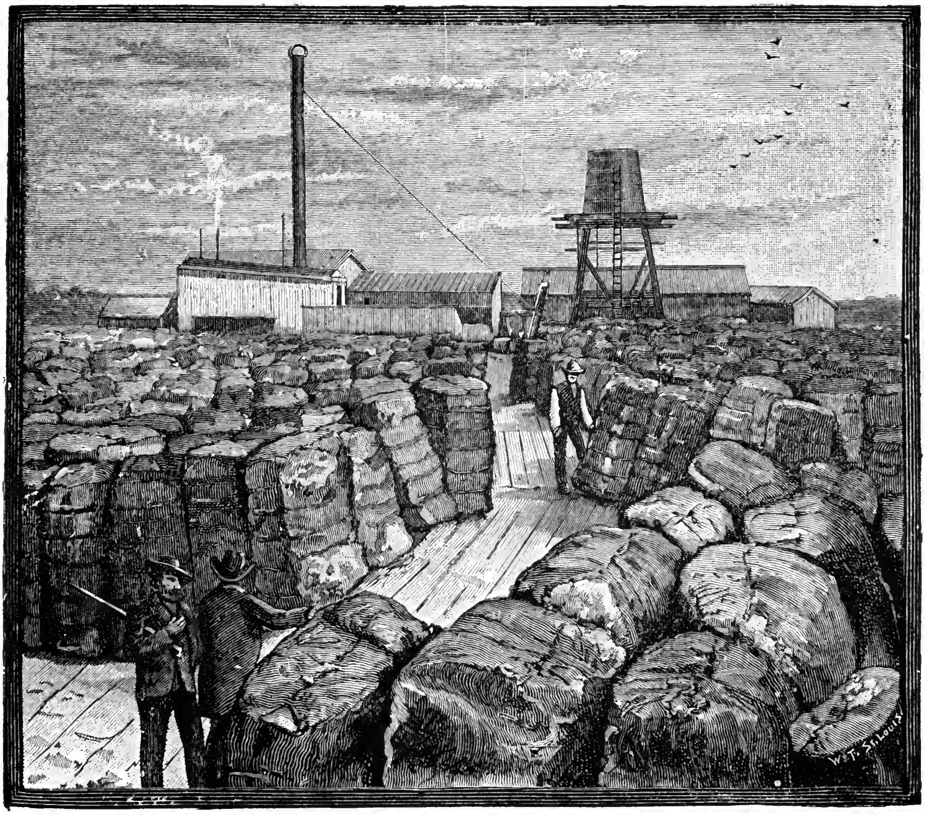
the establishment of an independent republic. In 1845 the annexation of Texas by the United States was made a cause of war by Mexico. After great cost and the loss of some thousands of lives peace was declared, and a more prosperous era opened upon the new State.

Near the northeastern part of the State and on the line of the Dallas and Greenville branch of the Missouri, Kansas, and Texas Railroad, there are a number of very interesting localities. Perhaps the one possessing the greatest attractions is the Natural Bridge which spans a beautiful stream in Rockwall County. The Bridge itself closely resembles the famous Natural Bridge in Virginia and is a rare as well as a beautiful specimen of Nature's architecture. Below the bridge the rocky walls rise somewhat abruptly from the banks of the stream. Between the rocks, at various places, trees have grown and added their beauty to the general effect of the scenery. The water is clear and flows through a rocky channel in which numerous pools are formed and from which the skilful sportsman is able to secure fish of excellent quality and in large numbers. For quite a distance along the stream the scenery is charming, and the tourist who is willing to take a long walk will be amply repaid for the fatigue which he may sustain.



NATURAL BRIDGE, ROCKWALL COUNTY, TEXAS.
On line of Missouri, Kansas and Texas Railway.

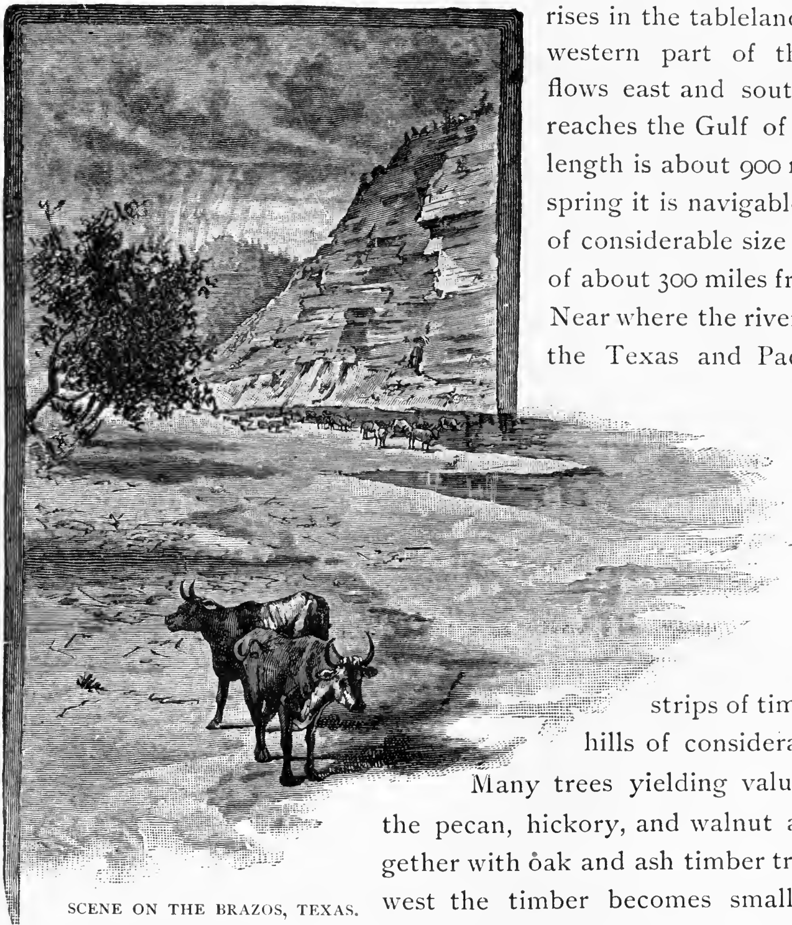
In Tarrant County, lying in the northern and, measuring from east to west, the central portion of the State, we find Fort Worth, which some of the early settlers, with little regard to the then existing state of things, but possibly with a view of future conditions, named "The Queen City of the Prairies." When this somewhat pretentious title was bestowed the settlement was not a city and its queenly appearance was wholly imaginary. But there has been a wonderful change in the character and appearance of the place during the past few years. In 1874 it was merely a country hamlet. Then came the Texas Pacific Railroad and the population increased. It was predicted that the extension of the road would cause a decline, but the fears were not realized. Business increased, better buildings were erected, and the place had an air of progress and prosperity. With the development of the outlying region and the increase of railroad facilities it has been making rapid strides. In 1880 its population was nearly 7,000. Seven years later it was estimated at about 25,000.



COTTON PLATFORM, FORT WORTH, TEXAS.
On line of Missouri, Kansas and Texas Railway.

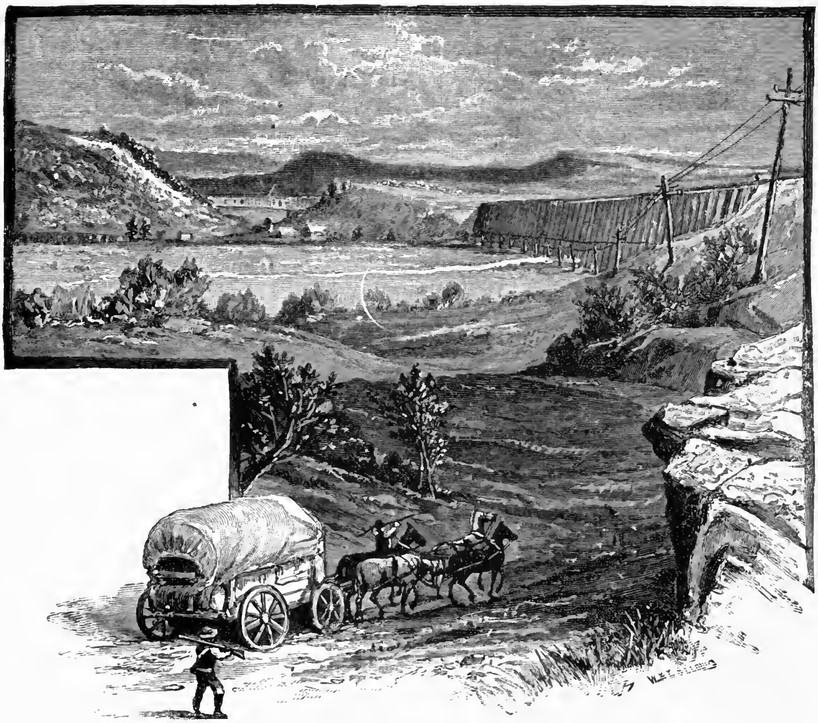
In the early history of the place a large court house was erected at an expense of $50,000. It was built in the form of a rotunda with four wings. Over the rotunda was placed a fine cupola. From this elevation a splendid view of the surrounding country is obtained. Fort Worth is the great centre of the live-stock interest in this region and a very important manufacturing and commercial city. Its educational facilities are excellent and it offers many advantages to people seeking either temporary or permanent homes in a mild and healthful climate.

A few miles west of Fort Worth the train crosses the Brazos River, which rises in the tableland at the northwestern part of the State and flows east and southeast until it reaches the Gulf of Mexico. Its length is about 900 miles. In the spring it is navigable for steamers of considerable size for a distance of about 300 miles from its mouth. Near where the river is crossed by the Texas and Pacific Railroad are many beautiful bits of landscape. It is mainly a high prairie region, but there are numerous strips of timber and many hills of considerable elevation. Many trees yielding valuable nuts, as the pecan, hickory, and walnut are found, together with oak and ash timber trees. Farther west the timber becomes smaller, except in specially favorable localities, and the mesquite, a peculiar small and thorny tree, becomes abundant. From the numerous elevations the landscape presents a wonderfully beautiful appearance. Most of the land in sight is uncultivated and its natural features, unchanged by man, appear in all their primitive loveliness.



SCENE ON THE BRAZOS, TEXAS.
On line of Texas and Pacific Railway.

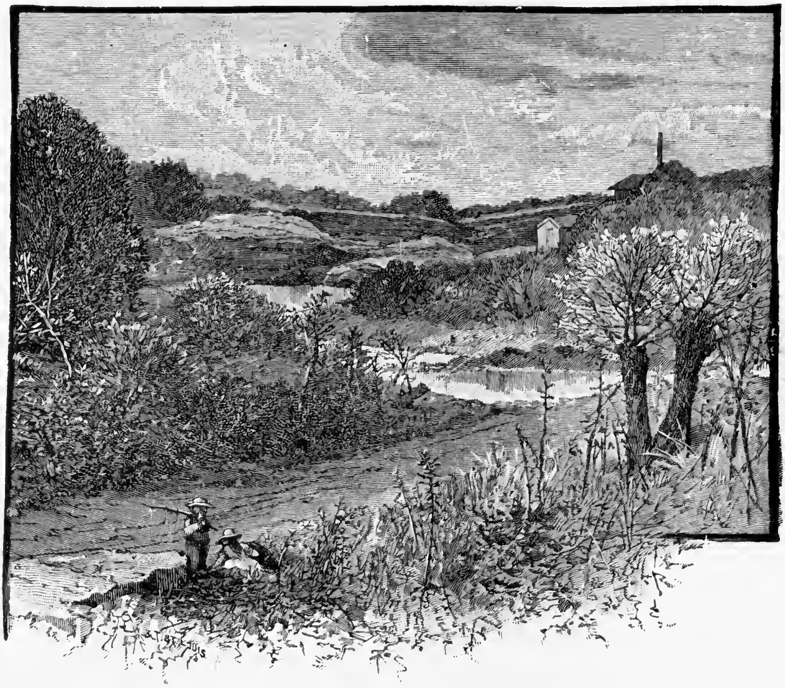
In the broken region beyond the Brazos River there are numerous picturesque scenes. At the towns along the route, and at the scattered settlements of farmers and cattle-men in the outlying regions, evidence of a comparatively easy form of life will be abundant. Nature has done so much for man that he is not obliged to exert himself so constantly and so severely to obtain a livelihood as he must in less favored regions. At various places the careful observer will notice feats of engineering skill on the part of the builders of the railroad over which he is travelling. The trestle bridge, near Canyon, is an example of skilful and careful construction which deserves special mention, while the ascent of the steep grades farther west shows equal skill in the selection and preparation of a feasible route.



TRESTLES, NEAR CANYON, TEXAS.
On line of Texas and Pacific Railway

In the vicinity of Big Springs the tourist will obtain many charming views. If not particular in regard to his accommodations he may pass a few days in this region very pleasantly. He will not find large hotels and may not "fare sumptuously every day," but he will not suffer for either food or shelter, and he cannot help being delighted with the beautiful scenery.

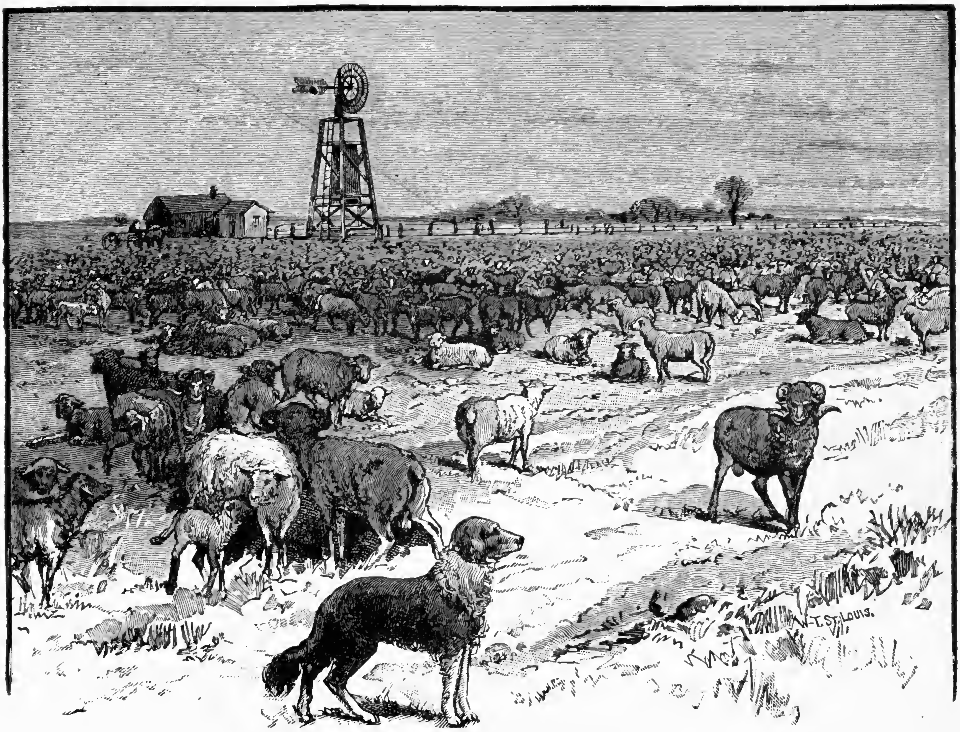
Passing west a section will soon be reached which is largely devoted to grazing. Here great flocks of sheep will be seen feeding upon the luxuriant grass with which the land is covered. On many of the ranches water is obtained from artesian wells and is pumped to the surface by windmills. In other localities ordinary wells from thirty to fifty feet deep supply plenty of water. To quite an extent shepherd dogs are employed in protecting the sheep and in keeping them from straying. The first development of the sheep interest in Texas was in the southern and southwestern portions of the State, but since the discovery that water can be readily obtained farther north the tendency has been in that direction. In 1886 the production of wool in the State amounted to more than 23,000,000 pounds.



BIG SPRINGS, TEXAS.
On line of Texas and Pacific Railway.

Crossing the Rio Pecos River we soon find a great change in the appearance of the country. Here the comparatively level section is left behind and the outlying region of the Rocky Mountains begins. A marked peculiarity of the approach to this great range, from this direction, is found in the almost entire absence of the usual slope, and in its place a series of elevated plains rising abruptly from fifty feet to five hundred feet at each step. The plains thus formed range from fifty to one hundred miles in width. The series is continued, in the direction of the northwest, until the great range of the Rockies is reached.

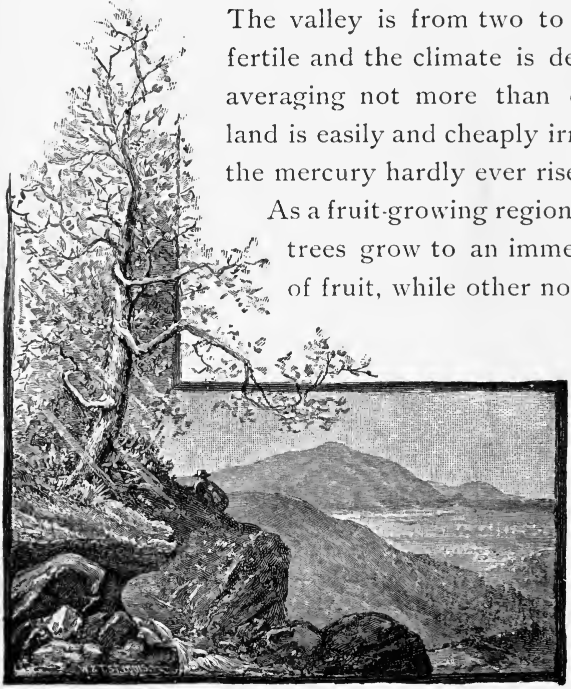
Proceeding toward El Paso the train is drawn up the slope of the Sierra Blanca Mountains to a height of five thousand feet above the sea level. The ascent brings many picturesque scenes into view, while from the highest elevation there is a magnificent outlook. The descent of the mountains is also replete with charming views, and the scenery continues wonderfully attractive until the end of the journey is reached at El Paso, "the gateway to old Mexico," and a beautiful and interesting locality. It is the western terminus of the Rio Grande division of the Texas and Pacific Railroad, and besides being an important railroad centre has various manufacturing interests. Its population increased from less than 1,000 in 1880 to more than 10,000 in January, 1888.



SHEEP RANCH, MIDLAND, TEXAS.
On line of Texas and Pacific Railway

El Paso is the capital of El Paso County, which lies in the northwestern corner of the State. The county is mountainous and within its limits many scenes of rugged grandeur may be found. The plains between these mountain ranges will also prove of interest to the tourist who takes the time to traverse them. But the chief attractions of the region lie in the vicinity of the old town. The first settlement was made here by Jesuits about 1620. They built near the bank of the Rio Grande River, and though until recently the town made but a slow growth it has of late years become an important railroad centre and is now a thriving city and claims to be the "chief commercial point between New Orleans and Los Angeles." The valley is from two to six miles in width, the soil is fertile and the climate is delightful. The rainfall is slight, averaging not more than eight inches per year, but the land is easily and cheaply irrigated. Snow seldom falls and the mercury hardly ever rises above 100° in mid-summer.

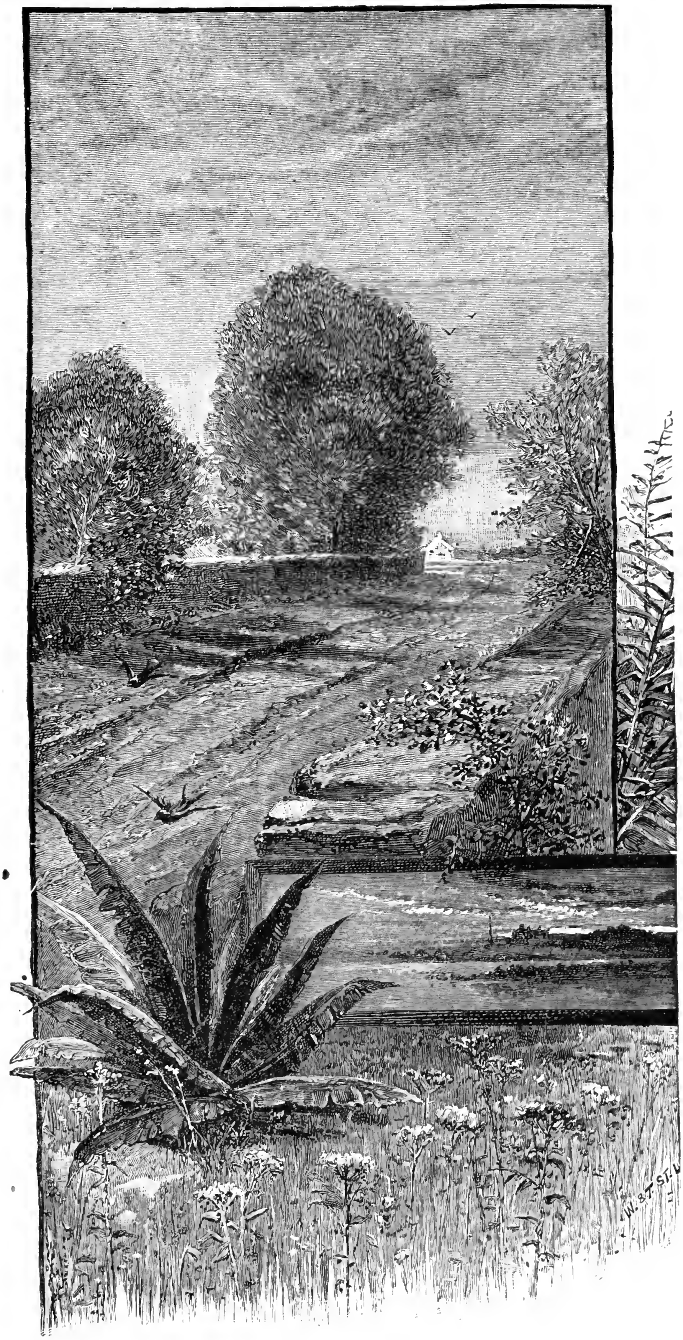
As a fruit-growing region this valley is remarkable. Pear trees grow to an immense size and yield heavy crops of fruit, while other northern fruits, and those belonging to semi-tropical regions, are produced in great abundance. The grape is particularly successful, coming into bearing very early and yielding large crops of fruit of an excellent quality. Many large vineyards have been set and wine-making has already become a thriving industry. The mining interests of the region are also important.



SIERRA BLANCA MOUNTAINS, TEXAS.
On line of Texas and Pacific Railway.

A little above the town is El Paso del Norte, "the pass of the North," a narrow and fertile valley through which the Rio Grande River finds its way on its course to the sea. In this gorge there are many beautiful localities. Just across the river, on the Mexican side, lies the old city of El Paso, a place of several thousand inhabitants, most of whom are Mexicans. The buildings are nearly all made of adobe, or sun-dried bricks. The principal building is a church said to be more than 280 years old. It is an adobe structure, plastered both inside and outside. The exterior is extremely plain, but the interior is nicely finished, with elegant carvings which give it a tasteful appearance. In the tower are three large bells said to be as old as the buliding itself.

A short distance down the river may be seen the dilapidated form of old Fort Bliss. Still farther down, some 13 miles below El Paso, is the ancient Pueblo town of Ysleta, formerly the capital of El Paso County. It is now inhabited almost exclusively by Mexicans and Indians. It contains a Catholic Church said to have been erected more than 300 years ago, and which is well worthy of a visit. There are various other settlements farther down the river, but they are not places of special interest to the average tourist. In and around El Paso, on both the American and the Mexican sides of the river, he will find the most beautiful scenery and will come in contact with the nu-



ROAD AT EL PASO AND VIEW OF FORT BLISS, TEXAS.

On line of Texas and Pacific Railway.

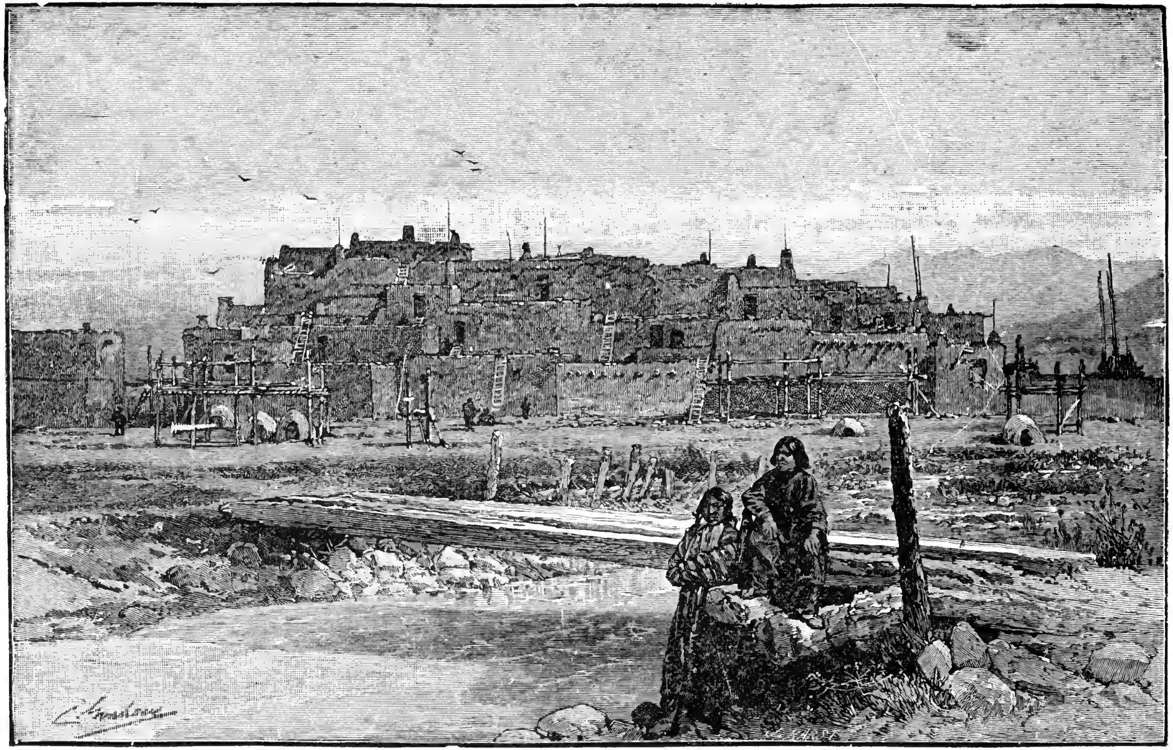
merous and widely differing types of civilization which prevail in all the surrounding region.

SCENES IN NEW MEXICO.

THE traveller who strays to New Mexico will go somewhat out of the principal line of tourist excursions, though he will by no means find himself without company in his expedition. Neither will he regret his choice of a place in which to spend a few leisure days. The many peculiarities of the region, the mildness of the climate and the beauty of the scenery, the almost solemn stillness which prevails at the native villages, with the primitive manner of life of the people, combine to make it a most interesting section to the thoughtful and observant visitor.

It is claimed by some geologists that here the first dry land of the continent appeared. The region was certainly the seat of an ancient civilization. Even now ancient manners and customs prevail to a marked degree. In some of the villages the natives follow the communistic mode of life which, hundreds of years ago, their ancestors adopted in order that they might the more successfully defend themselves from their numerous enemies. In various other respects the civilization belongs to a period long since passed away and the people remain passively and contentedly in the condition in which their predecessors lived.

One of the peculiar and interesting scenes which this section presents is found at the Pueblo de Taos—among the oldest of the ancient adobe forts. Leaving the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad at Embudo the tourist will make the trip along the Taos valley on horseback. On the route several small villages will be passed and a primitive method of agricultural life will be observed at the farm-houses, if such they can be called, of the region. The valley is fertile and the superficial methods of the natives secure a sufficient return from the soil to keep them in comparative comfort. Not far from the centre of the valley the town of Fernandez de Taos is located. It is inhabited by about 1,500 people. A little to the south is Ranchos de Taos, a village in which the houses are of adobe, but which boasts the modern innovation of a flouring mill. The buildings known as the Pueblo de Taos lie close to the Taos Mountain, about two miles from the village first mentioned, and form the home of some 400 Indians.



PUEBLO DE TAOS, NEW MEXICO.

The village of Fernandez de Taos was selected as the seat of government when the United States came into possession of the territory. Here the celebrated Kit Carson spent the last years of his life, and tradition affirms that in this vicinity the famous Mexican ruler Montezuma, was born.

The Indians living at the fort hold a peculiar festival on the 30th day of September of each year. Its design is to honor their patron saint (St. Jerome). The ceremonies, which are peculiar, are not often attended by white men, though they attract the Indians, in great numbers, from all the surrounding country.

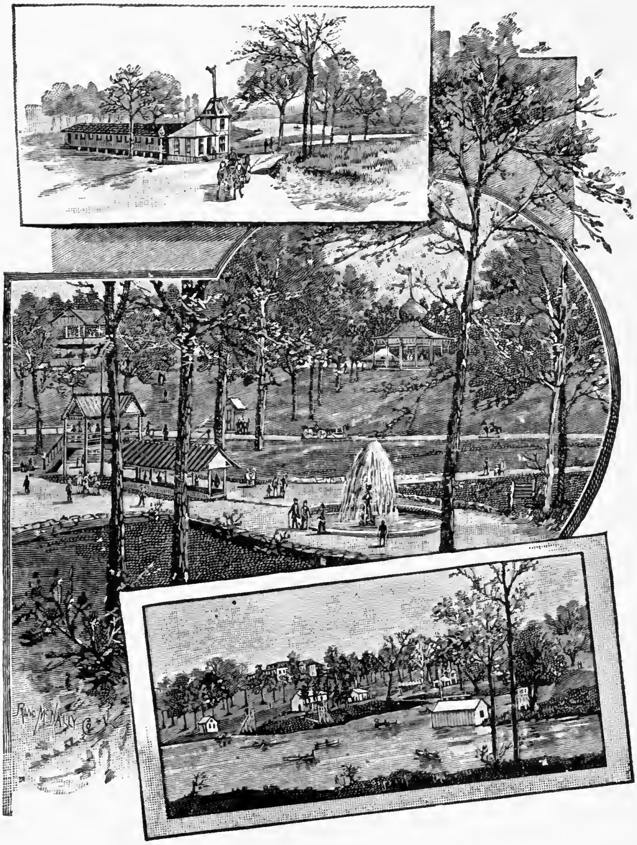
The two adobe buildings known as the Pueblo de Taos are about 50 feet high. They are some 600 feet apart and a stream flows between them. At each successive story the size of the building diminishes, so that a rude pyramidal form is assumed. Appearances indicate that these buildings have been enlarged in size as the demand for room increased. Access to the interior is obtained by means of two ladders. By one of these the top of the first story is reached while the other, passing through a hole in the roof, leads to the room below.

As he leaves this peculiar people and passes down the valley to the point at which the cars are to take the place of the small and slow Mexican ponies the tourist, if of an imaginative disposition, can almost persuade himself that he has been visiting a foreign land. If of an observing mind he will be convinced that for some portions of this territory there are great possibilities of development. He will have no doubt that the tide of our restless civilization will soon set strongly in the direction of these fertile valleys and the valuable mining regions in the mountains. The thoughtless, listless idlers who now inhabit some of the finest portions of the land will be obliged to change their manner of life or they will be crowded out by a more enterprising people. Whatever may, in the future, befall the land or its people, the tourist will cherish for them the kindest feelings and the quaint pictures of scenery and life which he has so keenly enjoyed will linger long and pleasantly in his memory.

HERE AND THERE IN THE GREAT WEST.

FOR residents of the central portion of the United States, or for visitors to that region, St. Louis is an excellent point from which to take a trip for health or pleasure. From this great centre the finest railroads branch in all directions and all prominent points are readily accessible. Let us now take a brief look at a few points a little distance toward the "setting sun."

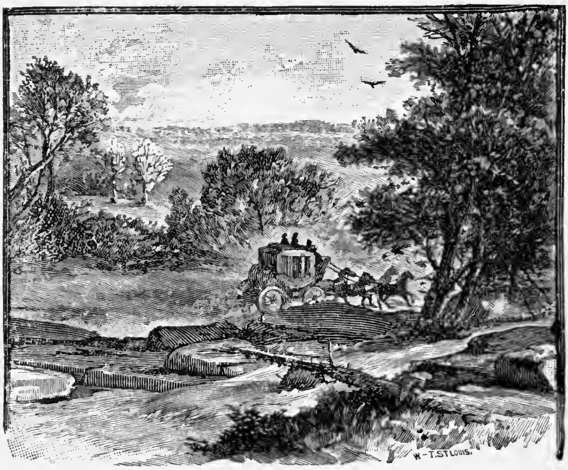
The tourist who crosses the State of Missouri by the Missouri Pacific Railroad will find a diversified country. There will be no startling exhibitions of natural scenery, but many very pleasant localities will be passed. There will be many places at which, if time were unlimited he would be glad to remain for awhile and for a visit to which he would be well repaid. Among these points of interest is Warrensburg, 218 miles from St. Louis, a thriving town of some 6,000 inhabitants. There he will find several public buildings, Warrensburg being the capital of the county, and the State Normal School. There is considerable manufacturing in several lines, some large flouring mills, and extensive quarries from which a remark-


Rand McNally & Co.

PERTLE SPRINGS, WARRENSBURG, MO.
On line of Missouri Pacific Railway.

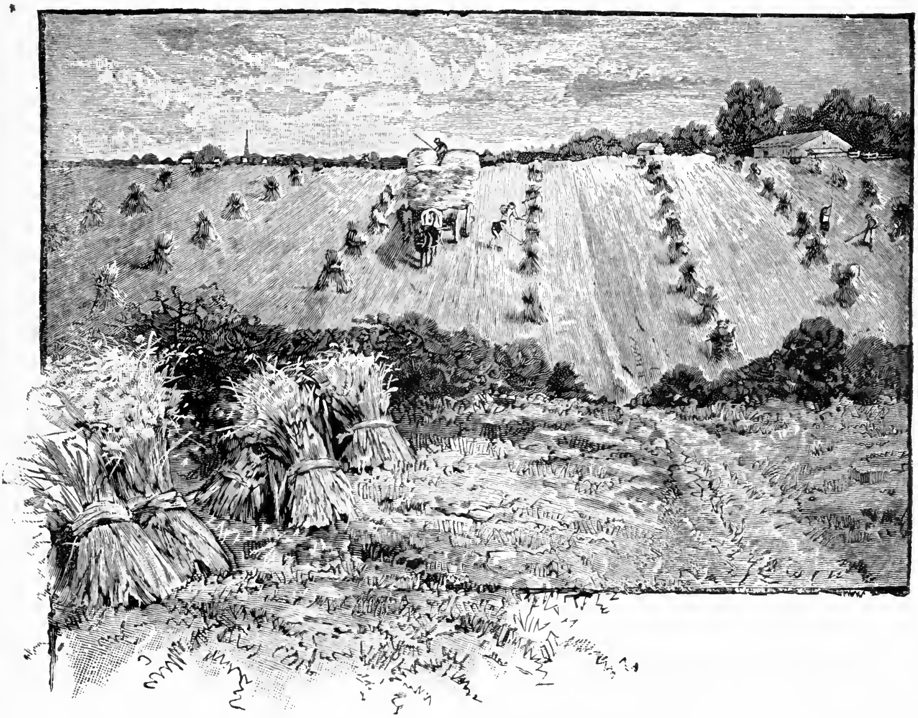
ably fine quality of sandstone is obtained. But the chief interest to the tourist will centre around the famous Pertle Springs. The beauty of nature has here been supplemented by the art of man. The scene presented is so charming that it is not a matter for surprise that the resort has become famous throughout the region and that it is visited by thousands who have no special need of the health-restoring influences for which it is celebrated and by which large numbers are attracted. It is an excellent place for enjoyment as well as for recuperation.

In the southwestern portion of Missouri and the southern part of Kansas there are a large number of remarkably beautiful views. Of these many are near the lines of the various railroads which form a network of iron over these States. Others are at some distance from the tracks and may be reached on horseback, or, in many cases, by public conveyance. A coach ride through some of the beautiful vales of this region will yield no small amount of pleasure. To many it will have the charm of novelty as well as present numerous scenes of beauty. If the trip occurs in the summer, the tourist will not only have an opportunity to view the natural attractions, but he will also be able to see how agricultural operations are conducted in the western country. The great wheat fields and the vast areas devoted to corn will amaze him, even though he may have read much in regard to them and may be expecting to find large farms and splendid crops. If he keeps in mind the fact that a large part of the section in which he finds such a wonderful development of the farming interest has been under cultivation only a comparatively brief period, he will be ready to admit that not only is it a remarkable country, but also that it is inhabited by a very energetic and progressive class of people. His wonder will be increased almost to the point of bewilderment if he remembers that only thirty-five or forty years ago this now prolific region was believed, even by men who had carefully explored it, to be a veritable desert. It was included in the Great American



STAGE ROUTE, SCHELL CITY TO EL DORADO SPRINGS, MO.
On line of Missouri, Kansas and Texas Railway.

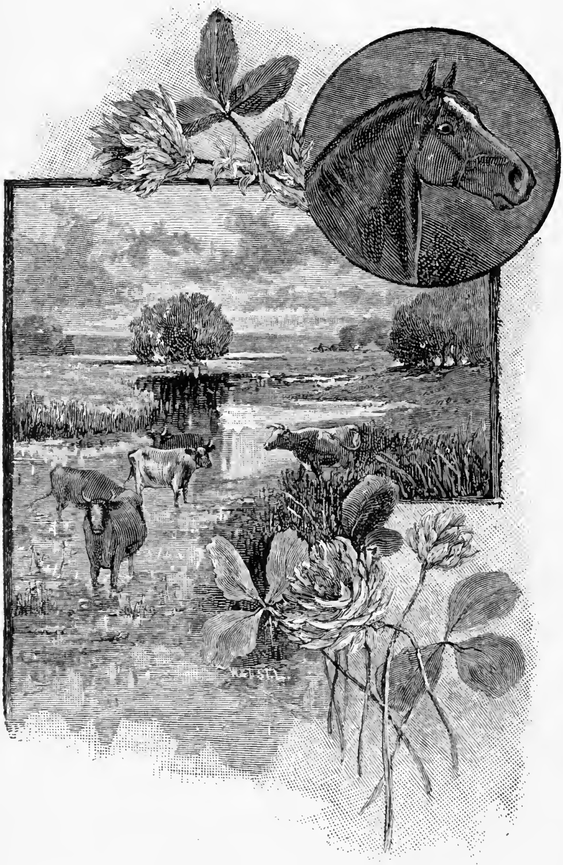
Desert of the geographies of that day, and many who visited the section in search of homes were so impressed with its forbidding aspect that they passed by what has proved to be one of the most productive portions of the country. A few of the visitors who were more courageous than the great majority resolved to practically test the capacity of the land. They were assured that trees could not grow in that soil and that farm crops would prove a failure. But trees and crops grew luxuriantly, people from adjoining regions and in still greater numbers from distant points, came flocking in, and in a brief period the desert had been converted into a most fruitful field and the dreary waste became the seat of a prosperous State.



WHEAT FIELD, SOUTHERN KANSAS.
On line of Missouri Pacific Railway.

The Indian Territory, recently brought prominently to the attention of the public by the opening to settlement of Oklahoma, in the central portion of the territorial area, has many attractions for the tourist. This is particularly true of Oklahoma. The name of this region signifies "Beautiful Land" and is very appropriate, for the country abounds in scenes of beauty. A Spaniard who passed through this section as early as 1662 described it as a land of "pleasing, peaceful, and most pleasant fields, that not in all the Indies of Peru and New Spain, nor in Europe, have any such been seen so pleasant and delightful."

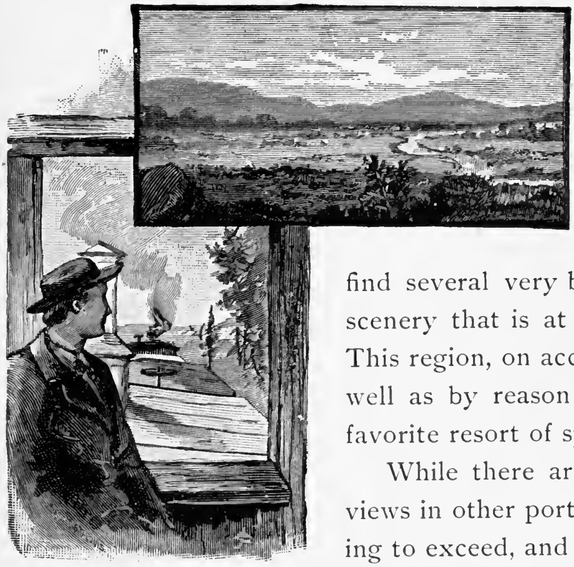
But the scenic beauty of the Territory is by no means confined to Oklahoma. In various portions of the domain views of remarkable beauty may be obtained. In the southern and south-eastern portions we find a continuation of the Ozark range of mountains, with their diversified scenery. In the central part there is a belt of timber, while in the western portion of the Territory the land presents a rolling appearance and is destitute of trees. This treeless plain is the beginning, in this latitude, of the long grade which reaches to the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains.



A SCENE IN SOUTHWEST MISSOURI.
On line of Missouri Pacific Railway.

A glance at the map and a superficial study of its general features would indicate that the State of Illinois has no special attractions for any one seeking grandeur or beauty in nature. Great enterprise, wonderful growth and development, splendid buildings, and amazing industrial energy and progress are to be expected, and will be found on every hand. But on account of her location "on the prairies," and from the fact that a large portion of her area is not more than 500 feet above the level of the sea, it would naturally be supposed that the scenery would be extremely tame and uninteresting. As regards a considerable part of the State this supposition would be correct. But there are several points within her borders which present scenic attractions of great beauty and interest.

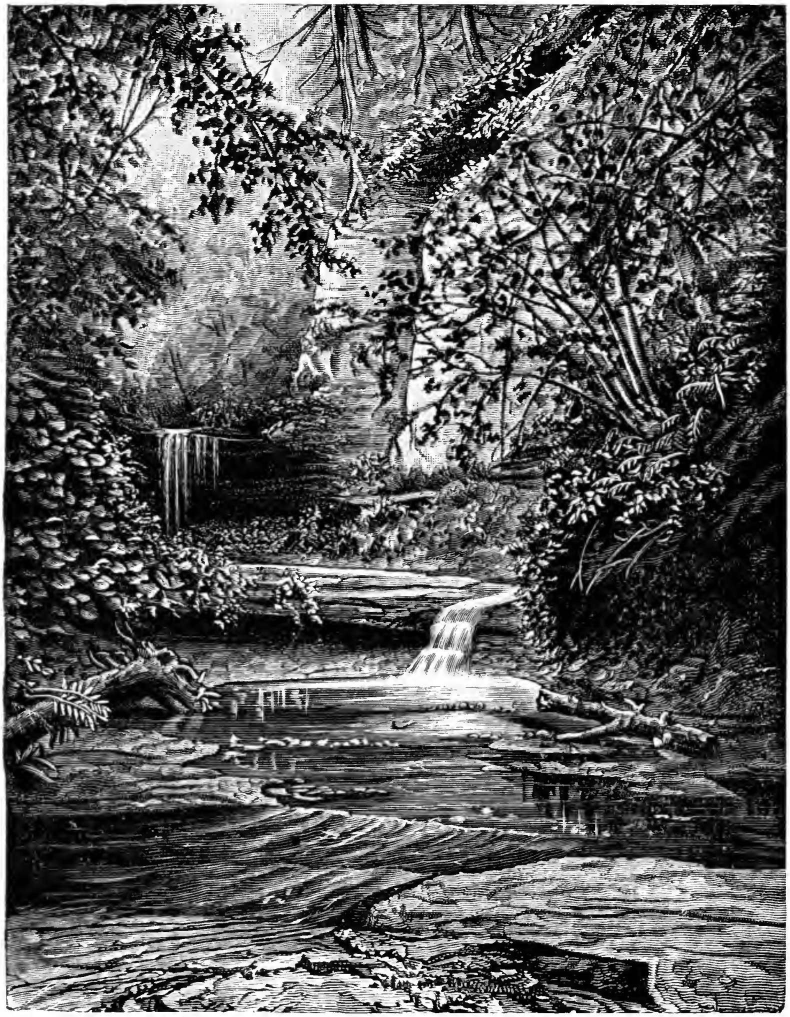
Partly from their peculiar form, but largely from the strongly marked contrast in which they stand to the surrounding landscape, the bluffs on the Mississippi River are noticeable features. Some of these rise to a height of 400 feet above the surrounding region. Fountain Bluff, one of the landmarks of Jackson County, is some six miles in circumference, 300 feet high, and has upon its summit many peculiar "sink holes" of considerable depth. In Hardin County is the Cave in the Rock, which at a little distance looks like a huge pile of stones. On nearer approach a chamber some 80 feet long, with an entrance 80 feet wide, and 25 feet high, is found. Here in the time of the early settlers bands of marauders who operated on land and pirates who plundered the boats passing on the Ohio River had their rendezvous. Passing to the northern portion of the State we find several very beautiful lakes and not a little scenery that is at once charming and romantic. This region, on account of its excellent fishing as well as by reason of its other attractions, is a favorite resort of sportsmen:



SCENE NEAR ATOKA, INDIAN TERRITORY.
On line of Missouri, Kan. & Texas R'way.

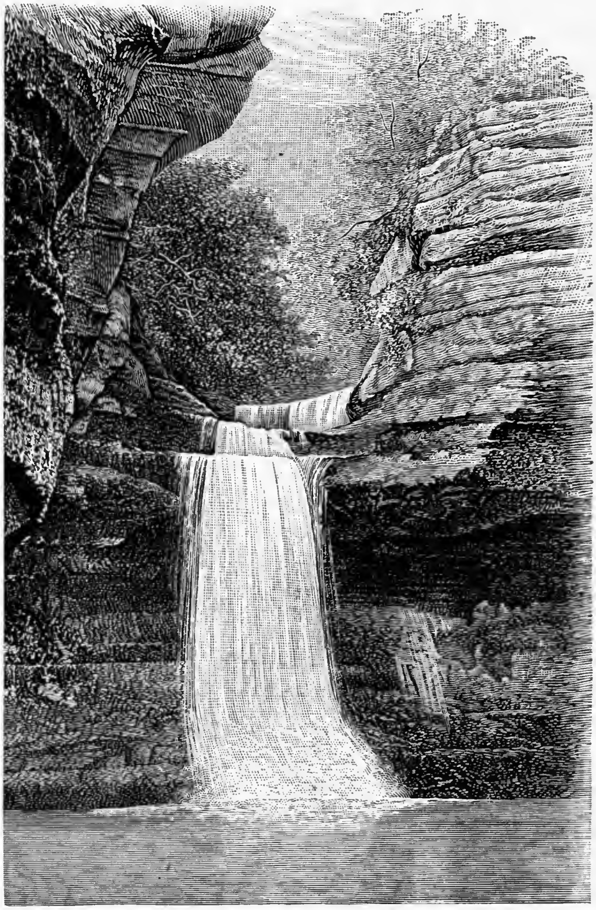
While there are many interesting places and views in other portions of the State, there is nothing to exceed, and most visitors will probably declare that there is no scenery which in beauty and grandeur combined can nearly equal, that in the vicinity of Ottawa, the capital of La Salle County. Even within the city limits there are scenes of remarkable beauty, and for a distance of about fifteen miles, as we pass toward the west on the banks of the Illinois River, the peculiar conformation and unexpected changes of surface and general characteristics make a trip in this direction extremely pleasant. If in a retrospective frame of mind the visitor can look back to the time, not very long ago, when this region was the home of Indian tribes and the field of bitter conflict for possession of the soil; if thought is then allowed to run over the brief intervening period which has witnessed the marvellous growth of Chicago and the numerous other cities and towns close at hand he will seem to be living in an age in which the amazing deeds recounted in fairy tales are more than accomplished. But to the party in pursuit of pleasure the present usually has far greater charms than the past, and the scenes around are the ones which may be expected to principally engage the attention.

Several cañons of considerable extent and remarkable beauty are found along the river and there are also many glens of less magnitude and, because comparatively unknown, of less popularity, but which are well worthy of a visit. The ease with which they can be reached by the residents of Chicago and other large places not far distant should make them very popular resorts.



THE HORSESHOE, OR TWIN CAÑON, NEAR OTTAWA, ILL.

By the "Great Rock Island Route" the tourist goes to Ottawa or to Utica. From either of these points he can take an excellent carriage road leading through a rich farming section, or if at Ottawa may take a charming trip on a fine steam yacht which during the warm season plies between that city and the peculiar formation known as Starved Rock. This consists of a huge mass of limestone rising perpendicularly from the river to a height of 156 feet above its level. It is about eight miles below Ottawa, and attractions are not wanting all along the route. Quite a distance above is an immense ledge of rocks, lying in rugged grandeur, which is called Lover's Leap, and nearly opposite is the cliff known as Buffalo Rock, which rises abruptly from the valley in which it stands to a height of about 60 feet. In the vicinity of Starved Rock there are excellent places for parties who wish to "camp out" for a few days or weeks. Pedestrian visits can be easily made therefrom to the various cañons in which the "charms of solitude" appear in all their perfections. One of the most beautiful of these retreats is the Horseshoe or Twin Cañon, through which the water flows in a silvery stream under the shade of the beautiful trees which flourish upon its banks. Here the visitor may retire from the world with which daily life has made him familiar and in the shadowy recesses of the lovely glen find a place of rest and peace so widely differing from his usual surroundings as to seem to be on another and distant globe. If of a reverent mind, and one can hardly



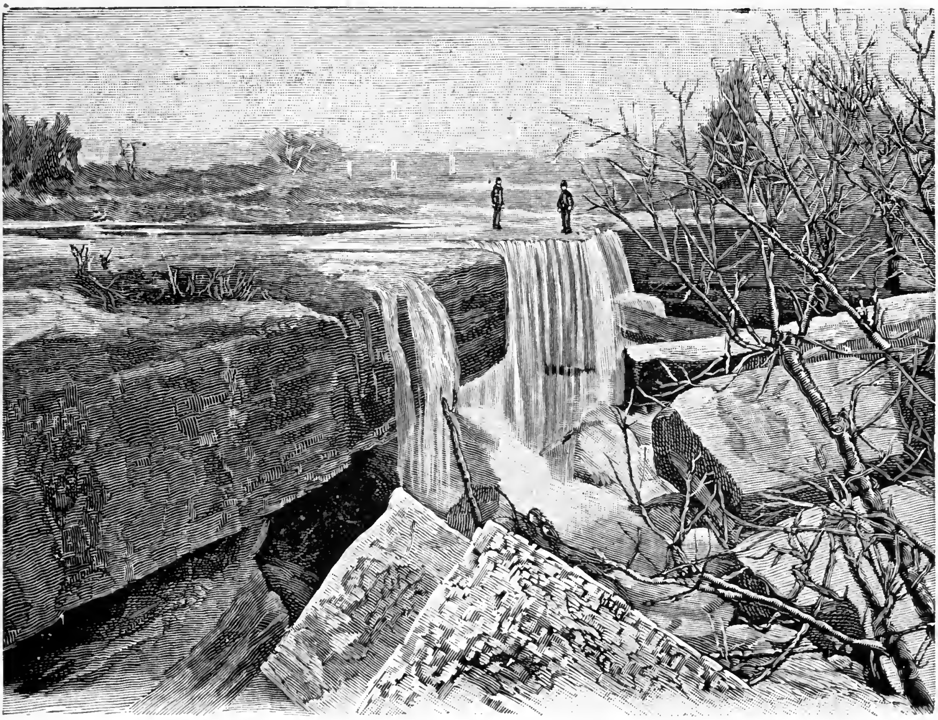
BRIDAL VEIL FALLS, DEER PARK GLEN.

fail to be reverent here, he can easily imagine himself in one of the great and supremely beautiful temples of the Infinite God.

Another locality of great interest, some three or four miles from the steamer landing, three miles from Utica, or five miles from La Salle, is the Deer Park Glen. This can also be reached by carriage from Ottawa, the drive of twelve miles being a pleasant prelude to the happy hours which will be spent at its termination. The surface rock at this place is sandstone, and through it the constant flow of water during the ages past has cut a gorge with almost perpendicular walls upon which ferns and flowers, with clinging vines and diminutive shrubs, appear in varied hues and rich abundance. At the surface of the ground, and reaching close to the edges of the chasm, is a vigorous growth of forest trees. This wonderful glen extends a distance of one and a half miles. It is divided into two parts, the upper and lower, which are, perhaps, equally beautiful. The greatest depth of the gorge is 170 feet. In all portions of the glen rocks which have been cut and worn in fantastic forms by the marvellous processes of nature are found and a luxuriant and diversified plant-growth richly decks the scene. One of the finest views is obtained at the pool in the lower glen where is found a beautiful cascade called the Bridal Veil Falls. Here the silvery stream makes a plunge of forty feet into the deep pool of water lying at the foot of the precipice. Another remarkable feature in this locality is the presence of valuable medicinal springs. Of these four are found in the lower portion of the glen.

Only about a mile distant from the Deer Park Glen is another very peculiar formation which is of great interest to the geologist as well as to the tourist. The place is known as Bailey's Falls, and is located near the junction of Bailey's Creek with the Vermilion River. Its name is derived from Lewis Bailey, the pioneer settler of Vermilion Township, who located here in 1825, after having previously resided in Ohio and Indiana. The Falls were then largely visited by Indians, with whom Bailey seems to have been on friendly terms. Here he remained until 1844, when his restless disposition again asserted itself and with his family he removed to the Northwest. About two miles away is Lowell, one of the oldest towns in La Salle County, with quite attractive scenery and a coal mine of considerable value. But the greatest interest of the locality centres around the Falls. Here the surface rock is limestone which is underlaid by sandstone. By the force of the water or by some convulsion of nature a great number of huge boulders have been broken from the limestone crust and piled in a confined mass below the Falls, making the view wild and picturesque in the extreme. Another feature which will excite both curiosity and interest is found in the numerous holes, or wells, which have been worn into the limestone, in some cases to the depth of 20 or 30 feet, by boulders which the constant flow of the water has kept moving from side to side. The other features of the region are full of interest and the visitor will find new surprises and added charms on every hand.

Moving westward from the scenes just described we come to Iowa, a State entirely destitute of mountains, but by no means wanting in natural attractions. There are forests as well as prairies, and many bluffs rise boldly from the large rivers which course through its territory. Beautiful ravines are found, while at a distance from the large streams the undulating surface of the prairies presents a mild yet picturesque aspect. But by far the most beautiful scenery of the State is found in the vicinity of the numerous lakes which dot its northern portion, and which have become deservedly popular with a large number of pleasure seekers.

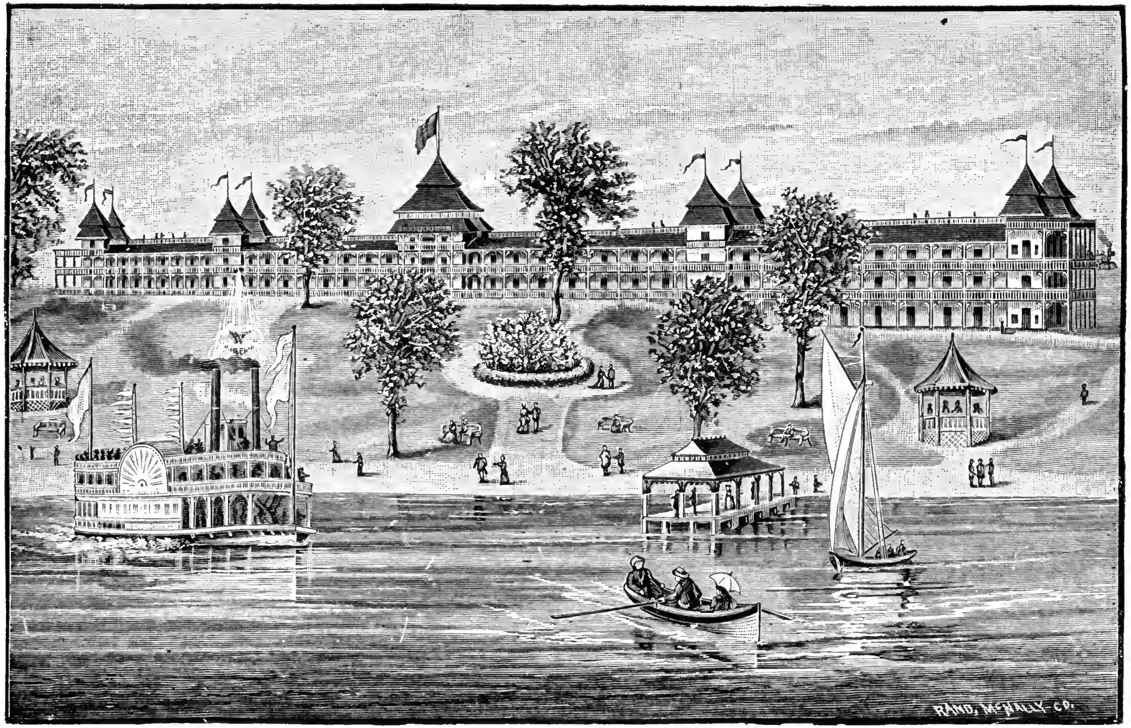


BAILEY'S FALLS, LA SALLE COUNTY, ILL.

Probably the best known, and perhaps the most charming of the lakes which beautify the upper part of the State, is Spirit Lake, which lies in Dickinson County, 1,650 feet above the sea, and at the highest point in Iowa. It is the largest, and lies the farthest north, of a group of beautiful lakes within a short distance of each other. It covers an area of about 5,600 acres and presents a shore line of more than 13 miles. Along its eastern side are several lesser lakes divided from it by small ridges of land upon some of which good roads have been constructed. On the south shore of the lake, in a most beautiful situation, the large and splendidly equipped Hotel Orleans has been built. From this point the East Okoboji Lake is also in view, and the scenery in every direction is noted for its quiet beauty. This section is directly reached by the celebrated "Albert Lea" route.

The region of Spirit Lake also possesses an historical interest—an interest, however, not unmixed with deepest sadness. As lately as 1857 it was the scene of a terrible massacre by the Indians, in which a number of the early white settlers lost their lives and the remainder were driven in terror from their homes. A few, who were perhaps more unfortunate than their neighbors who were killed, were carried away by the Indians to suffer the horrors of captivity and the most atrocious treatment by their savage foes. This Indian raid extended to many settlements and a large section of country was devastated. So great was the excitement, and so terrible the fear, that multitudes of settlers left their homes long before the attacking party reached them and fled in confusion over the prairie. At this time there were six houses at the Lake and but few of their occupants escaped. With the expulsion of the Indians the settlement and development of the region commenced anew and there was opened a period of permanent prosperity, in happy contrast with the troublous times of its early history.

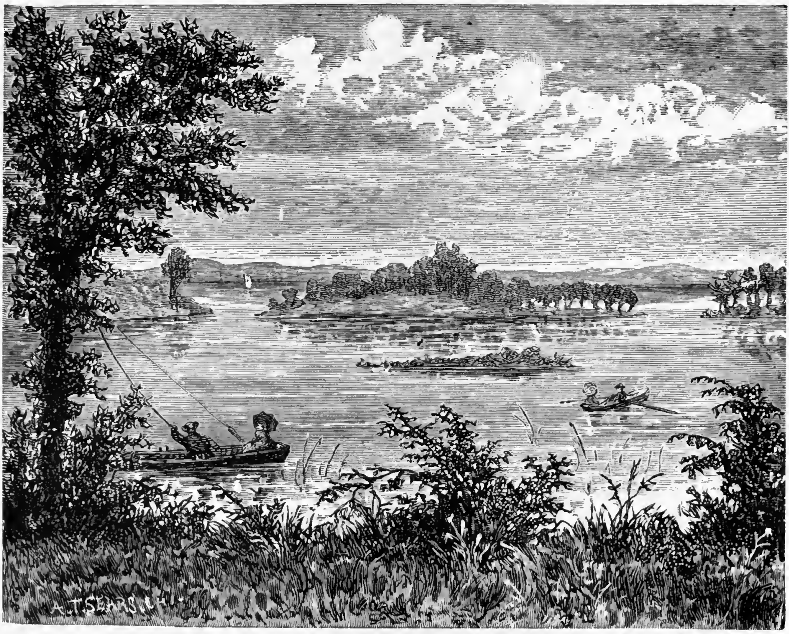
Little Spirit Lake, separated from Spirit Lake by a narrow bit of land, is a beautiful sheet of water with most inviting surroundings. Some enthusiastic tourists have asserted that this region is the most attractive summer resort in the whole Northwest. Admirers of other localities may think this an extravagant claim, but only a brief visit will be required to convince the traveller that if it is not absolutely the first in point of beauty, it is certainly "in the first line" of charming scenes. The beach is clean and sandy, with a gentle slope from the shore, and offers an excellent place for bathing. The fishing in this, and the adjacent lakes, is unexcelled. The waters have been liberally stocked with fish of excellent varieties, and California salmon and Mackinaw trout, as well as whitefish, pickerel, bass, muskalonge, and perch abound.


RAND, McNALLY CO.

SPIRIT LAKE, IOWA. SCENE ON THE BEACH.

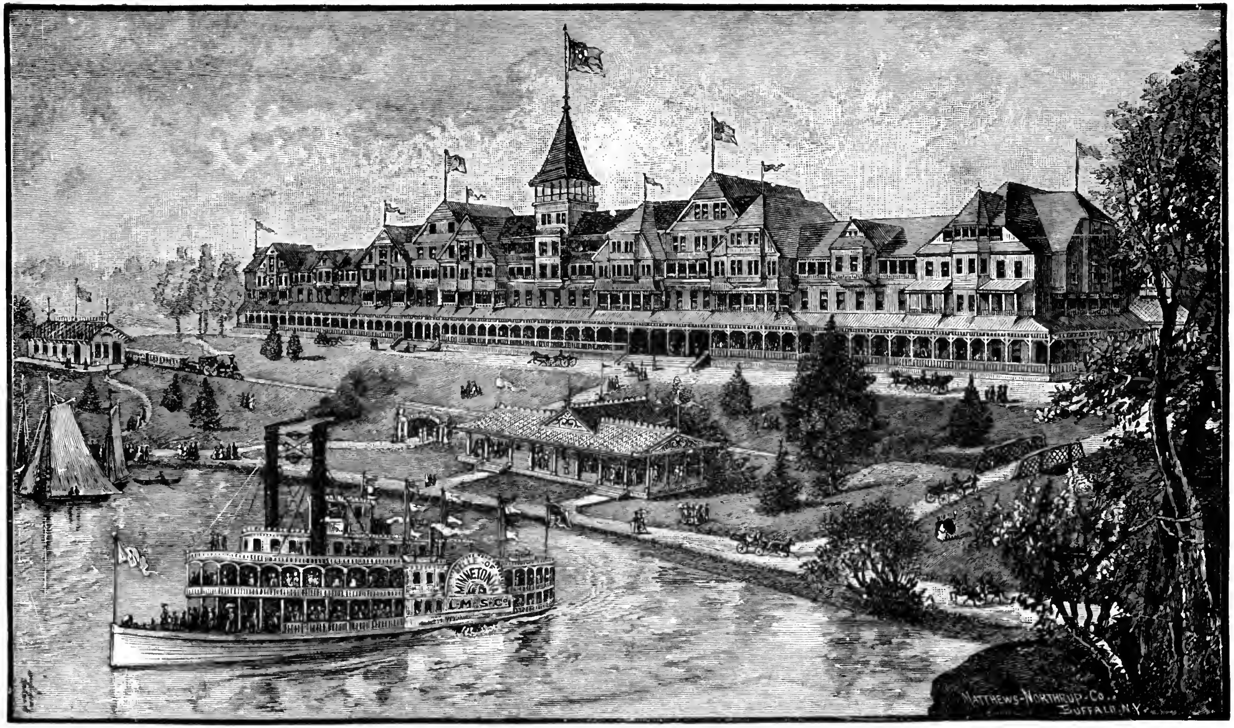
The hunting in the immediate vicinity is as fine in its way as the fishing at the lakes.

About four miles from Spirit Lake is the celebrated West Okoboji Lake, covering an area of about 4,000 acres but with so many bays and capes that its shore line measures 18 miles. The beach sand is perfectly white and clean and the water of the lake is so clear that at a depth of 25 feet the movements of fishes can be readily seen. East Okoboji is also a beautiful sheet of water closely resembling a wide and peaceful river. A peculiar feature of this lake is seen in its position, lying, as it does, some four feet lower that the level of another body of water from which it is separated by only a narrow strip of ground.



VIEW ON LITTLE SPIRIT LAKE, IOWA.

Turning our course toward the north we enter Minnesota, another State devoid of mountains, but widely celebrated for the number and extent of its lakes and the extreme beauty of their scenery. Within its bounds there are from 7,000 to 10,000 lakes, not one of which covers a less area than 30 acres. Of these the most widely known, the most popular with tourists, and in some particulars the most charming, is Lake Minnetonka. Situated only a few miles from St. Paul it is, from that point, or from Minneapolis, easily reached


CITY OF MINNETONKA
L.M.S.Co
MATTHEWS-NORTHRUP-CO.
BUFFALO.N.Y.

LAKE MINNETONKA, MINN. ALONG THE BEACH.

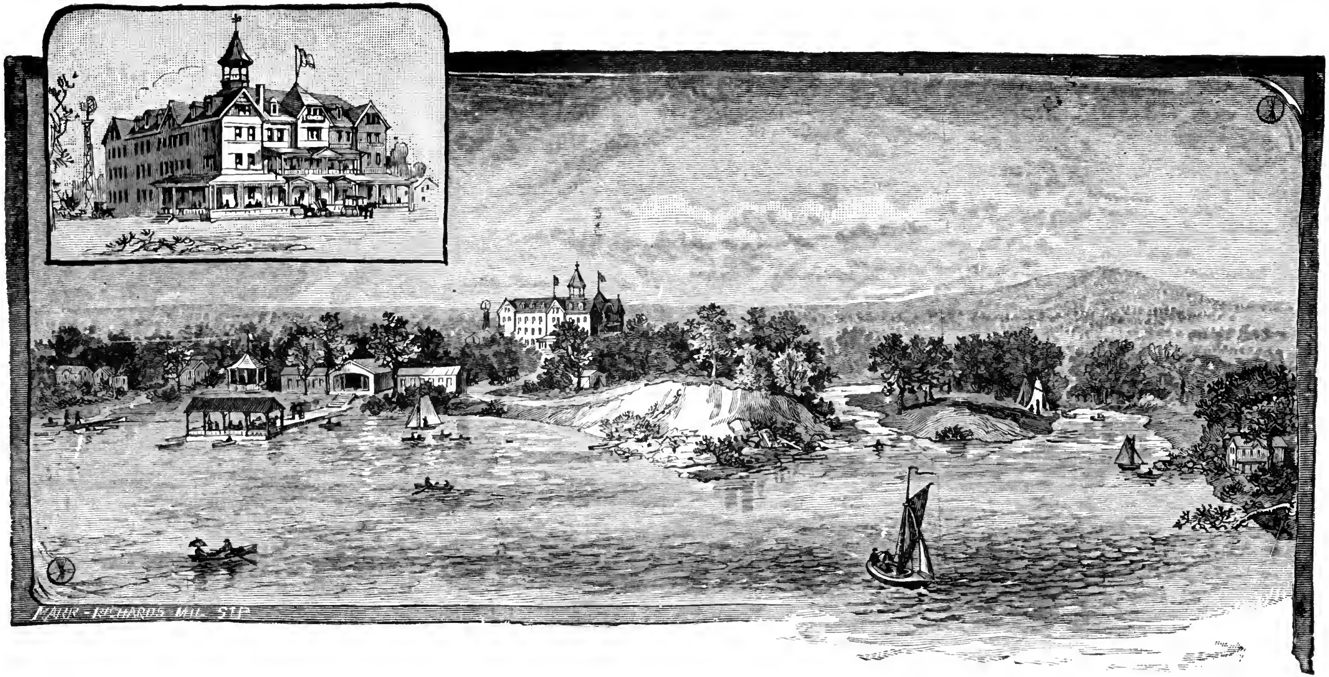
by the St. Paul, Minneapolis and Manitoba Railroad, which runs frequent trains directly to the lake.

In the irregularity of its form Lake Minnetonka is one of the most peculiar bodies of water ever discovered. It is about 15 miles in length, following an air line, but the indentations are so numerous and so extensive as to give it a coast line of not less than 250 miles. The effect of this wonderful contour is heightened by the character of the shores, which present numerous elevations and in many portions are covered with a large and beautiful forest growth.

HUNTING SCENE.

The visitor will find that while nature has been lavish with her beauties, presenting charming scenes from every point of view, man has also made abundant provision for his comfort. Upon the beach he will find the Hotel Lafayette, 1,100 feet in length by 100 feet in width, with wide piazzas, and in all its exterior construction beautified and adorned by the architect's skill. The interior is also beautiful, is furnished in a luxurious manner, and the guest can here find all the comforts and conveniences which it is possible to supply. At various other locations along the shore many quiet retreats can be found for those who desire a more secluded life than that at the fashionable resorts. The climate is almost perfect. Even during mid-summer the days and nights are delightfully cool and the breezes fresh and invigorating.

The numerous points of interest along the shores of the lake are easily reached by the fine side-wheel steamers which ply upon its waters. Some of these boats are large enough to carry 1,500 or 2,000 people, and all are fitted up in an elegant manner. They leave Wayzata, on Wayzata Bay, and pass to the little village of Excelsior, which was one of the earlier settlements in the region and is now a quiet but popular summer resort. Touching at other places of interest the boat passes through the Narrows to the upper lake, where Spring Park is located, islands covered with forests abound, and numerous exceedingly beautiful views are presented. As there are nearly fifty steamers, one hundred sail boats, and numberless row boats, no visitor who desires a sail on the lake need be disappointed. The fishing is also very fine. Some of the best varieties of bass are here obtained as well as many other kinds of fish which the sportsman delights to secure. On account of its


MARR-RICHARDS MIL. SIP

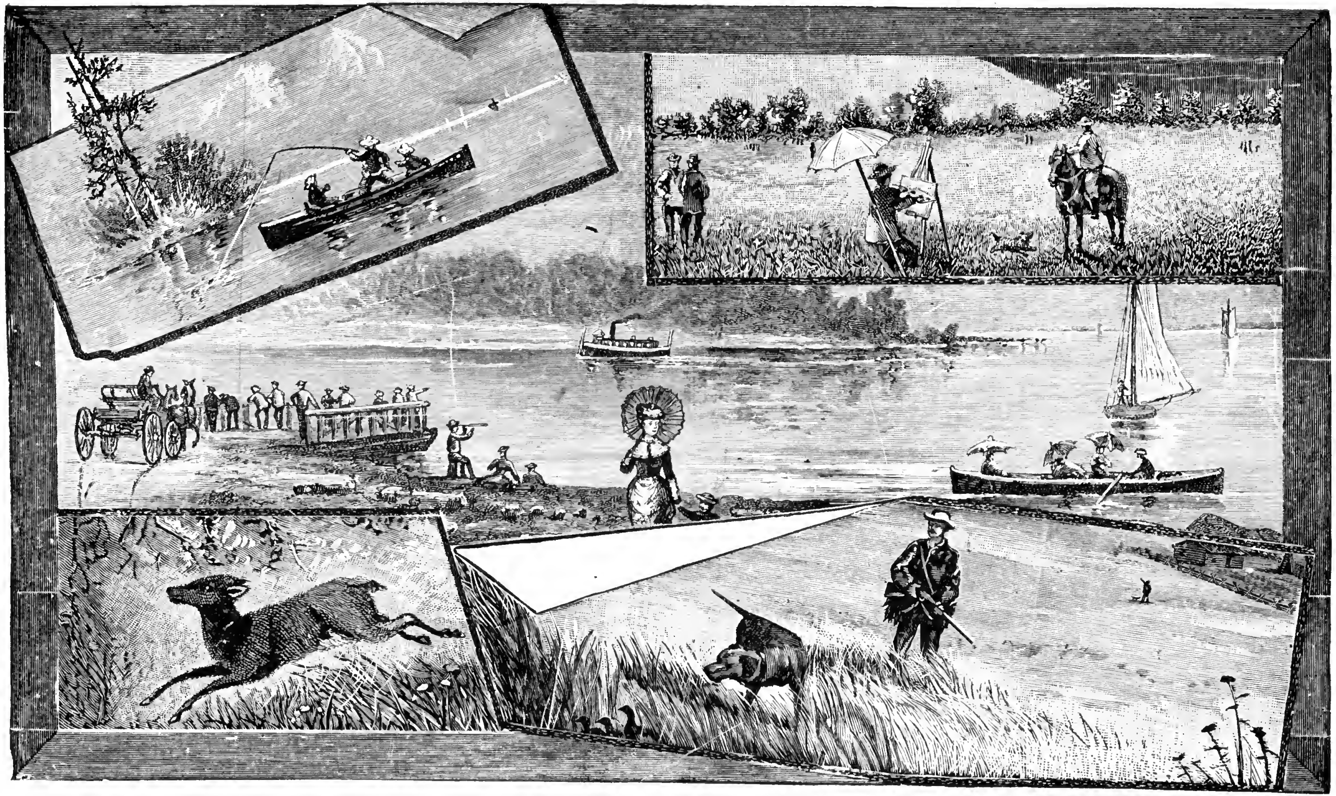
DETROIT LAKE AND HOTEL MINNESOTA, DETROIT CITY, MINN.

many attractions, both as regards natural scenery and what man has done to supply the comforts of civilization, it is not strange that Lake Minnetonka has received the appellation of "the Saratoga of the Northwest." It is interesting to remember that the Falls of Minnehaha, to which Longfellow attracted wide attention by one of his famous poems, are on one of the outlets of this lake and only a short distance from Minneapolis.

Leaving St. Paul by the Northern Pacific Railroad the traveller will also pass through a magnificent lake region. Arriving at Detroit City, the capital of Becker County, he should remain for a few days at least, and enjoy the scene here presented to view. He will find himself in the midst of a very rich agricultural section. The State of Minnesota is justly celebrated for the excellent quality of its wheat, and Becker is the leading county in the production of this cereal. The visitor is also in what is known as the Lake Park region of the State, a region containing a large number of most beautiful lakes and remarkably rich and diversified scenery.

The city of Detroit is 227 miles distant from St. Paul and has a charming location. Looking eastward a beautiful timbered country is seen. Turning toward the west the prairie stretches away as far as the eye can reach. Only half a mile away is Detroit Lake, famed, even in this region of magnificent lakes, for its wonderful beauty. Near by are beautiful bluffs with cool and quiet glens, game is plenty, fishing is excellent, the air is clear, and the natural surroundings are delightful. The tourist also finds excellent hotel accommodations. Only 25 miles distant, on the north, is the Reservation of the Chippewa or Ojibway Indians, to which a very pleasant visit may be easily made. The tribe numbers about 1,500. Visitors are kindly received and find an intelligent, civilized, and to a good degree, Christianized people.

Again taking the St. Paul, Minneapolis and Manitoba Railroad and resuming our journey toward the west we come to the new State of North Dakota, which, with its sister State of South Dakota, until the spring of 1889 formed the great Territory of Dakota. In point of size it was the largest Territory in the Union, and was equalled in area by only two States, Texas and California. On account of the beauty of much of its scenery, and of the sharply marked contrasts which it presents, it has been styled the "Wonderland." The State lies mostly in the region known as the "Great Plains," but at a somewhat lower altitude than the southern portion of the plateau thus designated. Among its numerous interesting features its large lakes are worthy of special mention. To one of these we will now turn our attention.



SCENERY ON DEVIL'S LAKE, DAKOTA.

Lake Minnewakan, or, as it is popularly called, "Devil's Lake," is the largest body of water in the State and is also the most peculiar. It is located in Ramsey County, in the northeastern portion of the State. In a charming location upon its northern shore is the capital of the county, Devil's Lake City, the western terminus of the St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Manitoba Railroad, and quite a business centre. Here will be found ample accommodations for visitors, while parties who prefer to "camp out" will have no difficulty in securing everything needed for their comfort. On the route the traveller will pass through the Red River Valley, famous throughout the country for its immense production of wheat and for containing the largest cultivated farms in the world.

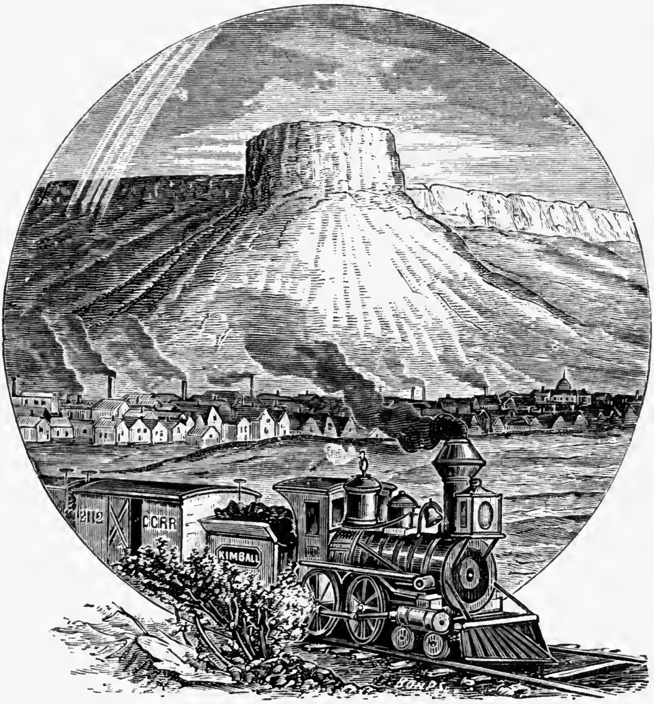
Arrived at the lake the tourist will wonder how it came by a name of such ill omen. For he will find that the appearance of this remarkable sheet of water does not at all correspond with its title. Instead of the forbidding aspect and frowning appearance for which, if knowing nothing of its character, he will be prepared, there will come to his view a sheet of limpid water and shores of exquisite loveliness, while the more distant surroundings are also full of beauty tinged very strongly with romance. How, then, came this name, which is suggestive of every evil, to be fastened upon the lake? The answer is easy. It was due to an error of the early travellers through this section. They designed to use an Indian expression meaning "Spirit water," but unfortunately adopted a somewhat similar one signifying utter worthlessness for quenching thirst. The town which grew up upon its shore received the same opprobrious title, and the effort made to change the name of the lake to Minnewakan has met with little success.

In outline the lake is extremely irregular and presents a very extended and remarkably beautiful shore line. There are various elevations from which extensive views of the surrounding country may be obtained. From the northern shore there is a good view of a military post named Fort Totten, and of a mountain peak called Devil's Heart, which can be seen forty miles away. Although so clear and beautiful in appearance the water of the lake is strongly impregnated with salt. It also contains other matters, as soda, lime, magnesium, and iron, in small proportions, and has proved quite efficacious in the treatment of various diseases. On account of the saline character of the water and the form of the beach the lake furnishes an excellent place for bathing. Many visitors have claimed that there is no finer surf-bathing on the shore of the Atlantic than can be found in this inland lake.

The attractions of the locality are heightened by the dry, pure air, the cool temperature in summer, and the frequent and refreshing breezes which prevail. The fishing is excellent, there is plenty of game in the vicinity for the hunter, there are good roads leading to various points of interest, and three steamers on the lake by which any locality upon its shores may be easily reached. Altogether, Devil's Lake presents many attractions and will prove a pleasant place in which to pass a summer vacation.

THE ROCKIES AND BEYOND.

IN and beyond the Rocky Mountain region the scenes of interest to the tourist are practically innumerable. In whatever direction he may turn, or to whatever locality he may go, he can be sure that he will find Nature majestic and magnificent. The tame and the commonplace have no representation here. Everything is on a splendid scale. The wonder excited by one series of views will change to amazement as he beholds, a little farther on, scenery still more grand and inspiring. The constant change, yet unbroken grandeur, will seem to be little less than miraculous.



A WESTERN CONTRAST—NATURE AND CIVILIZATION.

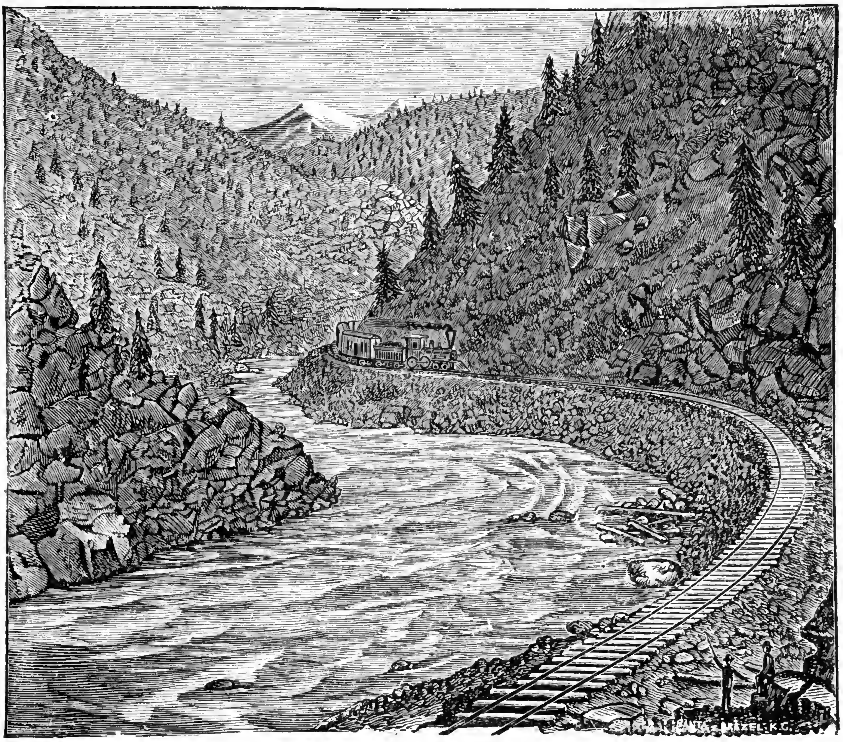
In this sketch we shall briefly note a few of the wonders of the region and call attention to a still smaller number of the cities and towns which have sprung up, as if by magic, amid these sublime scenes. We shall not attempt to make a single tour which will include a visit to each place described, but shall treat them somewhat independently. This will be necessary as we wish to notice several places which, though not far distant from each other, are reached by different routes and could not well be included in a continuous trip.

In this magnificent region we shall find cities and towns, villages, mining camps, and scattered farm-houses. All these are of comparatively recent date, yet some of them already have historic associations and are of interest to the general reader as well as to the tourist. The opening of the new country, the conflicts with the savage tribes which claimed the land, the building of towns and cities in this wild region then far distant from civilized localities, and the development of the agricultural resources, required a degree of courage, energy, perseverance, and skill which people in older settled sections seldom realize and still more rarely appreciate. The debt which the residents of the other sections of the country own to the pioneers of the Great West can never be paid.

Perhaps in no locality can the vast changes which man has wrought within a brief period be more clearly seen than they are at Leadville, Colorado. Thirty years ago it lay in an almost unknown region and was without an inhabitant. A multitude of men had been drawn to Pike's Peak by the mining excitement of 1859 and were disappointed. A few, disgusted with the results of their efforts there, determined to go farther into the mountainous region and search for gold. Reaching the Arkansas River they turned their course and passed up the valley, making many searches for gold but finding none. It was in the year 1860, and the season was half gone, when they reached a small stream which they followed quite a distance and soon discovered placer mines of gold. Three gulches, California, Stray Horse, and Iowa, were quickly found. Before winter set in the locality had a population of over 8,000, and two and a half millions of dollars worth of gold had been obtained. In 1874 the mines seemed exhausted and the place was practically abandoned.

Three years later about twenty shanties were all the occupied buildings standing in Leadville. The next year, 1878, it was found that the carbonates, which had been regarded as worse than useless and which had been thrown anywhere to get them out of the way, contained large quantities of silver. The tide of population quickly turned and within a year the residents of Leadville numbered from 12,000 to 15,000. Smelting furnaces were erected and vast quantities of ore were obtained. Millions of dollars' worth of silver and lead have been secured, as well as considerable quantities of gold, and mining is still vigorously pursued. The present permanent residents number over 10,000, and there is also a large floating population.

In the manner of reaching the place, as well as in the character and development of the place itself, there has been an almost miraculous change. In the spring of 1878 stages, each drawn by six horses, were run from Denver and other railroad centres. Many eager men walked through the snow and mud, and multitudes were carried by private teams. Vast numbers of mules and oxen were used to haul supplies and mining machinery to the new town. Freight rates were enormous and a long time was required to make the journey. The discomforts of the trip, at any season of the year, were numerous and trying. In winter the cold was intense and progress slow. In summer the dust was stifling. In spring and autumn it was difficult travelling on account of the mud, and a ride over the rough roads in the conveyances of that period was tiresome in the extreme. Now all is changed. The trip is quickly made in the luxurious cars of a well-equipped railroad and is



A SCENE ON THE LEADVILL ROUTE.

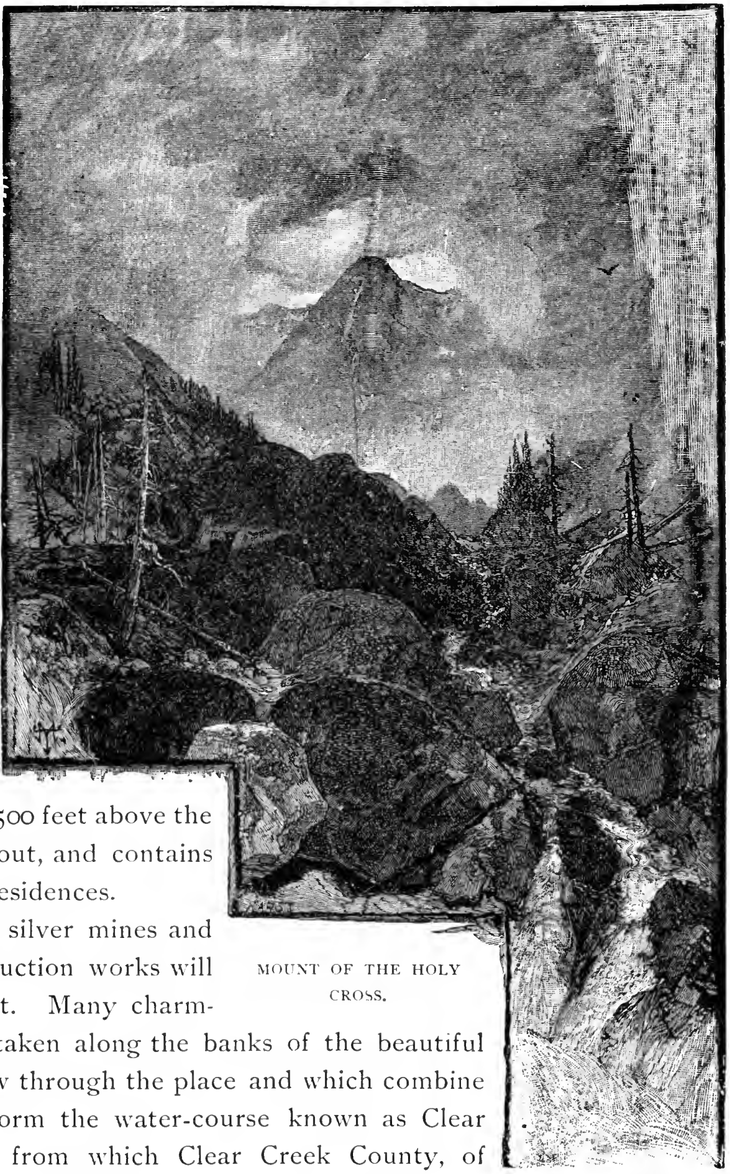
an occasion of the greatest pleasure instead of a cause of weariness and annoyance.

Arriving at our destination the change in conditions is equally great. Instead of having to sleep upon the floor of a saloon, in a canvas tent, or even upon bales of hay, as great numbers had to do in the early days of Leadville, the traveller now finds ample accommodations in the numerous and well-furnished hotels and boarding houses which are ready to supply him with every comfort.

While in this vicinity a visit should be paid to the Mountain of the Holy Cross. This celebrated formation of nature is a peak of the Saguache range of mountains, is situated on the Great Divide of Colorado, in Summit County, just above the line separating it from Lake County, eighteen miles north of Massive Mountain and twenty miles north of the city of Leadville, directly south of Mount Powell, and between Roan and the Rocky Mountains, and has a height of 14,176 feet above sea level. Its geological structure is of gneiss, and it has a vertical face of nearly 3,000 feet on the side. Notwithstanding the multiplicity of wonders in this region of continual amazement, it invariably attracts the deepest attention of the tourist because of the enormous white cross that seems to have been laid on its very crest. There are numerous lines of whiteness on the mountains in this section, but none save this present the outline of a complete and familiar figure. The cause of the irregular lines of white are the outcroppings of the rock and the presence of eternal snow. In this particular instance, the trunk of the cross is formed by a fissure in the rock, estimated to be 1,500 feet long, and the arms or crosspiece by a steppe or ledge in the rock on which snow remains all the year. In clear weather the cross can be discerned at a distance of from fifty to eighty miles.

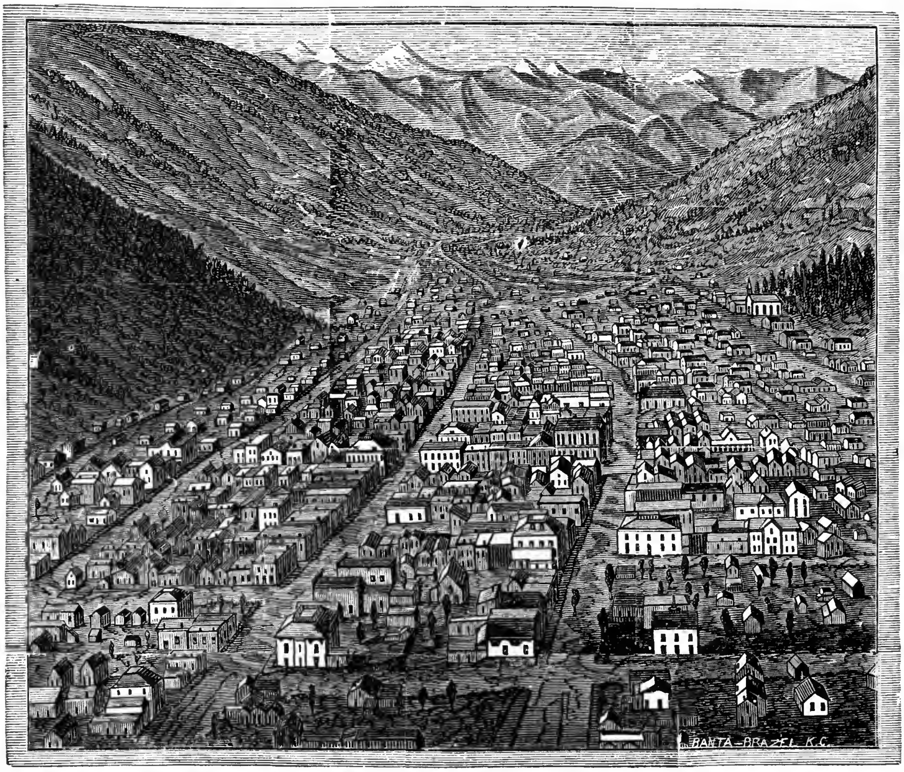
In 1871, Thomas Moran, the distinguished artist, accompanied the United States exploring expedition to the Yellowstone country, and in 1873 made a second visit and took sketches for his famous painting of "The Grand Cañon of the Yellowstone" and the "Chasm of the Colorado," which were purchased by Congress for $10,000 each, and are now in the Capitol at Washington. He also brought "The Mountain of the Holy Cross" to the attention of the public by making a grand painting of it, which was exhibited at the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia in 1876, and took a medal and diploma. The mountain received its name from the early stage drivers and prospectors for the precious metals, and was so apposite that no change has ever been suggested.

Another point of interest not far distant is Georgetown, also in Colorado, and in the central part of the Rocky Mountain district. It is about 50 miles west of Denver and is noted for the beauty of its location as well as for the valuable mining interests which centre there. The valley, or rather the cañon, for it lies in the celebrated Clear Creek Cañon, in which it is built, is exceedingly beautiful and the views of the mountain peaks, which on three sides wall it in, are simply magnificent. The town lies about 8,500 feet above the sea, is nicely laid out, and contains many handsome residences.



MOUNT OF THE HOLY CROSS.

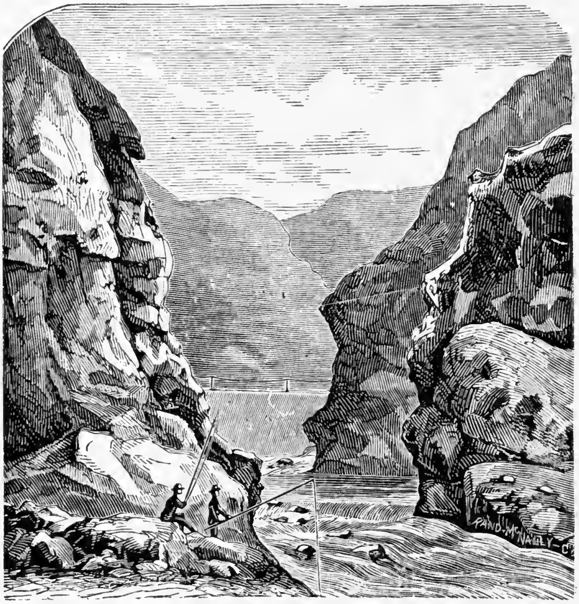
A visit to the silver mines and the extensive reduction works will be full of interest. Many charming walks can be taken along the banks of the beautiful streams which flow through the place and which combine with others to form the water-course known as Clear Creek—the river from which Clear Creek County, of which Georgetown is the capital, derives its name. A very pleasant trip may also be made to Green Lake, a most peculiar as well as beautiful sheet of water. It is about two miles from the town and lies away up on the mountain side some two thousand feet higher than the town itself. It was once a valley covered with trees, which still remain erect. The sand at the bottom, the banks of the lake and the moss which heavily drapes them, are all green and from this fact the name of Green Lake was chosen. How the lake was formed, and where the springs which supply it are located, no one can tell. The water is remarkably clear and in some portions of the lake is very deep. At one end of the lake is the Cave of the Winds, where huge rocks are piled in confused forms and through which the breezes pass with a melancholy sound. The Indians have a legend that at this spot certain opposing gods had their battle ground and that these great boulders are the weapons with which their warfare was waged.


BANTA-BRAZEL K.C.

GEORGETOWN, COLORADO.

Tourists who are not burdened with wealth may be interested to know that, if not rich themselves, they have, while in Georgetown, very rich surroundings. From the county of which it is the capital more than twenty-five million dollars' worth of the precious metals have been taken, while the value of the minerals still remaining is altogether beyond human calculation.

Leaving Georgetown the railroad winds along the edge of the gorge and slowly climbs the mountain side. The road-bed has been cut and blasted out of the solid rock. We soon pass the Devil's Gate, a curious chasm through which the creek finds its way, and pursue our upward course. There are numerous curves and the grade is sharp. Coming to the Bow Knot Loop we see a very peculiar and expensive, but in such localities a necessary, form of railroad engineering. Looking upward a track is seen overhead on an iron bridge which was built in a crescent form. Continuing to ascend, and following a short curve, this iron bridge is crossed and the tourist looks down upon the track immediately below but over which the train has just passed. The bridge is 300 feet long and 86 feet high. The loop of which it forms a part is said to be the most complex in form of any railroad loop in the world.

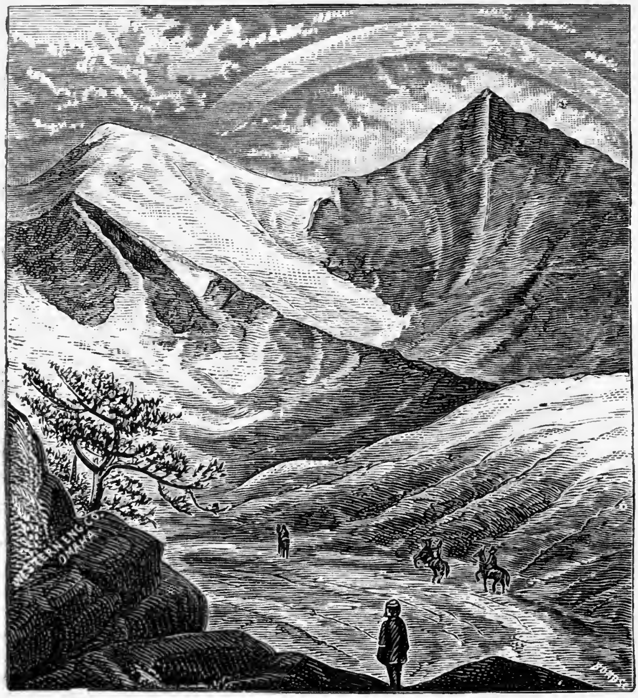


DEVIL'S GATE.

About nine miles beyond Georgetown lies Graymont, the terminus of the Colorado Central branch of the Union Pacific Railroad. This is the point from which to make excursions to Gray's Peak. The ascent is not very difficult and the views along the route, and from the summit, give unbounded pleasure. The mountain is 14,441 feet high. This is nearly 300 feet higher than Pike's Peak and only 23 feet less in height than Mount Blanco. The latter is believed to be the highest peak in the United States exclusive of Alaska.

Though not distant from Graymont the peak is shut out from view by other and nearer mountains. Ascent must be made on horseback. For a mile or two the road is good. Then it changes to a path, narrow, but not difficult to follow. The grade soon becomes quite sharp and the route is circuitous. After a ride of a few miles the massive form of Gray's Peak, with its beautiful and eternal crown of snow, comes fully into view. It looms up in enormous proportions, silent, and awful in its majestic greatness. As we ascend, the air becomes rarefied and the temperature is reduced. As the snow line is approached many flowers will be noticed upon the sunny slopes. But long before the summit is attained the line of vegetation is passed. Looking backward the winding trail over which we have come may be discerned. Hills and mountains, with narrow valleys, are seen far below. But it is from the summit of the peak that the "unapproachable view" is obtained.

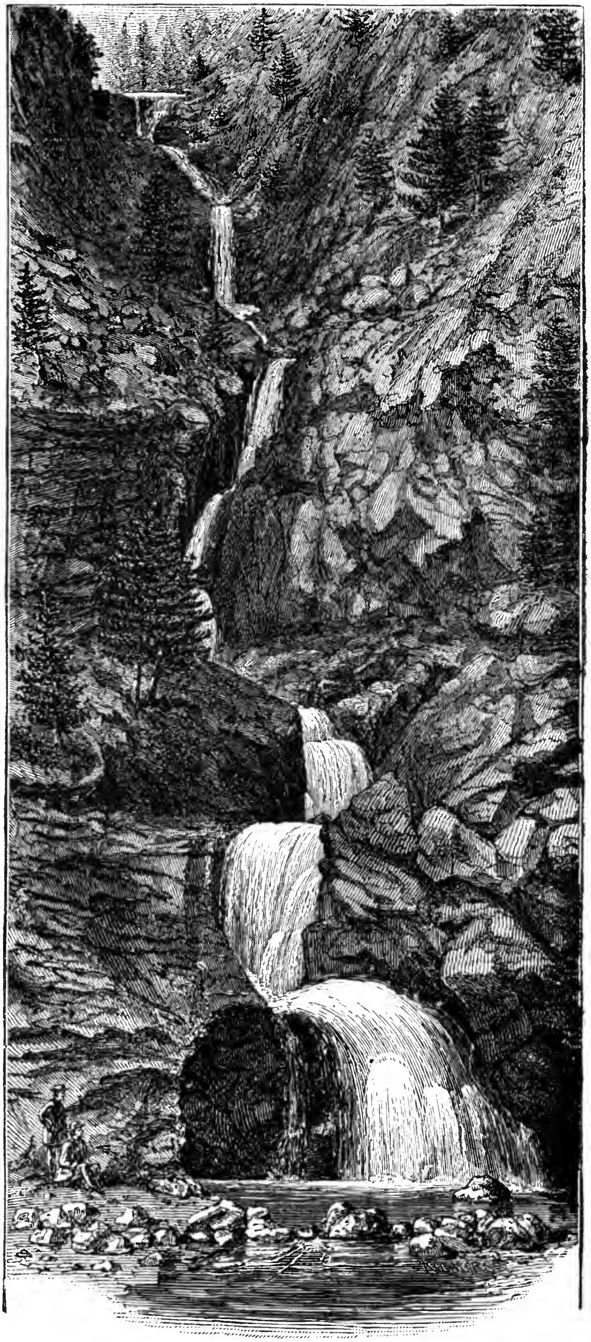
From this point all the great parks in the State may be seen. Looking toward the east vast plains are in view with many towns. Rivers appear like ribbons of light extending for hundreds of miles. Mountains are seen on every hand. Ten or twelve of the peaks in sight are each more than 14,000 feet high. The spectacle is sublime. In describing it one writer remarks as follows: "They who have traversed the globe say that it affords but one such prospect. A pictured landscape so mighty in conception that it overpowers, yet harmonious as an anthem in all its infinite diffusion of color and form, framed only by the limit of the eye's vision—a picture where the lakes gleam and the rivers flow—where the trees nod and the cloud-ships clash in mystic collision with the peaks that have invaded their realm, while the moving sun floods it with real life and warmth."



GRAY'S PEAK.

No description of the mountain, or of the view from its summit, can adequately set forth the solemn and majestic grandeur of the scene itself. No painting, with words or with colors, can fully portray the magnificent surroundings. Wherever else he may go in this wonderful State, or whatever marvels he may behold, the tourist who has looked from this lofty height will yield ready assent to the assertion that "Gray's Peak is Colorado's finest attraction."

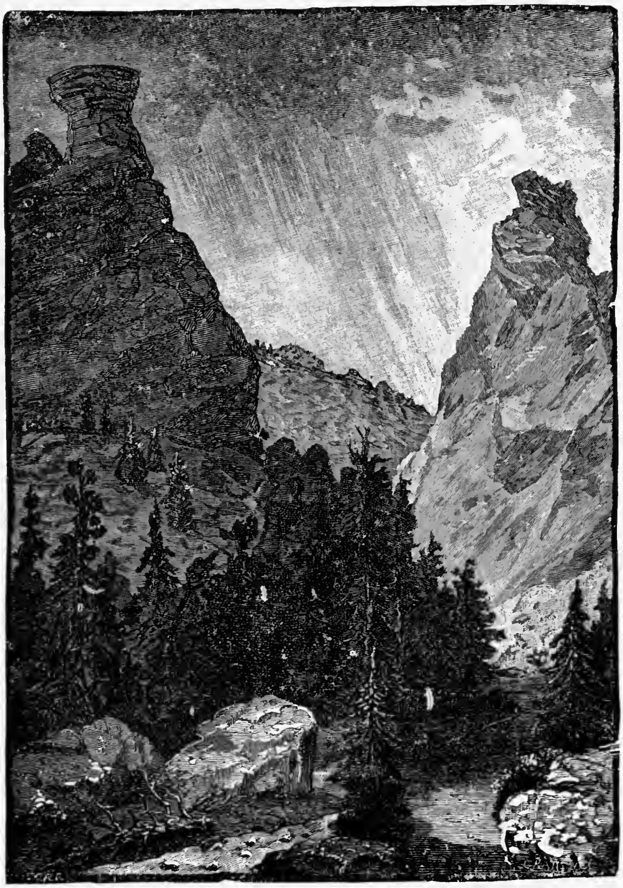
In the great cañons of Colorado the tourist will find innumerable scenes of grandeur. The paths wind around and over the rocks, among the tall pines which skirt the banks of the roaring and foaming stream. The massive walls rise high in the air. Deep gorges appear in which the rays of the sun find their way only at midday. In many of the deep recesses snow may be found at all times of the year. While examining these immense gorges, the mind is filled with amazement at the sublime scenes which appear on every hand.



CHEYENNE FALLS.

Among the most beautiful of the scenes in this region, or even in the world, may be named the Cheyenne Cañons and the Seven Falls, which are reached by the main line of the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad. They are located in the Cheyenne Mountain, itself an object of beauty which is admired by all who obtain a view of its magnificent form, about two miles south of Colorado Springs. To many thousands of people who have read her beautiful poems and entertaining stories this mountain will have a deep interest as the burial place of "H. H.," Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson.

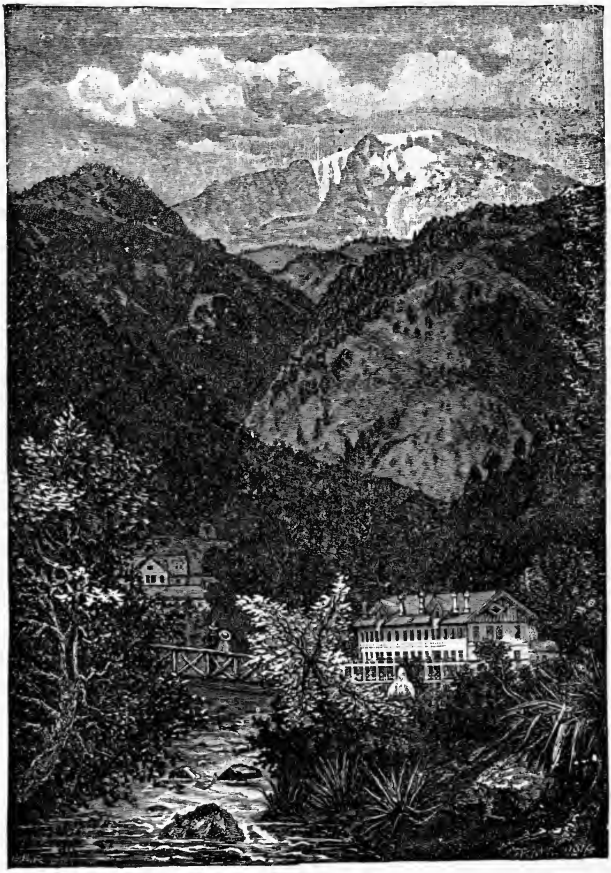
Of the two cañons in this vicinity the South Cheyenne is the most widely known. The stream is crossed eleven times before the head of the gorge is gained. Then a series of seven beautiful falls is reached. Looking upward the mountain peaks seem to touch the sky. Looking downward we see a deep and narrow chasm through which the stream rushes in its winding course over a rough and rocky bed.



IN NORTH CHEYENNE CAÑON.

The North Cheyenne Cañon is less wild and rugged in its appearance. Possibly it is somewhat less romantic. But it is not wanting in grandeur. Were it not for comparison with the magnificent gorges of the surrounding region it would be considered sublime. The walls rise to grand heights and their pinnacles reflect in beauty the light of the sun as it strikes them at various angles. The stream flows more smoothly than it does in the South Cañon and the walls are not as regular in their outlines, though very beautiful in form. There is a vigorous growth of shrubs and vines interspersed with the pines. All that is lost in wildness is more than made up in a loveliness which no pen can adequately describe and which only those who have seen it can appreciate.

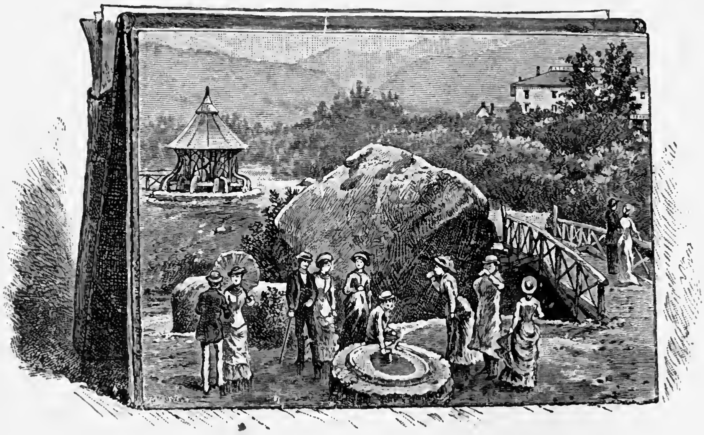
In the same vicinity, only five miles from Colorado Springs, are the celebrated Manitou Springs, which every tourist to Colorado should be sure to visit. The point of departure will be Colorado Springs, from which place the trip can be made by carriage or by a train on the Manitou branch of the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad, which will take us, by a winding course and through picturesque scenes, to Manitou. This place has many and varied attractions. Before it was settled by white men the Indians had learned something of the medicinal value of the Springs and frequently brought their sick here to be healed by the apparently magical power of the waters. Then the miners who had lost health and strength by the exposure, toil, and privations to which, for many years, they had been subjected, began to test the waters and found them remarkably efficient in restoring health and vigor. The fame of the waters spread and visitors from abroad were attracted. Invalids were benefited. The well were delighted. The magnificence of the scenery combined with the medicinal qualities of the waters to render the region alluring to travellers, and it soon became known as the "Saratoga of Colorado." During the warm season multitudes of people, including representatives from many foreign lands, visit these Springs. Many come for health; more come for pleasure. All find a beautiful locality and everything that is necessary for promoting their comfort and happiness.



A GLIMPSE OF MANITOU AND PIKE'S PEAK.

The important springs, of which there are six, vary somewhat in the character of their waters, but all contain carbonic acid in considerable quantities. The lowest in temperature is 43°, the highest 56°. All are effervescent, but some have this quality in a much higher degree than others. Some are strongly impregnated with soda, lime, and magnesia, while others contain iron in a marked degree. Of part of these springs the water is used for bathing as well as for drinking purposes. The pure, dry air undoubtedly adds greatly to the efficiency of the waters, while the pleasant surroundings strongly tend to make the invalid "feel better" at once.

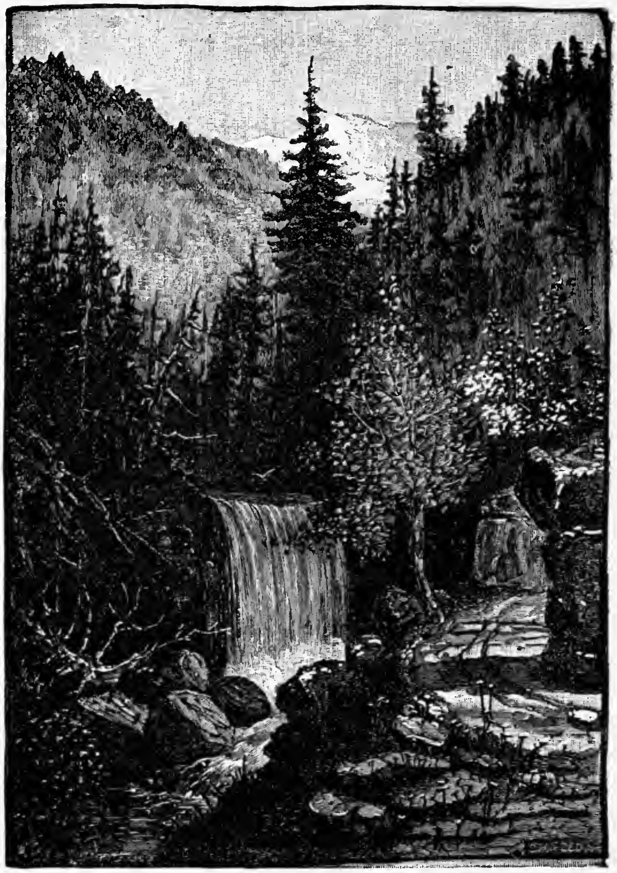
As for the village, it is attractively located on the sides of the valley in which the springs are found. A beautiful stream, filled with water formed by the melted snow from the adjacent mountains, flows through the place. There are pretty groves of trees of various kinds, and the shrubs and plants natural to high altitudes here abound. Excellent hotels provide for the comfort of the tourist, who may here find not merely the conveniences but the luxuries of the most advanced civilization. The views from the piazzas of these hotels are extensive and magnificent, as indeed they are from any point which one can reach in this vicinity.



THE MINERAL SPRINGS, MANITOU, COLORADO.

While itself a splendid centre of attraction, many points in the region surrounding Manitou should also be visited. It is claimed that no other resort in the world has so many objects of interest in its immediate vicinity. However that may be, and we have no inclination to dispute the claim, it is certain that magnificent scenes abound and that there is abundant variety as well as marvellous beauty and grandeur in the whole region.

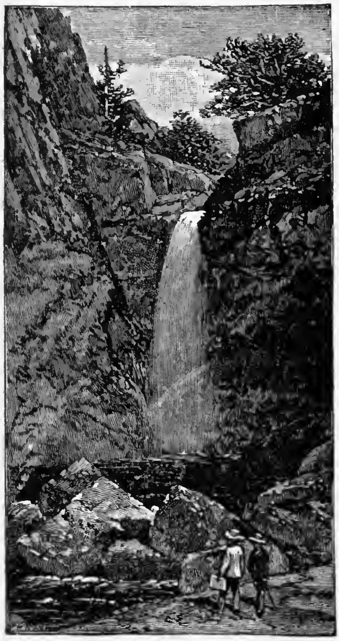
The ascent of Pike's Peak, though difficult, is to be made if possible. It will open numberless magnificent scenes, and from the summit, which is the highest inhabited point in North America, a glorious view, which will never be forgotten, will be obtained. All along the trail there are changes of scene, and varied forms of beauty appear. There are gorges clothed in luxuriant green, beautiful streams rushing down their rocky beds and falling in graceful cascades over precipices of varying heights but constant charms. Enormous boulders lie all around. Elevation after elevation is climbed but still the great Peak toward which we move apparently recedes. But each increase in height opens a wider field of observation than had previously been secured. The horses—for excursions in this region must be made on horseback—pick their way carefully along the narrow ledges, under the overhanging rocks, and up the steep ascents. As greater heights are gained frequent intervals for rest are needed. The rarefied air makes continuous exertion impossible. But we lose nothing by the delay. For it gives us time to look backward over the vast area now open to view. We see widely extended plains, look downward upon the valley which we recently left, gaze upon the trees which line the banks of streams too small and too far away to be distinguished without their aid, and then looking upward and forward we see the majestic peak upon which we hope and expect ere long to stand.



PIKE'S PEAK TRAIL.

When about half the distance has been passed we come to a level spot which forms a natural park and furnishes an excellent and much-needed opportunity to take a longer rest than we have yet secured. Here the surface is smooth and reminds one of a meadow on some river bank. But when we pass on we soon come to a steep and rocky path which we must climb for three miles. This will prove a difficult and exhausting feat. The temperature has been rapidly falling and as we climb these precipitous ledges the cold becomes severe. But while we suffer from the cold the great exertion and the rarefied air cause the horses to pant as from mid-summer heat. At length the summit is gained and we stand upon the magnificent peak which has charmed us with its beauty from afar.

The top of the mountain has an area of about seventy acres, not of land but of stones and rocks. From any and every point of the compass there are splendid views. The prairies in the far east stretch away to an almost limitless distance. In all directions the mountains in the vicinity rise in beauty and grandeur. As the sun goes down, the changing lights and fleeting shadows make a picture to be forever remembered but never described. In the house erected for the officer of the Government signal service we remain until morning. The air is sharp and cold and is so rare that it gives a feeling strongly akin to sea-sickness. But in the morning when we behold the glories of the rising sun discomforts are, for a time, forgotten. The return trip to Manitou, though not without its annoyances, is less difficult than the ascent. The tourist is glad to reach the warmer region of the Springs and while he will never regret the trip he will not care to go over the route again—at least, not until another summer.



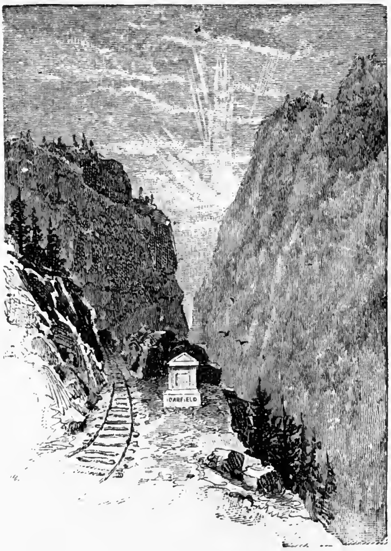
RAINBOW FALLS.

A much shorter, but very pleasant trip, is up the Ute Pass to Rainbow Falls and beyond. The Falls are in a narrow cañon through which the Fountain Creek rushes with impetuous force, for many hundred feet, to the valley below. At the Falls it passes over a precipice forming a beautiful cascade. The name of the Falls is derived from the fact that at certain hours, when the sun is in the right position to produce such an effect, a beautiful rainbow may be seen.

The Garden of the Gods will, of course, be visited. Here massive rocks, of a bright red color, rise from a level, grass-covered plain to a height of 330 feet and form a rude but magnificent gateway to the open field beyond, where the finest views of Pike's Peak and many other points of interest are obtained.

Here one seems to stand in the presence of the supernatural in its greatest majesty. The wildness and grandeur are indescribable. The grotesque figures which seem to be carved upon these massive walls, the immense rocks of all conceivable forms, the numerous pillars rising like monuments toward the sky, the grand, almost awful surroundings, make a picture which language is powerless to portray.

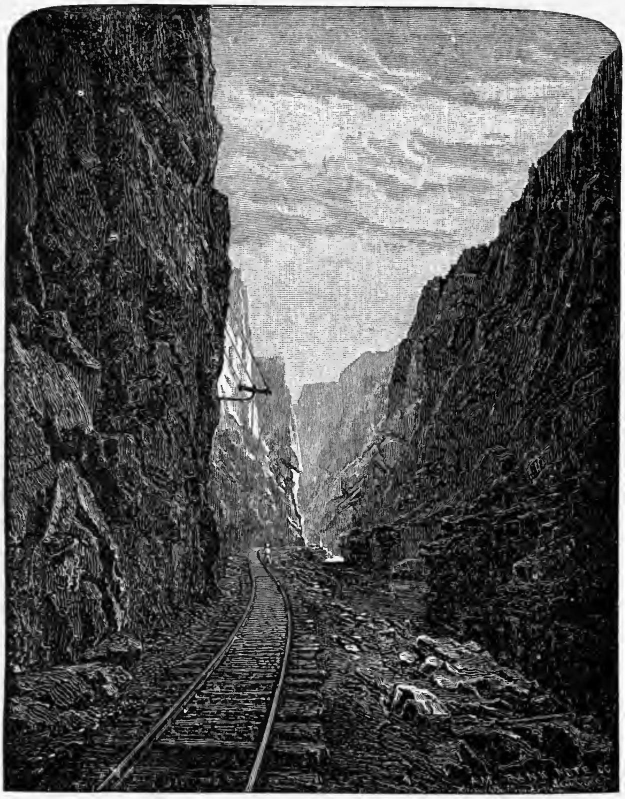
Toltec Gorge, on the Silverton branch of the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad and a little more than 300 miles from Denver, is another, and an important, point of interest in this land of wonderful views. For miles before this point is reached the scenery is sublime. There is a gradual increase of wildness, a steady rising to greater heights, the chasms sink to more appalling depths, the mountains present a more rugged appearance. Near Toltec station the road passes through a tunnel cut through the massive cliff. At one end of this tunnel a bridge spans the fearful chasm, here, by actual measurement, 1,100 feet in depth. At some points, where the road runs near the edge, the gorge is said to be 1,500 feet deep. When these spots are safely passed, as they always have been, even the most experienced traveller feels a sense of relief.



GARFIELD MEMORIAL.

A short distance west of this tunnel, and only a few feet from the track, stands a massive granite monument erected by members of the National Association of General Passenger and Ticket Agents of the railroads of the United States in memory of the late President Garfield. Representatives of this Association held memorial services here on the day of his burial, September 26th, 1881. Excursionists from many different States participated with them in the mournful and impressive exercises.

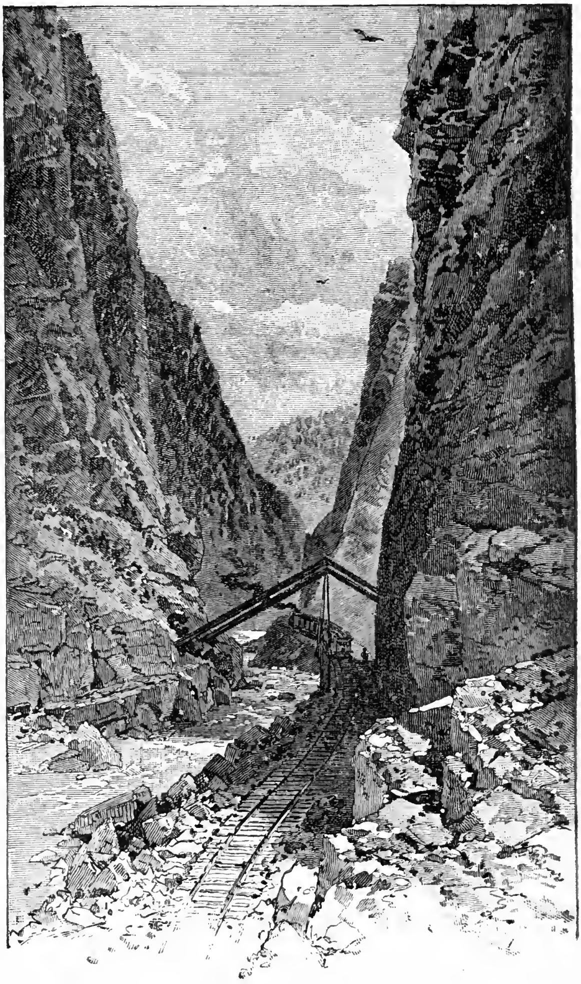
Among the grandest of the natural phenomena of the region is the Grand Cañon of the Arkansas. This is a marvellous gorge, eight miles in length, through which the Arkansas River finds its way on its journey of more than 2,000 miles to the point at which it enters the Mississippi. It is traversed by the main line of the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad, lies between Cañon City and Parkdale, the former station being 161 miles from Denver. A few miles beyond Cañon City the opening of the gorge appears. Vast piles of sandstone and limestone rocks rise abruptly from the river banks. A narrow defile is entered. Precipitous walls arise on either side. They rapidly increase in height. The effect of this increasing altitude upon the traveller is peculiar. He seems to be going downward. Instead of the mountains only becoming higher from their bases the road-bed also seems to be settling into the depths of the earth. The roar of the river mingles with the noise of the train and the sound is thrown back by the massive walls. Both sights and sounds soon become almost oppressive.



GRAND CAÑON OF THE ARKANSAS.

At length the train swings around a long curve, by which it avoids the mountain wall which lay directly in its path, and heads in quite a different direction. Here we come to the mighty cliffs of the Royal Gorge. The best view is secured from the celebrated hanging bridge. Here the walls of the chasm rise in inconceivable grandeur 2,600 feet above the track and seem to almost pierce the sky. The fearful heights, the tremendous depths, the sunlight and the shadows, the rush of the river and the sweep of the train as it passes through this terrific chasm, make a picture which will remain in the mind forever, but which it is an utterly hopeless task to attempt to describe. What fearful convulsions of nature must have been required to throw up these ponderous walls thousands of feet toward the heavens and cleave this miraculous gorge for many miles through the very heart of the mountain range! The first view of these sublime scenes is almost overpowering. There is something terrible in their majestic grandeur. Familiarity with the region relieves this impression in some degree, but the feeling of amazement is never effaced. However frequently the scenes may be viewed, or memory may bring them to mind, the emotion of wonder remains constant and undiminished.

The cañon does not end with the gorge but continues for miles beyond. The river plunges over precipices or rushes madly down steep descents. It flows for most of the distance between rocky walls which rise in vast piles and irregular outline, but near the western portion there is an opening through which beautiful views are obtained.

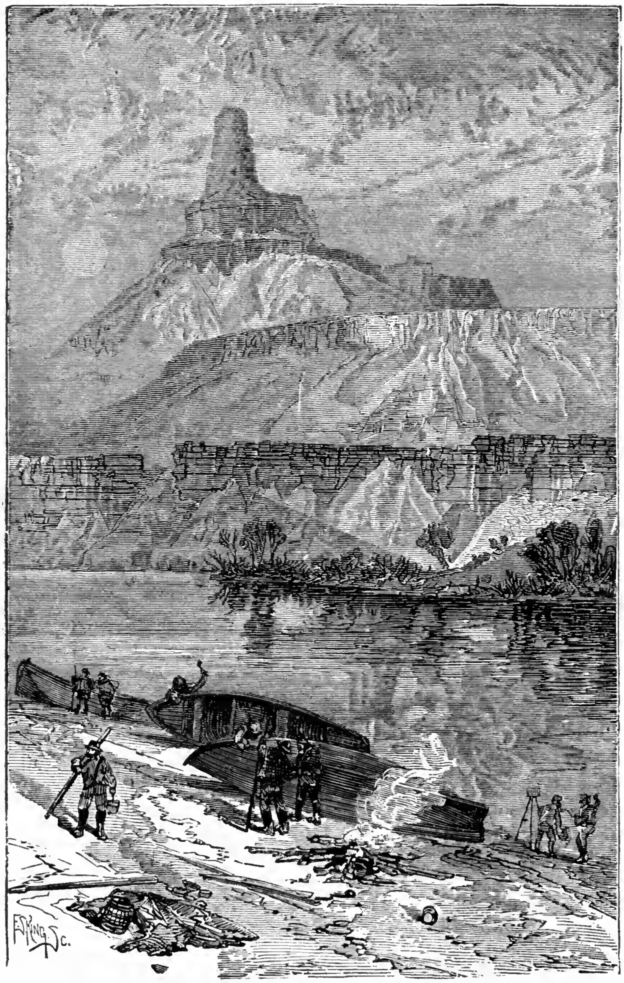


THE ROYAL GORGE.

A branch railroad runs up to some iron mines a few miles away. This road is said to have the steepest ascent in the world of any road on which the engines do not have cog-wheels. The grade is 406 feet per mile. The ascent with empty cars is difficult. The descent with cars loaded with ore is not only difficult but dangerous. The ore is of excellent quality and is easily secured. While the branch road was built to accommodate the mining business it is also used to quite an extent in transporting marble and lumber to the main line.

In the western portion of Colorado, the capital of the county, and the principal town in the section, is Gunnison, a place which the tourist in this region should certainly visit. It is beautifully located in the midst of a large park lying about 8,000 feet above the level of the sea. Abundance of pure water flows from the streams which pass near by and which just below the town unite to form the Gunnison River.

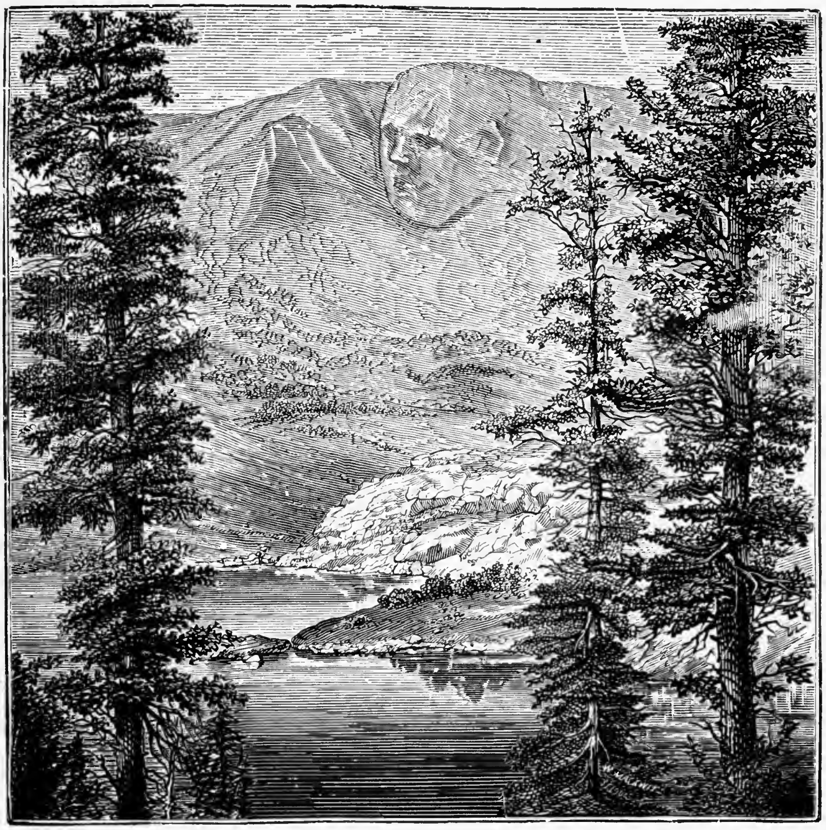
The region of which Gunnison forms the business centre was not opened for settlement until 1872. Various parties had made partial explorations, and a few had attempted mining, but Indian outrages and massacres were so frequent that the section was practically abandoned by white men. About that time a party from Denver commenced mining near Rock Creek and were so successful that others soon came to search for gold. An agricultural colony located in the region in 1874. On account of the great interest in the Leadville mines, and the difficulty of reaching the new settlement, the mining interests in the Gunnison district were not developed to any great extent for several years. But during the past decade they have attracted more attention and the town has been growing in size and increasing in business importance.



GUNNISON'S BUTTE.

From Gunnison a branch of the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad runs northward about twenty miles to Crested Butte, a peculiar peak of gray stone rising to a considerable height from a base covered with trees and plants and forming an attractive and prominent feature of the landscape even in this region of attractions. Near this point the first permanent settlement in the region was made. There is now a good hotel and quite a smart little village. The chief mines, in fact the only ones at this particular point, are of coal. These are of considerable extent and, as the quality of the coal is excellent, they are also of great value.

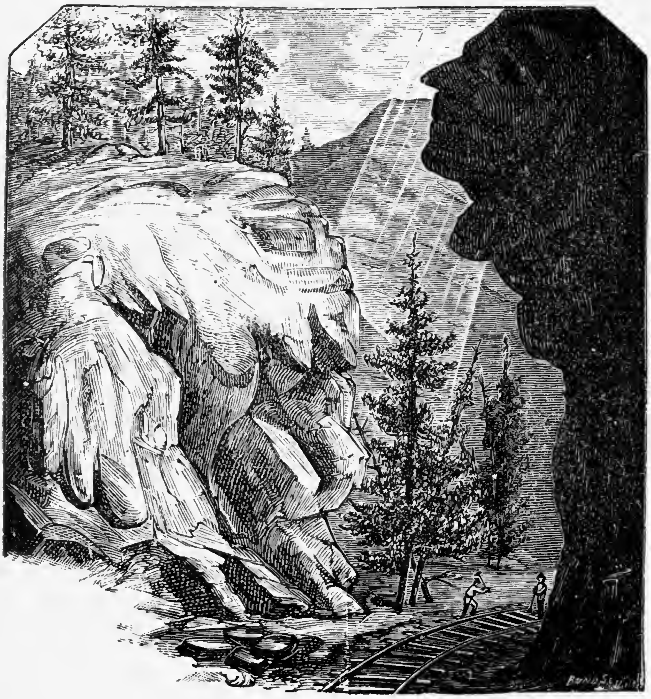
One of the peculiar features of the Rocky Mountain region is the marked resemblance in form and appearance of rocks to objects of almost every kind. This is not characteristic of any one place in particular, but is seen in the various cañons, upon the faces of cliffs, in masses of rocks rising from the bank of a river or piled on some lofty tableland—in fact this remarkable, and in frequent instances grotesque, feature is quite prominent throughout the whole section.



SPHINX ROCK.

At one point the tourist beholds an outline clearly cut upon a mountain side which reminds him of the Egyptian Sphinx, the riddle and the wonder of the ages.

A still more sharply defined outline is that of a face, almost human in its appearance, which projects from an immense cliff rising abruptly from the side of the track which the face overhangs. This peculiar formation has been named Mother Grundy. While it is far from beautiful it is so odd that it attracts the attention of all tourists who have the opportunity of seeing it.

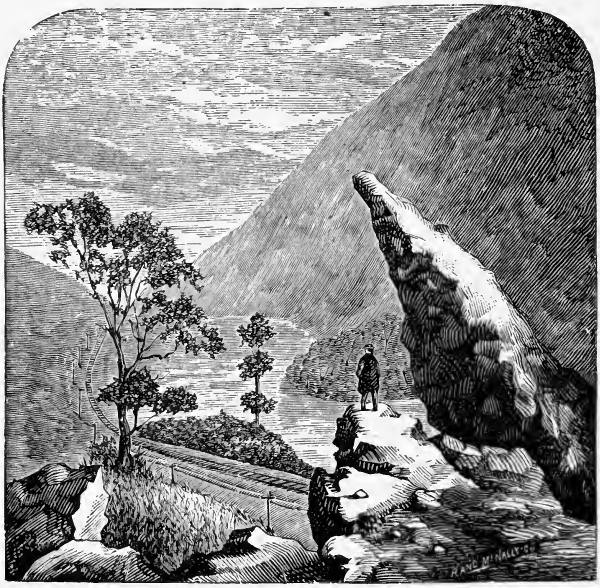


MOTHER GRUNDY.

It was of formations of this class that a recent writer said, in a somewhat sarcastic vein, that " the multitude " are attracted largely by curiosity and while allowing views of exquisite beauty to pass unnoticed or uncared for " will go into ecstasies in the contemplation of a bizarre rock with a strange likeness to some familiar object." While this seems altogether too sweeping a statement as applied to the great majority of tourists, there are many of whom it gives a very accurate description, and it points out one of the strong tendencies of the mind which has not had the advantages of culture and of refined surroundings. It is not strange that these peculiar outlines and eccentric forms attract attention. They are " vagaries of Nature," it is true, and are very far below the order of her beautiful manifestations, but still there is something wonderful about them and they have a certain and a legitimate interest to every observer.

Among the peculiar formations of the class just noticed Finger Rock is well worthy of an illustration. Tilted against a massive and ragged rock, above which it rises to a considerable height, it appears like an enormous finger pointing over the railroad track and the mountain peak just beyond, toward the sky. How it came in this form or in this position is a question which no one can solve. Here it is and here it has evidently been for ages. Here, too, it is likely to remain for ages to come.

The Giant's Tea Kettle is a rugged mass of rock, nearly square in form, rising from the comparatively level surface of an ordinary butte. It received its name on account of its immense size and a resemblance, not very close but sufficient to be suggestive, to a tea kettle. The number of these rude imitations of ordinary objects which the observing tourist will notice in a trip through this region is very great. Many of them have received names which have been accepted by the public and by which they are generally known. Others have, as yet, no names, but are merely the subjects of curiosity and conjecture.

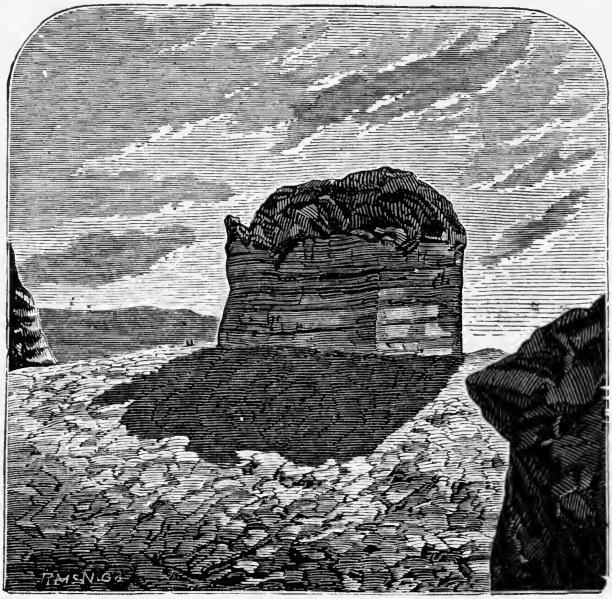

RAND McNALLY & CO.

FINGER ROCK.

The tourist in Colorado should not fail to visit the justly celebrated resort called Idaho Springs. As far as fitting it for the purposes of a resort for pleasure and also for those of a sanitarium, it is claimed that Nature has done more for this locality than she has for any other in the whole region of the Rocky Mountains. Man has also done his part and the result is a combination of attractions seldom found.

Another point, greatly in favor of this locality, is that it is easily accessible. It is only thirty-seven miles from Denver, a city which is called "the social and commercial centre" of Colorado and the surrounding region, and which certainly is a beautiful and famous resort. It is laid out in an attractive manner and has a magnificent location more than 5,000 feet above the sea. It is said that from this point there is a clear view of the Rocky Mountains for a distance of almost 300 miles. The climate is unsurpassed and the city is well abreast of the times in the varied lines of conveniences and luxuries.

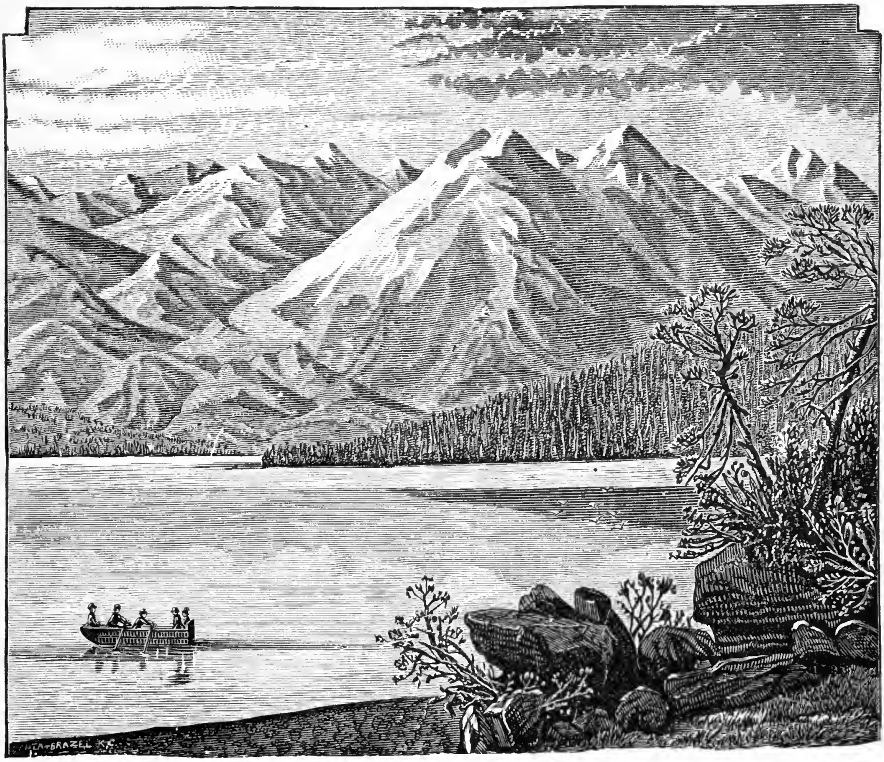
Yet, desirable as Denver is for a place of residence at all seasons of the year, the attractions of Idaho Springs are so great that numbers of the inhabitants of the former city spend more or less of the summer season at the latter resort. Here can be obtained all needed comforts. There are good hotels, pleasant cottages, and plenty of places where the traveller, whether he be poor or rich, can find excellent accommodations. The town lies in Clear Creek Cañon 7,543 feet above the sea, and is sheltered by the walls which rise in beauty around it, their sides covered with trees which add greatly to the scenic attractions. There are many excellent roads and beautiful walks which lead to quiet glens and peaceful retreats only a little distance from the Springs. The surrounding scenery is magnificent. The mountains lying close around are beautiful, and many more distant peaks raise their towering heads in grandeur toward the heavens.



GIANT'S TEA KETTLE.

The present location of Idaho Springs was a small mining camp as recently as 1860. At about that time gold was found in considerable quantities, and though the methods at first employed in obtaining it were necessarily superficial, the results were so satisfactory that machinery was soon introduced and improved processes adopted. Some of the mines are very near the town and may easily be reached on foot. Others are to be reached on horseback. The paths are good and the ride in the pure mountain air will prove both invigorating and delightful. Some of these mines yield a remarkably rich ore. As high as sixty per cent of gold, it is said, has been obtained from ore mined near the town. As they are freely open to the inspection of visitors, these mines form popular places of resort for parties not familiar with life in the mining regions.

But while Idaho Springs, as a town, owes its existence to the mines, they are very far from constituting its chief attraction at the present time. The waters of the numerous mineral springs have proved wonderfully efficacious in the treatment of various forms of disease. They were discovered by prospectors in search for gold and soon became popular. There are both hot and cold springs, and in the side of one of the mountains, there is a boiling spring, close by which a house has been erected in which vapor baths are given. There are also a number of bath houses near other springs. In the pools at these places thousands of people bathe every year. Among them are large numbers of invalids, many of whom receive speedy and permanent relief from their physical ailments. The baths at the hot springs are kept open during the winter and the others are open nearly all the year.



CHICAGO LAKE.

The waters of many of the springs are used for drinking as well as bathing. Analyses have shown their chemical elements to be very nearly the same as are those of the world-famed Carlsbad Springs in Bohemia, and their effects in the treatment of disease seem to be equally prompt and permanent.

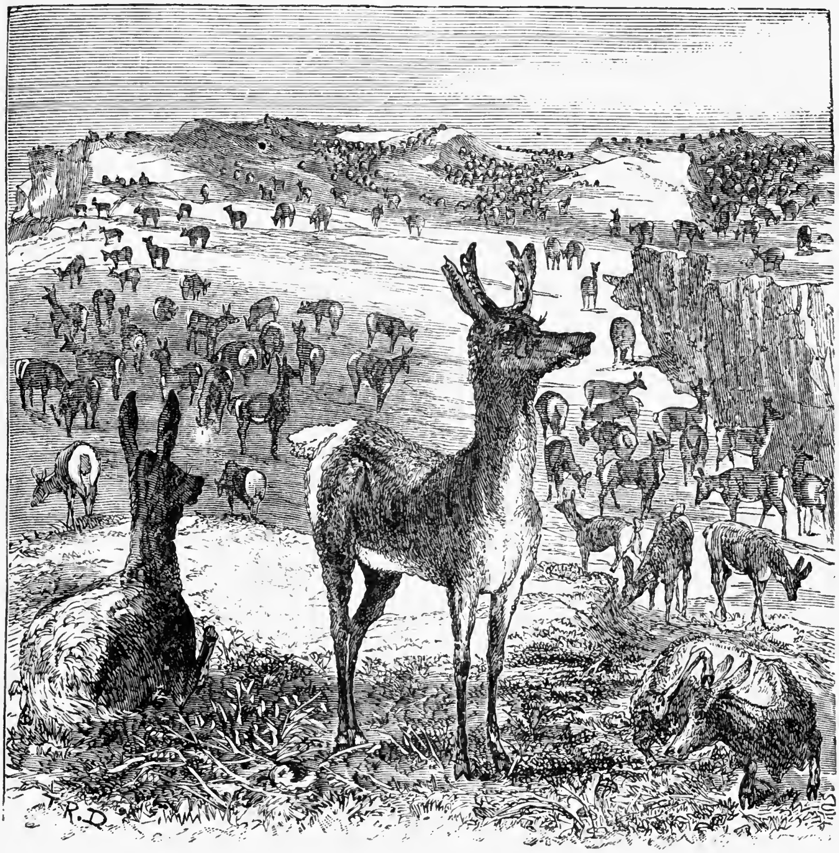
The purity of the air, the freedom from dampness and from cold winds, and the almost continual sunshine during the day followed by delightfully cool nights, are also important aids in the restoration of health to invalids, and in promoting the comfort of the well. It is claimed that there is no other town in the Rocky Mountain region which is favored with so many cloudless days as are enjoyed at Idaho Springs.

A short but very pleasant trip from Idaho Springs may be made to the Chicago Lakes—a distance of some twelve or fifteen miles. The trip can be made on horseback, or, most of the way, by carriage. There are four lakes in the group. In the vicinity of the lower ones, the famous painter Bierstadt made the sketches for his wonderful picture of a "Storm in the Rocky Mountains." The lower lake is extremely beautiful. It receives its water from the upper lake which is near by. There is a rapid descent for quite a distance, which is followed by an abrupt fall of about fifty feet. This lake covers an area of about eighty acres. Dead Man's Lake, also one of the group, is very pretty in spite of its unpleasant name. In each of these lakes the water is clear and deep. Trout are abundant and the tourist will find at either of the three an excellent place either for a boat ride or for fishing.

It is around the fourth lake, however, that the deepest interest centres. This lake is about 11,000 feet above the sea, and has the greatest altitude of any lake in North America. It lies almost at the top of Mount Rosalie, a pretty peak, from which a fine view may be obtained. The surface of the lake is covered, even in summer, with ice five feet in thickness. Lying in its frozen splendor the lake forms a natural gem as beautiful as it is unique.

Another pleasant trip, of about nine miles, from Idaho Springs, may be made to Echo Lake, a pretty sheet of water covering an area of fifty acres and lying about 10,000 feet above the level of the sea. It is in a region largely covered by a dense pine forest. Upon one side there is a mountain wall about 1,500 feet in height. On the other sides there is a fine beach with clear sand. For the fisherman this is one of the best resorts in the whole section. The lake has been freely and repeatedly stocked with trout during the past few years. They have grown rapidly, and fishes of large size and the finest quality are now obtained in great numbers, and with little difficulty. On the shore of the lake a house has been erected, boats and tackle have been provided, and ample accommodations for fishing parties may be found at all times.

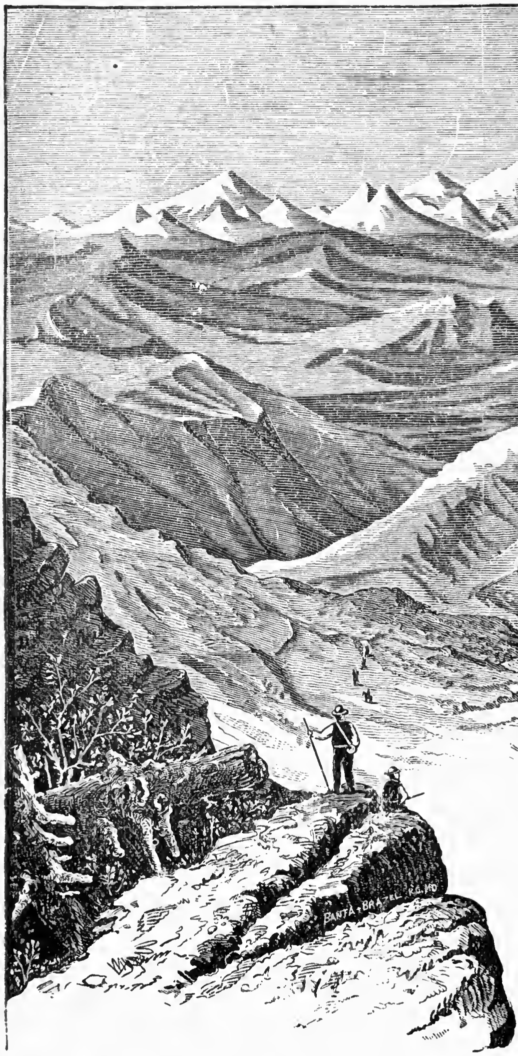
On the elevated plains and the mountain peaks of this section are some of the finest hunting grounds in the world. Game of various kinds, from the rabbit to the grizzly bear and the mountain lion, may be found in abundance. The more ferocious animals inhabit the higher points in the rugged mountain ranges. The elk and the black-tailed deer are found along the streams and at a high altitude. The mountain sheep, one of the prizes dearest to the hunter, is also found in elevated localities. The antelope, which is almost as popular with the hunter, is found in the ravines which are common in the high plains of this mountainous region.



FEEDING GROUND OF THE ANTELOPE.

Colorado has several elevated points which are surrounded by high mountain peaks. These beautiful valleys are called parks and are among the most attractive portions of the State. The North Park, lying near the northern boundary of the State, is reached by stage from Fort Collins, a station on the Colorado Central Railroad. The principal points are Mason City, and Tyner.

The former is 80 miles and the latter 125 miles from Fort Collins. This Park is celebrated for the immense numbers of the antelope and elk which it sustains. It is one of the finest hunting grounds, for this kind of game, which the world affords. The park is about seventy-five miles long and fifty miles wide, is surrounded by the rugged peaks of the Rocky Mountains, and contains many scenes of beauty and grandeur. The average altitude is about 9,000 feet. Many beautiful springs, some of them strongly impregnated with mineral substances, are found within its limits. Even if we leave out of view the splendid opportunities for hunting and fishing, we have a remarkably attractive locality. For "camping out" it is one of the finest places which can be found. Whether he seeks rest or recreation, or both combined, the tourist will here be able to gratify his taste and to spend his time pleasantly and profitably.



SNOW RANGE, FROM JAMES TRAIL.

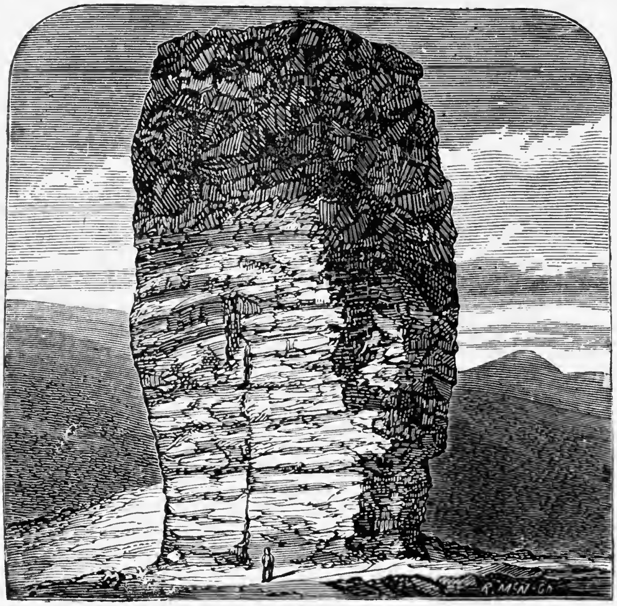
Just south of this beautiful locality, and separated from it by a chain of mountains, is Middle Park. This is nearly as large as North Park, being seventy miles long by fifty miles wide, and is also a popular resort for sportsmen. There are immense forests, between which are broad tracts of open land covered with luxuriant grass and with wild flowers of many varieties and of almost every conceivable color. There are also some Hot Sulphur Springs which are reached by stage from Georgetown, a distance of forty-five miles, and which are quite popular with tourists. The mountain scenery, like that of all this region, is simply magnificent.

Still farther south is the South Park of Colorado, which, though smaller, is called more beautiful than any of the other parks in the State. It is sixty miles long by thirty miles wide, and is easily accessible from Denver by the South Park division of the Union Pacific Railroad, which connects Denver with Leadville and passes directly through the park. The chief town is Fairplay, from which point excursions are made to Mount Lincoln, the highest peak in the Colorado group of mountains. From the summit of this peak a beautiful and extensive view is obtained. The ascent can be made without difficulty. Another popular excursion is to the Twin Lakes, which lie thirty-five miles from Fairplay. In the southern part of the State is the largest of the four principal parks embraced within its area. It is known as the San Luis Park and lies 7,000 feet above the sea level, while the surrounding mountains rise to from 4,000 to 7,000 feet above the park itself. Its area is about twice as large as that of the State of Massachusetts. The soil is fertile, the pasturage rich, and the climate is so mild that cattle can live through the winter without shelter. In some portions of the park there are immense forests. Near the centre of the park is the San Luis Lake, which receives the water of nineteen streams which flow from the snow-crowned mountains by which the valley is walled. The scenery is very fine and the region is easily reached by the Silverton branch of the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad. The distance from Denver is about 250 miles.

While most of the places to which we have referred are either settled or are points within easy reach of cities or towns, there are almost innumerable localites in the vast region of the Rocky Mountains which are drear and desolate. Enormous mountains seem thrown together in irregular masses. Their sides for many hundred feet are covered with snow to a great depth and white and glistening crowns always cover their heads. They are beautiful in their wildness, magnificent in their rugged outlines. Their silent grandeur is impressive and fills the thoughtful mind with wonder and with awe.

Along the banks of the Green River, and also near the town of that name in Wyoming Territory, many fine scenes appear. The clay buttes around the town are peculiar both in form and color. A few miles away are mines from which a fine quality of coal is obtained. The town is small but the station of the Union Pacific Railroad is an important one, as here the trains which are to diverge from the main line at Granger, a little farther west, and run to Portland, Oregon, are made up.

Not far from Evanston, a smart little town in Wyoming, which is perched on the mountain 6,759 feet above the sea and has a population numbering about 3,000, the road begins to descend toward the west and enters one of the most attractive regions on the continent. The town itself has many features of interest, including mineral springs which flow from a limestone formation.

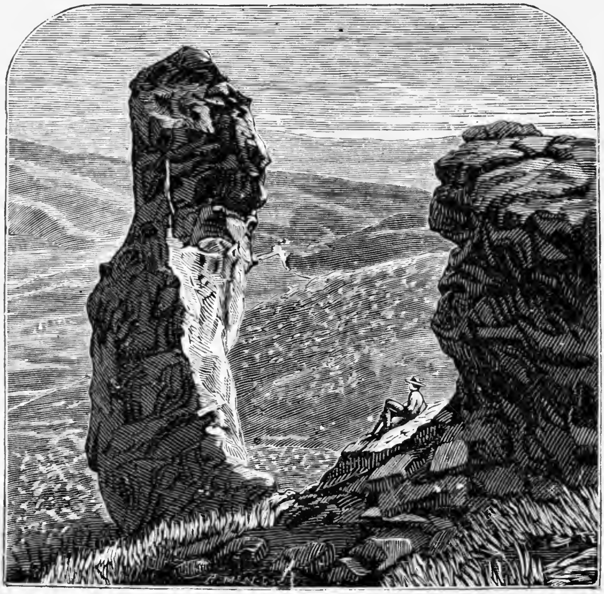


GIANT'S CLUB, GREEN RIVER.

But the principal interest of the region centres in Echo Cañon, at the extreme eastern portion of Utah Territory. While somewhat resembling the others, it is in some respects the most wonderful of all the magnificent gorges in this wild section. A celebrated traveller asserts that he found nothing equal to it, even in the great Himalaya Range of Asia, and declares that "Echo Cañon is one of the masterpieces of Nature." The testimony of other travellers whose opportunities for observation have been extensive is uniformly to the effect that this cañon is one of the most wonderful works of Nature which they ever beheld. The cañon extends about thirty miles, and though there are many changes of scene, there is never a loss of interest on the part of the observer.

Soon after entering the cañon the train passes through a tunnel 900 feet in length—a somewhat difficult and a very expensive portion of the road to construct. Numerous bridges will also be noticed in this vicinity. These are made necessary by the fact that the railroad crosses Echo Creek thirty-one times in a distance of only twenty-six miles.

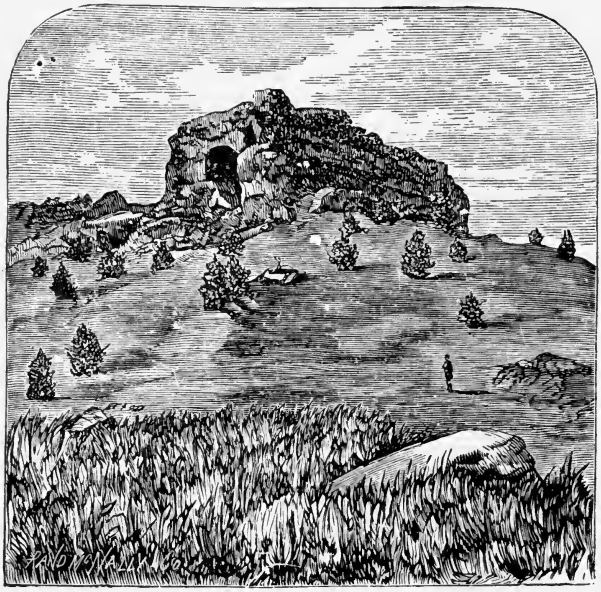
One of the noticeable features along this route is the presence of numerous pillars of rock which have, by the action of the elements, been carved into most peculiar forms. For how many ages these massive pillars have been wearing away under the corroding action of sunshine, wind, rain, and frost, no one can tell. Geologists, however, are of the opinion that this portion of the continent was one of the first to emerge from the water which had previously covered the globe, and it is highly probable that the "tooth of time" has here been working much longer than it has in other sections of the country.



TOWER ROCK, ECHO CAÑON.

One of the first of the special features of the cañon which will attract the attention of the tourist will be Castle Rock, a large and peculiar mass of rock which has a strongly marked resemblance to a castle. This is one of the most perfect of these peculiar formations, and but for its immense size might well pass for a construction of man instead of a phenomenon of nature. In this region are numerous fossil remains which are of great interest to scientists. Skeletons of several species of animals long since extinct have been unearthed. Among them are part of the bones of a six-horned rhinoceros, an animal of enormous size, which must have disappeared from this region thousands of years ago. The cliffs at the opening of the cañon are of a grayish tinge, but as we proceed they become nearly red. Upon the lower ones, which are nearest the open land, trees of various kinds appear. But farther along the cañon the cliffs are higher, more rugged in outline, and more barren in appearance.

Upon these cliffs the Mormons erected a number of fortifications in 1857, when they were in conflict with the Government of the United States, and the remains of their rude constructions may still be seen. Another reminder of the Mormon settlement of the region is seen at Pulpit Rock, a massive pile of stone which has been often described. Its name is said to be due to the fact that in form it somewhat resembles a pulpit, and to the tradition that from its heights Brigham Young preached the first sermon which he delivered in Utah. The cañon was the line of the old wagon road through this section. Freight was carried in wagons drawn by large teams of oxen, while passengers and baggage were taken by horses or mules. While it was by far the best route in the section, progress was necessarily slow and toilsome. But now all is changed. The trip is made in luxurious cars which are drawn rapidly, even over the sharpest grades, by the tireless locomotive.



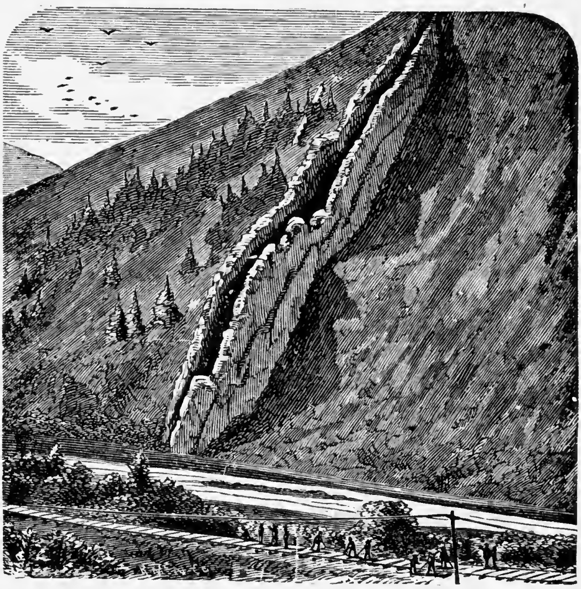
CASTLE ROCK.

Leaving Echo Cañon we pass into a more open region which extends for several miles. This is the Weber Valley, fresh and fair, with a peaceful river flowing through it, and with numerous trees dotting its surface. The massive peaks which, at no great distance, rise from the plain show the traveller that the elevated region is not yet passed, but that this level spot is only a little intervale in the midst of the mountains. Beautiful in itself, it becomes doubly attractive by reason of its peculiar location. The valley is soon left behind and Weber Cañon, a close rival of Echo Cañon, is entered.

The entrance to the cañon from the east is termed Wilhelmina Pass. It forms a natural gateway between the hills or bluffs and furnishes just room enough for the wagon-road, the railroad, and the stream, to pass through. At a short distance to the west we come to The Devil's Slide, said to be the "most singular object of all the sportive creations of Nature in the West."

While it can neither be termed grand nor beautiful, it is certainly unique and presents a wonderfully fantastic appearance. The mountain upon which it appears is about 800 feet in height, and is composed, principally, of sandstone, which is of a dark-red color. Its side is covered with sage brush interspersed with bunches of scrub oak, and a few tall pine trees. From the side of this red mountain, two walls, so gray as to be almost white, run from the bank of the river to the top of the peak. These walls are from twenty to forty feet high, are parallel with each other, and lie some twenty feet apart. This curious freak of the natural world is clearly reflected in the waters of the stream and attracts more attention than almost any other feature of the whole region.

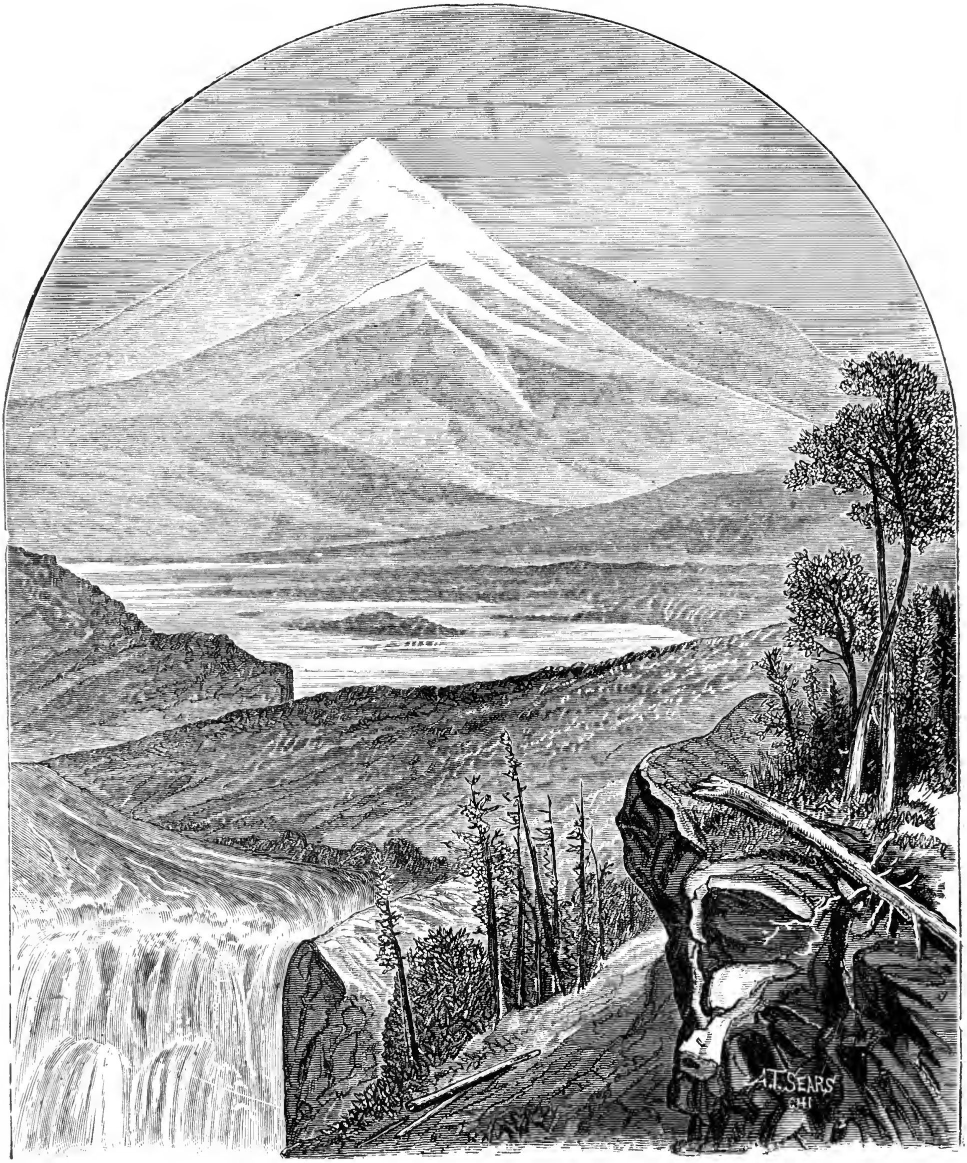
Only about a mile from the curiosity just noted is a large tree which stands by itself quite near the track. Although there is nothing peculiar about the appearance of the tree it receives a great deal of notice from the fact that it stands just 1,000 miles from Omaha. A painted sign has been placed upon one of the limbs so that the tree may be readily identified.



THE DEVIL'S SLIDE.

The train passes through two tunnels of considerable extent, and crosses the stream several times within the limits of this cañon. The wagon road is also crossed at many points as it winds around among the cliffs in search of the easiest grade. Both roads were constructed under circumstances of great difficulty and the railroad was built at an enormous expense.

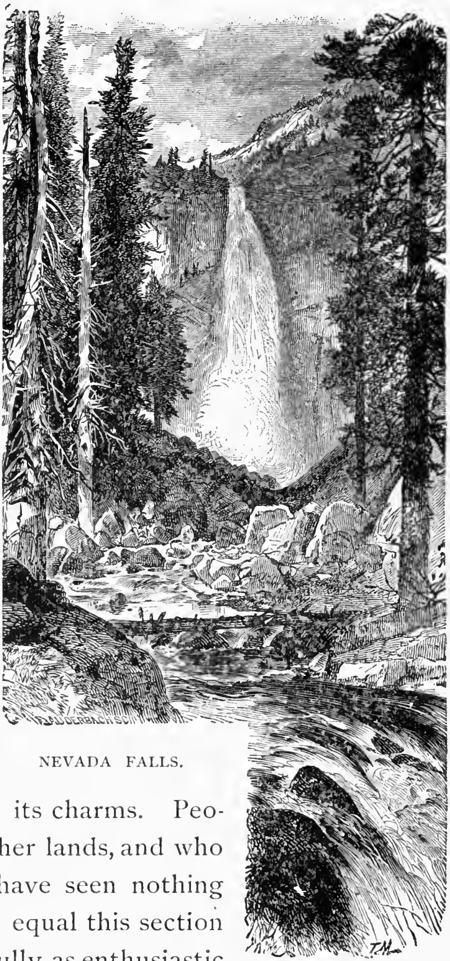
The number of interesting objects to be seen in passing through the cañon is quite large, and the tourist who has once made the survey will be ready to pronounce it a region of wonders. When we come to the western end the beautiful Salt Lake Valley opens into view. Ogden, with its bustle and energy, its railroad and mining interests, and its surrounding agricultural



APPROACHING THE SIERRAS.

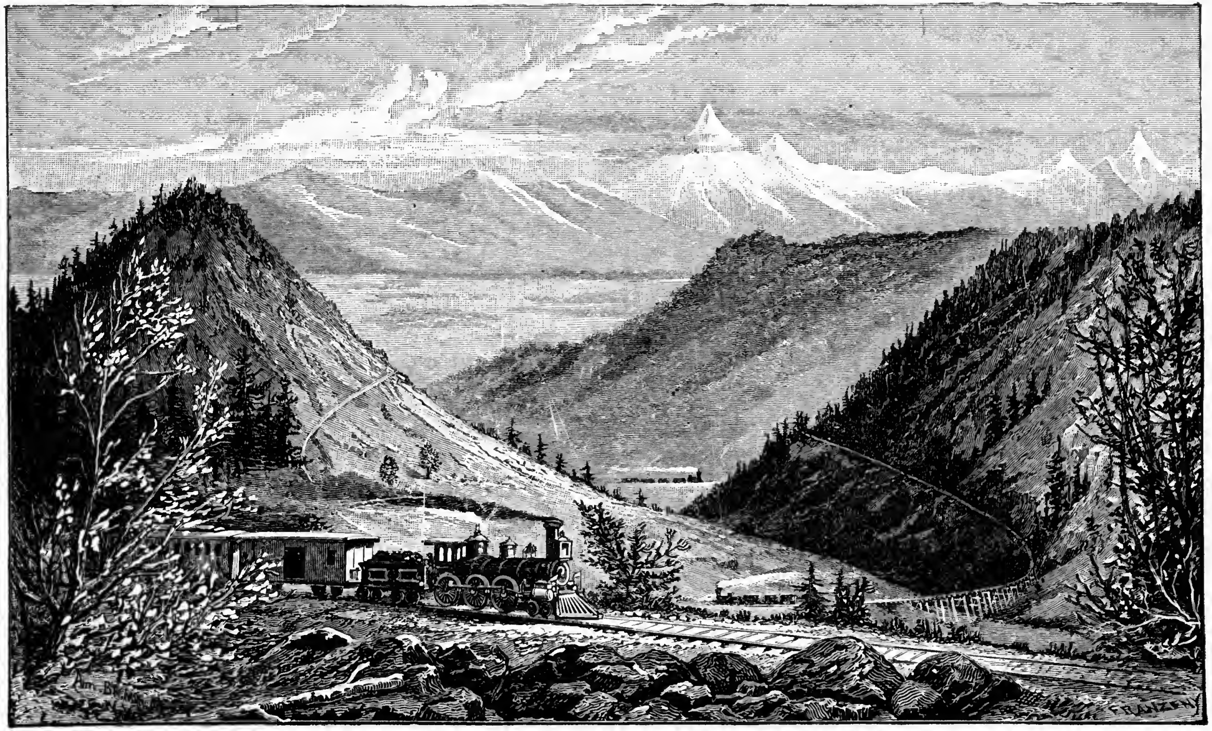
region, is close at hand, and will attract attention. Farther on lies the famous lake, and in the still more distant west several ranges of mountains rear their vast yet beautiful forms. Along the streams we have traversed, and in those which are too far distant from the railroad for the traveller on a through train to observe, are many beautiful cascades, and numberless quiet glens. All through the various cañons, in all the open land, upon the elevated plains, in the valleys lying thousands of feet below the surrounding mountains, and upon the massive peaks which almost pierce the sky, scenes of beauty abound. Their forms are diverse. Their variety is almost infinite. But in some of its manifestations beauty appears on every hand.

In the region of the Rockies, and beyond their massive forms, are found some of the greatest scenic attractions, not merely of this country, but of the world. Beauty, grandeur, sublimity, magnificence—all abound. The traveller is both delighted and amazed. Though the scene is constantly being shifted and changed as the train rolls along, it never grows tame or uninteresting. The region is wonderful in the number, as well as in the character of its charms. People who have travelled extensively in other lands, and who have observed closely, assert that they have seen nothing abroad which, all things considered, can equal this section of the United States. Foreigners seem fully as enthusiastic as our own people in describing the natural scenery of this remarkable region.

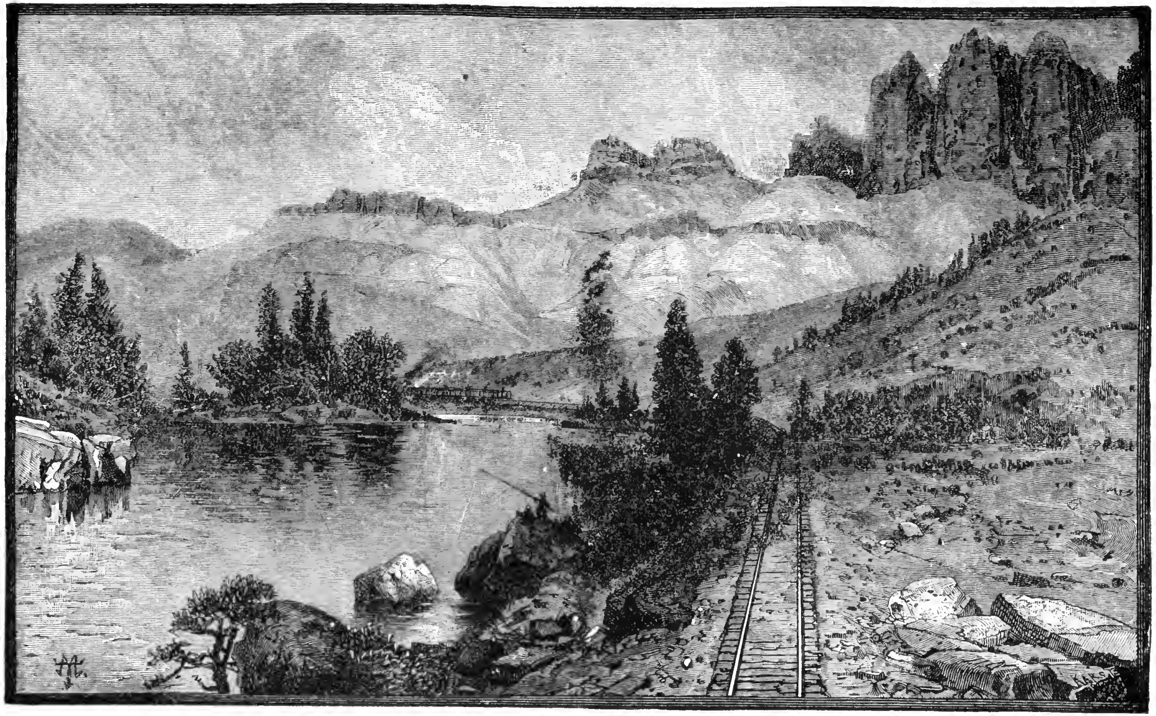


NEVADA FALLS.

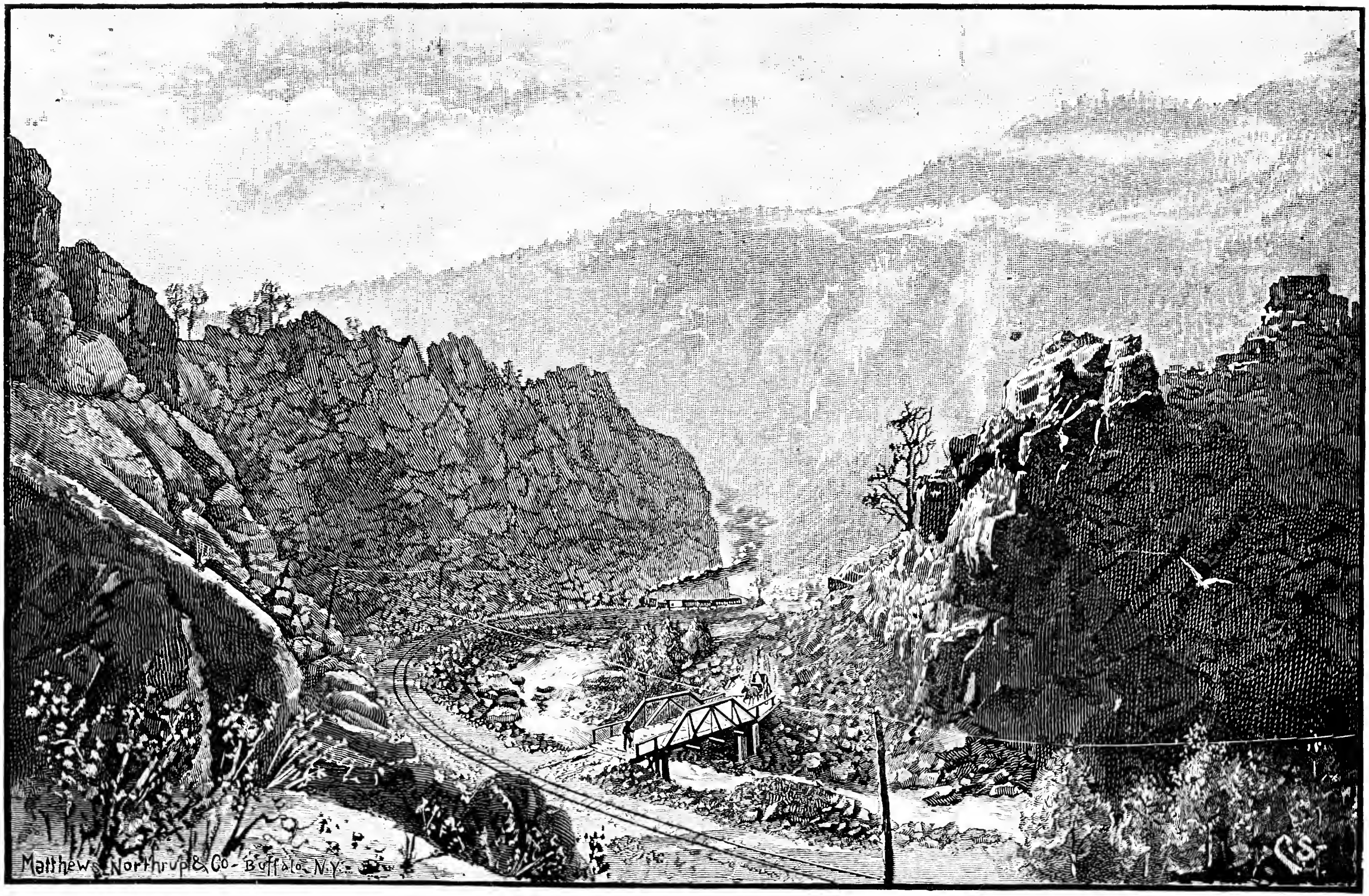
It is a matter for deep regret, as well as for great surprise, that large numbers of the people of this country go abroad every year to behold the famous scenery of Europe who have never enjoyed a visit to the magnificent regions in the western portion of their native land, many features of which are well illustrated in the following gallery of full-page engravings.



MARSHALL PASS, EASTERN SLOPE.

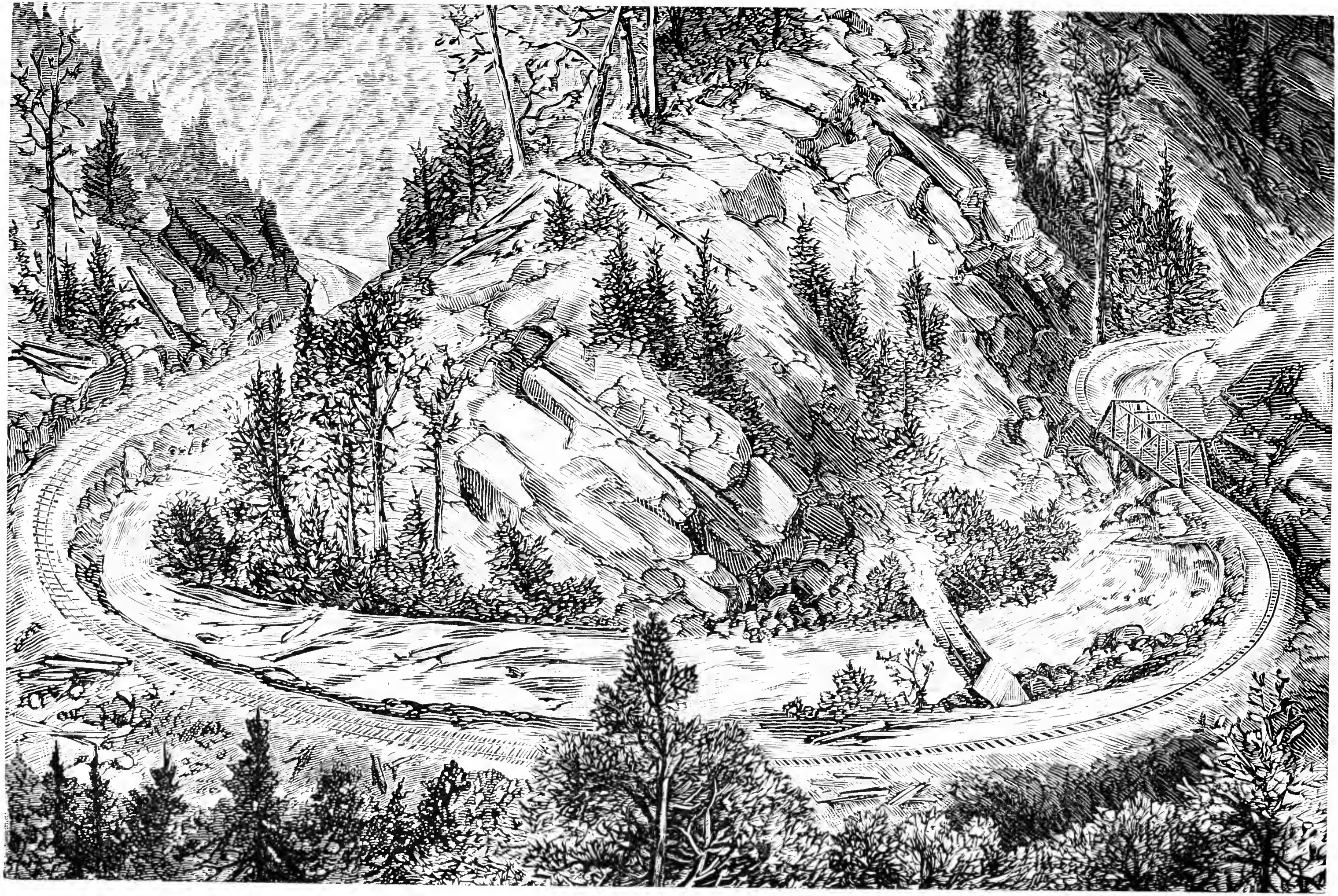


APPROACH OF THE BLACK CAÑON.

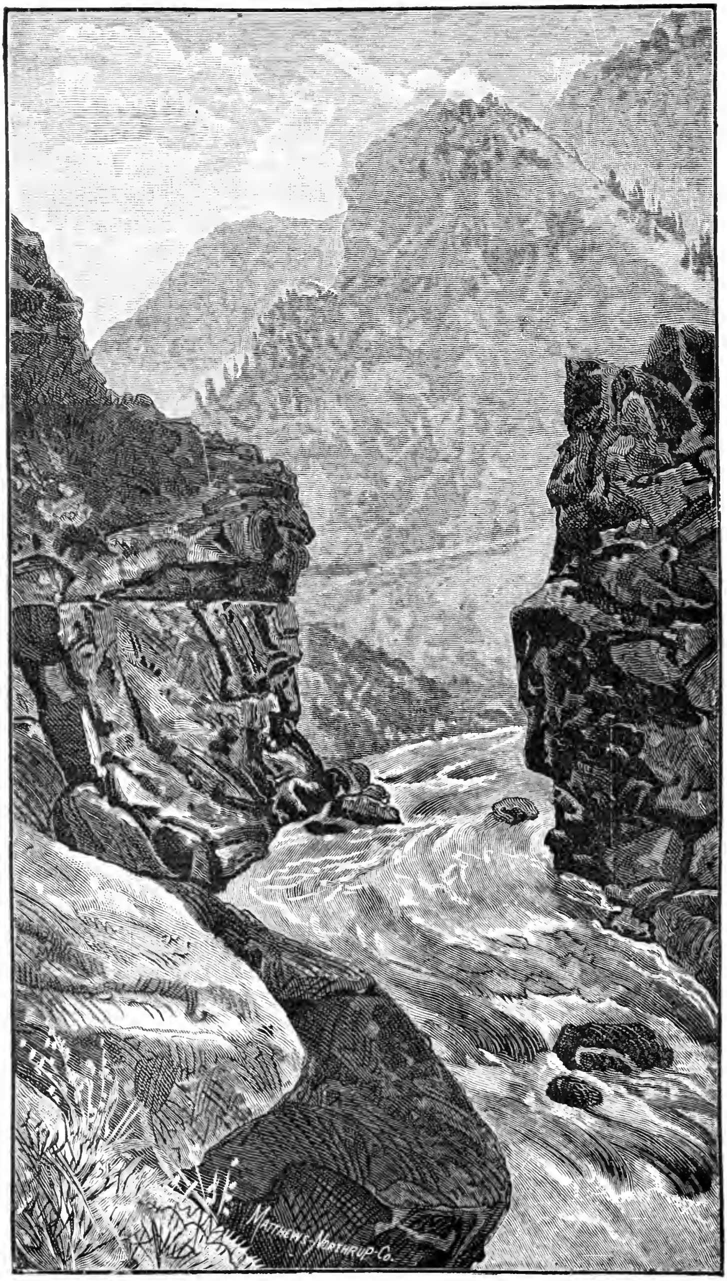


Matthew Northrup & Co. Buffalo, N.Y.

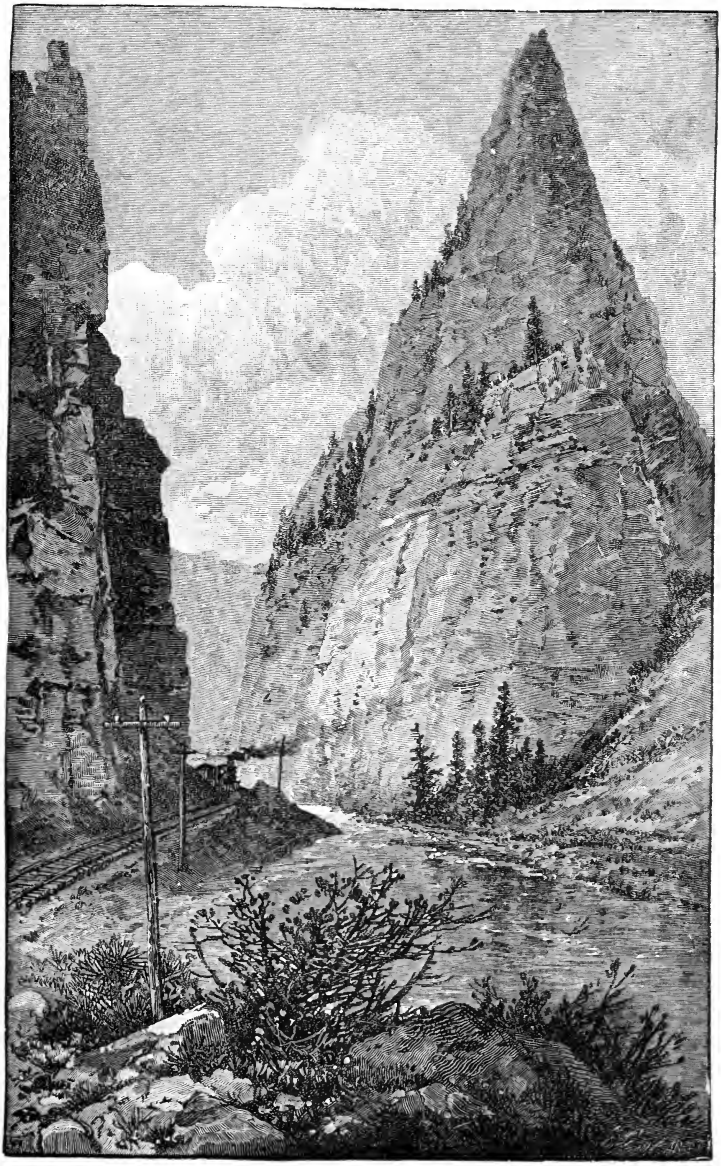
MAXWELL'S POINT, LINE OF UNION PACIFIC RAILROAD.



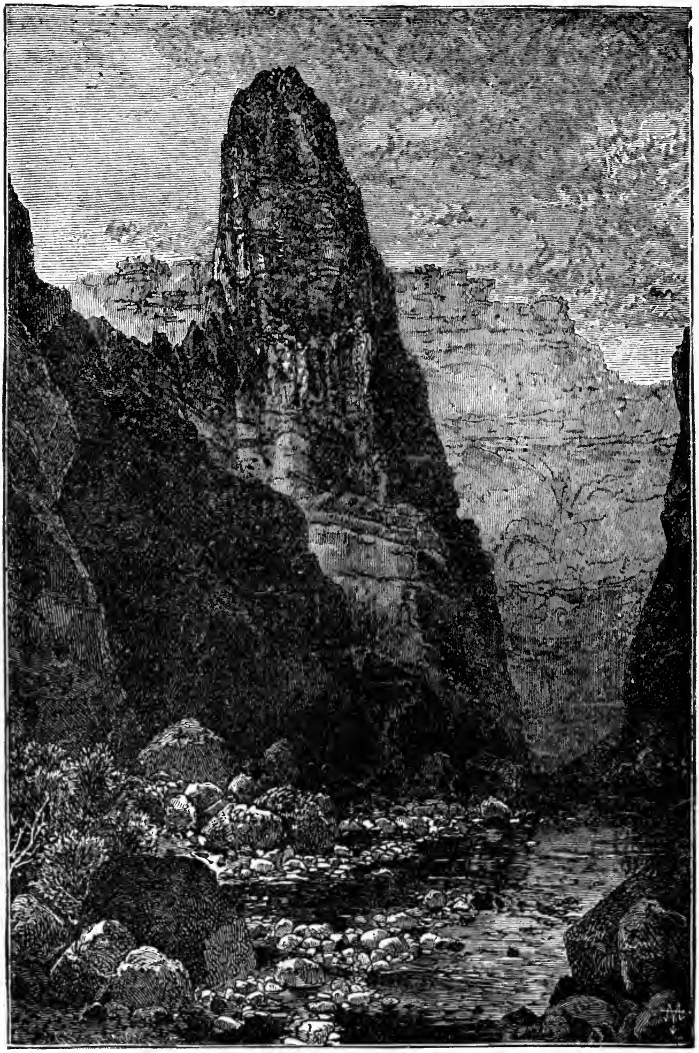
FOLLOWING A CAÑON.


MATTHEWS-NORTHRUP-CO.

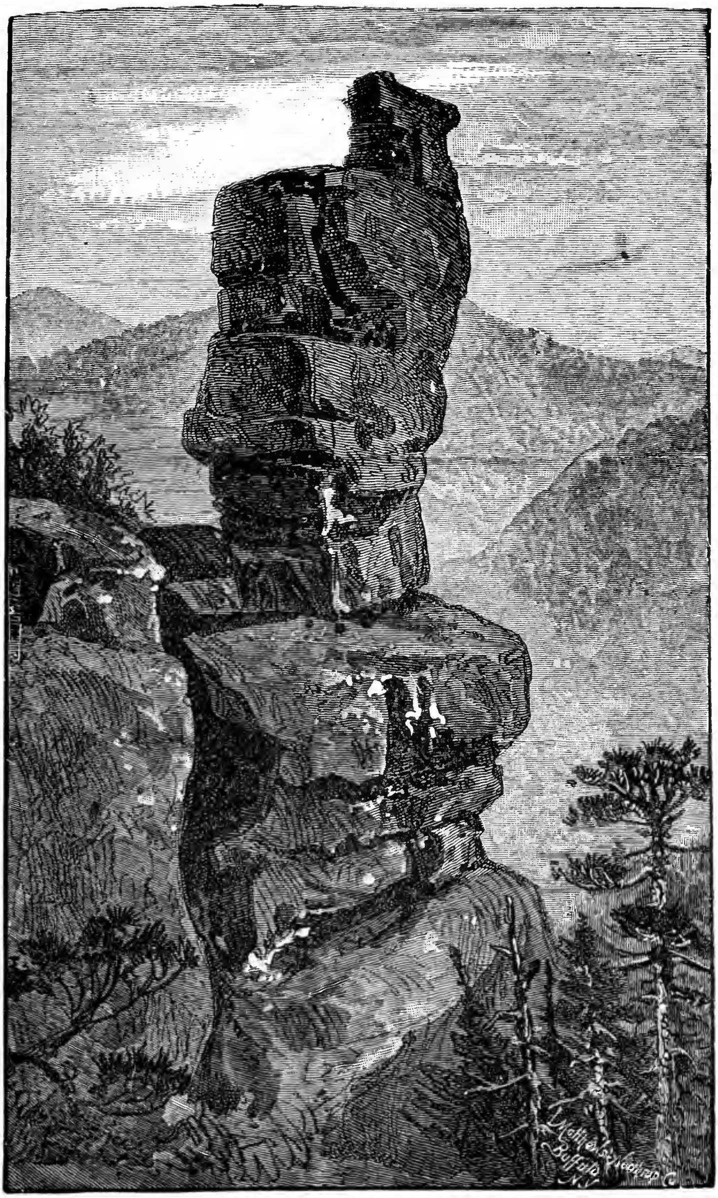
DEVIL'S GATE, WEBER CAÑON.



CURRECANTI NEEDLE, BLACK CAÑON.



MARBLE PINNACLE, COLORADO RIVER.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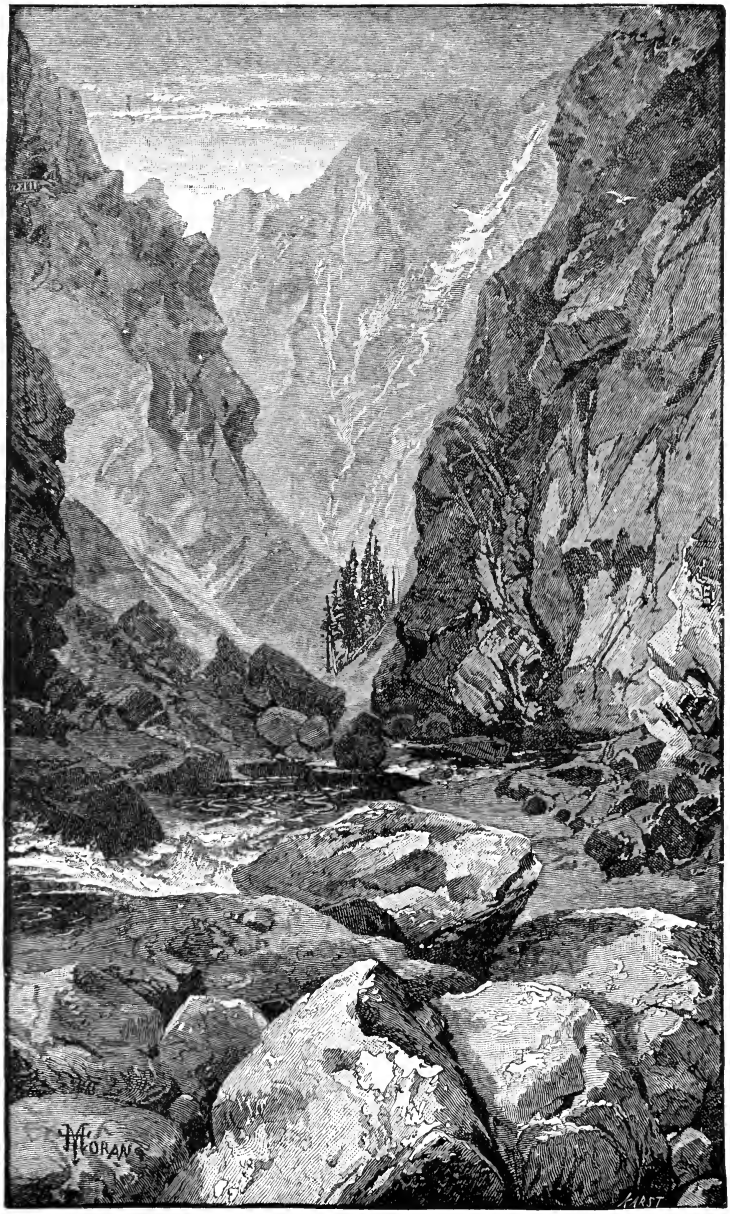
PULPIT ROCK, ECHO CAÑON.


T. MORAN
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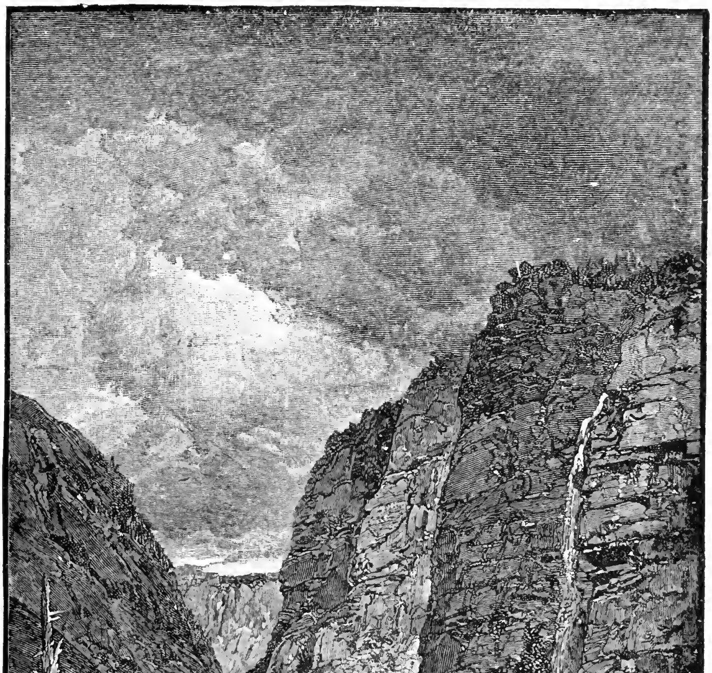
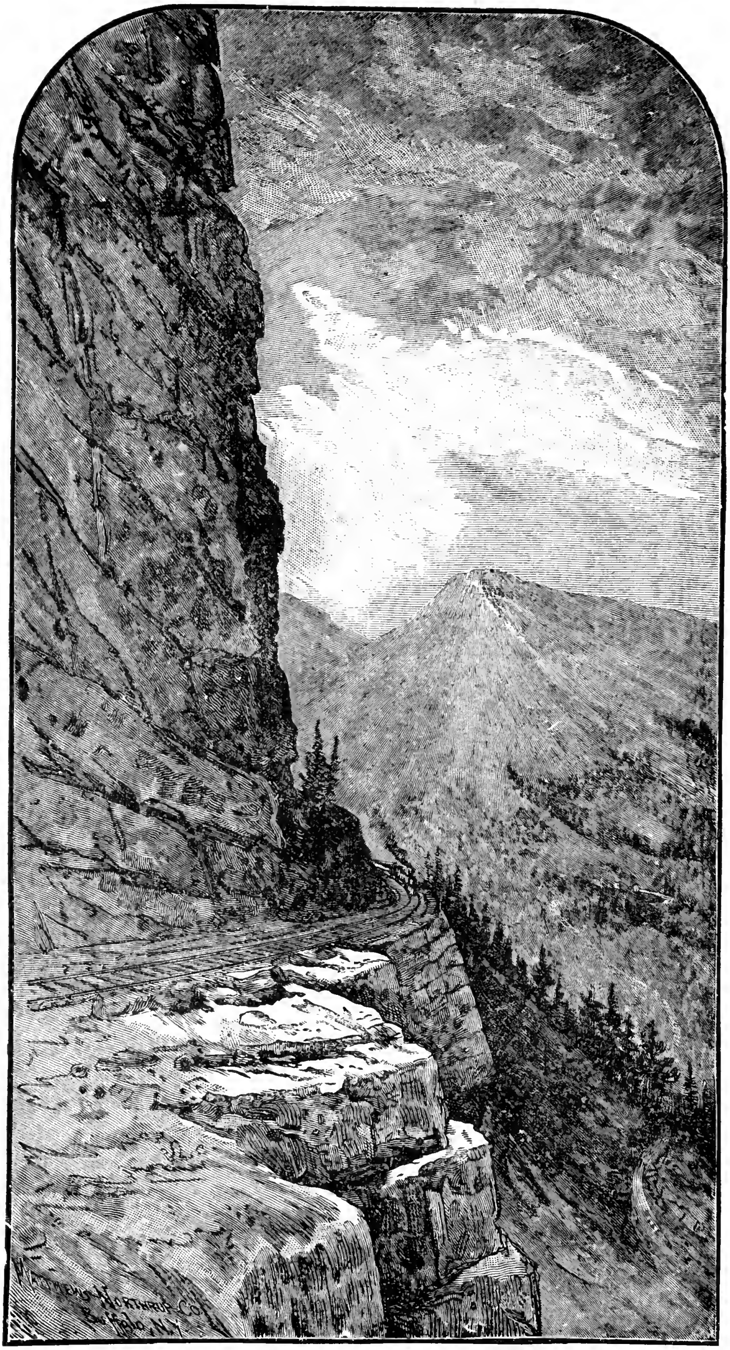
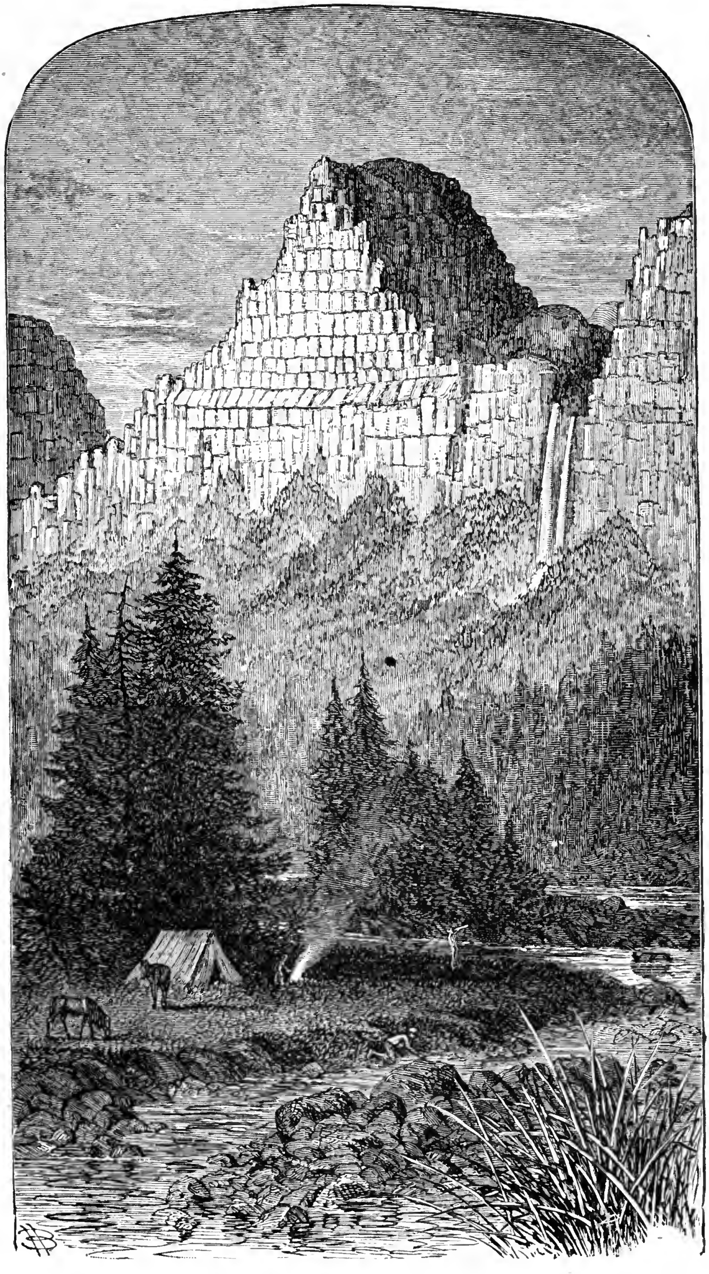
TOLTEC GORGE.



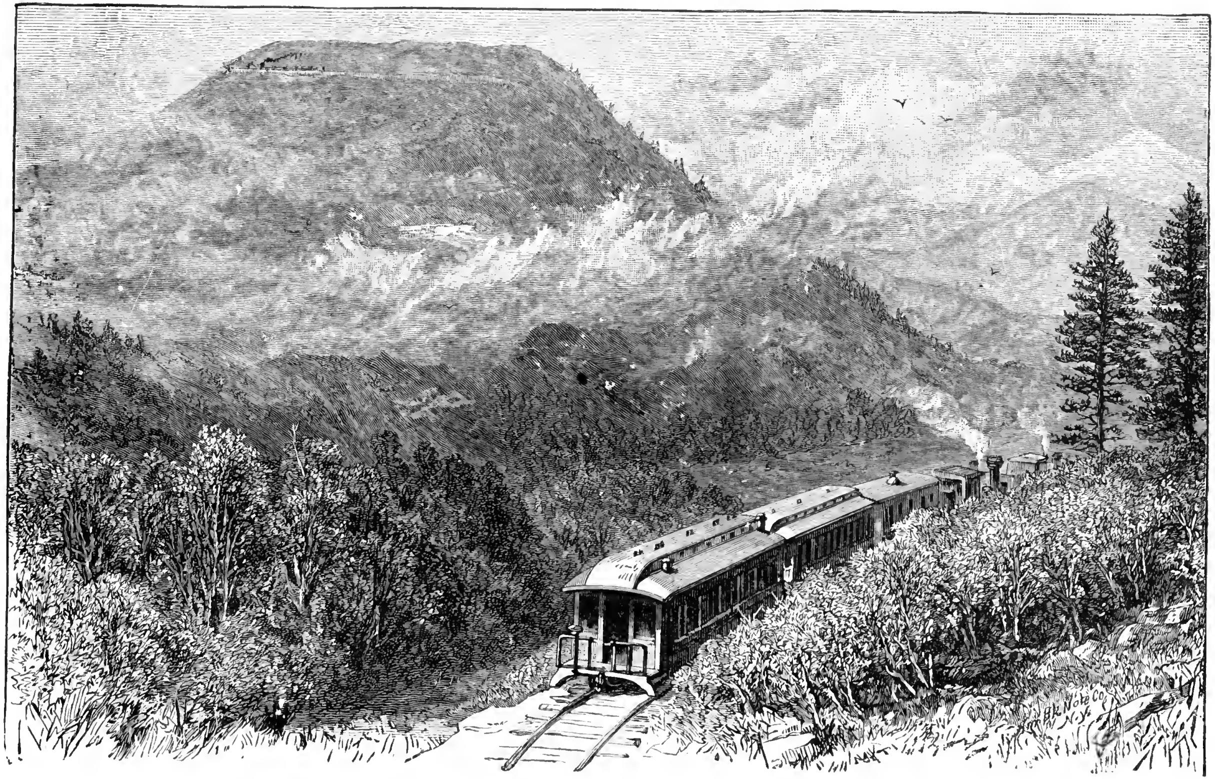
BLACK CAÑON OF THE GUNNISON.


Matthews-Northrup Co.
Buffalo, N.Y.

THE PALISADES, WEST OF ALPINE TUNNEL.



PALACE BUTTE.


Bk.Note Co.
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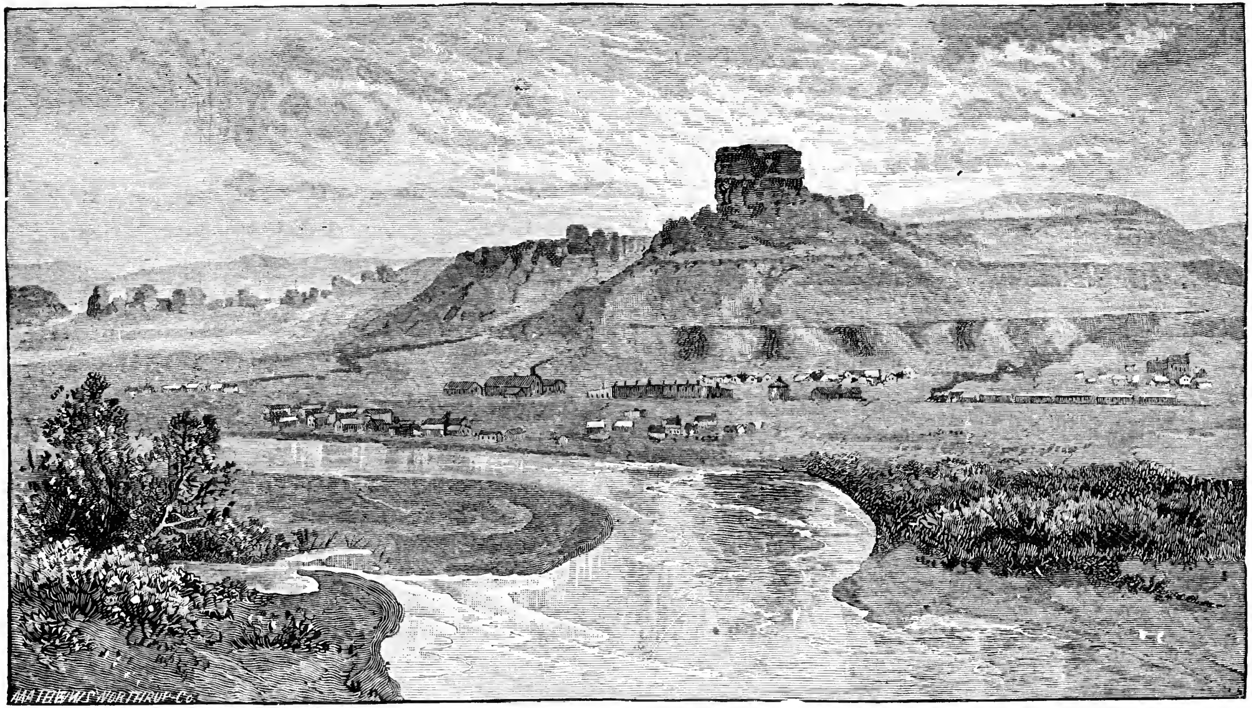
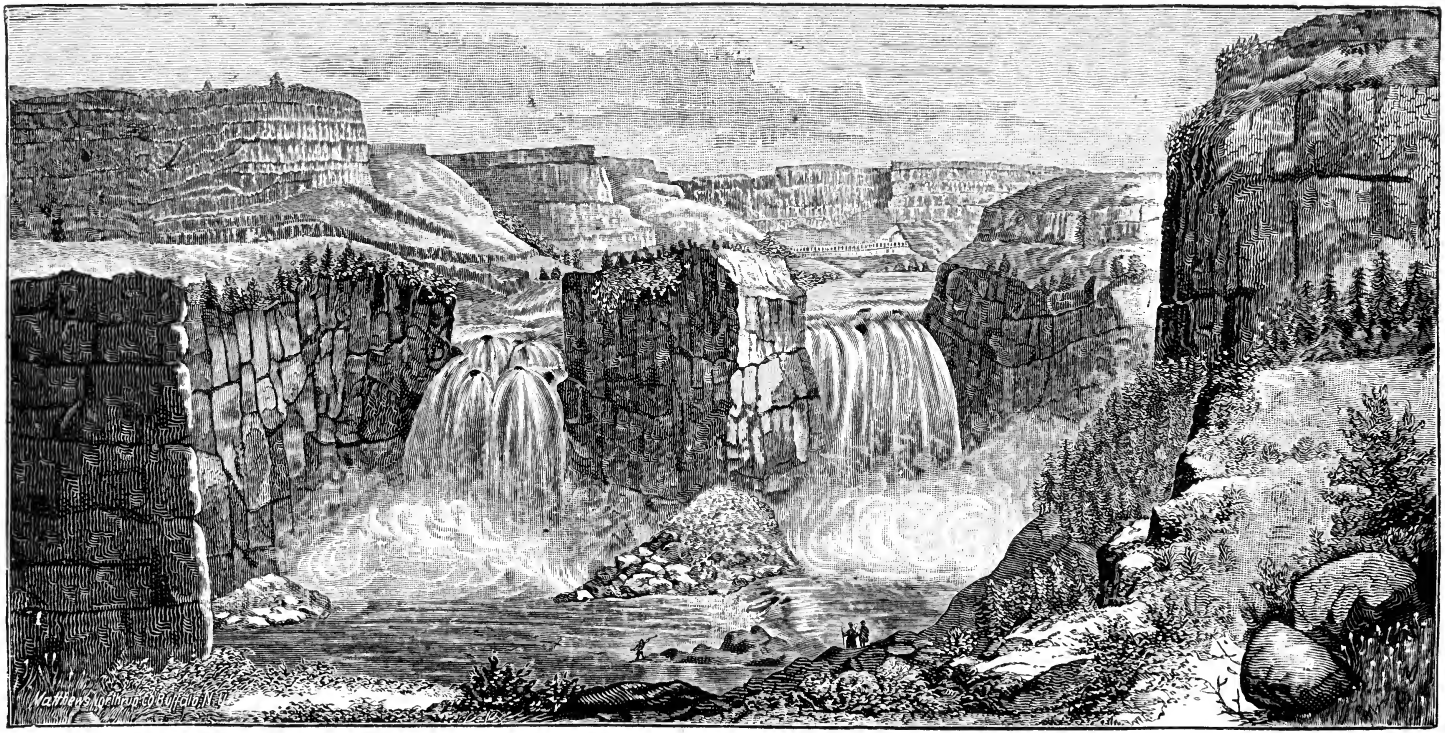
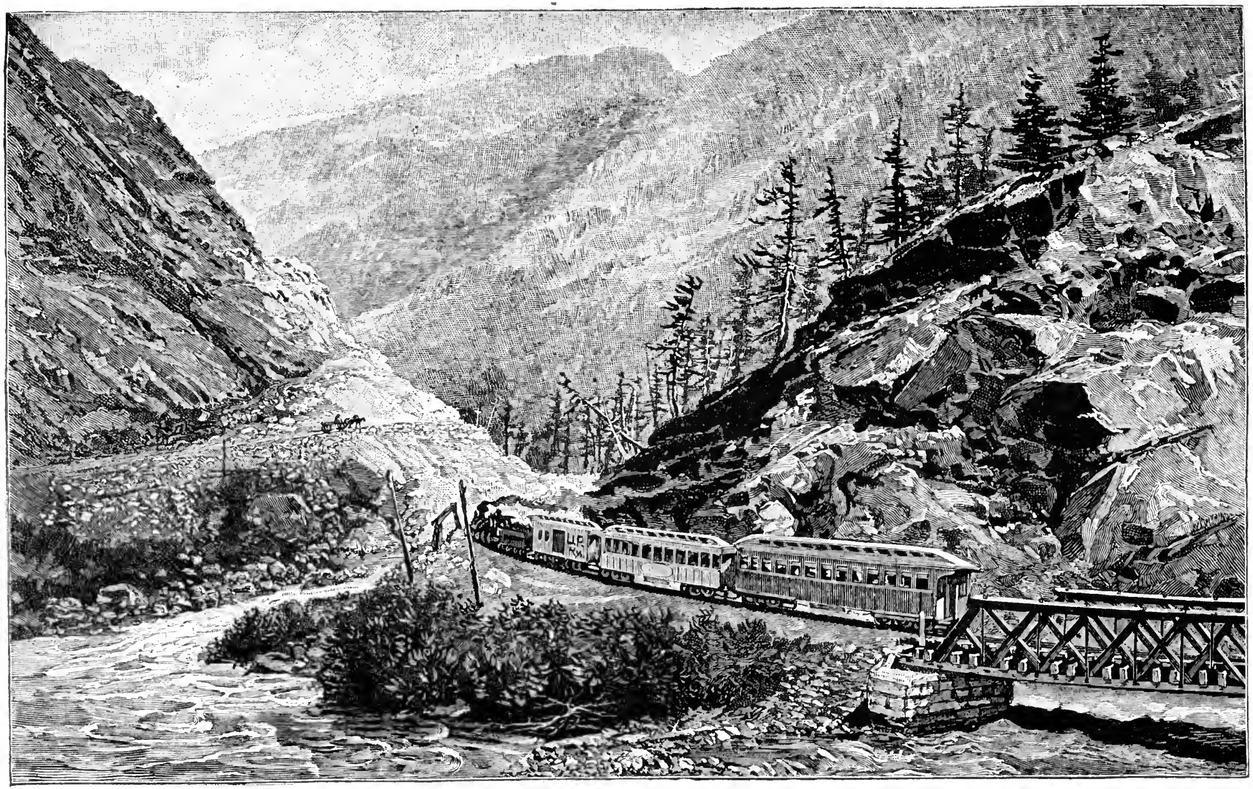
VETA PASS.


MATTHEWS NORTHRUP-Co.

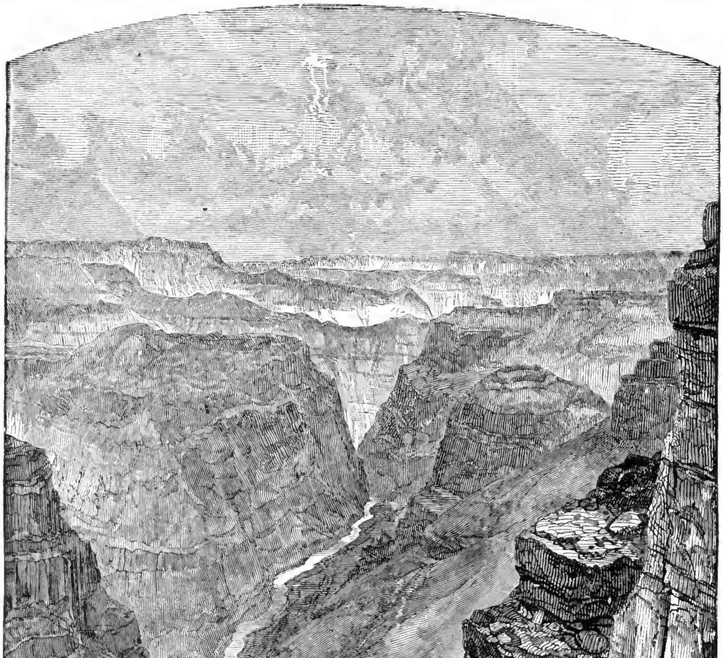
GREEN RIVER CITY AND BUTTES.


Matthews Northrup Co Buffalo N.Y.

GREAT SHOSHONE FALLS.



ENTERING BOULDER CAÑON, COLORADO, BY UNION PACIFIC RAILROAD.

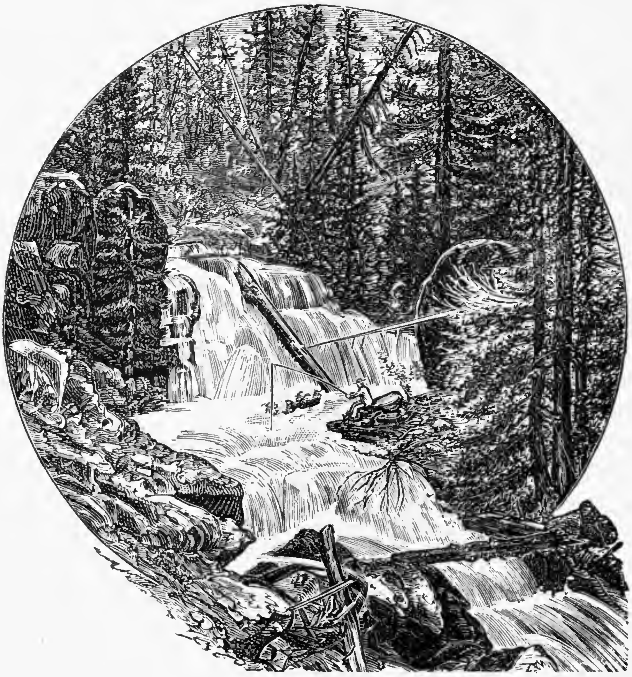


GRAND CAÑON. FROM TO-RO-WASP.

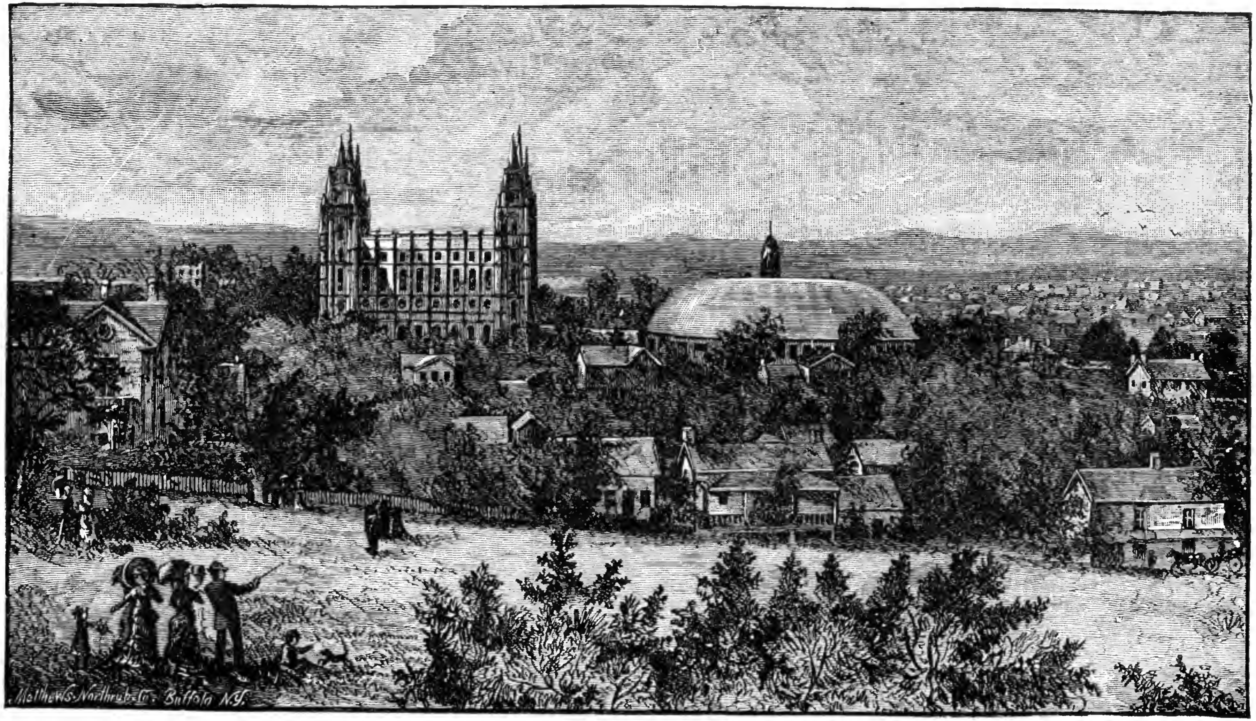
The foregoing sketches and accompanying illustrations of the striking wonders and magnificent natural scenery of the Rocky Mountains should inspire every reader, particularly every American, with an ardent desire to make a tour through this far-famed and really marvellous region.

UTAH AND THE GREAT SALT LAKE

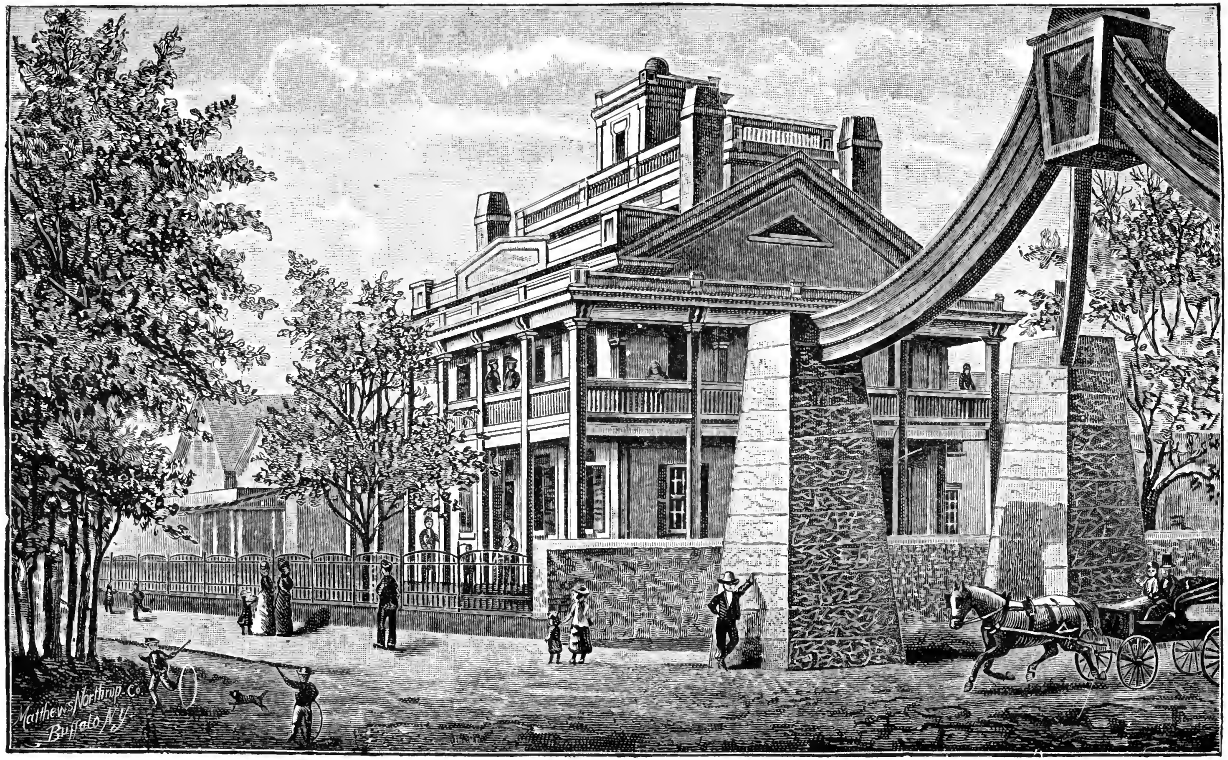
THE Territory of Utah is more widely known in foreign lands, and is probably the centre of a deeper interest at home, than any other Territory in the United States. This interest is largely due to the peculiar views and methods of life of a large portion of its inhabitants. But aside from its singular social and political condition, the tourist to this region will find many attractions.


DEAD MAN'S FALLS. LITTLE COTTONWOOD CAÑON, UTAH.

The Rocky Mountain range lies away to the east, the Sierra Nevada to the west, while the Wasatch Range passes through the Territory from north to south. There are many elevated peaks, some of them rising to a height of 13,000 feet, and several mountain chains distinct from and having a less elevation than the Wasatch. The plateaus vary greatly in the quality of their soil, some of them being entirely barren, while others are very productive. Rivers abound, and several cañons from 2,000 to 5,000 feet in depth are found. To a great extent it is a wild country. Game abounds and less desirable animals, as the bear, panther, wolf, and California lion, are numerous in some portions of the Territory. There are very sharp contrasts in scenery, in climate, in so-


Matthews-Northrup-Co. Buffalo N.Y.

SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH.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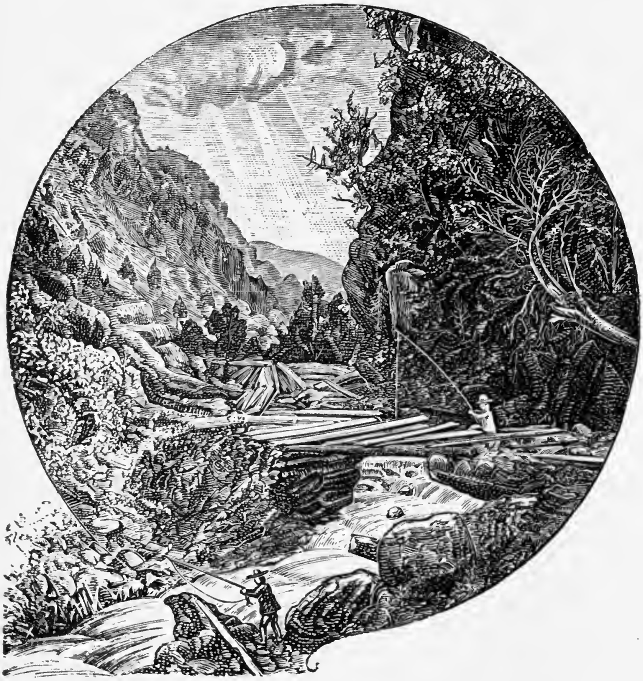
Buffalo N.Y.

WHERE BRIGHAM YOUNG LIVED.

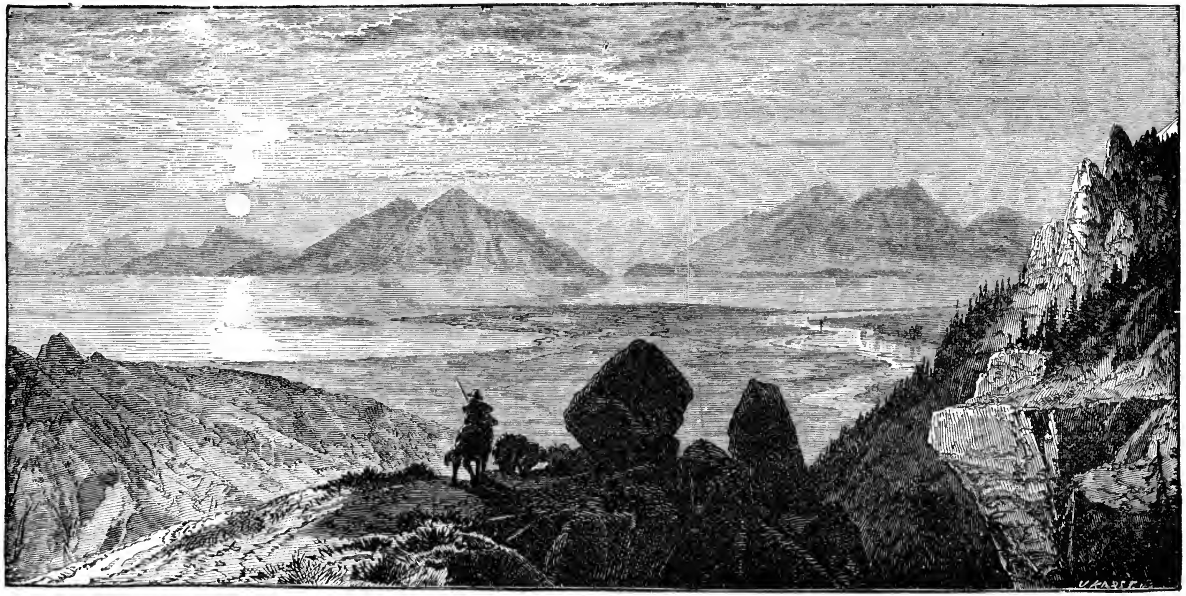
ciety—in fact, in everything pertaining either to the natural conditions or to the character of the civilization of the region.

The tourist who enters Utah will certainly want to visit a few of the natural curiosities of the section and also the seat of the Mormon power at Salt Lake City. Many of the former will be seen on his trip to this remarkable city, and numerous others will come into view as he continues his journey. The time will prove too limited to enable him to see all the wonders and curiosities which the region presents, but he should not fail to visit the Great Salt Lake and the famous Salt Lake City. The latter is reached by the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad, by the Utah Central, branching from the Union Pacific at Ogden, thirty-six miles distant, and by various other lines.



NEAR HIGH BRIDGE, AMERICAN FORK CAÑON, UTAH.

The city need not be described at length in this connection. Perhaps it is hardly necessary, but it may be well to remind the tourist that he should take a look at the house long occupied by Brigham Young, a man whose zeal and skill in the management of a great social and religious organization wrought wonderful results. It is a neat and not at all a pretentious structure, pleasantly located and with very pretty surroundings. The Tabernacle and the Temple will, of course, be visited. In looking over that portion of the community which holds the doctrines promulgated by Young and his predecessors the visitor will find on every hand evidences of energy, industry, thrift, and general prosperity. The devotion of the people to the church and to the distinctive principles of their belief is remarkably strong and is well worthy of imitation, while the progress and development of the theory and the practical results of their system furnish a



GREAT SALT LAKE.

wide and fruitful field of inquiry for the student of sociology, as well as an interesting subject of thought for every intelligent person.

The Great Salt Lake, on the main line of the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad, is one of the marvellous natural features in this region of wonders and surprises. Lying in the great Fremont Basin at the foot of the Wasatch Mountains and eleven miles from Salt Lake City, it is easily reached and the trip, in open cars, is very pleasant.

In marked contrast with most of the lakes thus far described, the shores are destitute of trees. As the soil contains a large proportion of salt, and as fresh water cannot be obtained, it seems to be impossible to secure their growth. But while the shores are not as inviting as those of many other lakes, the fact is almost forgotten when one looks upon the beautiful and brilliant surface and then gazes upon the mighty mountain peaks which, at no great distance, stand as silent and tireless sentinels on every hand.

As the name indicates, the water of this lake is strongly impregnated with salt. It also contains, in small proportions, the sulphates of soda and potash, chloride of magnesium, and sulphate of lime. Consequently, it is very dense and extremely bitter. Swimming is somewhat difficult on account of the density of the water, but it is perfectly easy to float upon it for an indefinite time. On account of the mineral matters which it contains, great care must be taken not to swallow the water. Neglect of this precaution will make the throat and lungs very sore, and if any considerable quantity of the fluid is swallowed the consequences are likely to be serious, and may possibly prove fatal.

The density of the water is about the same as that of the Dead Sea. While no animal life is found in the latter, it is, in certain forms, quite abundant in the Great Salt Lake. An effort has recently been made by the United States Fish Commissioners to introduce food-fishes, but it is uncertain as yet whether it will be successful. As the water contains more than twenty per cent of common salt, this lake is likely to become one of the chief sources of supply of this important article to the whole western region. Already, by the primitive method of merely inclosing the water in small arms of the lake and allowing the process of evaporation to remove the liquid portion, thousands of tons of a very fair quality of salt are obtained every year. With improved methods vast quantities might be easily and profitably secured.

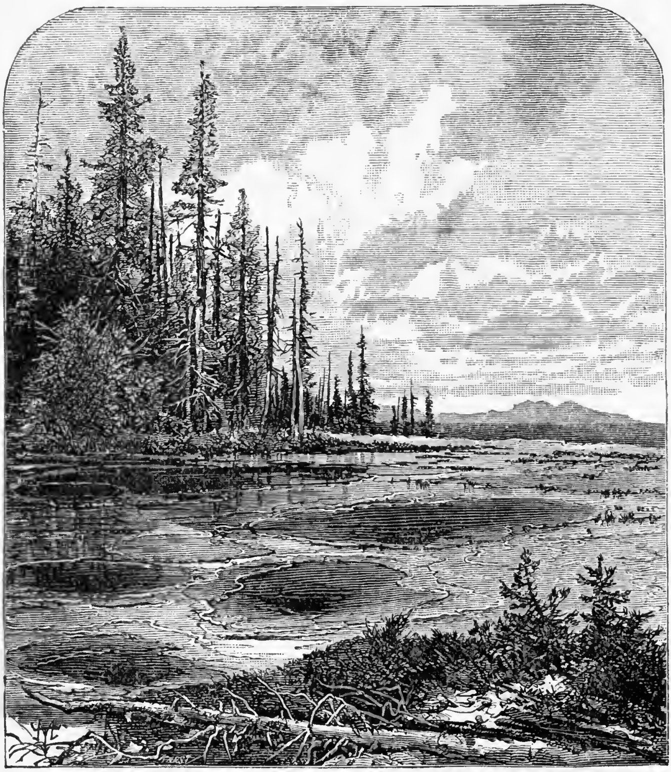
The area of the lake is about 2,000 square miles. It is seventy miles in length and more than forty miles in breadth, and lies more than 4,000 feet above the sea level. The depth of the water varies from ten feet in some portions to fifty or sixty feet in others, and is thought to be steadily increasing. It has a large number of rocky islands. A few of them are of considerable size and are used for sheep and cattle pastures. At the upper part of the lake, gulls and pelicans breed in large numbers. A line of steamers runs to and from various points on the shores and is liberally patronized by tourists.

If not closely pressed for time, the tourist will hardly fail to visit the magnificent cañons for which this Territory is famed. And even if his visit must be hurried and his stay limited, it will pay him well to make a brief stop at one or two of the leading gorges. Here he will see nature in beauty, glory, and majesty combined. And whether his call is brief or is extended to many days, he will enjoy himself greatly while there, and will leave the vicinity with sincere regret.

YELLOWSTONE NATIONAL PARK.

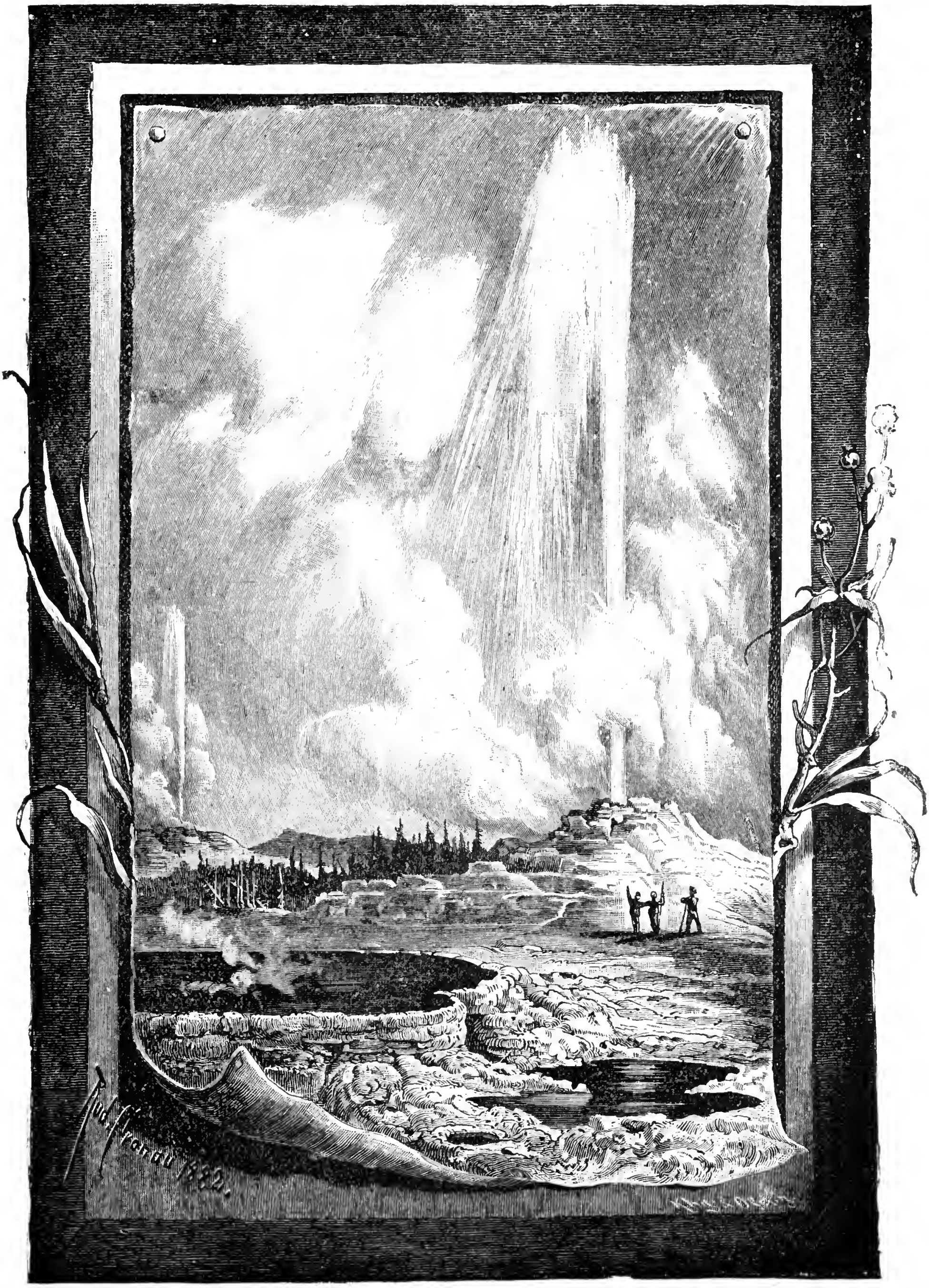
SOME portions of the wonderful region of the Yellowstone were visited by a few travellers previous to 1863, but the reports which they made were so wonderful that they were generally disbelieved. During the next few years other visitors returned with equally marvellous tales. But it was not until 1870 that any organized expedition was attempted and not until the following year that a scientific exploration of the region was made. Upon the return of the latter expedition Prof. F. V. Hayden, who had directed its work, made an interesting report of the discoveries which had been made. In this report the facts were set forth that the region explored contained little mineral wealth, that on account of the low temperature in summer and the extreme cold of winter, the land would be useless for agricultural purposes and stock raising, and that because of its high altitude it was unfit for permanent settlement. It was further stated that because of the numerous and magnificent natural wonders which it contained the region should be withdrawn from private use and occupancy and reserved as a national park for the people at large. In February, 1872, the United States Congress passed an act by which the region which had been specified in the report was set apart "as a public park or pleasuring-ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people." This reservation is known as the Yellowstone National Park.

The Park is very nearly in the form of a rectangle. It measures 61.8 miles in length, from north to south, and 53.6 miles in width. Its area is 3,312 square miles and its average elevation above the sea is more than one and a half miles. Most of this reservation is located in Wyoming, but the northern portion, for a width of about two miles, lies in Montana. The extreme western portion, for a width of about five miles, lies in Montana and Idaho. A number of mountain peaks rise to a height of 11,000 feet above the sea, and the average elevation of the various ranges is from 9,000 to 10,000 feet. Many streams of moderate size flow upon the elevated plateau, some 8,000 feet above the sea, but the large rivers flow in deep gorges rent through the mountain chains by some terrific convulsion of Nature, or worn by the ceaseless flow of the water during countless ages of time.



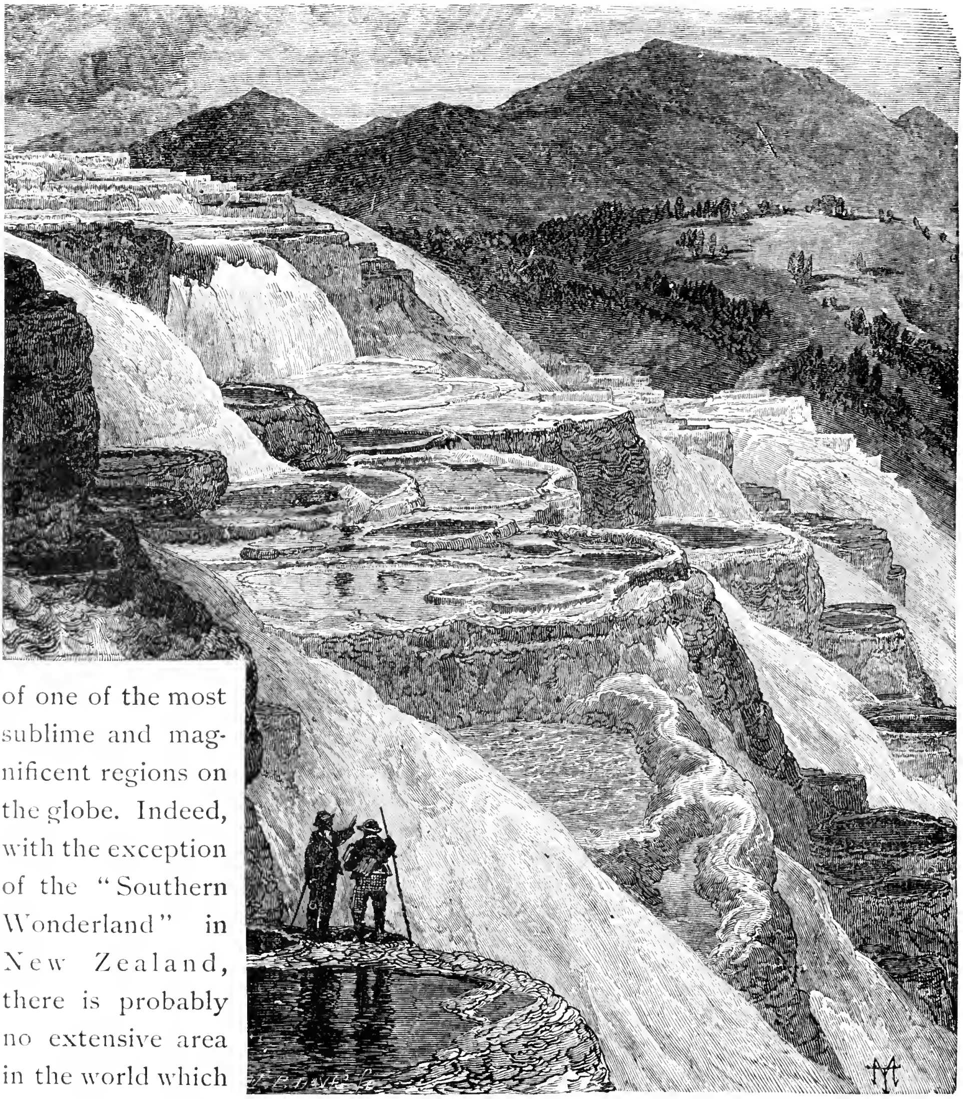
HOT SPRINGS, EDGE OF YELLOWSTONE PARK.

The completion of the Northern Pacific Railroad in 1883 made a more direct railroad route to the National Park than had before existed, and it has been well patronized, though the Union Pacific road seems to have lost none of its custom or its popularity. The former road passes through Livingston, Montana. From this point a branch line, of the standard gauge, has been built to Cinnabar, in the same State, a distance of fifty-one miles. This

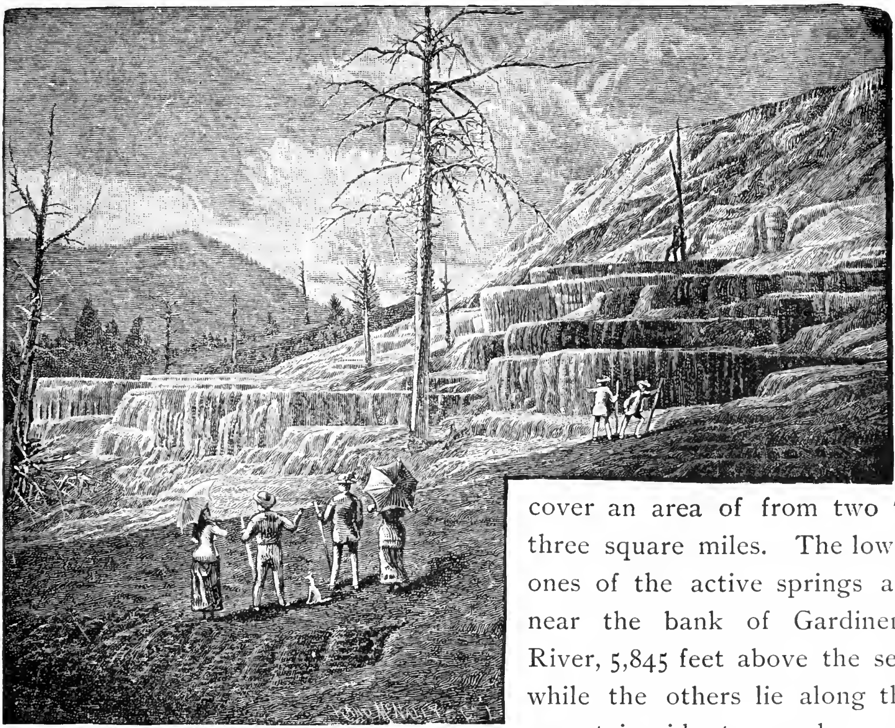

Rud. Cronau 1882.

THE "GIANT" GEYSER.

is only about six miles from the Yellowstone National Park Hotel located at the Mammoth Hot Springs. Between these places travellers are conveyed by coaches. On arriving at the hotel they find themselves in a wonderful portion of one of the most sublime and magnificent regions on the globe. Indeed, with the exception of the "Southern Wonderland" in New Zealand, there is probably no extensive area in the world which can be fairly compared with this famous Park, which has been aptly termed the "Northern Wonderland."

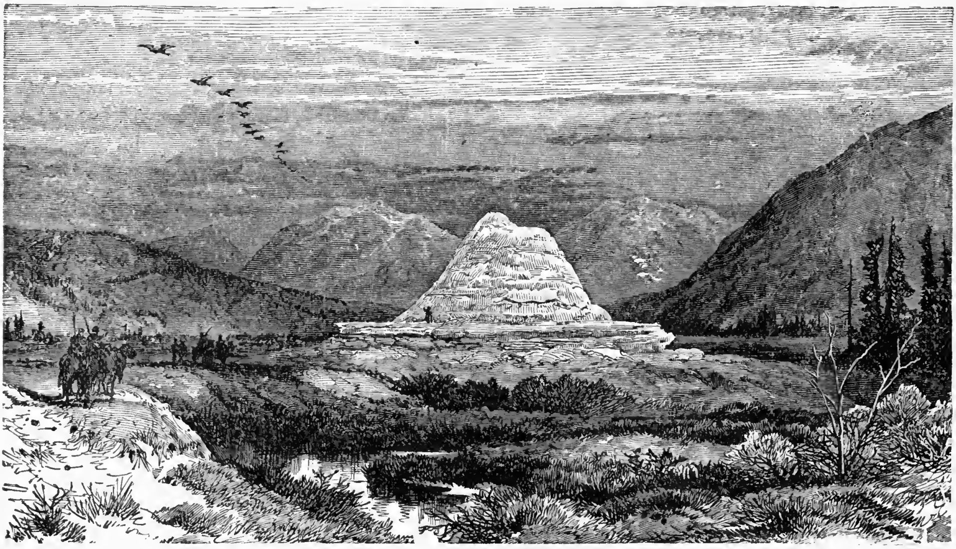

MAMMOTH HOT SPRINGS, YELLOWSTONE PARK.

The Mammoth Hot Springs are located at the northern edge, and in the western portion of the Park. In point of grandeur they are said to be unequalled in the world. The famous springs in New Zealand, and the still more widely-known geysers of Iceland, are far inferior in various respects, as well as very different in the character of the material which they deposit. Many of the springs are now inactive, some are exhibiting a marked decline in power, while a large number show no signs of failure. There are abundant evidences of great volcanic activity at a geological period not very far removed. The deposits from these springs are of a calcareous nature and cover an area of from two to three square miles. The lower ones of the active springs are near the bank of Gardiner's River, 5,845 feet above the sea, while the others lie along the mountain side to nearly 1,000 feet greater elevation. Thus the whole side of the mountain is covered with semicircular basins, with their edges raised from a few inches to eight feet in height, on which in bead-work form is a wealth of most beautiful tracery. The background is white as snow, and the adornments are traced in almost numberless colors and shades. These basins are from a few inches to several feet in diameter. The water flowing from a spring at the top down the side of the mountain passes from one basin to another, gradually parting with its heat and depositing the calcareous matter which it contains. Near the top of the ridge the largest of the active springs in this locality is found. It is near the edge



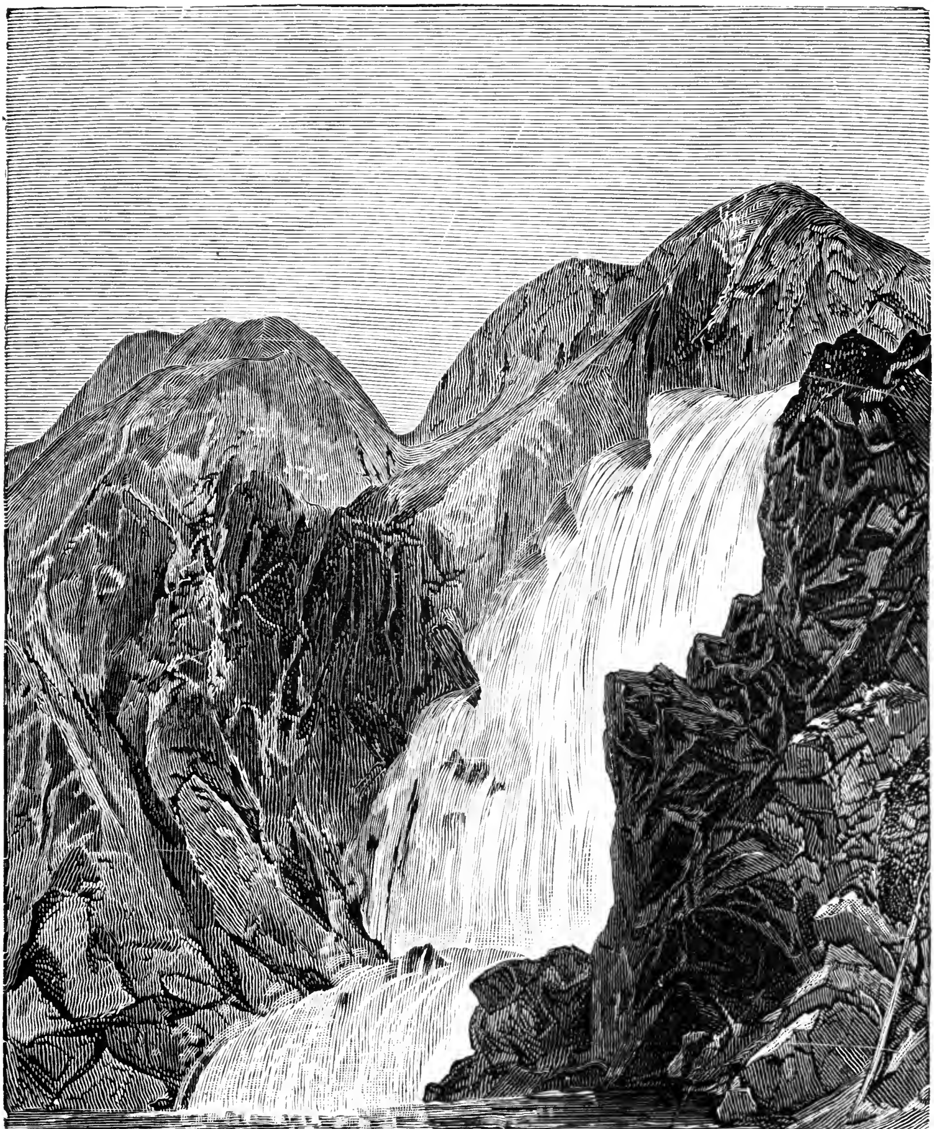
PULPIT TERRACE, MAMMOTH HOT SPRINGS.

of a broad terrace upon which are the ruins of a large number of basins. The spring measures twenty-five by forty feet across the top. Its water is so transparent that the bottom of the basin can be clearly seen and the sides show the most beautiful ornamentation with calcareous deposits in an almost infinite variety of forms and numerous and diverse tints and colors. The ebullition of the springs in this neighborhood is continuous, but compared with that of many of those in other parts of the Park is slight in degree. The water here rises only a few inches above the surface. But the basins make up in beauty all that the springs lack in power. The dead springs, which are quite numerous, are also of great interest. One, called the "Liberty Cap," from the form of its cone, is forty-two feet high and at its base is about thirty feet in diameter. Within the limits of the Park there are from 5,000 to 10,000 hot springs. In the region noted, the temperature of the springs is from 160° to 170°. At this elevation water boils at 198° to 199°.



CRATER OF EXTINCT GEYSER.

The Geysers, or Spouting Springs, are even more wonderful than the hot springs which have been described. A large proportion of them are found in the vicinity of the Fire-Hole River, where they are divided into two groups and cover an area of some thirty square miles. The deposit from the waters of these springs is white, but differs from that of the other springs in that it is composed of silica instead of calcareous matter. In the lower group is a spring from which the water rises to a height of sixty feet and many other

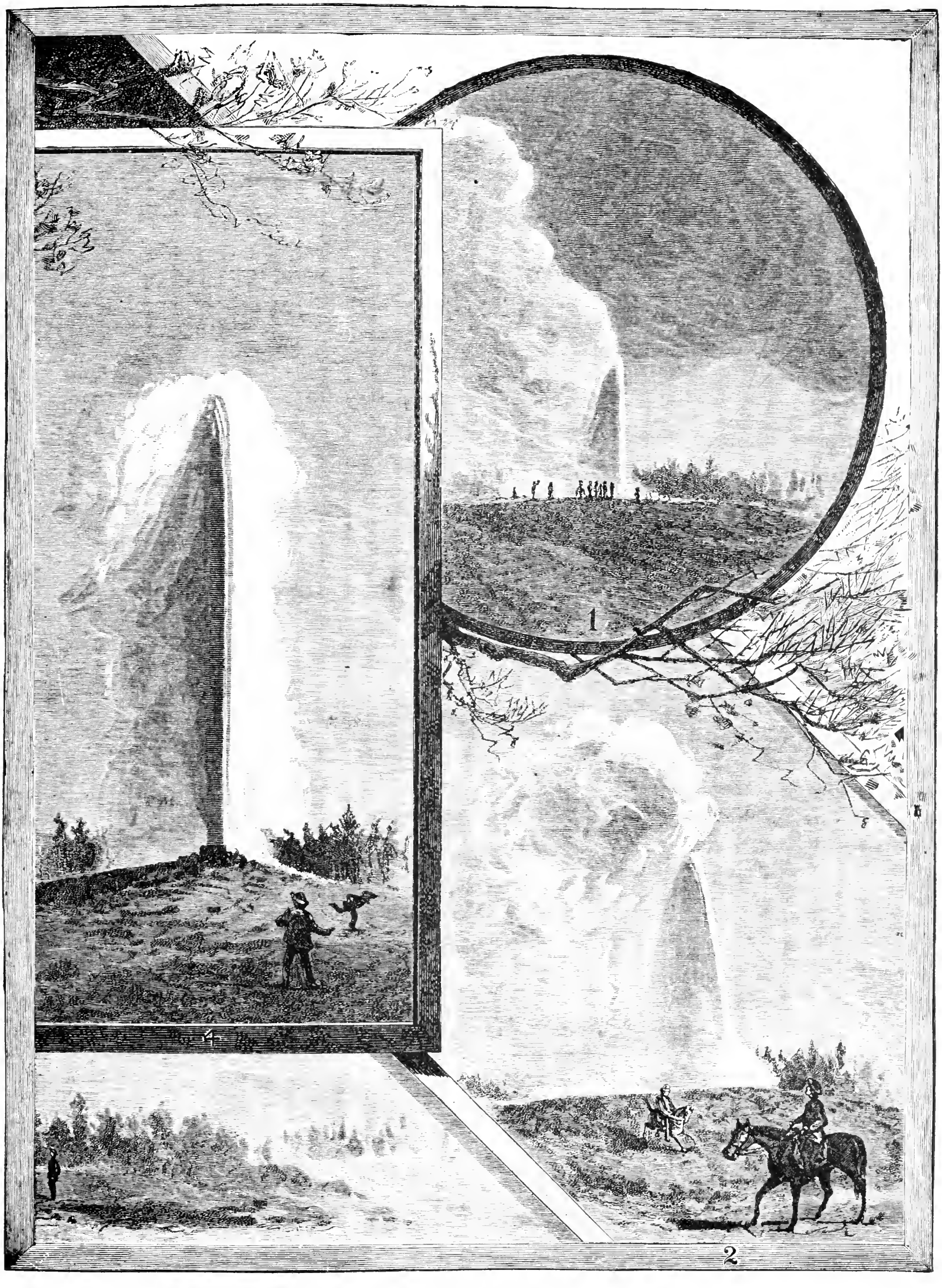


UPPER YELLOW-STONE FALLS.

springs of less power. The boiling springs in this vicinity number nearly 700. Between this and the upper group are the Half-way Springs, one of which has a diameter of 250 feet with walls nearly twenty feet high. The water from this immense caldron constantly overflows, and the air is filled with steam which rises from its surface. Near by is the Excelsior Geyser, which is intermittent, but at the time of its outbreaks is very powerful.

The upper group, located in what is known as the Great Geyser Basin, ranks as the most powerful and magnificent collection of spouting springs in the world. It occupies a strip of land on the river banks, varying in width from half a mile to a mile, and extending several miles in length. The total area occupied by the group is about three square miles. It contains more than 400 boiling springs and numerous springs of lower temperature and less activity. Of these springs twenty-six are large and powerful geysers.

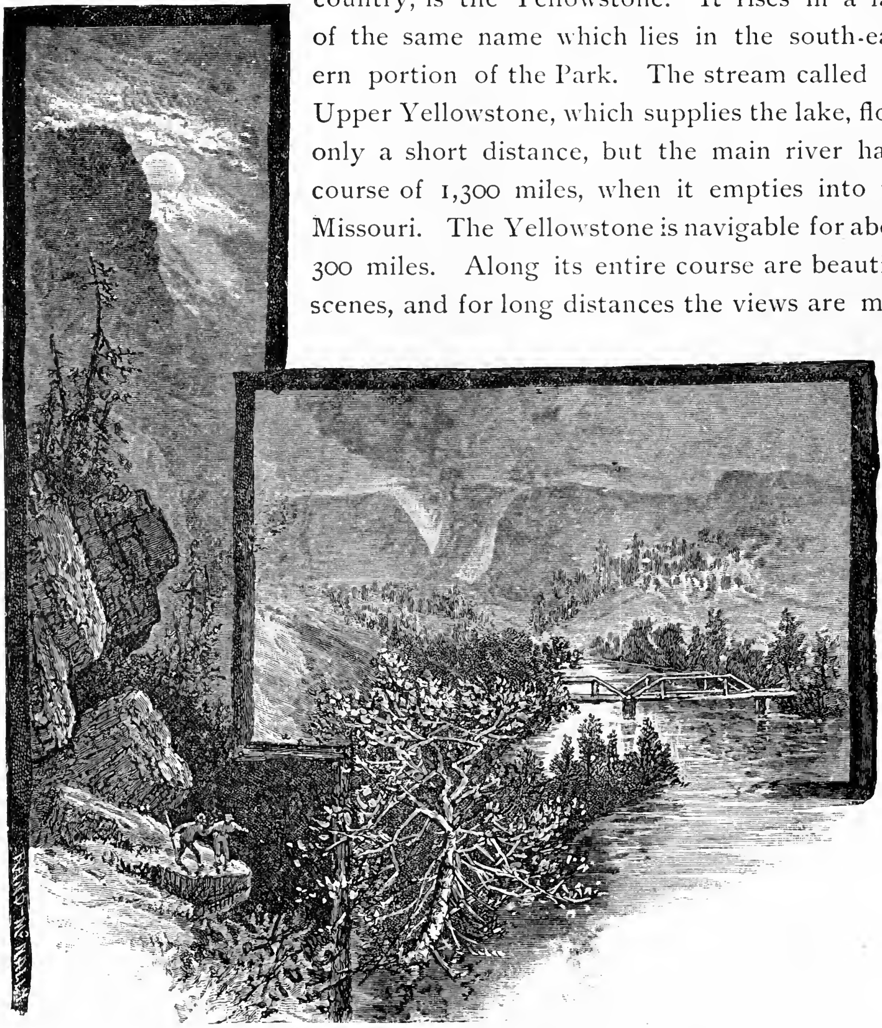
The Giant Geyser has a crater about ten feet in height, but one side has been broken down. The water is thrown from an orifice about five feet in diameter to a height of from 150 to 200 feet. Its eruptions occur at distant and irregular intervals and but few have been noted. The Castle Geyser is also very powerful, sometimes throwing a column of water more than 200 feet high and continuing in action more than a quarter of an hour. Near by is the famous hot spring called Circe's Boudoir. The basin is as white as marble, while the water is of an intensely blue color, and perfectly transparent. The Giantess is a strong geyser with irregular but remarkably powerful action. The basin is twenty-three by thirty-two feet and an immense volume of water is thrown from 60 to 200 feet in the air. The Grand Geyser differs from most of the others in having a depressed instead of an elevated basin. The orifice is four feet by two feet. An eruption occurs every twenty-four hours and the column of water is sometimes thrown to a height of 250 feet. The geyser which attracts the most attention is probably Old Faithful, which stands at the head of the valley and received its name from the regularity of its eruptions, which occur about once an hour. A column of water about six feet in diameter is thrown from 100 to 150 feet in the air. The period of activity is about five minutes. There are also many other interesting and important geysers in this vicinity, and several large groups in other portions of the Park, including a very beautiful collection near Shoshone Lake. Closely allied to them is the celebrated Mud Volcano, the most powerful of a large number of mud springs which appear near the Yellowstone River. The crater of this peculiar volcano is about twenty-five



VIEWS OF "OLD FAITHFUL" GEYSER.

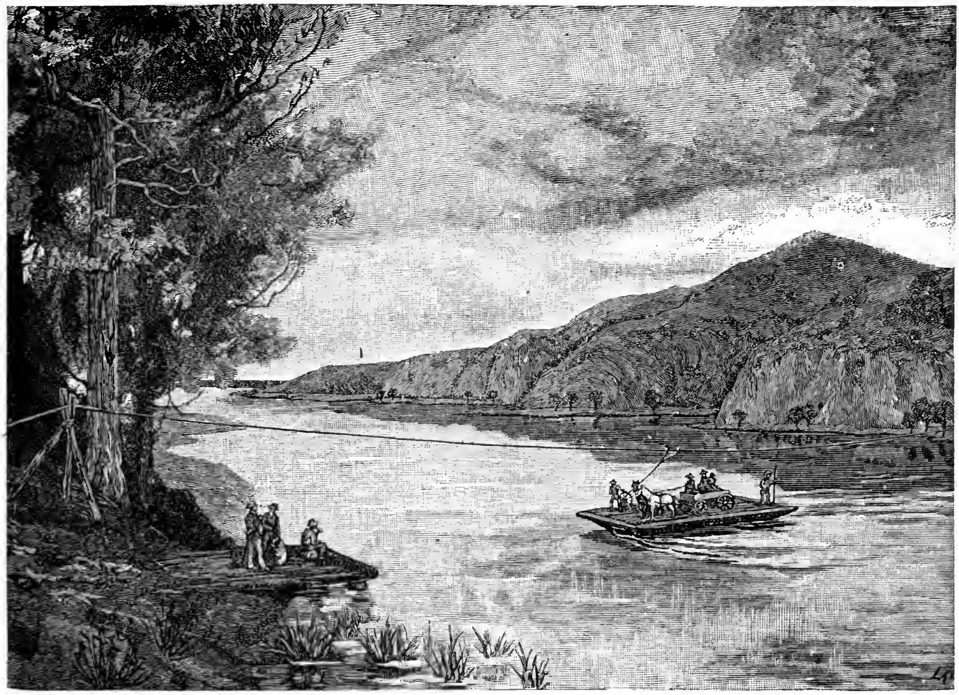
feet across. From the boiling mud, lying some thirty feet below the surface, dense clouds of steam constantly ascend. Occasionally there is a violent outburst and large quantities of mud are thrown high in the air.

The largest river in the domain, and one of the most remarkable in the country, is the Yellowstone. It rises in a lake of the same name which lies in the south-eastern portion of the Park. The stream called the Upper Yellowstone, which supplies the lake, flows only a short distance, but the main river has a course of 1,300 miles, when it empties into the Missouri. The Yellowstone is navigable for about 300 miles. Along its entire course are beautiful scenes, and for long distances the views are magnificent beyond description. The falls and the Grand Cañon easily rank among the sublimest scenes of the world.



YELLOWSTONE RIVER, NATIONAL PARK.

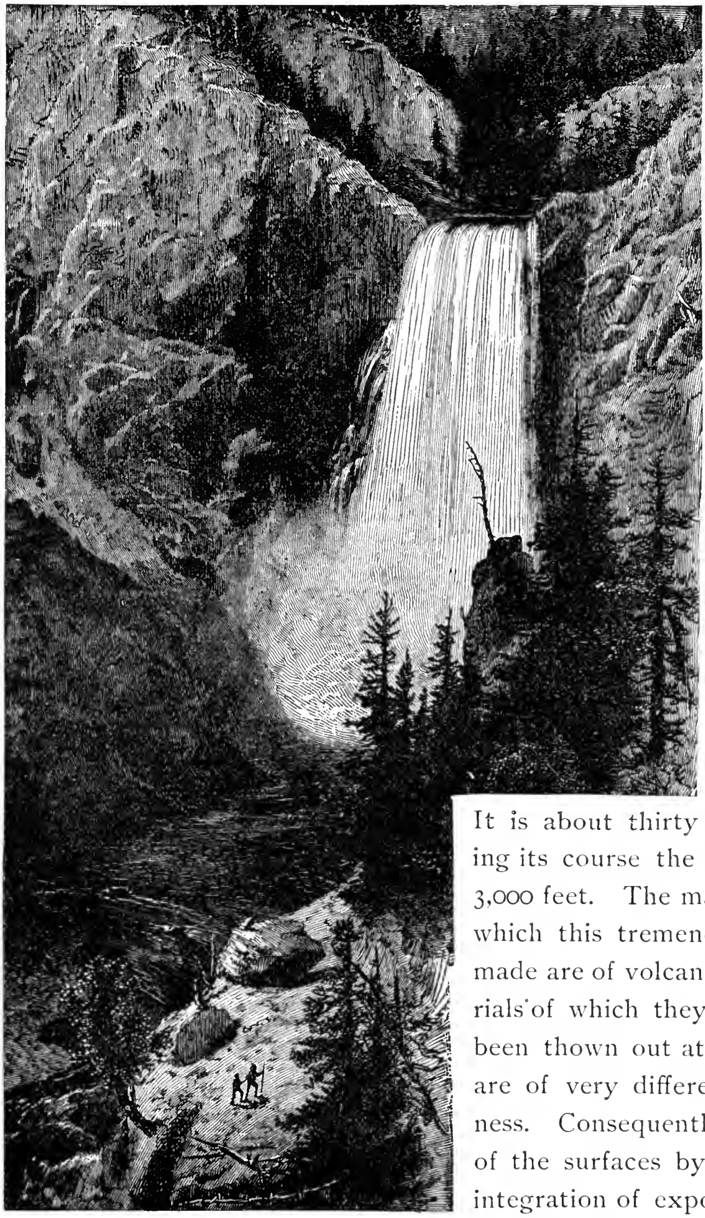
The famous falls of the Yellowstone are some fifteen miles below the lake. The river is about 150 feet wide at this point and flows quietly through a beautiful valley until it almost reaches the brink of a precipice, down which it drops 112 feet. This cataract is known as the Upper Falls, and is remarkably beautiful. But the Lower Falls, a quarter of a mile beyond, are far more majestic. Between these falls the river becomes much wider and flows rapidly over a rocky bed until near the Lower Falls, when the channel is contracted and the water makes a terrific plunge of more than 300 feet. Although the body of water is much smaller and there is far less of the grand and overpowering in the scene, these falls are said, in point of beauty, to greatly surpass those of Niagara. The foot of the falls is always covered with a heavy mist and the massive wall at the west is clothed with green and luxuriant vegetation for its entire height.



FERRY ON THE YELLOWSTONE RIVER.

The Yellowstone Lake is a beautiful, and in point of outline, a very peculiar sheet of water. It is about twenty-two miles in length by twelve or fifteen miles in width and lies 7,738 feet above the sea level. With the exception of two in South America, and two in Asia, no other lake of equal size is known to lie at so great an altitude. At a short distance from the lake, on the eastern side, are mountains whose tops are covered with perpetual snow.

The water of the lake is clear and cold, and in some places is 300 feet in depth. On account of its great irregularity, having many projections and indentations, this lake has a shore line of more than 300 miles. There are many springs in the vicinity, and in some portions dense forests of pine appear.


FALLS OF THE YELLOWSTONE.

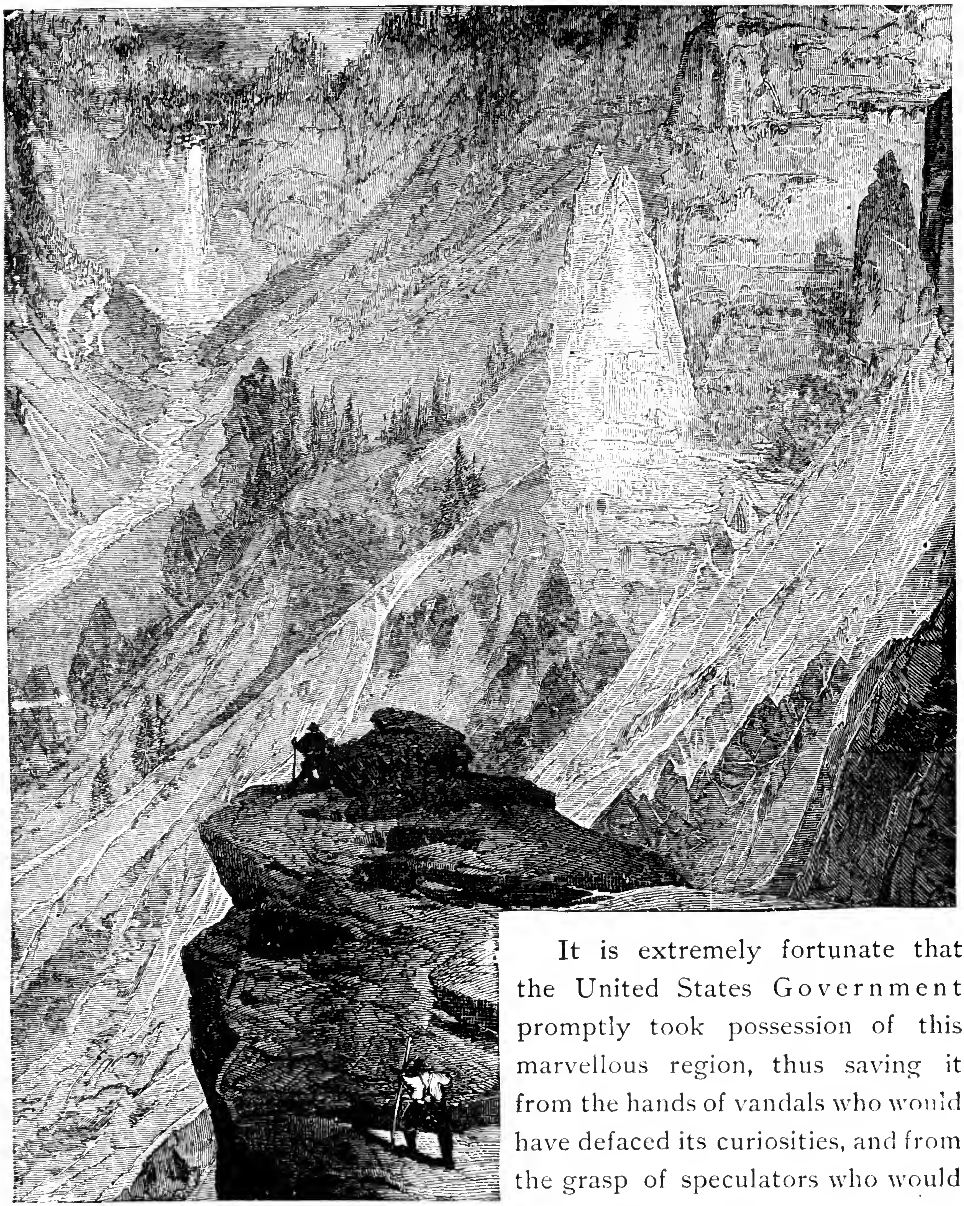
The Grand Cañon furnishes some of the sublimest scenery of the continent. Though not equal in dimensions to that of Colorado, it is not surpassed in grandeur by that magnificent gorge, and in some respects is not equalled by its greatest rival. It is about thirty miles long, and during its course the river descends some 3,000 feet. The massive rocks through which this tremendous cleft has been made are of volcanic origin. The materials of which they are composed have been thown out at various periods and are of very different degrees of hardness. Consequently, the wearing away of the surfaces by water, and the disintegration of exposed portions by the action of frost and wind, sunshine and storm, has been very irregular, and has left innumerable points and pinnacles, and many fantastic forms and outlines. Yet in some portions vast pillars which remain are so regular in their form and so perfect in their proportions, that were it not for their gigantic dimensions and brilliant hues, they would seem more like the work of some skilful human architect, than like the carvings of Nature.

But aside from their size these pillars far surpass the highest work of man. No human art could have given them their gorgeous coloring. Indeed, the whole chasm glows with an indescribable wealth of the richest colors blended with the softest shades. An able writer has said, "It is as though rainbows had fallen out of the sky and hung themselves there like glorious banners. . . . It is impossible that even the pen of an artist can tell it. What you would call, accustomed to the softer tints of nature, a great exaggeration, would be the utmost tameness compared with the reality. It is as though the most glorious sunset you ever saw had been caught and held upon that resplendent, awful gorge." The greatest artists admit that here are "the most brilliant colors that the human eye ever saw" and that the beauty of their tints is far beyond the skill of human art to attain. These magnificently colored walls of rock, rising almost perpendicularly to a height of from 800 to 1,200 feet, present a scene of grandeur and beauty combined which never has been, and never can be, adequately described.

At the lower portion of the Grand Cañon a stream called Tower Creek empties into the Yellowstone River. Its name is due to the fact that near the falls, for which it is also noted, are large numbers of massive columns. The falls are only about 200 yards from the junction of the creek with the river. The water has a direct fall of 156 feet, and the falls and their surroundings are remarkably beautiful and picturesque. The gigantic pillars rise from the foot of the falls to a height of fifty feet above the top of the precipice. There are also several rows of massive columns, arranged in regular order along the walls of the cañon only a short distance from the falls.

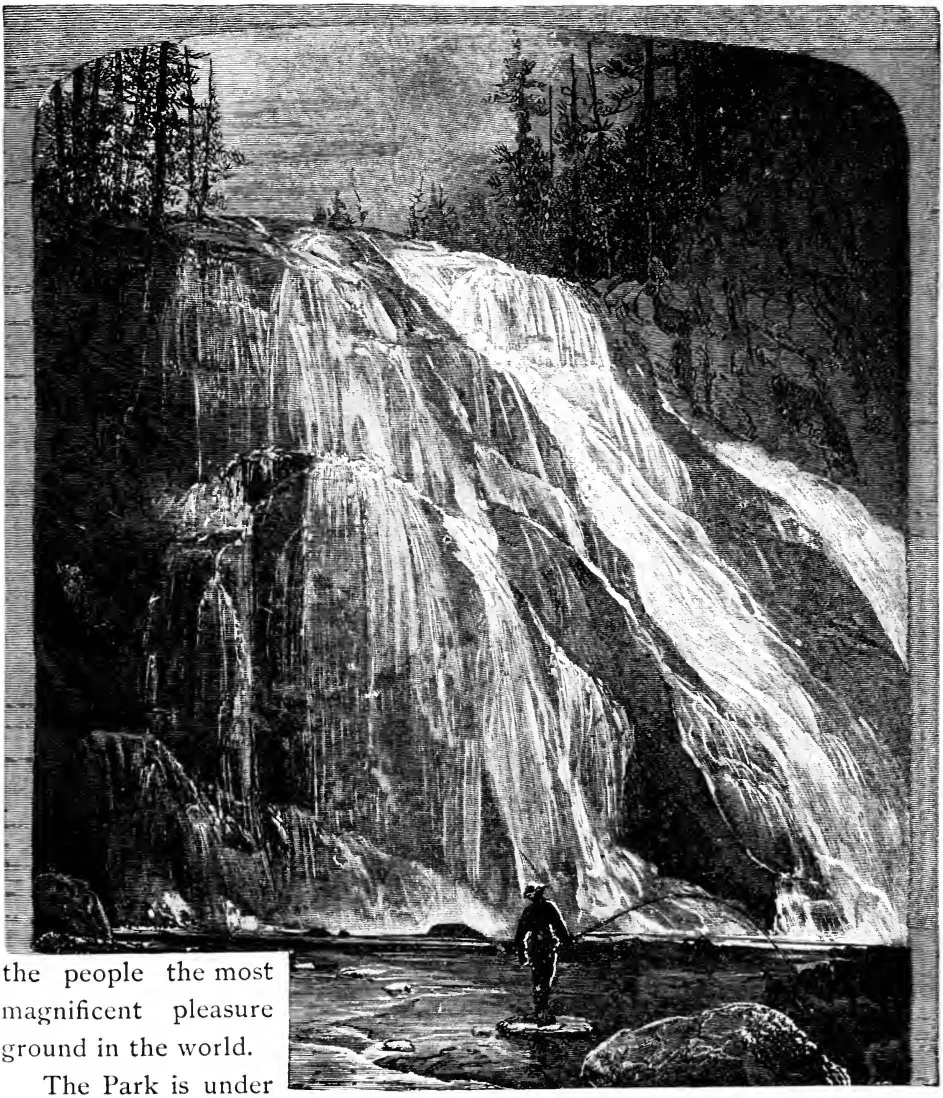
Among the other places of interest are the Gibbon Cañon and Falls, both remarkable for their beauty and grandeur. At the falls a considerable body of water plunges over a precipice 160 feet in height.

Only a few of the almost numberless attractions of the great National Park have been named. For anything approaching an exhaustive description volumes would be required. But enough has been said to show that it is a marvellous region both in the character and the profusion of its natural curiosities. Within its comparatively small area are to be found a larger number of hot springs and geysers than in all the remainder of the world, and it is doubtless within the limits of the truth to assert that "in its special range of phenomena it has no rival upon the earth."



CLIFF IN GRAND CAÑON OF THE YELLOWSTONE.

It is extremely fortunate that the United States Government promptly took possession of this marvellous region, thus saving it from the hands of vandals who would have defaced its curiosities, and from the grasp of speculators who would have charged enormous prices for permission to view its principal attractions. It is now the property of the people, held for their use, and free to all. It is also a matter for rejoicing that the Pacific Railroads have been completed and that thus a way of reaching the Park quickly, easily, and economically, has been provided. While the commercial benefits conferred by these roads are beyond computation, they are also rendering an invaluable service in making accessible to the people the most magnificent pleasure ground in the world.



FALLS OF THE GIBBON RIVER, NATIONAL PARK.

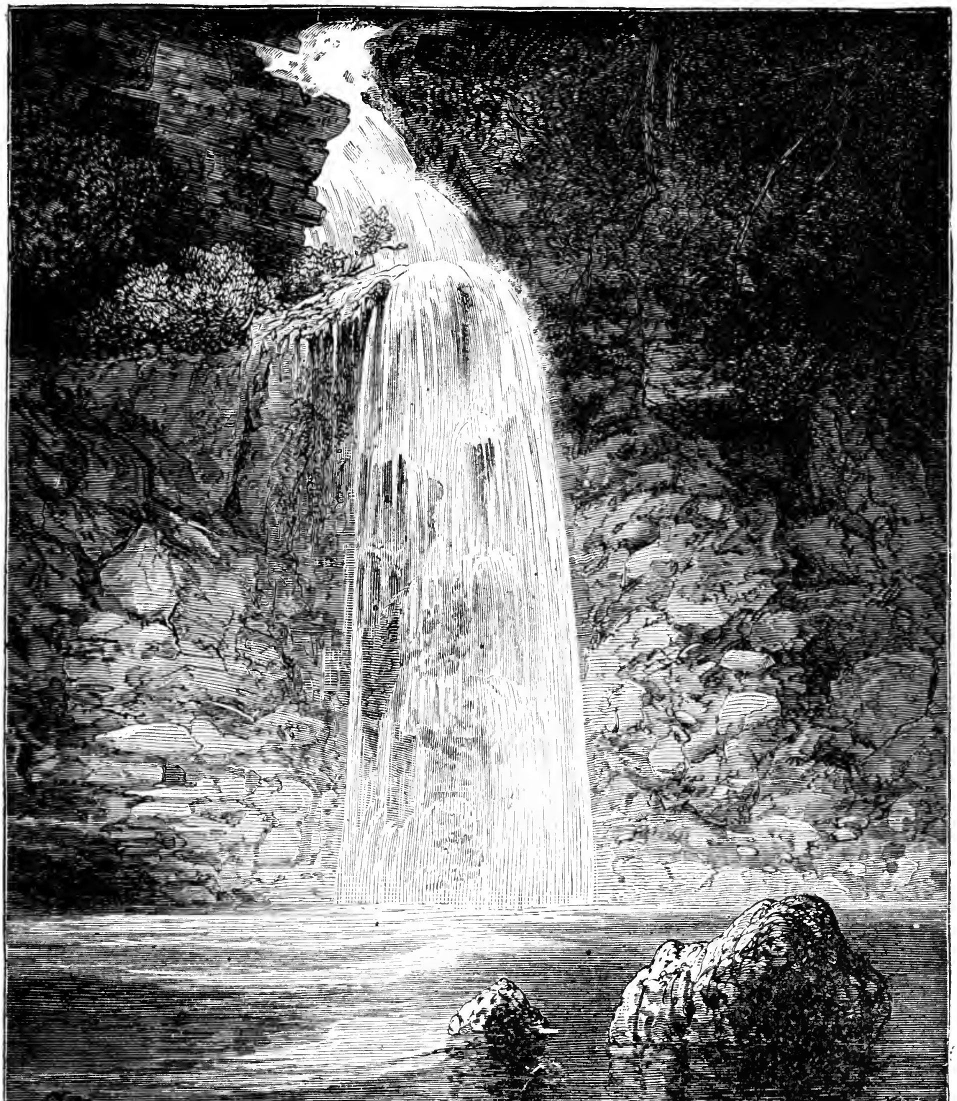
The Park is under governmental supervision. Leases of land for the erection of suitable buildings are issued where structures are required for the public accommodation, roads and bridle paths are constructed, and fish and game are preserved from wanton destruction.

For "camping out" no better place can be found, while for those who prefer a different mode of life, there are hotels which supply everything necessary for their accommodation and comfort. A trip to the Park involves much less expense than one to foreign lands; it has fewer annoyances, and gives grander scenes and sublimer views than can there be obtained. So, while a foreign trip is desirable, the wise tourist will form an acquaintance with the wonders of his native land before seeking the great, but still inferior, attractions of the beautiful countries across the sea.

THE YOSEMITE VALLEY.

THE famous Yosemite, which for scenic attractions is "matchless among the valleys of the world," is situated in Mariposa County, California. It lies west of the Sierra Nevada Mountains, and, measuring from north to south, in about the centre of the State. It is about 150 miles from San Francisco, but is reached from that city by a circuitous route of 220 miles. The direction is slightly south of east. It had long been the refuge of predatory bands of Indians, and was discovered, in 1851, by white men in pursuit of some of the plunderers of their settlements near the mining camps in the Mariposa region. From the report which these discovers gave of the wonders of the region, many people were induced to visit it, and in a few years it became a famous resort. In 1864 the Congress of the United States donated to the State of California this wonderful valley to be held as a place of public resort, and to be "inalienable for all time." The property is controlled by commissioners appointed by the governor of the State. They have power to lease portions of the valley and expend the money thus obtained in making desirable improvements and rendering the attractions more easily accessible. Private parties have also done a great deal in the way of building wagon roads and in making trails up some of the principal elevations in the vicinity. In 1886 a branch railroad, twenty-two miles in length, was opened from Berenda, on the Central Pacific line, to Raymond, from which point there is a stage line direct to the valley.

The Yosemite Valley is about six miles in length and from one-half mile to almost two miles in width. Its granite walls rise almost vertically to a height of from 3,000 to 6,000 feet. On account of the narrowness of the valley this enormous elevation of the walls appears much greater than it



BRIDAL VEIL FALLS, YOSEMITE VALLEY.

would if they were more widely separated. The walls, too, have a clean rise from the bottom of the valley instead of being piled to quite a height with fragments which have been separated from them by the action of the elements, as is the case with many high cliffs in other localities.

Among the principal attractions of the valley is the massive rock, El Capitan. This is not nearly as high as some of the other cliffs, though it reaches an altitude of 3,300 feet. But its sides are entirely bare and smooth, and it forms one of the most imposing rocks in the world. Just across the valley is the Bridal Veil Fall, one of the most beautiful cascades ever seen. The water of a creek of the same name has a clear fall of 630 feet, striking a pile of *débris* and then falling about 300 feet additional, making a total fall of more than 900 feet. Its name is due to the fact that sometimes the wind causes the stream of water to flutter like a white veil. Just below El Capitan, and on the same side of the valley, is a fall of more than 1,000 feet which is beautiful in the spring, but the stream which feeds it is entirely dry in the summer. This is known as the Virgin's Tears Fall. Near the Bridal Veil Fall are the famous Cathedral Rocks. They are formed by an enormous, and almost vertical cliff, rising to the height of 2,660 feet and divided by a clear cut notch. Farther up the valley may be seen the Three Brothers, a group of enormous pillars, the highest of which reaches an altitude of 3,830 feet. From the summit of this great rock a magnificent view of the valley is obtained. Almost opposite this group is a mighty cliff from which towers a granite obelisk which resembles a watch tower, and is called the Sentinel Rock. From the foot of this rock to the summit is more than 3,000 feet.

The Yosemite Falls, regarded by many visitors as the chief attraction of the valley, are opposite the Sentinel Rock. Here the water of the Yosemite Creek passes over the northern wall of the valley. The descent is by two magnificent falls and a series of cascades, and measures 2,600 feet. The first descent is a vertical fall of 1,500 feet, then comes a series of cascades by which a level 626 feet lower is reached, from which point the water takes its final fall of over 400 feet. At the head of the falls the water is, in the early summer, about two feet deep and the stream is from twenty feet to twenty-five feet wide. Late in the season, however, the volume of water is greatly decreased. It has been asserted that "no other cataract in the world can compare with this in height and romantic beauty."

The falls of the Merced River are also remarkable. The upper one, known as the Nevada Fall, has a descent of about 600 feet. The lower, or

Vernal Fall, is about 400 feet in height. Between these falls is a series of rapids of the greatest beauty and interest. These falls are far more uniform than those on the smaller creeks. As the river is fed by the melting snow on the mountains the flow of water is but slightly diminished during the summer when some of the other streams are entirely dry. Along the gorge called Tenaya Cañon are a number of imposing cliffs which rise to a great height. The Washington Column and the Royal Arches are on the northern side, while above them towers the North Dome. The latter reaches an altitude of 3,568 feet. Opposite this, on the southern side of the gorge, the wonderful granite peak known as the Half Dome appears. This vast cliff rises 4,737 feet, and is the highest point in the vicinity. A path has been made by which tourists can reach the summit. From this lofty elevation, almost a mile above the surface of the valley, the view is indescribably beautiful.

There are various points from which excellent views of the valley may be obtained without the long and toilsome ascent of the highest cliffs. Inspiration Point is at the very entrance of the valley, where the Merced River leaves its cañon, and offers a splendid view of the enchanting region. Moran's Point, nearly across from the mouth of Tenaya Cañon, lies at an elevation of about 2,000 feet, and is an excellent place of observation. A little farther east is Glacier Point, about 3,000 feet above the valley, which affords an almost unobstructed view of all its prominent features.

The beauty of the valley is greatly enhanced by the numerous trees which have flourished here for centuries and which still maintain all the vigor of youth. The Merced River, with its clear and cold stream, flowing through the centre of the valley also adds a picturesque feature to the scene, while the flowers of many varieties and numberless shades and colors which in their season cover the ground, add an indescribable charm to a magnificent scene.

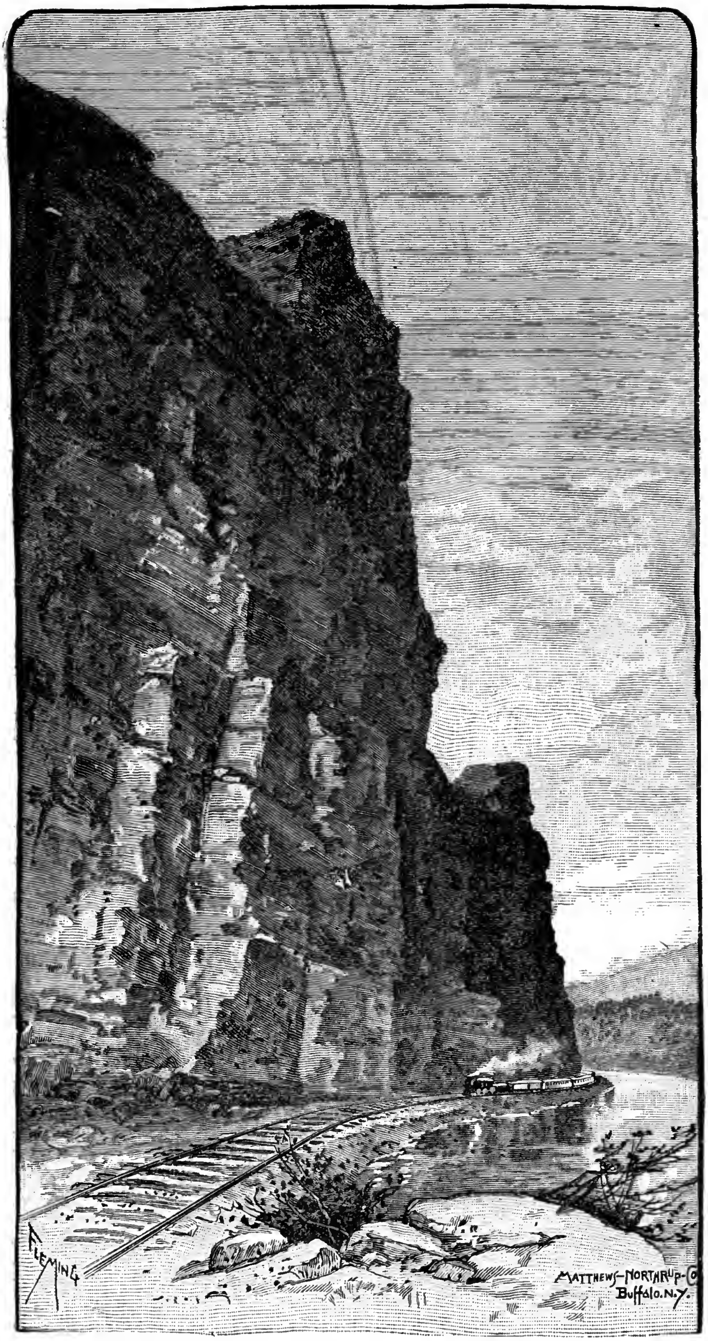
Only about sixteen miles from the Yosemite Valley, and in the same county, is the famous Mariposa grove of trees of enormous size. This should, by all means, be visited by the tourist who has reached the Yosemite region. Like the Yosemite Valley, this grove is a government reservation and is under official supervision. The trees are in two groups. In the upper group there are 365 trees which are thirty-three feet in circumference and a large number of smaller ones which if standing outside of this marvellous region would be considered of enormous size. The lower group, which is

5,500 feet above the sea, has about 125 trees, each of which measures more than forty feet in circumference. The one named Grizzly Giant has a circumference of more than ninety-three feet at the base and of more than sixty-four feet at a distance of eleven feet from the ground. The first branch is about six feet in diameter, and almost 200 feet from the ground. The tallest tree of this group, now standing, measures 272 feet. Some of these trees are believed by scientists to be 2,000 years old. In the Calaveras County groves, lying farther north, are several trees much taller than any in the Mariposa region. One, called the Key-Stone State, is 325 feet in height, while there are three others which exceed 300 feet. But the Mariposa grove, lying near the Yosemite Valley, is more easily reached by tourists to that region.

So far as is known the first tree of this species ever seen by a white man was discovered in the Calaveras grove by a hunter named Dowd, in 1852. After considerable difficulty *Sequoia gigantea* was fixed upon as the scientific name of this "unquestioned giant of the vegetable world." It is confined to a very limited area, being found only on the western side of the Sierra Nevada Mountains, while its range of latitude is less than three degrees. It does not appear at a lower elevation than 4,760 feet, nor at a greater height than about 7,000 feet. But it is the king of trees for the whole world, far surpassing in bulk the taller Eucalyptus of which Australia boasts. No visit to the Yosemite region can be considered complete which does not include a trip to at least one of the districts in which these gigantic trees are found.

THE COLUMBIA RIVER REGION.

PASSING toward that portion of our territory which, with the exception of Alaska, a land widely separated from the main part of the United States, forms the northwestern section of the Union, we enter the region of the Columbia River. This river is the largest which enters the Pacific Ocean from the American side and was long known as the Oregon River. It follows an extremely tortuous course and varies greatly in all its essential features in different portions of the territory which it traverses. Rising in British Columbia, away up on the western side of the Rocky Mountains, it flows toward the northwest for about 150 miles. It then turns southward and enters Washington. Here Clark's River unites with it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Buffalo.N.Y.

HALLET'S HADES, COLUMBIA RIVER.

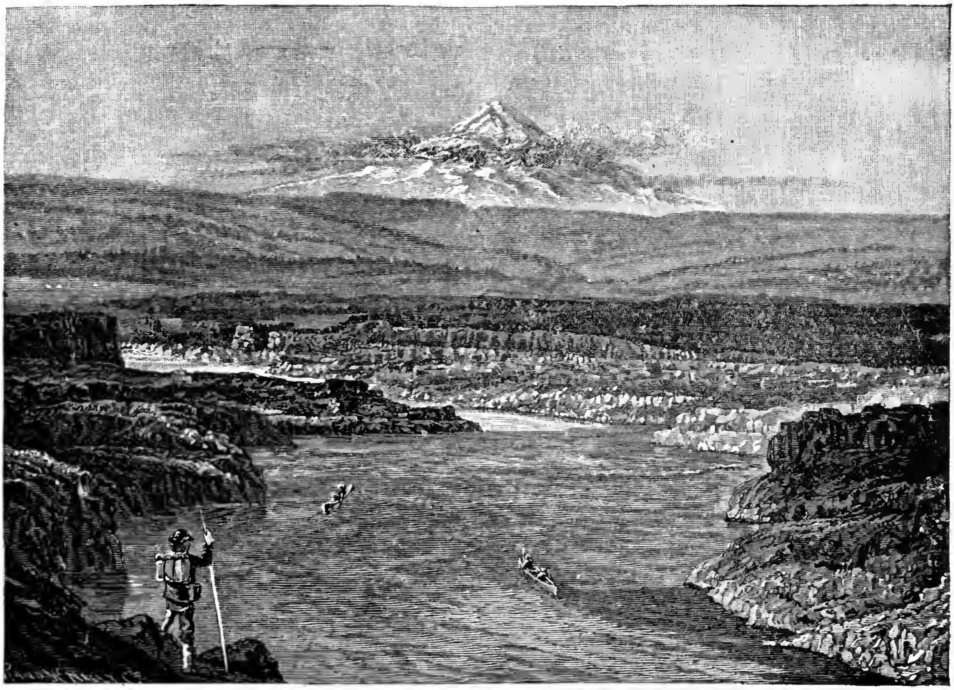
and its southern direction is kept until it reaches Oregon. From this point, a distance of about 300 miles, it forms the boundary between the two States of Washington and Oregon. Its course is toward the west, but deviates greatly from a straight line, deflecting toward the south in the central portion of the State and making a sharp turn toward the north when near the western side. After another curve toward the west it soon enters the Pacific Ocean.

During its course the Columbia receives several rivers of considerable size. Among them is the Willamette, which enters the Columbia more than 100 miles from the ocean. The total length of the Columbia is about 1,400 miles, its flow is rapid, and its volume of water is immense. With the exception of two points it is navigable for about 400 miles, and by improvements of the channel it is expected that the principal obstacles to continuous navigation which now exist, will eventually be removed.

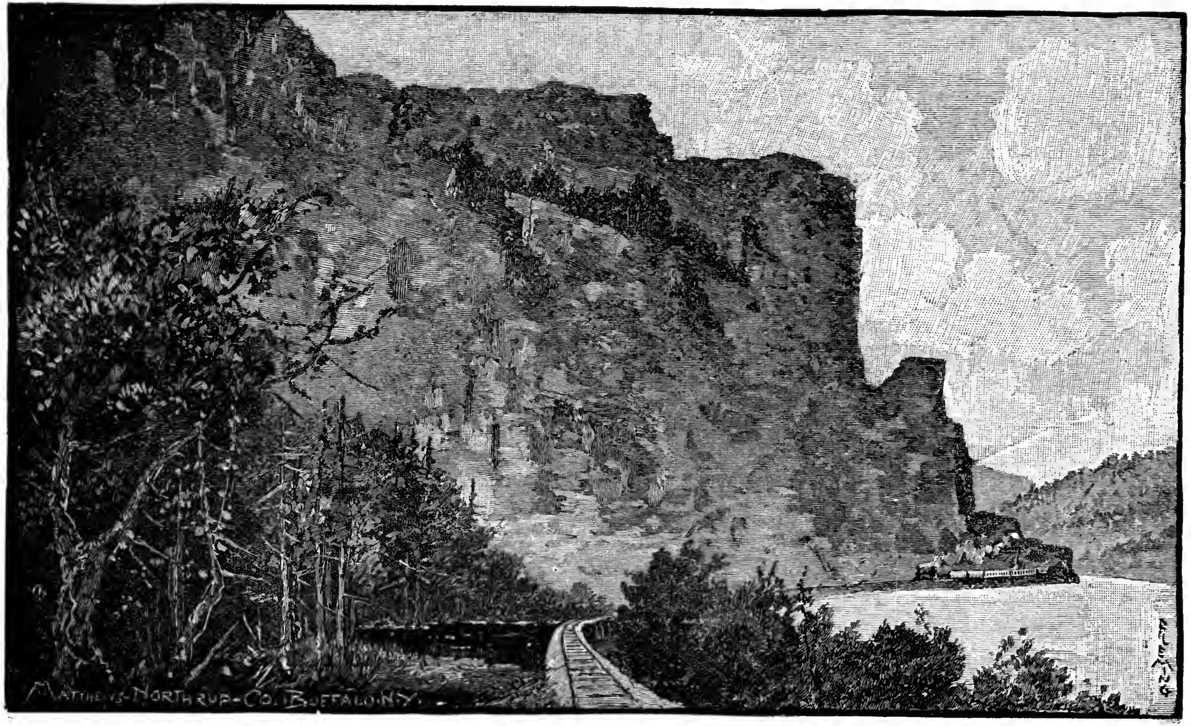
But the fame of the Columbia River is principally due to the magnificent scenery which it presents throughout a large part of its course. It is not merely an enormous stream flowing majestically through a devious way, but it is a great river set in a framework of glorious surroundings. In point of grand environment it has no successful rival on the American continent. Along its shores Nature appears in many and varied forms of grandeur. At various places its walls are literally "mountain high" and in many portions of its course its current has an impetuous flow. Cataracts abound. At some points its shores are near, at others they lie far apart. Where the Willamette is received it spreads to such a width as to appear like a lake rather than river, and many beautiful little islands dot its surface. New beauties are almost constantly appearing to the traveller along its course, and some of the changes of scene are as sudden and unexpected as they are enchanting.

The traveller by the Northern Pacific Railroad will pass through the Walla Walla Country, in Washington, celebrated for its excellent farming land, its heavy yield of grain, and extensive production of fruit, and in which many pleasant views are to be obtained. Soon afterward he will enter Oregon and ere long reach the shore of the great Columbia. For a while there will be nothing startling, or even particularly interesting, in the scenery. The river flows quietly through a nearly level country. But this condition lasts only a short time. The shores become higher, there is something bold and even rugged in their appearance, and the flow of the water becomes much more rapid and impetuous. A great lava bed is reached and the railroad passes over a surface formed from matter thrown, perhaps countless ages ago, from some volcano which, happily for the tourist, is now extinct. The bluffs here rise sharply, at only a little distance from the river, and their discolored sides present anything but an inviting appearance. It is said, however, that on the heights the land is fertile and is under cultivation.

At Celilo, nearly 130 miles from the confluence of the Snake River with the Columbia, the shore is sandy on the Oregon side while on the opposite shore of the river frowning bluffs arise. Here too is a strongly marked change in the current and in the character of the bed of the river. The water flows more swiftly and the channel is rocky. Except in time of high water, when the snow on the mountains melts under the summer heat, steamers do not pass this point. Even at the most favorable time the trip is not entirely safe. From a station above this spot steamers go without difficulty for a long distance. After a turbulent course of thirteen miles the river again becomes calm and is easily navigable. Various objects of interest come into view in this vicinity. A huge cliff around which the track is laid, and the Little Dalles, will attract attention. But grander scenes are near at hand and



MOUNT HOOD, FROM THE HEART OF THE DALLES, COLUMBIA RIVER, OREGON.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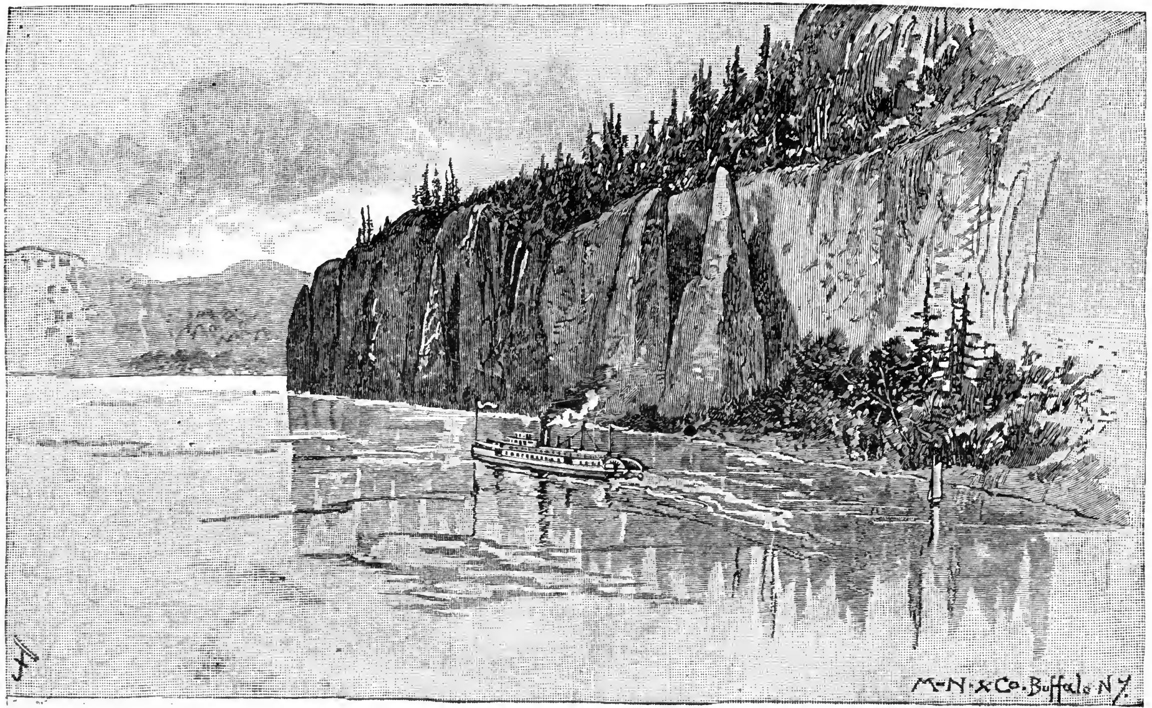
GIBRALTAR, COLUMBIA RIVER.


M-N x Co. Buffalo N.Y.

STEAMER ROUNDING CAPE HORN.

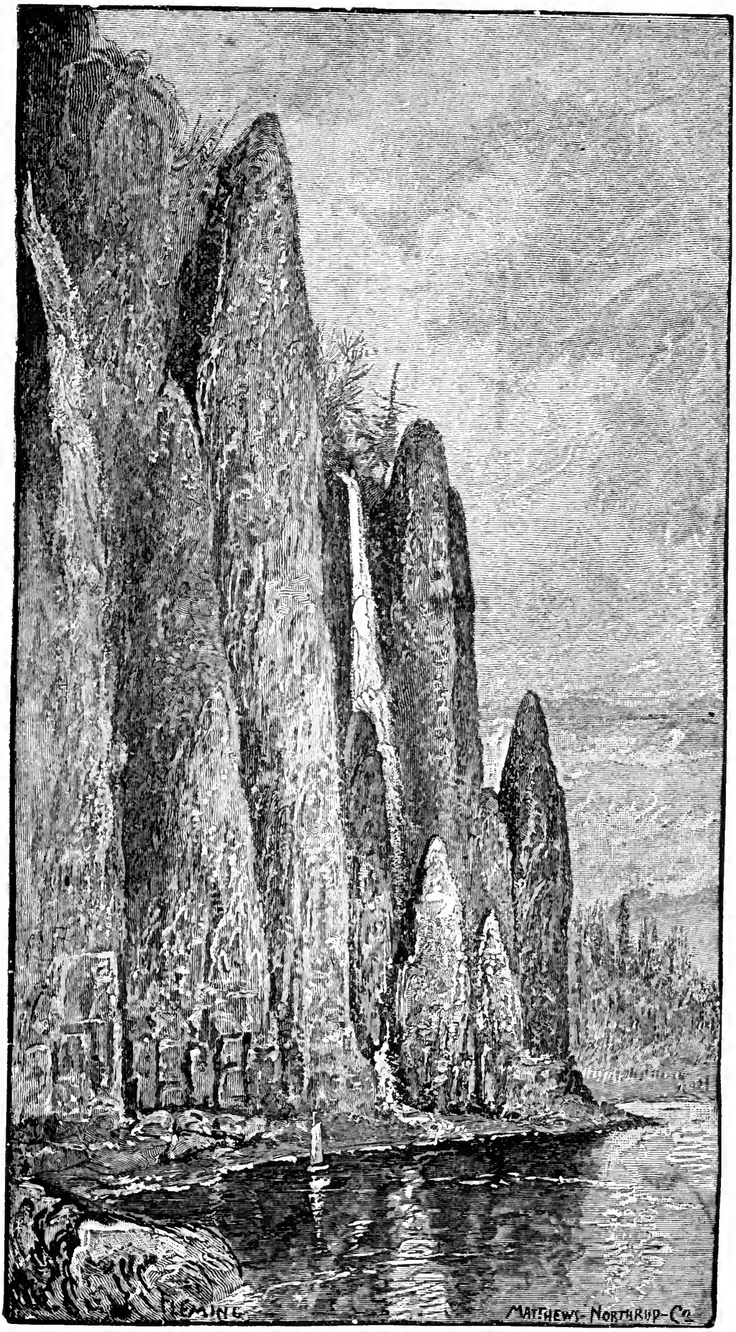
these, though beautiful and impressive in themselves, will sink into insignificance when compared with the falls and cliffs a little farther down the river.

The Great Dalles will fill the beholder with wonder and admiration. Here the river passes through a channel only about sixty yards wide. Basaltic rocks rising sharply from its bed wall it in. The water rushes madly on through this narrow course. Its depth is unknown. It boils and foams in fury, but cannot burst its bounds. The rapids continue for more than two miles. Then the river assumes a more peaceful character, but occasional waterfalls occur, and the shores are broken and rugged. From the head of the Dalles and looking away from the immediate vicinity many beautiful mountain peaks may be seen, with Dalles City lying in the foreground.

One of the most imposing views from this vicinity is that of Mount Hood, a majestic peak which is beautiful in outline as well as massive in form. Many travellers by the Union Pacific Railroad make a trip to this mountain, which lies some twenty-five miles from the nearest station. Stages run to the foot of the mountain. The scenery along the route is magnificent, and from the summit the view is indescribably grand and inspiring. Mountain peaks covered with snow rise from near and from distant points. Forests and rivers, beautiful valleys, the great Puget Sound, together with towns and villages in the open land, make a picture of wonderful beauty and sublimity. For mountain scenery, it is claimed, there is no other point of view in the country equal to the summit of Mount Hood.

The Cascades, at which point the river cuts through the Cascade Range, both the Upper and the Lower, are wonderfully beautiful in themselves and in the majestic walls and massive pillars which stand like eternal sentinels to watch the tumultuous flow of the great river which they inclose. On the westward way the scenery becomes still wilder and more majestic. Mountains are grouped in curious forms. Rocky terraces rising to sublime heights appear. Cliff rises above cliff, crag is piled on crag. In ever-varying forms and differing arrangements these great features constantly appear. Falling over these cliffs innumerable cascades are seen, and at various points we have falls which cannot be adequately described. Of these perhaps the most beautiful is the Multnomah Falls. Here the water has an unbroken fall of several hundred feet and almost immediately makes another plunge to the depths below. The total fall is 800 feet. Oneonta Falls closely rival the Multnomah and have about the same height.

The Pillars of Hercules, between which the Northern Pacific Railroad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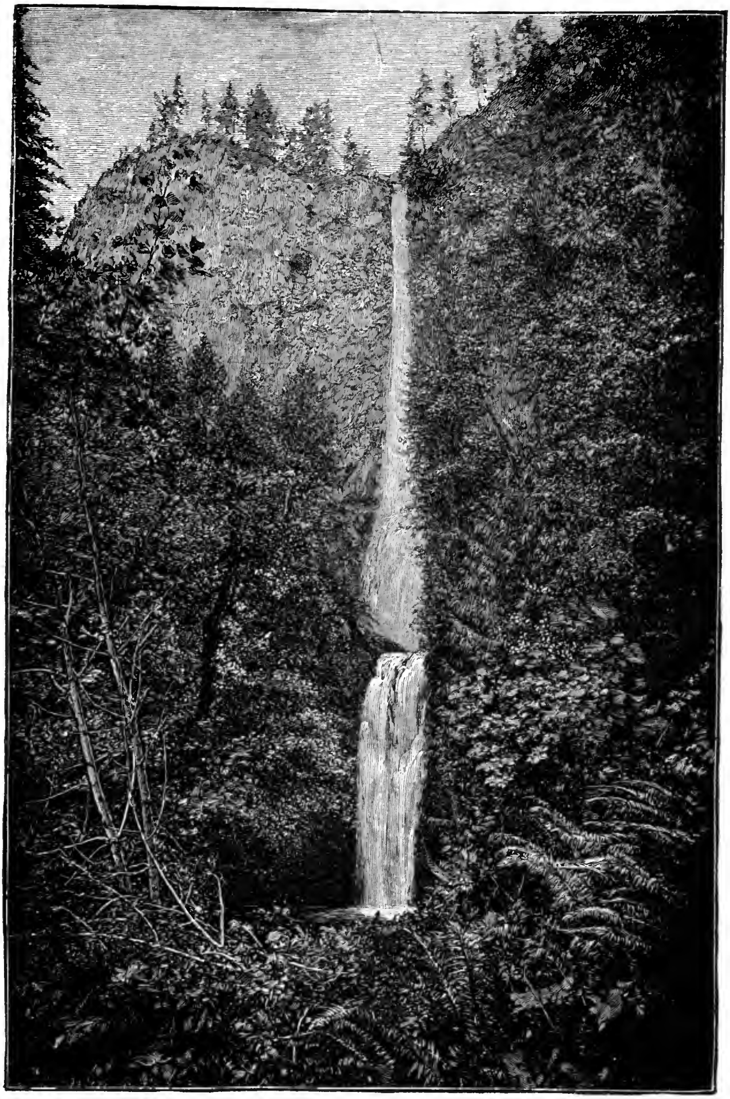
CAPE HORN, COLUMBIA RIVER.

passes, fill the mind with wonder and awe. Raising their massive forms toward the sky they seem like miracles of nature in a land of wonders. Passing these colossal towers we come to a somewhat more open country from which wider views are obtained. Soon after leaving this point the railroad continues west to Portland, while the river pursues its winding course toward the northwest.

Of the magnificent views, the grand and peculiar features of the natural scenery of the Columbia River, only a few have been noted. To describe them all would require a volume, even to name them would require more space than we have at command. But among the towering and frowning cliffs which rise almost perpendicularly from the river bank and close to which the railroad track is laid, Gibraltar and Hallets Hades, deserve to be specially mentioned. Cape Horn, too, rising to a height of 700 feet and standing like an outpost at a bend of the river, presents a magnificent view either from the cars or from the steamers which run close to its base.

Neither is all the splendid scenery of this wonderful region to be found in the narrow belt of country to a view of which the traveller who makes a continuous journey by rail is necessarily confined. There are magnificent mountains and beautiful lakes in other regions of Washington and Oregon. There are peaks covered with perpetual snow and streams winding through rocky glens and falling in beautiful cascades. Beautiful and fertile valleys in which are located thriving towns and, at but little distance therefrom, dense forests of large and valuable trees, may also be found. In the Grande Ronde Valley are fertile fields and plenty of fish and game. Its distinguishing feature, however, may be seen in the medicinal springs which here abound. In one, which is known as "Hot Lake," the water is at a boiling temperature when it rises from the ground. It flows in quite a volume and spreads over an area of some three acres in extent.

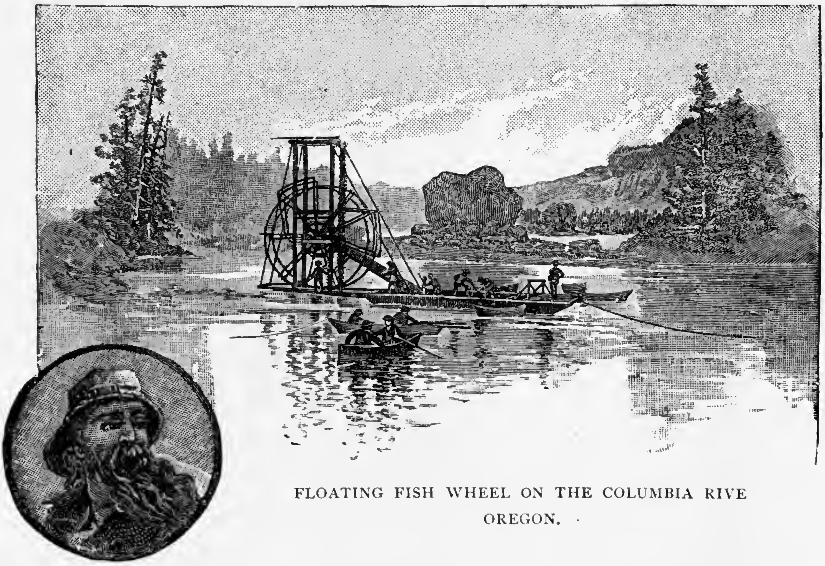
Oregon City, on the Willamette River and near the Willamette Falls, is the oldest city in the State of Oregon and was for a number of years the capital. It is about twelve miles from Portland, has a magnificent water power, several important industrial interests, and is destined to become a great manufacturing centre. The Falls are about forty feet in height and are remarkably beautiful. Up to this point the river is navigable for large boats, and during a large part of the year small steamers can pass 130 miles above the Falls. A canal has recently been completed by means of which boats can pass the Falls. There are four lift locks, each of which changes the



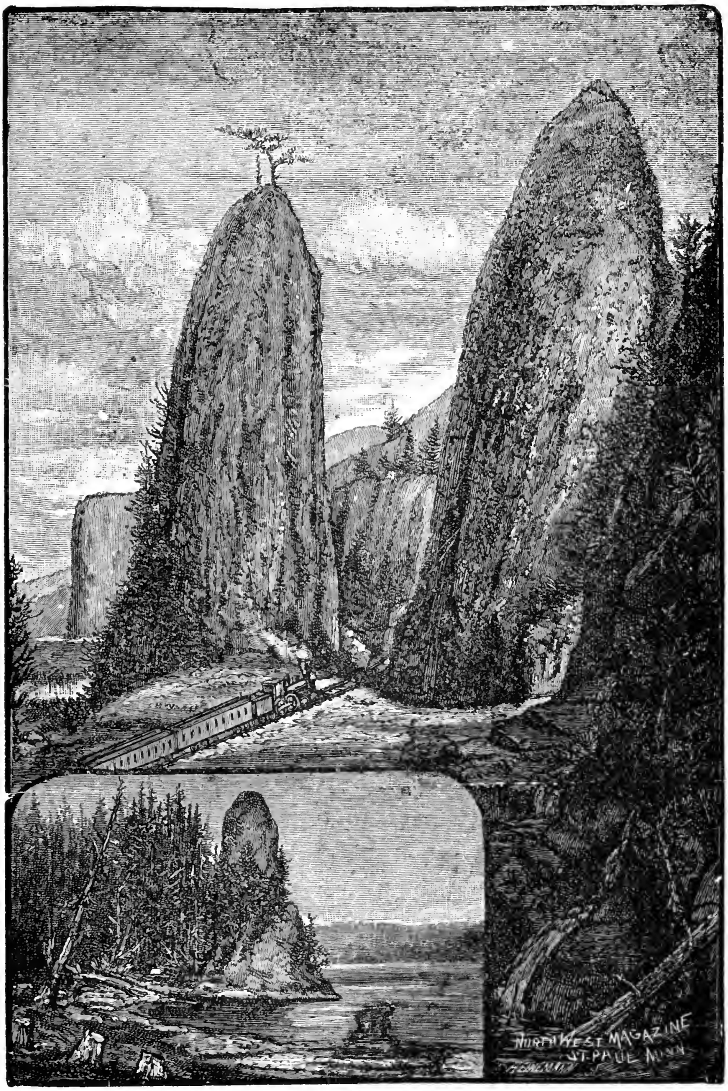
MULTNOMAH FALLS, COLUMBIA RIVER.

level ten feet, and above these is a large guard lock. This great work was completed at a cost of more than half a million dollars, of which part was paid by the construction company, and the remainder contributed by the State. Throughout the Willamette Valley the scenery is fine, and the tourist will find it a delightful region in which to spend a portion of his leisure time.

Portland, the western terminus of the line of the Oregon Railway and Navigation Co., is also a city in which the traveller in search of either pleasure or knowledge will find much to interest him. It is a city of wonderful growth and prosperity. Although nearly 120 miles from the ocean, it is practically a seaport to which ships come from all parts of the globe. It is located on the Willamette River, twelve miles from its union with the Columbia, and is destined to become one of the great cities of the West. Astoria, on the Columbia River and near its mouth, should also receive a visit. In point of population it is second in the State and is rapidly growing. Its manufacturing interests are important, but the great commercial interest centres in the fisheries. Nearly two-thirds of the canneries of the Columbia River are located at this point, and about $3,000,000 worth of salmon are canned here every year. The fish are not only caught in nets and seines, but also in various forms of traps and by means of floating wheels which take the fish in shoals and land them in the boats upon which the wheels are placed. In this region the salmon fishery attains its greatest development. With the excep-



FLOATING FISH WHEEL ON THE COLUMBIA RIVE
OREGON.


NORTH WEST MAGAZINE
ST. PAUL MINN

PILLARS OF HERCULES, COLUMBIA RIVER.

tion of Alaska no portion of the world can be compared with it for the abundance and value of this important variety of fish. The view of the bay is very fine, and there are many very pretty places within easy reach. A large and excellent hotel faces the ocean and there are various other houses at which visitors are well entertained.

The tourist who desires to go still farther can make a pleasant trip of nearly 150 miles from Astoria to Tacoma, located on the famous Puget Sound. Thirty-eight miles from Portland, by the Northern Pacific Railroad, at Hunter's Point, the train is ferried across the Columbia River by a boat built for this road, capable of taking thirty cars at a trip, and said to be the finest boat of the kind ever built. The adjacent country is pleasant and the mountain scenery is magnificent. The Cascade Range rises in blue and white tints and in beautiful form, and for a long distance Mount Hood, with its snowy crown, though now far away, is in full view. This usually attracts a large share of the tourists' attention. The beauty of the mountain itself, though an excellent one, is not the only reason for this close observation. Another cause is found in the fact that when viewed from a distant point, under varying atmospheric conditions, the appearance is widely different from that presented when the observer is in its immediate vicinity. The traveller who has an eye to natural beauty is fairly entranced by the "changing splendors" which this glorious peak presents. Other great mountains also come in view as the journey is continued.

When the traveller reaches a point within about forty miles of its base the lofty snow-crowned Tacoma comes into view for a brief period through an opening in the dense forest which during quite a portion of the way intervenes. A little farther on the traveller beholds the great inland sea known as Puget Sound, and at Tacoma, located at the head of Commencement Bay, he will find sailing craft of various descriptions, including large ocean vessels. This is the western terminus of the Northern Pacific Railroad. Here are manufactories and fisheries, and evidences of commercial activity and prosperity appear on every hand. The tourist will find much to interest him, good accommodations, bracing air and, except in winter, when it is very moist as well as mild, a fine climate.

From this point the tourist should make a visit to Mount Tacoma, which is the loftiest and the most beautiful peak in the vicinity. Recent measurements have shown its summit to be 14,444 feet above the sea. This is more than 650 feet higher than Mount Adams, and is the same height as Mount

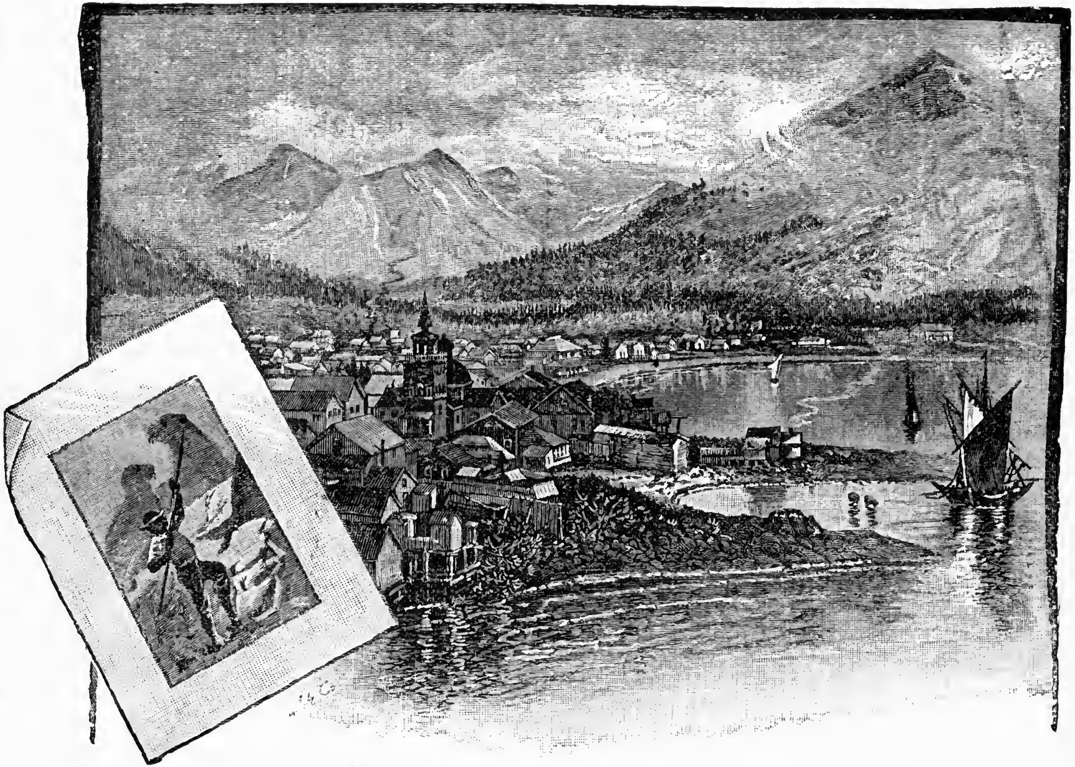
Shasta in California. Its base is said to be forty miles in circumference. An elevation of about 11,000 feet may be reached on the northern side with comparative ease, but climbing to the summit is an almost impossible feat which up to 1885 only two men were known to have accomplished. Of the fifteen glaciers which flow from this mountain three are within easy reach and are said to be more magnificent than the famous glaciers of Switzerland. If the tourist wishes to loiter on the way he will find during the last half of the route, which is traversed on horseback, frequent camps in which he will be well entertained, and in the vicinity of which he will find excellent fishing and hunting.

Returning to Tacoma the tourist will probably feel the need of rest for a day or two from his mountain trip. He will then determine whether to take a homeward course or push on to our great Territory of Alaska at the extreme northwestern portion of the continent. If the former course is chosen he will carry with him the memory of numberless magnificent scenes. If the latter is followed, he can be sure that new beauties and glories await him in the distant land toward which he sails.

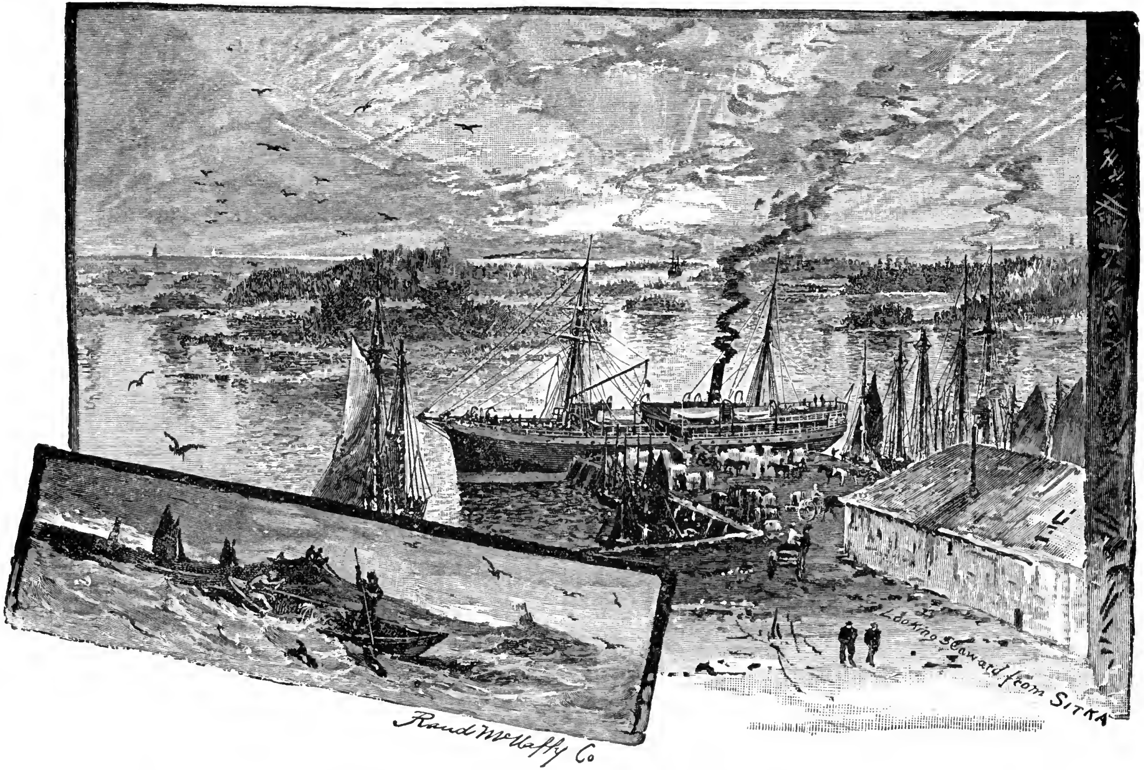
ALASKA.

TO a great extent Alaska is an unknown land. Only a small portion of its vast territory has been carefully explored, and with the exception of some circumscribed regions we have but meagre accounts of its character and resources. But enough has been done in the way of travel and description to assure us that it is a land of wonders, and that it presents to the visitor unnumbered scenes of picturesque beauty and grandeur.

Lying away in the north-western portion of the continent and covering an area of 577,390 square miles, an area more than ten times as large as that of the great State of Illinois and larger than the combined area of Great Britain, France, and Germany, it is, indeed, as its name signifies, "a large country." Its length, from extreme points of east to west, is 2,200 miles; from north to south it measures 1,400 miles; and, owing to its extremely irregular form, its shore line exceeds 8,000 miles. If the adjacent islands are included in the measurement we find a coast line of more than 25,000 miles. Though far away from our great centres of civilization, the country is easily



SITKA, ALASKA.

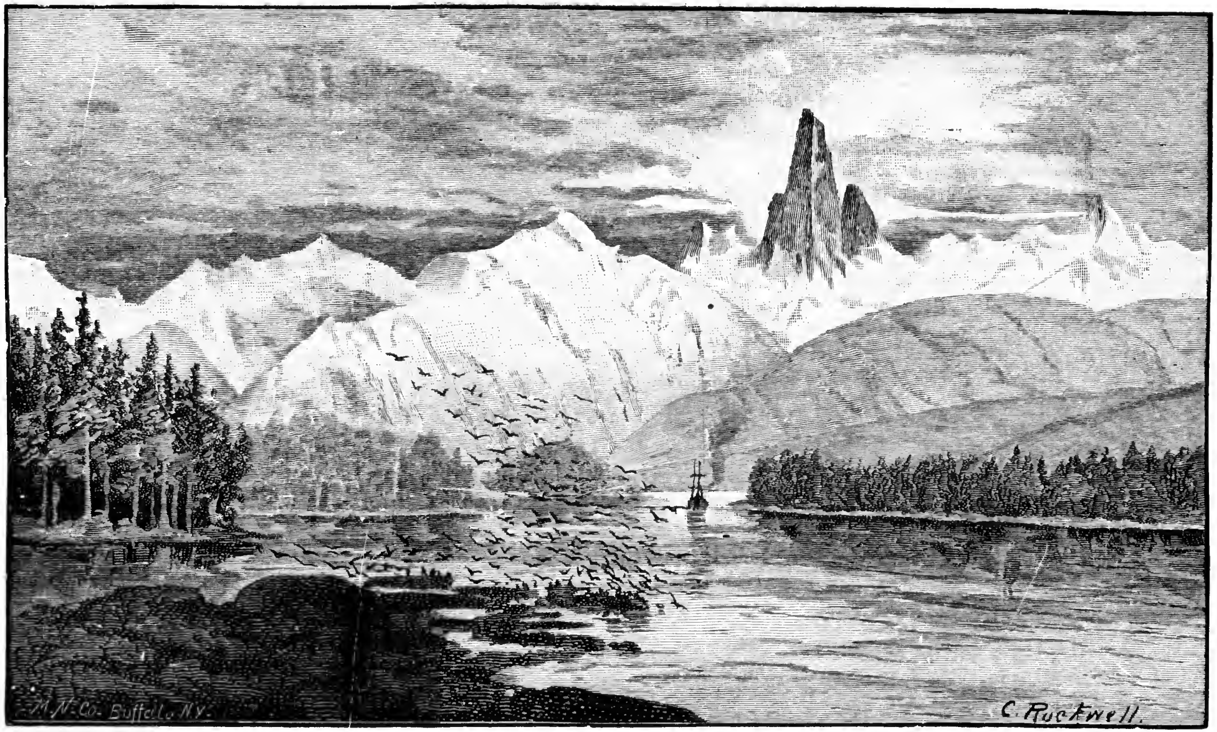

Looking seaward from SITKA
Rand McNally Co

ALASKA'S THOUSAND ISLANDS, AS SEEN FROM SITKA.

reached by either of the Pacific Railroads to the Pacific coast and thence by large and elegant steamers. All along the western portion of the continent the traveller is surrounded by natural wonders. The trip by steamer, covering a distance of some 2,000 miles, is hardly less astonishing and delightful. Keeping near the shore the wave-motion of the open sea is entirely avoided, the climate is mild, and the magnificent scenery of the coast is in full and constant view.

Arriving at Alaska we find the highest mountains in North America, one of them, Mount Saint Elias, of the Coast Range, reaching a height of about 19,500 feet. Besides this great range there are the Rocky Mountains, and the Alaskan Range, each of which has many towering peaks. The country also contains sixty-one volcanoes, ten of which are active. Mount Edgecumbe, an extinct volcano, has a crater nearly 400 feet deep and 2,000 feet across the top. Among these mountain ranges we also find some of the greatest glaciers in the world. One of these, extending from Mount Fairweather to the sea, a distance of fifty miles, is eight miles wide and breaks in a massive wall of ice 300 feet high. Another, above Fort Wrangel, is forty miles long, four or five miles wide, and about 1,000 feet deep, while only a little distance from this vast mass of moving ice, boiling springs are constantly active. In quite a large section of the country hot mineral springs are numerous, and it is neither impossible nor improbable that at no very remote period this distant region will become a noted resort for invalids. Some of these springs are of immense size and strongly impregnated with mineral substances.

The rivers of Alaska are as wonderful in their way as the mountains or any other of the natural phenomena. The largest is the Yukon, which in point of size is the fifth river of North America and the fourth of the United States, draining an extensive area and from its various outlets discharging an immense quantity of water. It has its source in a very small lake, flows through five other lakes, and by a remarkably circuitous course reaches the Behring Sea. The whole course of the river is about 2,044 miles, about 783 of which are in British America. Its waters are discharged from five or more mouths, the two outer ones being not less than sixty miles apart. So great is the volume of water from one of these mouths that for a distance of ten miles after it reaches the sea, the water is still fresh. A vast quantity of sediment is carried down the river by its strong and rapid flow and deposited far out in the sea. Some of the shoals thus formed are more than sixty miles


M.N.Co. Buffalo, N.Y.
C. Rockwell.

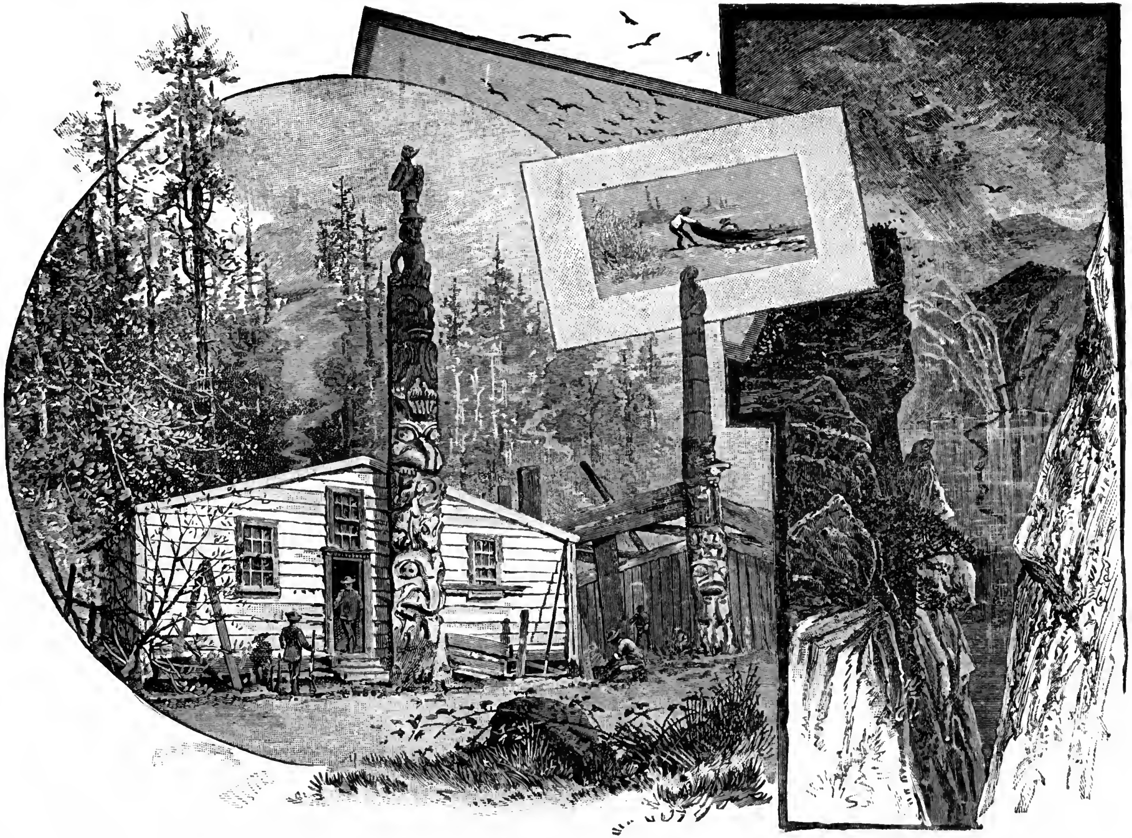
DEVIL'S THUMB, ALASKA.

from the shore. At a point 1,000 miles from the sea the river, with the numerous islands in its channel, is seven miles wide and it is supposed to reach twice that width at other places. It maintains an immense width for a distance of about 300 miles. In the course of the river, more than 1,800 miles from the northern mouth, there is a magnificent cañon a mile in length. The rapid flow of the water continues four miles farther and ends in a beautiful cascade, the even course of the water being then resumed. To this point the river is navigable for light-draught steamers, and for 1,000 or 1,200 miles it can be traversed by much larger vessels. There are several other rivers of large size, some of which have not been fully explored.

The forests of the country are on the same scale of magnificence as its other features and add greatly to the beauty and impressiveness of the scenery. Not only the mainland along the coast, but the multitude of islands, in the vicinity, are heavily covered with pine, spruce, hemlock, and a variety of cedar trees, which are valuable as well as ornamental.

As would be expected from their high latitude, the central and northern portions of Alaska are inhospitable, but in the south-western section the climate is comparatively mild, being tempered by the warm current of the Pacific Ocean in its course from the East Indies. This current, which closely resembles the Gulf Stream of the Atlantic, causes the excessive rainfall for which some portions of the country are noted. In Sitka the mean temperature is very nearly forty-three degrees, and the annual rainfall is about eighty inches. In the valley of the Yukon, in some other districts, and upon some of the islands, several of the vegetables of the temperate regions are grown.

In the northern portion of the country, where the sinking of a shaft has proved that the ground is frozen to a depth of seventy-five feet, considerable vegetation grows in the summer, when the days are almost twenty-four hours in length, and the sun shining almost constantly thaws the surface soil. The ground being wet, the grasses and plants produced are large and coarse, but they furnish an excellent cover for migratory birds, which flock to the region in vast numbers, making it one of the best of fields for the sportsman. Then, too, there are immense hunting-grounds in which elk, deer, and fur-bearing animals abound. The fishing in several sections is also very fine, whether viewed from a commercial standpoint or from that of the pleasure-seeker. The number of salmon is immense and they grow to a large size. The whale fisheries and the seal hunting are also objects of interest to the tourist as well as important industrial pursuits. A view of the mines cannot fail to please



AN ALASKA HOUSE WITH TOTEM POLES.

even the experienced sight-seer. A visit to the one about ten miles from Sitka, will also furnish a pleasant trip across Silver Bay, and bring the tourist to what is said to be the largest quartz mill in the world.

The largest settlement of Alaska, and the only one in which the traveller for pleasure will care to spend much time, is Sitka, the capital of the Territory and place of residence of the United States collector of customs. It is located on Baranov Island, near the Pacific coast, and commands a magnificent view of both sea and shore. The "Thousand Islands" here present a scene of picturesque beauty hardly excelled by that of the world-famed Bay of Naples in the sunny clime of Italy.

The population numbers from 1,000 to 1,500. The Indian residents have to a great extent adopted the dress and manners of civilized nations, and their children attend schools which are maintained by various religious denominations in the United States. In common with the Indians of other portions of North America, Northern Asia, and other countries, each important family, or band, has its distinguishing *totem*, or badge, which consists of a figure carved or marked on its houses, clothing, and other property. At their burial places, and in front of some of their best houses, these Indians erect large *totem* poles on which the figure adopted as the family or tribal symbol is rudely carved. Many of these poles are of great size and quite expensive. They range from two to five feet in diameter and some are not less than sixty feet high.

To the tourist, one of the chief objects of interest in Sitka is the cathedral of the Greek Church, which was built when the country was one of the Russian possessions. It is constructed in the form of a Greek cross. A cupola caps the tower in which the bell is hung, and above the centre of the building is a dome of emerald-green. The chapel, located in one of the wings, has a magnificent painting of the Virgin and Child, copied from the original at Moscow, and heavily draped in silver with a beautiful halo of gold. The doors to the chancel are beautifully carved and heavily gilded. Here, also, are exquisite paintings of the Last Supper, the Madonna, and of other subjects, all heavily adorned with silver. This room women are never allowed to enter. The general ornamentation of the building is rich and elegant, while the crown and vestments of the Bishop, which are freely shown to visitors, are of costly material and magnificent appearance.

The fortifications and the United States signal service office are also places of interest—the latter largely on account of its historical associations.

It is located in a building which was erected by the Russians, destroyed by fire, afterward rebuilt, and then demolished by an earthquake. Once more it was erected, in massive proportions, and it now seems likely to successfully defy for ages the power of the elements and the destructive agencies of time. There is also a sad story of a beautiful orphan girl whose tragic death occurred within these walls. She had promised herself to a young lieutenant connected with the household, but her uncle and guardian, the Russian governor, desired her to marry a prince who was at that time his honored guest. In order to accomplish his purpose the Governor professed a deep interest in the lieutenant and sent him away for a few days. Then, against her will and in spite of her tearful protests, the young lady was compelled to marry the prince. Soon after the ceremony was performed, and while the festivities were at their height, the first lover returned. Entering the hall he took the unfortunate girl by the hand and without speaking thrust a dagger through her heart. Then, in wild despair, he rushed from the castle and drowned himself in the sea. According to a widely accepted legend the spirit of the murdered girl always appears on the anniversary of that fearful night, and sometimes when a storm is raging she keeps a light in a deserted tower in order to guide the course of her lover, whom she believes is still at sea.

The return trip by steamer will be equally interesting with the one which brought the tourist to this wonderful land. The scenes then beheld will re-appear, but, being viewed from a different direction, will present new beauties and varying attractions. And while he may rejoice to be "homeward bound," the happiness will be tinged with regret at leaving the marvellous region with which he has just become acquainted. As Alaska is now United States territory, our people should take a patriotic interest in its magnificent scenic attractions as well as rejoice in its growing commercial importance. This vast and distant portion of our country should no longer be allowed to remain as it has been in the past, an almost unnoticed and unknown land.

OUR NATION:

THE STORY OF ITS

PROGRESS AND GROWTH.

PRELIMINARY NOTE.

Following is a rapid general view of the structure of Our Great Republic as a whole, under the title of "*Our Nation: The Story of its Progress and Growth.*" Prepared by another hand for this work, it has been *carefully* examined by the present writer, and its historical statements verified by him. This brief general view embraces the period of the marvellous career of our Nation until the present time.

BENSON J. LOSSING.

"THE RIDGE,"
Dover Plains, N. Y., Oct. 1st, 1890

INTRODUCTION.

OUR POSITION AMONG THE NATIONS—LESSONS TAUGHT IN OUR HISTORY.

WE are standing to-day like the Roman god of the gates with our faces turned both ways. With one we are gazing in subdued tenderness upon the sacred memories of the past, and stretching our hands with their wealth of flowers to do honor to our hero dead: with the other we turn to the hopeful future, and offer our arms still strong to bear its burden and brave to share its battles. For those who have nobly fallen in the line of duty the end has come, and to them the fullest praise should be given; but for us who remain, the bugle only sounds the needful truce, while with reverent tread we bear our comrades to their resting place and strew their graves with the richest flowers of each returning spring. For us the respite from the conflict is but a brief one. The present makes its ever-increasing demands upon us, and calls for brave hearts with noble purpose true.

Scarcely do the echoes of the burial note and the "volley of honor" die upon the air when the thrilling tones of the bugle sound "*On to the battle!*" If we thought the truce meant a peace we were most sadly mistaken, for we shall find that the contest wages still. The battle-field only has changed, and with it has changed the relation of the contending forces. The armies late arrayed against each other are divided on a different line now. Happily the issues of that contest are settled, but the conflict of the people against the enemies of popular government wages still. The recent civil war was but one phase of the gigantic struggle which began with our existence as a people, a single scene of the national drama which opened when the genius of liberty "rang up the curtain," and our fathers pronounced the grand old prelude in their immortal bill of rights, "THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE."

The first battalions of the army have engaged in conflicts fierce and long and they won the victory; but their triumph was not destined to give complete security to them who came after them. The enemies of popular liberty have been encountered and overcome on many a hotly contested battle-field, but after each successive victory new allies of tyranny have as suddenly arisen; new assaults have been prepared; new tactics have been employed, and still new enemies pour down upon the army of freedom. Conquering field after field from their foes the patriot soldiers see the frowning hill-tops beyond, still black with threatening warriors pressing forward to meet them on other fields—and "*the end is not yet.*"

The march of freedom's host is like that of a conquering army into a fortress that has been breached. The men in the vanguard may fall by thousands. Was their fall a failure? Nay, nay; for their bodies but helped to bridge the trench over which their comrades have marched to a complete victory. The dying exhortation of the falling heroes to those who came after them has been like that of noble *Lawrence*, carried wounded unto death from the deck of his vessel, "Don't give up the ship!" Each succeeding generation will find that "ETERNAL VIGILANCE IS THE PRICE OF LIBERTY," and this price must ever be paid by those who would retain it!

"This last successful experiment of self-government by the people" is still on trial before the ages, and the severest tests are now being applied, the strength of our institutions is put to its utmost tension. The cable of law that holds our ship of State is being stretched by two opposite forces: already do the strands smoke in their intense friction around the pierhead of the constitution. On the one side unbridled license exerts the full force of its diabolic strength; the love of money and of power, on the other, puts forth all its energy to break the bonds of lawful restraint. Human greed and human lust have united to bid defiance to the right,—twin monsters more hideous than mythology ever painted or poet ever dreamed. They have given birth to a whole brood of bantlings as repulsive as themselves—the demagogues in Society and Church and State; Communism, with its red hand, Ishmael-like arrayed against every man, and every man's hand arrayed against it; the Moloch of wealth seizing in its fiery arms the noblest children of our race; the Goliath of intemperance bidding defiance to the Church of God and the cries of Humanity; the shameless goddess, Free Love, and her wanton sister, Easy Divorce, who have polluted with their fetid breath the purest sanctuary of home; dark-robed Skepticism assuming the name of Human Reason, would pluck with skeleton hand the brightest star from our sky and throw her own black mantle of night over the horizon that hides our hopes of immortality; License which would bring to our land the Sunday of Europe and rob us of all the sacred memories which hallow "the day of rest;" the corrupting and festering influences that are sapping the manhood of the nation; the shameless immoralities and ill-concealed dishonesties which so frequently startle us with their public outcroppings, are enough to sicken the heart and unnerve the arm of the patriot if he has not the same confidence in the God of battles that our fathers had. These are the foes with which we still have to contend, in their new disguises and upon their own well-chosen and well-fortified battle ground.

Shall we overcome them? In the words of the flaming orator of our early struggle, "I have no way of judging of the future, but by the past."

Look back on the line of history along which this "Young Republic of the West" has come, and with the broad chart of ancient and modern times before you find a parallel to it all if you can! But little more than a century has passed since thirteen isolated and dependent colonies, with no community of aims and no mutual bond save a common grievance in the oppression of the Home Government, came to agitate the question of an appeal to arms; and to-day, as regards moral force and material strength, they stand united as the first power in Christendom. Thirteen States have increased to (will some little boy or girl who has the latest edition of geography please to tell me?)—I am unable to keep up the count, they come in so fast. We have a new star in our flag to-day, I believe, and the number is thirty-eight.

In view of the facts in our remarkable history we may well say with the inspired Hebrew bard, "He hath not dealt so with any nation."

Can we fathom the problems of Providence in reference to this American people? Has not Jehovah some mighty design in all this wonderful development? Can we not see the plainest indications all along the highway of the past of the great fact which the crazy old king of Babylon acknowledged, "God doeth according to his will in the army of heaven and among the inhabitants of the earth; and none can stay his hand?" Let us look back upon our history and trace, if we can, these developments of Providence. If we can do this we will not have misspent the few moments devoted to-day to this exercise.

Here was a continent lying in a wilderness state, the only inhabitants were the wild beasts and scarcely less wild aborigines who roamed, unrestrained, over its extensive plains and through its grand old forests. Here were the same noble rivers; the same broad inland seas; the wide extended prairie with its rich deposit of soil; the hidden wealth of minerals in the bowels of the earth; water-power capable of carrying all the machinery of the world to-day; the same lofty mountains with their magnificent scenery, the grandest upon which the sun ever shines, all as we behold them now, and yet for fifteen hundred years after the birth of Christ it is an unknown world. And why was this? Look at the condition of the more civilized parts of the world for these long centuries and you will find the answer,—the dark black night of a thousand years which had come over Europe, when moral, religious and social darkness rested on all the people so dense that scarcely a ray of light ever penetrated it. Man was working out the bitter problem of the relation of the Church to the State, in the union of temporal and spiritual power: and the fearful solution was well-nigh given in the loss of civil and religious liberty.

Many abortive attempts were made to regain that which had been lost, and the flickering fires, uncertain and disconcerted, which arose ever and anon amid the surrounding gloom went quickly out and made the darkness all the more intense for their short-lived burning. These questions had an ample theatre in the old world; the new was held in reserve for grander trials of those questions which are closely interwoven with our world-wide humanity. At length the echoes of the hammer of Luther as he nailed his bold Theses to the church door at Wittenberg awoke the people from their sleep of centuries, a sleep which had cost them so much, in which the chains of an irksome bondage were being riven harder and harder still about them. But the strength of the sleeping giant was aroused and the bands were rent asunder. And now, when this spirit of freedom from the chains which had bound body and mind and heart alike, had swept across the newly awakened nations, and men were seeking for some asylum from the bondage, God himself sent the hardy Genoan navigator in his Spanish ships to open the way to such a land as this. And he did it.

When "the fullness of times" had come He sent the right people to colonize the land. The stern unyielding Puritan with hardy hand and living faith He sent to Plymouth; the Dutchman with his love for "Faderland" to Manhattan; the Quaker with charitable heart and uncompromising integrity to build up the City of Brotherly Love; the fervent, zealous Catholic to the shores of the Chesapeake; the vanguard of all, led by the boldest of pioneers, to Jamestown; the Huguenots of sunny France to the no less sunny clime of

Georgia and the Carolinas. And these were they who laid the foundation of the civil government we now enjoy. Do we not see the plainest indications that right here, in this new world upon whose eastern shores these feeble colonies were planted, there were questions to be solved which were to affect all the race? The variety of creed and nationality which characterized the pioneers was an arrangement of Providence to hold each in check, and thus prepare for the coming struggle which so soon was to be theirs. The seeds were planted, but it would take years of storm and sunshine, of tempest and calm, of anxious watching and bitterest disappointment, before that seed would germinate and develop into a full-grown tree beneath whose shadow the nations of the earth might rest. This period which preceded the revolution is rich in indications of manifest providences. All the wars with the Indians, with the French, and the wilderness, too, were but as a training-school for the contest which they were to have. All this was but the formative, concentrative period which was to try their young strength and develop it to maturity.

Like the infant Hercules crawling from his cradle to throttle the twin serpents one in either hand did these young colonies contend with difficulties which might well appal the stoutest heart, and they overcame them. The savage climate and the more savage aborigines had well-nigh annihilated the little band. But still they stood by the daring enterprise which seemed so perilous. A race of warriors was thus reared hardy of muscle and quick of sight, with indomitable courage and perseverance such as was soon to try the mettle of the well-trained soldiers of the Mother Country. The conflict came. Statesmen and generals and patriot soldiers were not wanting for the conflict.

The night was long and dark and almost starless, but still they watched with unequaled patience for the coming morning. Seven weary years of war with all its sad experiences of want and misery, of sacrifice and blood, came upon them. Then it was that these noble men needed such trust in God as the Puritan had instilled into his faith; such indomitable perseverance as the Germanic element infused with the burning zeal of the Catholic, and the inimitable patience of the Huguenot under affliction. And that there was a wise design in this protracted war is seen in the fact that the colonies were thus knit together as never before by a community of sacrifice and suffering in the same cause, and so the bond which was to hold them in sympathy was more and more firmly cemented. At length the glorious dawn was ushered in; faint and uncertain at first, like the earliest break of day, but surely coming, till soon the sun of liberty rises full and clear on this western land. Clouds, dark and portentous, may cross his track and hide him from our view, but never again will he set till all the world has felt the warmth which comes from his beams.

Now follows the formative period, when there needed men of wise heads and honest hearts to lay the foundations of government upon an unyielding basis. That these men who gave us such a document as "The Constitution of the United States" were eminently fitted for such a task is amply proven by the experimental workings of this *Magna Charta* of human rights for more than a century.

Wisdom and patriotism in a very marked degree were the characteristics of the National Congress in the early days of our history. It was most eminently fitting that George Washington, who had commanded the army during the war of the Revolution, should be the chosen one to inaugurate the new government. No other man in all history had so united in himself every characteristic of nature's nobleman as he. Right worthy the trust confided to him by a grateful people, he displayed to the wondering governments of Europe an example unequaled by anything which had preceded it. They sneeringly had asked the question: Can the American people establish a republic after a protracted war, arousing, as war was prone to do, an ambition for power in the breast of the successful chieftain? The farewell address of George Washington to his countrymen, an immortal production, is the unhesitating answer to their questioning.

Now succeeds another period of development unparalleled in all that the world had before seen. The government had demonstrated its adaptation to the wants of the masses; it had shown its power to suppress domestic turmoil, and now the country is at peace. The pursuits of agriculture, of manufactures and of commerce receive the attention of the people. Wealth and commercial influence very rapidly increase, while throughout all the land there are being built up the monuments of intelligence and industry. The liberal arts and sciences, these problems which touch the vital interest of such a government as ours, receive ample attention. Our prosperity at home is not equaled by our national standing abroad.

Two of the chief powers of Europe were at war, and while we remain strictly neutral they each trample upon our rights as a nation. The one takes from our ships of war, by a pretended right of search, men to fill her own depleted navy, and they both in turn, by their unrighteous embargoes, unite to cripple our young commerce. France recedes from her position and makes restitution; but the Mother Land, who has ever behaved in a very step-motherly way toward her vigorous child, is compelled to yield only by force of arms. In this war, disastrous to both countries, we were enabled to assert our national dignity, and to command the respect of other nationalities. That this war was needful is clearly seen by the marked increase of our commercial interests and the respect paid to our flag by all other powers; a result which immediately followed. And, again, through a period of years the development of our country keeps pace with the loftiest imagination. State after State takes its place beside its fellow in the Union. Territory is acquired by peaceful purchase from France (of Louisiana) and from Spain (of Florida). Texas gravitates to us by the fortunes of war, and the golden land, with Arizona and New Mexico, are wrested from a sister republic by the force of arms and by purchase.

The strong arm of the nation has proved its power in subduing the Indians and bringing the insubordinate citizens to bow to rightful authority. The republic has, by the providence of God, taken a foremost place among the powers of the world, and with an enlightenment and liberalism unknown before has spread her broad arms to the nations and welcomed the oppressed of every clime and race to her "asylum of the free."

Freedom, civil and religious, was proclaimed, in theory, at least, through all the land. And thus, as we have hastily sketched, a nation of patriots had conquered their independence and had laid the foundation of the best government the world has ever seen. They had developed into a powerful people, prosperous at home and respected abroad. This prosperity they had earned by their industry; this respect they had won by their swords from unwilling lips. For, while the bitterest hatred of old dynasties in the Eastern World still lay smouldering, ill-concealed beneath their pretended friendliness, they only dared to flatter the rising power they so intensely hated. All the peoples of the Old World were looking on in amazement to see this experiment of popular government prove so successful as it did. Sister republics sprang up in the New World modeled upon our Constitution. The trembling monarchies of Europe felt the moral force of such a fact in history as "the United States of America" came to be, and they all desired our destruction while they feared the power of our example, for the masses in every country where a general intelligence prevailed had caught the spirit of liberty borne to them on every Western wind, and should the fact be established beyond question that the entire people were capable of self-government they would be most likely to follow the example thus set them. This caused the monarchs of Europe to wear uneasy crowns as they sat upon their tottering thrones. And they said, "A violent internal commotion will rend this country asunder, and its disrupted States will form rival independencies, and thus the power which we fear will ere long overshadow us will be destroyed." This they said and this they sincerely hoped. There seemed to be the prospect of a speedy realization of their fond anticipations, for there had been one dark spot upon our otherwise fair escutcheon. It stood out bold and black and repulsive, and made us a by-word to the nations. It was this: While we proclaimed universal liberty in our immortal Declaration of Independence, there was at the same time within our own borders a race of serfs cut off from all these inalienable rights which we had demanded for every man.

How to deal with this forbidding question, which we had inherited from the mother country, was a perplexing one to our wisest and best statesmen. Good men of all shades of political opinion could not fail to see the fearful cloud, small and inauspicious at first, but spreading wider and wider still was threatening our destruction. The contest must come sooner or later. Political extremists in either section of the country hastened it to its final issue. An appeal to arms, rash as it was wicked, was made. The flag of our common country was insulted and disgraced, the authority of the government despised and its rightful allegiance set aside. Nothing in all the world would give more satisfaction to the enemies of civil liberty in the Eastern continent than to see the rebellion prove a success. And so they threw the whole force of their sympathy and moral aid, under cover of a pretended neutrality, on the side of those who sought to overthrow the government. In this they were disappointed. The unrighteous appeal to arms was most disastrous to those who made it. The authority of the government was asserted by the overthrow of the armed rebellion. The strength of the citizen soldiery which the nation could call into the field was appalling to other nationalities. More than two millions of names were borne upon the muster rolls of the United States army, a greater force than Napoleon could command in the height of his power. The grand review of the army at the close of the war was a spectacle unequaled in history. One hundred and eighty thousand strong, they marched past the President and the generals of the army, and that, too, when many thousands of soldiers equally brave, were scattered throughout the South. Never before had the world seen such a sight. But these men were ready to stack their arms, park their artillery, and return to the avocations of peace. In an incredibly short time they were disbanded; and to-day you will find them in the workshops, the fields, the stores, and all the marts of trade throughout our land, from its one extreme to the other.

Those questions which were left to be solved as the outgrowth of the war are too new and too recent for us to discuss them without bias by our former opinions. That ultimately they will be wrought out to a successful issue is the hope, yes, the settled belief of every man who recognizes the truth that "God ruleth among the nations of the earth," and "he maketh even the wrath of man to praise him." Is there no design of Providence in all this wonderful history of the past and aspect of the present? This free land, extending from sea to sea, with no abutting nation upon either frontier, capable of sustaining hundreds of millions of inhabitants, offers now a home to the oppressed of the world; and they are hastening to its shores, spreading over its wide extent, and peopling its towns and villages. The Celtic and Teutonic, the Anglo-Saxon and his Germanic cousin, the Scandinavian of Northern Europe and the child of sunny France and Italy. The Asiatic and the African are beneath a common flag to-day. The teeming population of Europe and Asia came of their own accord, the one part across the ocean which laves our Eastern shores, and the other wafted by the softer gales of the Pacific to the golden shores of the west. And now they find an equal home as they strike glad hands across our free America.

The dusky sons of Africa are here as well. They came, it is true, as Joseph came to the land of Egypt, "whose feet they hurt with fetters." But, thank God, those fetters are stricken off to-day. Here there is ample protection for all religions alike, the true and the false. The Protestant and the Catholic, the Mohammedan and Pagan, the Jew and the Christian of every name are on an equal footing before the law. The only conflict there is between them is the conflict of argument and ideas, and with a general diffusion of intelligence among the people the true religion has nothing to fear in the unequal contest with the false. If America in the future will keep her ballot-box pure and her people rightly educated she need fear nothing that that future has in store for her.

The great duty of America to-day is to civilize, to educate and to christianize her people. The first of these results will follow from the other two united. God has sent the world to our feet for us to enlighten, to instruct, and to convert to him. When the great question came to the church of Christ, "How shall we bring all men to a knowledge of the truth? How shall we send the light of a pure religion to all the world?" God himself answered it by sending the nations to us. Here they are to-day, and we must christianize them or they will paganize us. The Church can do her great part in this work so long as the strong arm of the Government protects the freedom of speech and disseminates the light of intelligence to the masses. These, then, are the bold questions which affect this common humanity of ours, and which America is working out for the world to-day: freedom of person and conscience; universal equality and the brotherhood of the race; the civilization and redemption of all men. If she be true to her trust the grandest place in history awaits her, but if she prove false, she will find written on the walls of her proudest palaces by the finger of Deity, "Thou art weighed in the balances and art found wanting. Thy kingdom is given to another," which, may heaven forbid!

Let us prize, as we should, the blessed inheritance which has come down to us from the past. Let us remember that the blood of three generations cements the bond which binds this union with its indissoluble chain. The altar of our liberty has been baptized with the richest and the noblest blood which ever flowed in human veins.

The patriots of 1776, of 1812, and of 1861 have vied with each other in sacrifices for a common country, and poured out their blood like water to enrich the soil from which has sprung this tree of liberty. Long may it flourish, striking its roots deeper and deeper still into the earth; higher yet may it lift its towering top into the heavens as its branches, outstretching far and wide, throw their protection over all the land alike. Nor storms, nor tempests' fiercest power can now tear up the giant oak. If e'er it shall decay, the worm which feeds upon its life will be the cause. But may God forbid.

Let us, then, swear renewed fidelity to our institutions, to the Constitution and the laws of our united land. And with that stern old patriot, Andrew Jackson, answer back to the world, "The Union must and shall be preserved."

Our Nation:

THE STORY OF ITS PROGRESS AND GROWTH.

THE earliest settlement that remained permanent in the United States was at Jamestown, Virginia. Sir Walter Raleigh, who was at one time a great favorite of Elizabeth, the Queen of England, was very much interested in making a settlement in America, and expended a vast amount of money to forward his plans. But his colonies always failed for some cause or another. Sometimes the colonists would return in disgust at the hardships which they had to endure. A part of one colony was murdered by the Indians, and when help came nothing but ruins could be found; and one colony was lost, and its fate is unknown to this day. At last, in 1606, a grant was given by the king to a company who would colonize any part of America claimed by the English and trade with the natives. Under this grant, a company of one hundred and five men set out for Virginia in three vessels. One-half of this number were "gentlemen" of broken fortunes; some were trades-people, and some were servants. There was not a farmer and only a few mechanics among them. There was one man in this band who was a born hero and leader,—John Smith. They came to the James River and laid the foundation of a settlement, which they named Jamestown, in honor of the king. Here were planted the seeds of the first settlement that took root and flourished. The colonists, unaccustomed to toil, erected rude homes in the wilderness and planted a little. When the summer came they were attacked by sickness, and about one-half of them died from disease and starvation; but winter brought them better climate and abundant supplies of game and fish. Smith set out to explore the country, and was captured by the Indians. After puzzling them for a time with the mysteries of the pocket compass and the art of writing, he was rescued from death by Pocahontas, the young daughter of the Indian chief, Powhatan, who had decided to kill him. When Smith returned from his captivity with the savages, he found his colony on the very point of breaking up. Only thirty-eight were living, and these were making preparations to leave. But the return of their leader inspired them with new hope, and they resumed their work. New colonists joined them from England, but they were of a class known as "vagabond gentlemen, who had packed off to escape worse destinies at home." The reputation of the colony was so bad, that we are told that some, rather than come to Virginia, "chose to be hung, *and were*." These were the undesirable subjects whom Smith was obliged to rule with an authority that none dared to question. But unfortunately for the colony, Smith was obliged to return to England to procure surgical treatment for an injury caused by an accidental discharge of gunpowder. In six months the colony was again reduced to sixty men, and were making ready to depart, when Lord De la Warr, their new governor, came and prevented them. Once more the settlement was saved on the very verge of dissolution.

Years of quiet growth followed, and a better class of emigrants came. There was a great demand for tobacco,—a new plant unknown to Europe until Sir Walter Raleigh introduced it into England;—and the colonists found it growing in Virginia, and learned its cultivation from the natives. It was in extensive use among the Indians, and was regarded as a medicine. The use of this plant spread in England very rapidly, and created a demand for its supply, and the Virginians found it a most profitable crop to cultivate.

In the absence of money, tobacco became a medium of exchange among the colonists. Salaries of officers and ministers, fines in churches and State, were paid with it. In a few years after the first settlements, a representative government was established. They had a House of Burgesses composed of twenty-two members, who were chosen by the people, with a governor sent out from England. The Anglican church was recognized as the State church, and the colony was divided into parishes. A college was founded, and the Indians were friendly. The first European child born in this region of America was the daughter of one of Raleigh's colonists, named Dare, and she was baptized by the name of Virginia Dare. Pocahontas, who married a young Englishman named Rolfe, went to England with her husband, where she was kindly received by the queen, and made the recipient of many favors. She died at Gravesend, March, 1617, just as she was about to return to America with her husband. She left an infant son, from whom some of the best known families of Virginia are descended.

THE SETTLEMENT OF NEW ENGLAND.

A LITTLE more than two centuries ago, the part of the United States called New England was one vast forest, with here and there a little clearing where a few Indian families made their temporary home, and raised their scanty supply of corn. But it was destined to become the abode of a hardy and devout people, who by their industry and frugality were to lay the basis of a mighty nation upon the broad foundation-stones of civil and religious liberty.

A noble band of men in England who were denied the liberty of worship which they desired in their own land, resolved to escape to Holland to find the freedom denied by their own countrymen. Rev. John Robinson, a wise and good man, had been their minister, and after straggling bands of Puritans, as they were called, reached Holland, their pastor joined them. They remained here eleven years receiving additions, from time to time, from those who were anxious to be free from religious oppression. Then it was decided to establish a settlement in America where they could be free to worship God.

Enough money was raised to equip and send over one hundred of their number to the New World. Two ships were chartered to take them across the stormy Atlantic. On a morning in July this vanguard of freedom, gathered at Delft Haven, on the river Maese, to listen to the prayers of their pastor, and receive his parting blessing. One of the vessels proved unseaworthy. Another, the *Mayflower*, of one hundred and eighty tons burden, bore one hundred and two of them safely to America.

After repeated delays, the Mayflower set sail in the early part of September, 1620, and after a long and stormy voyage, dropped her anchor in the waters of Cape Cod Bay on the 11th of November of the same year. It was a cold and barren coast which met their view, with low sand hills almost devoid of any vegetation, with some low dwarf trees.

The Pilgrims went out to explore, and finally chose a spot where they decided to found their colony. They landed on the 11th of December upon Plymouth rock, and began the Colony which they called by the name of the city in England which they had left. Here they were in an unknown wilderness, the winter upon them, with scant supplies and no shelter. But they worked manfully to build their little town, sadly hindered by the severe cold and the death of their comrades, who fell around them. They erected nineteen houses, surrounded them with a palisade, and then on the hill they erected a building which served the double purpose of a fort and a church. The severe winter passed, and when the spring came their numbers had been sadly reduced by death; but soon the health and spirits of the survivors began to improve.

The little band had signed a civil compact in the cabin of the Mayflower before they landed, in which they formed themselves into a government, and chose John Carver as their governor. They acknowledged King James as their sovereign, but were emphatically a self-governing commonwealth. They had known enough of the despotism of Kings, and were quite sure that democracy could not be any worse, and they had faith to try the experiment.

From this small beginning came the establishment of political and religious liberty in America.

For some years, the difficulties which beset the infant colonists were well-nigh insurmountable, but their faith failed not, and after a time prosperity came to them. Each summer new additions were made to their number, of men and women who had caught the spirit of religious freedom, and sought to find here an asylum from the tyrannies to which they were subject in their old homes. Thus New England became the place of refuge to many of the wearied victims of persecution, and seemed a paradise to those who were denied the right to worship God according to the dictates of conscience.

The men were stout of heart and patient in toil, and their industry and labor brought them comfort. They were simple in manners and plain in dress; their wants were few and these were supplied by the harvests of the autumn, by their success in hunting and fishing and by the flocks they raised. The women carded, spun and wove the wool. The men felled the forests and built houses and vessels, erected cities and formed new towns in the woods. The ships they built crossed the ocean and carried their freights of timber, fish and furs. Commerce sprung up and prosperity smiled upon the settlers. They early made friends with the Indians; and one of the most pleasant episodes in the early days of the Colony was the visit and friendly aid of Massasoit, a Sachem who lived at Swansey, now Warren, Rhode Island.

He came with his brother and sixty warriors to the little settlement in March, 1621, the spring which followed the first severe winter in the new world. He made a league of friendship with the English, and for forty years was their staunch friend and protector, never failing them in all their dangers and hardships. His influence saved the little band from destruction by the

Narragansets. Two years after his visit the old chief was taken very sick, and would have died if the governor had not sent him Mr. Winslow, who used simple remedies which effected a cure; and in his great joy and gratitude he said, "Now I see that the English are my friends and love me, and while I live I will never forget the kindness they have shown me." The kindness of this Indian was of great value to the Colony as long as he lived, and he was highly respected by them.

The Colonists of New England paid great attention to the subject of education, believing that it was of vital importance to the preservation of the State and Church. In a few years schools began to appear, and a law was passed that every town of fifty freeholders should maintain a common school, and every town of one hundred must sustain a grammar school. Some tolerably qualified brother was chosen and "entreated to become schoolmaster." Harvard College was established within sixteen years after the Pilgrim fathers landed at Plymouth.

Twenty-three years after the landing, there were twenty-four thousand white people in New England. There were forty-nine towns, and four Colonies, namely, Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut and New Haven. There seemed at first a desire to scatter widely, push out into the wilderness, form new settlements, and set up self-government, each for itself. But this separation could not long exist, for there were other human beings in the wilderness beside the white settlers, and these had a prior claim there. Within calling distance there were Indians enough when aroused and combined to drive out all the colonists. And beyond the frontiers were French and Dutch settlements. So it came to pass that the four Colonies were forced to form themselves for mutual protection and encouragement, into a band called "The United Colonies of New England." This was the first confederation in a land which was destined afterwards to establish this form of government on a scale the world had never seen before. Nor was this done any too soon, for there were troublous times to come, and these earnest, God-fearing men found that they would need all the strength which a united assistance and a common bond would bring.

Massasoit was dead, and all the efforts of the English to Christianize and civilize the natives had produced but little effect.

THE INDIAN WAR.

THE great Indian Apostle, Rev. John Eliot, was the pastor of the church at Roxbury near Boston. He was moved by pity to carry the Gospel to the tribes around him, and for this purpose he learned their language, and translated the Bible by means of an alphabet of his own. He preached to them in their own tongue, and many became converts. He even attempted to establish a college for the Indian youth, but was obliged to abandon this undertaking on account of their natural love of idleness and strong drink. They would not work. They could indeed be taught to rest on the Sabbath, but they would not labor on the other six days. This was a great cause of hindrance, but in spite of the general discouragement, there were many noble exceptions, and the hold which Christianity took upon those who accepted it was never wholly lost. In the Indian wars which arose, the converts were never found fighting against the English, but usually united in aiding them.

At length came the short but bitter war with King Philip, the younger son of the old chief, Massasoit, the friend of the colonies. Even his enemies will acknowledge that this savage chief was a hero. The noble old Sachem, who had been faithful to his early friendship with the English, had two sons, whom Governor Winslow had named Alexander and Philip. Alexander had succeeded his father, but had died, and Philip had become chief and Sachem. He was noble-hearted, patriotic, and filled with good sense. He was a statesman as well as a warrior, and at first was friendly to the settlers. But he saw that the whites were crowding year by year upon his domain; still he kept the treaties which his father had made, and even submitted to grave insults from the white men. There came a time when he could endure this no longer, and he arose in war against them. The war spread throughout New England, and the colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts united to meet them. In a week the Indian chief was driven out of his beautiful home on Mount Hope, Rhode Island, and went a fugitive to other tribes, arousing them to vengeance. The whites thought the war was over, but it had just begun. The powerful tribes of the Narragansets joined in the war. The Indians avoided the white troops, and carried on the warfare, after their savage fashion, by plundering towns and villages, and killing defenseless women and children. Whole villages were wiped out, and no one could feel safe. The fields, the homes, the churches, the very beds of the poor colonists were liable to be attacked without warning, and a general massacre of all was threatened. Out of one hundred towns twelve were entirely destroyed, and more than forty others were more or less plundered. Josiah Winslow, General-in-chief of the united colonies, with a brave band of settlers, captured the principal fort of the Narragansets, which stood where South Kingston, Rhode Island, now is, and destroyed it. Their chief, Canonchet, was soon afterwards taken, and offered his life if he would submit; but he proudly refused. When he was condemned to death, he said, "I like it well; I shall die before I speak anything unworthy of myself."

The close of 1676 brought an end to the war; King Philip saw that he could not prevent the other tribes from making peace, and the most of his own warriors had fallen. When he heard that his wife and child had been taken by the English, he exclaimed in his anguish, "My heart breaks; now I am ready to die."

He was shot in a swamp by a traitor Indian, and his body was given to Captain Church, the famous Indian fighter and commander of a party pursuing Philip and his warriors. According to custom, the head of Philip was severed from his body, and carried on a pole to Plymouth, where it was set up in sight of the people for a number of days. The body was quartered and hung on trees. In this way did the New England colonists retaliate upon the Indian warrior and statesman, who labored and fought for the rights of his tribe. There were now scarcely one hundred of the Narragansets left, and Philip's son, who, with his mother, had been made a prisoner before his father's death, the sole survivor of the family of Massasoit, was carried to Bermuda and sold into slavery.

Annawon was the next in command over the Indian forces after the death of Philip, and the same captain, Benjamin Church, who had taken the head of the king to Plymouth, was sent to capture him. Church became separated from his company, and had only one white man and five friendly Indians when he heard where Annawon and his band of fifty warriors were encamped. These men succeeded in surprising the chief, and taking him a captive to Boston, where he was put to death by the English, after he had surrendered all the royal emblems of Philip. The white people had no excuse for this act of wanton cruelty.

SETTLEMENT OF NEW YORK.

Hendrick Hudson, an explorer in the employ of the Dutch, had discovered and sailed up the river which bears his name, in the year 1609. Three or four years after the Pilgrims had landed at Plymouth, the Dutch West India Company resolved to establish a trading post with the Indians. They sent out a settlement in 1623, which located on Manhattan island at the mouth of the (present) Hudson River, and built a town which was afterwards called New Amsterdam. They prospered until they became involved in war with the Indians, when, at times, the colony appeared on the brink of ruin. They built a wooden wall or palisade across the island where Wall Street is now situated. The war came to an end, and for eighteen years afterwards there was a time of peace and prosperity under the government of a wise and sagacious man, Peter Stuyvesant. While his government was not faultless, the province flourished under it, and a continued flow of emigration came in from Europe. In the year 1664, an English fleet appeared in the harbor to demand the territory in the name of their sovereign. Charles II. had given his brother, James, Duke of York, the whole of the territory of New Netherlands embracing New Jersey.

Stuyvesant was willing to fight the invaders, but the English settlers would not fight against their king, and the Dutch, who remembered some of the petty tyrannies of their governor, would not join him. At length he yielded to the entreaties of two ministers and many of the people, and the city of fifteen hundred inhabitants quietly passed into the hands of the English, when its name was changed to New York. With this city the Dutch also gave up their settlements in New Jersey, including those made by the Swedes, which they had absorbed, and so the English had possession of the Atlantic coast from Massachusetts Bay to Georgia.

THE LAND OF PENN.

William Penn, the son of an English admiral, who had won many noted victories for the Crown, became a Quaker, to the disappointment of his friends, just at the time when a brilliant future was spread out before him. At first the father was furious and turned his son out of doors, hoping that hunger would soon cause him to recant; but the admiral finally relented and restored him to favor. When his father died, soon after the reconciliation, young Penn inherited his possessions, and among the rest a claim for $80,000 due the admiral from the king. Penn, who had formed in his mind a design to establish a settlement in America for the persecuted members of his own sect, offered to take payment of the king in land; and Charles was ready enough to bestow upon his subject a vast region stretching westward from the Delaware River. Penn then came to America with the noble purpose of founding a free and self-governing State, where, as he said, he could show men as free and "as happy as they can be." He proclaimed to the men who were already settled within his territory, "Whatever sober and free men can reasonably desire, I will comply with." He was true to his word; and when in 1683, he met representatives of the settlers, in an Assembly, he gave to the people a "Charter of Liberties," signed and sealed by his own hand. He had also dealt honorably and kindly with the Indians, and bought their lands of them, and in return they respected and loved him. The conference with the natives was held under a large elm which stood in the forest where Philadelphia now is, and a monument marked the spot for fully two centuries. All was to be "openness and love," and "no advantage was to be taken on either side." For long years the Indians recounted the words of Penn; and the blood of a Quaker was never shed by an Indian on the soil of Pennsylvania.

The fame of Penn's new State went abroad to all lands, and it grew very rapidly with grave and God-fearing men, who came from all parts of Europe. During the first year, two thousand persons arrived, and Philadelphia became a town of six hundred houses. A few years later Penn returned to England, and reported that "things went on sweetly with the Friends in Pennsylvania; that they increased finely, in outward things and in wisdom."

The settlement of Pennsylvania was founded in 1682.

SETTLEMENTS IN THE OTHER COLONIES.

THE thirteen original States were Virginia, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, Delaware, Maryland, Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

Connecticut was settled by men and women from Massachusetts, in two colonies. One came through the wilderness and settled at Windsor above Hartford; the other came by water and settled at New Haven.

Rhode Island was settled by Roger Williams, a minister of Salem, who, by his outspoken opinions about "soul liberty" had offended clergy and magistrates. He declared that the State had to do only with the "bodies and goods and outward estates" of men. In the domain of conscience God alone was the ruler. He was banished and went to the wilderness, where he obtained a grant of land from the Indians and laid the foundation of the State of Rhode Island. He founded the city of Providence and proclaimed that his settlement was to become a "shelter for persons distressed for conscience sake." And so has it ever been.

New Hampshire was settled by colonists from Massachusetts, of which it was a part from 1641 to 1679.

Delaware was so named in honor of Lord De la Warr, who came to Virginia as governor, in 1611, and gave great relief to the settlers at Jamestown, who were about to abandon it. It was first settled by Swedes, in 1637, but passed into the hands of the Dutch, in 1655. Penn afterward obtained possession of it, when it was annexed to Pennsylvania. It was returned to its former condition of a separate colony, in 1703.

Maryland was first the recipient of intended settlers in 1731, by a band of adventurers from Virginia under William Clayborne. In 1632, Lord Baltimore received a charter from the King, making it a distinct province, when it was named "Maryland" in honor of the Queen.

New Jersey was first settled by the Dutch, in 1620, and by the Swedes and Danes in 1637. It afterwards passed into the hands of the English, when they took possession of New Netherland (New York) in 1664.

North Carolina was permanently settled under a grant from King Charles II., in 1663. John Locke, the metaphysician, and the Earl of Shaftesbury, prepared a "fundamental Constitution for the two Carolina colonies," aristocratic in every feature, but it was never accepted by the American settlers, and after many years it was abandoned.

South Carolina received its first well-defined settlement in 1670, when Sir William Sayle and a company of adventurers, under a charter from Charles II., planted a colony on the shores of Port Royal Sound. In 1680, English families settled at Oyster Point, where they founded the city of Charleston.

Georgia was the latest of the colonies that formed the original Union, and the farthest south of any of the English possessions in America during the time of colonial history. It was settled in 1733, when General Oglethorpe founded the city of Savannah. He obtained a charter from George II. of all the land between the Savannah River and the Altamaha, extending westward to the Pacific Ocean. It was designed chiefly as an asylum for bettering the condition of English prisoners for debt, and for a refuge from persecution of Protestants in Germany and elsewhere. Parliament appropriated $160,000 for the enterprise. In 1733, General Oglethorpe, at the head of 120 emigrants, planted the seeds of a colony on the site of the city of Savannah. The next year a hundred Germans came and were assigned a place, which they in gratitude named Ebenezer. They were steady and industrious, and some of them eagerly applied themselves to the raising of silk and indigo. The fame of the colony spread through Europe and attracted large numbers. Thus was planted on the eastern shore of the continent a chain of English colonies like a vanguard, which was in time to conquer the wilderness and fill the land with busy towns and thriving villages. The hum of machinery was to be heard along its water-courses. Its hills were to resound to the whistle of the shop and locomotive. The wharves of its cities were to be crowded with commerce from all parts of the world, and a stream of emigration was to pour in from all the crowded nations of the East, and an empire would be erected upon the foundation which these feeble colonies were laying. Each distinct, with no common bond but the slight allegiance to a distant sovereign, they were to become united in one mighty compact, and together give the world its highest example of a free government of the people and for the people. These earnest men builded better than they knew, and shaped the destinies of the unborn millions who should come after them.

THE COLONIAL PERIOD.

AFTER the establishment of the colonies which stretched along the Atlantic coast from the Penobscot to the Altamaha, and owned allegiance to the English king, there came a period of formation and growth in which they developed their natural resources and established their commerce, built colleges and seminaries, and grew in all things which increased their prosperity and strength. The Indian tribes were subdued, the forests were cleared and cities and towns sprang up as if by magic. Manufactories were built and agriculture was flourishing. The colonies were left alone by the home government and allowed to direct their own affairs. In some cases a governor was sent from England to rule the colony, but the laws were enacted by representatives chosen by the people. In others the people had the right to elect their own governors. They regulated their own commerce and internal trade and directed their own taxation and system of religion and education.

We will take a hasty glance at the condition of each colony during this period.

In New England we will find some things that may surprise us. The early settlers had been a religious, sensible people, but when they left Europe there was a universal belief in witchcraft. King James had written a strange book on Demonology, in which he said that to forbear to put witches to death was an "odious treason against God," and the people were no wiser than their king.

The superstition spread to America, or was brought thither by the shiploads of emigrants who were flocking over the sea to find a home here. All at once it burst out like a fearful scourge in the little town of Salem, Massachusetts, now a fine city.

There was here a minister by the name of Parris. The daughter and the niece of this clergyman fell ill of a strange nervous disorder. The doctors claimed that they were bewitched, and the minister set out at once to find out who were the offenders. Three old women were suspected, and taken into custody. From this the mania spread, and every one became alarmed and suspicious. No one was safe. Witches were supposed to ride in the air at night. Even the beasts were not safe; and once a dog was solemnly condemned to death for taking some part in a satanic festival.

The prisons were filled with the accused, and a score of persons were put to death. The town of Falmouth hanged its minister; and the wise and intelligent were no more secure than the low and ignorant. The wild panic lasted for more than six months. Those who confessed that they were wizards or witches were set free for the most part, while those who denied it were judged guilty and punished. Many refused to buy their life by falsehood and miserably perished. The delusion spread wide like a forest fire, until the whole colony was filled with terror. But the reaction came as suddenly as the outbreak of the mania. The Governor put an end to the persecution, stopped the prosecutions, dismissed all the suspected, and pardoned the condemned; and the General Court proclaimed a fast. They entreated that God would pardon the errors of the people "in the late tragedy caused by Satan and his instruments." One of the judges with bowed head stood in his pew in a church in Boston while a paper was read asking the prayers of the congregation, that the innocent blood which he had shed in error might not be laid to him or the country. The Salem jury asked forgiveness of God and of the community for what they had done under the power of a strong and general delusion. Reverend Mr. Parris was obliged to resign his church and leave the town a broken man. The error of New England had been great and lamentable, but her repentance was deep and sincere. Strange as was this widespread delusion, there is another chapter in colonial history none the less strange. The very men who had come across the ocean to find religious liberty, in their turn became persecutors and bigots. They had discovered that the restraints laid upon them for conscience' sake were unjust and grievous, and while they claimed toleration for themselves they had not learned that others had as good a right to think for themselves.

After enjoying a few years of religious liberty there began to arise strange doctrines, which they thought it their duty to put down at all hazards. Roger Williams, a young clergyman—"godly and zealous"—landed in Boston in 1631, with strange notions which he had brought with him. He had been the friend of John Milton and taught him the Dutch language. Long and serious study had convinced him that in regard to creed and form of worship, man was alone responsible to his Creator, and no one is entitled to lay compulsion upon another man in reference to his religious opinions.

The colonists were not ready to receive these opinions, although Williams was settled as a pastor over the church in Salem, where he was held in high esteem. But his bold preaching drew down upon him the wrath of the authorities, and, deserted by most of his church, he was banished and escaped to the wilderness of Rhode Island where he established a colony for perfect religious toleration, as we have observed.

Williams had a forgiving spirit and twice saved the Puritan colonies from their enemies. But they continued to persecute the Baptists, and when the Quakers came to Boston the General Court proclaimed a fast, and cast them into prison. Their books were burned by the common hangman, and shipmasters were forbidden to bring any Quakers into the colony. They were publicly whipped through the streets of Boston, tied to carts, and were banished under penalty of death if they returned. Four persons suffered death; others were long imprisoned. The Quakers had friends at home, and in 1661 a letter came in the king's name directing that the authorities in New England should forbear to proceed farther against the Quakers. The letter came by the hand of a Quaker who was under sentence of death if he returned.

But they did not dare to do otherwise than respect it. With this closed the most shameful chapter in the history of New England.

A writer on the history of these times offers the following excuse for the persecution of this peaceful sect: "But, in justice to New England, it must be told that the first generation of Quakers differed extremely from succeeding generations. They were a fanatical people,—extravagant, intemperate in speech, rejectors of lawful authority. They believed themselves guided by an 'inner light,' which habitually placed them at variance with the laws and customs of the country in which they lived. George Fox declared that 'the Lord forbade him to put off his hat to any man.' His followers were provokingly aggressive. They invaded public worship. They openly expressed their contempt for the religion of their neighbors. They perpetually came with 'messages from the Lord,' which were not pleasant to listen to. They appeared in public places very imperfectly attired, thus symbolically to express and to rebuke the spiritual nakedness of the time. The second generation of New England Quakers were people of beautiful lives, spiritual-minded, hospitable, and just. When their zeal allied itself with discretion, they became a most valuable element in American society. They have firmly resisted all social evils. But we can scarcely wonder that they created alarm at first. The men of New England took a very simple view of the subject. They had bought and paid for every acre of soil which they occupied. Their country was a homestead from which they might exclude whom they chose. They would not receive men whose object seemed to be to overthrow their customs, civil and religious. It was a mistake, but a most natural mistake. Long afterwards, when New England saw her error, she made what amends she could by giving compensation to the representatives of those Quakers who had suffered in the evil times."

THE GROWTH AND GOVERNMENT OF THE COLONIES.

At the first there was some diversity in the form of government in the different colonies, but as time passed on this lessened, and one general type came to be in force in them all. The governor was appointed by the king, and he had to depend upon the assembly of representatives chosen from the people, for the moneys needed to carry on the government and execute its laws. So as the time of separation drew near the governors found their powers very much circumscribed by the heavy pressure which the Assembly brought to bear upon them. When the governor as the king's representative had a falling out with the popular will as expressed by the representatives of the Commonwealth, the latter assumed the whole business of government. The people were, in fact, self-governing, who felt a pride in their connection with the mother country, but if their governors encroached too much upon their rights, they were ready to resist them to the utmost. Virginia had two councils at first, one appointed by the king, and the other elected by the colonists, but both were under control of the king. In a few years the representative system prevailed, but the governor retained the power of veto. She was more closely allied to the Crown than the more northern colonies, and remained loyal to the Stuarts. Virginia refused to recognize the Protector, Oliver Cromwell. Refugees from England were gladly received in Virginia during these troublous times, and when the Stuarts were returned to power, her then ruling class rejoiced.

On the other hand the colonists of New England had come to America to get rid of kingly rule, and were of a different spirit and temper. In the little cabin of the *Mayflower* they had signed their compact of government and selected their own governor. Every member of the church was an elector, and could hold office. This democratic form of government continued for sixty years, until the despotic James II. took it away and appointed a governor of his own choosing. They cordially supported Cromwell, and hesitated for two years after the restoration of Charles II. before they recognized him as their king. These colonies were the most democratic and the least tolerant of kingly interference of any of the colonies in the New World. New York, which had been given to the Duke of York, had its governor appointed by him. Pennsylvania was bestowed upon Penn, who had a right to name its governor. But at last all the colonies came to receive a governor from the king. Connecticut held out longer than the rest, and when the governor, appointed by the king, came to Hartford to demand the charter of the colony; it was hidden in the hollow of an oak tree, afterward known as the Charter Oak.

While the colonies had as yet no thought of separation from the Old Country they were still in the presence of a common enemy. The French had taken Canada and the present State of Louisiana, and thus were stretching down from the north, and up from the south, a line of trading posts and settlements, which was a continual menace to the western frontier of the English colonies. The French incited the Indians to attack the English, and there were constant incursions upon the pioneers who were moving westward from the coast. Sooner or later the trial of strength must come between these rival forces. The French claimed the Mississippi River and the fertile valley of the Ohio. To establish this claim, they sent three hundred soldiers into this valley and buried in the ground leaden plates bearing the French coat of arms, and drove out the scattering English who had ventured there. The English, on their part, had given large grants of land to a trading company, who agreed to colonize the valley, establish trading relations with the natives, and a competent military force. This was in 1749, and then the two nations were preparing for war. The home government left the colonies to carry on the struggle for themselves.

In 1753 the Governor of Virginia sent a young man twenty-one years of age on a delicate mission to the commander of French forces on the headwaters of the Ohio River. His name was George Washington, a name destined, some years later, to become famous over the whole world. Marching for Fort Duquesne, with some Virginia forces, in the Spring of 1754, Washington, then a major of militia, met, fought and defeated a French force. He fell back, and built a stockade which he called Fort Necessity. With reinforcements he pushed on toward Fort Duquesne, but was pressed back to his fort, which was attacked and captured. Washington surrendered on honorable terms, and returned to Virginia. In this brief campaign was shed the first blood in the contest known as the French and Indian War.

This campaign was honorable to Washington, but resulted in no especial advantage to the colonies. This contest between the colonies of the French and English was going on for a year and a half before war was declared between the two great nations. But the English were aroused to the necessity of doing something to secure the rich Ohio valley, and they sent Edward Braddock, an officer of distinction, with two regiments of soldiers, to aid the colonies. He began his campaign in 1755, with two thousand troops. He had learned the best rules of war in the broad battle-fields of Europe, but was perfectly unacquainted with the rude tactics of the West. Washington was invited to join his staff, and the young man, eager to retrieve his loss in the former campaign, assented. The English general started on his march, June 10th, to reach Fort Duquesne, on the Ohio, the great centre of French power in the West. It was the objective point of Washington in his former expedition, and was deemed of great importance. This fort had been partly built by the English and taken from them and completed by the French. Benjamin Franklin told General Braddock that "he would undoubtedly take the fort if he could reach it, but the long slender line which his army must form on the march would be cut like a thread in several pieces by the hostile Indians." Braddock "smiled at his ignorance." Franklin offered no further opinion, but performed his duties of collecting horses and equipage for the army. The young aid-de-camp, Washington, offered some suggestions based on his experience, but the general would not listen to any advice from a provincial subordinate. No scouts were sent out, and the commander did not know how near his unseen foes might be. He was marching along a road near the Monongahela River twelve feet wide, when suddenly an Indian war whoop burst upon the air, and a murderous fire opened upon them. The battle lasted three hours and General Braddock was mortally wounded. "Who would have thought it?" said the dying man as they carried him from the field.

Washington was the only mounted officer who remained unharmed, while the regulars, seeing their general fall, fled in confusion. But young Washington rallied the provincials and covered the retreat of the regulars with such a desperate defense that the Indians did not follow. One half of the entire force had been killed, and the remainder returned, disheartened and broken, at the end of a disastrous expedition.

War was now proclaimed between France and England, and the siege of Quebec by the English and its capture by troops under General Wolfe in 1759, with the surrender of Montreal in 1760, established the English possession of Canada and the lake region and beyond.

The English fleet came to Quebec in June, 1759, with a large force. Captain James Cook, the famous navigator, who, thirteen years later, sailed around the world, was in charge of one of the ships, and General Wolfe had command of the army. The city was divided into an upper town, on the heights of Abraham, beyond the reach of the guns from the fleet, and a lower town, on the banks of the St. Charles River. The lower town was quickly reduced, but the upper town held out against any attempt of the English. But the enthusiastic young general was not to be baffled, and carefully searched the high banks of the St. Lawrence. He found an opening where a path led up to the heights above, and here Wolfe resolved to land his men, lead an attack and capture the French position, or perish in the attempt. One night in September, he landed his men silently, and they quietly clambered up the high hill, while the sailors contrived to drag up a few heavy guns. When the morning rose the whole British army stood on the Heights of Abraham.

Montcalm, the French commander, was so taken by surprise at the presence of the enemy, that he refused to believe the first report which came to him. But he lost no time in forming his line of battle, and made a fierce and bloody contest with his unexpected assailants. Both generals fell in the conflict, Wolfe dying happy at the thought of the French defeat. As his blood was flowing he heard the shouts, "They fly! They fly!" He raised his head to ask, "Who fly?" "The French," was the answer. "Then I die content," said the hero. The French General died thankful that he would not live to suffer the mortification of being compelled to surrender to the English. These men died as enemies, but after-generations blended the two names upon a common monument, which marks out to posterity the scene of this decisive battle. The French made an ineffectual attempt to regain Quebec the following year. In due time the French surrendered Canada to the English; at the same time Spain gave up Florida to England; and thus the English held undisputed possession of America from the regions of perpetual ice and snow to the Gulf of Mexico.

All these contests with the savages and the French had fallen with heaviest weight upon the colonists, although they had received some assistance from the home government in the latter part of the struggle. The colonies had poured out their blood and treasure without stint and were loyal to their king. They were proud of the mother country, and were willing to do their utmost to support the honor of the English flag. A hundred and fifty years had passed since the settlement of the feeble colonies on the Atlantic cosat. They were self-sustaining and prosperous, and their increase in numbers and wealth was most remarkable. Thousands were coming every year to seek their fortunes in the West. America opened her wide arms to the oppressed and offered them the blessing of liberty and comfort. The thirteen colonies had increased in population to three millions and were upon the eve of a mighty struggle.

THE GATHERING CLOUD.

It may be a natural question to ask, how it came to pass that in the short space of ten or twelve years the affection and respect which the colonies had for England, which they still fondly called "home," were changed to hatred and a desire for separation? What cause had been at work to sever the bonds of attachment, and awaken the mighty spirit of resistance which spread all over the country? For generations they had spoken the same language, and had a common code of laws, while glorying in the history of the past.

England was the model in all things, and to be an "Old England man" gave one a prestige and position among the colonists; while all yielded a willing obedience to her laws. They were governed, as Benjamin Franklin had said, "at the mere expense of ink and paper." Money was voted without grudge by their Assemblies, and all the relations between the colonies and the home government were of the pleasantest kind, and such was their love for England that "they were led by a thread."

But a wonderful change was wrought in the public mind, and the aroused people resolved in their public gatherings by the most solemn compact, that they would not use any article of English manufacture, or engage in any transaction which would bring money into the pockets of the English. They often treated roughly any person who expressed friendliness for the British; defied the acts of parliament; resisted the authority of royal governors; treated with scorn the soldiers sent to enslave them, and at times were on the verge of open rebellion and armed resistance.

What caused this wonderful change, and how were these numerous obedient subjects taught to despise and fight against the very men whom they had before regarded as fellow countrymen? The answer to these questions can be summed up in one sentence. The persistent ignorance and folly of the English government of the nature and spirit of its American colonies, urged on by cupidity and a desire to wring out of the prosperous colonies a rich revenue to replenish the depleted treasury of the country that had become exhausted in the expensive wars of Europe, wrought all this evil, and lost to the English crown her richest possessions in the Western World. The result was that a new nation was formed that was destined to become the leading power of Christendom. It would have been better if she had gone in peace, and thus not engendered an animosity that lasted for two generations, and led to two disastrous wars between men of the same language and religion. We come now to the story of these struggles.

England had shown for many years a disposition to govern her American colonies in a spirit of harshness and undisguised selfishness. The interest of England was the chief object, and not the good of the colonies. No foreign vessels could land in American ports, and woolen fabrics could not be taken from one colony to another. At one time the manufacture of hats was forbidden. Iron works were prohibited, and up to the last restrictive navigation laws bound colonial commerce hand and foot. The colonies had borne the expense of their own governments and defenses, but now the long-continued struggle had left the treasury of England very low, and Parliament came to discuss the propriety of taxing the colonies for the benefit of the home government. The eager eye of Lord Grenville was searching for something new to tax, and he saw that America was growing rich and powerful. The English officers who had served in the West, had brought back the most glowing accounts of its resources and prosperity. The English merchants were already envious of their increasing wealth. When the House of Commons passed their resolution setting forth their right to tax the colonies, not a single voice or vote opposed the measure. Thereupon an act was passed imposing a tax upon silks, sugar, coffee, and other articles used in the colonies. The Americans remonstrated, and claimed that taxation and representation should go together; they were willing to vote what money the king might require of them, but they would not pay taxes when they had no voice in laying them. But Lord Grenville, who thought the Americans would finally submit, persisted in his course. The act called the Stamp Act was passed at the next session of Parliament in 1765, which required a government stamp on all legal documents. Benjamin Franklin told the House of Commons that America would never submit to this, and no power on earth could enforce it. Nor could England long misunderstand the position of the colonies upon this question. In many places in New England and elsewhere riots occurred, and the Stamp Act was denounced.

The stamp distributors were obliged to resign. A universal protest that they would not eat, drink, or use anything which came from England, was expressed by the citizens everywhere. The act came in force on November 1st, 1765, and on that day the bells tolled, and the people appeared as if some great public calamity had fallen upon them.

Not a stamp was sold in America, but business went on all the same; men and women were married, and merchants bought and sold goods. The courts were held and all the functions of government went on; but all this was illegal because it was done without stamps. Yet no serious harm came of it. The English were astonished, and some demanded that the Stamp Act be enforced with the sword, but the British merchants feared the loss of their trade with the colonies if this were done.

William Pitt, afterwards the Earl of Chatham, joined with the merchants and caused a repeal of the law the very next year. But stubborn old King George never ceased to regret "the fatal repeal of the Stamp Act."

The third intercolonial Congress assembled at New York during the excitement. It is known as the Stamp Act Congress. They adopted a Declaration of Rights, and accomplished a good design in showing the tendency of Union between the States.

The approaching crisis was delayed for a little time by the repeal of the Stamp Act. But when the feeling in England was stormy against the colonies, Charles Townshend, the virtual Prime Minister of England, during the sickness of Pitt, proposed to levy various taxes on America. All his proposed measures became laws. The most obnoxious of them was a tax of three pence a pound on tea. This act was passed in 1767.

The Americans despaired of justice and right from the English Parliament, yet they hardly dared to think of open separation, but already the most thoughtful among them were becoming fixed in their opinion as to what the issue would be. They protested, they appealed, they held large public meetings, and everywhere the people were inflamed with a sense of their injuries, other laws restricting the liberties of America were passed by Parliament, and the people prepared to resort to the last step in the solution of the fearful problem. Riots occurred; the foreign officials were resisted, and public meetings were held to deliberate upon their grievances.

British troops were sent across the ocean to preserve order. Their presence was galling to the citizens, who could not brook this restraint upon their liberty.

The press, the pulpit, and the assemblies of representatives in all the colonies were bold in their utterances against the tyranny of the old country. The General Court of Massachusetts called on their governor to remove the soldiers, but he was powerless. The governor called upon the court to raise money to maintain the troops, and they took infinite pleasure in refusing to raise money for that purpose. Then came the "Boston Massacre," (March, 1770), in which the troops fired upon the citizens, and killed and wounded eleven persons. This inflamed the zeal of the patriots still more, and the entire populace was aroused. The people again demanded the removal of the troops from the city, and the trial of the soldiers for murder. This was complied with, and two of the soldiers were found guilty of murder, by a Boston jury.

Parliament now wavered in its treatment of America, and removed all the duties, except the small one on tea. But they had mistaken the feeling of their colonies. It was not the amount of the tax to which they objected, but the principle of taxation without representation.

In the autumn of 1773, ships laden with taxed tea arrived in Boston harbor. The crisis had now arrived. The excited people met and considered the situation. If that tea should be landed and sold, liberty in America would become a by-word. It was resolved not to allow it to be landed.

Samuel Adams, a man of strict integrity and powerful eloquence as a speaker and writer, was the true leader of the revolt in Massachusetts. He was one of the first who saw at the outset that there could be no stopping-place short of independence. "We are free," he said, "and want no king." He assumed the leadership of his fellows, and was worthy of the trust. They hoped that the consignees of the East Indian Company, in whose employ the ships were engaged, would send them back, but they refused. Days of intense excitement followed. Public meetings were held constantly in a church and in Faneuil Hall, afterward known as the cradle of American liberty. One day the debate waxed hot, and the people continued together till night-fall. Samuel Adams announced, "This meeting can do nothing more to save the country," and with a shout it broke up. The excited crowd hastened down to the wharf, led by fifty men disguised as Indians. This band of disguised men rushed on shipboard, broke open the boxes of tea, and poured their contents into the harbor. The crowd looked on in silence, and not a sound was heard but the striking of the hatchets, and the splash of the ruined tea in the water. That cargo of tea would bring no taxes into the English treasury, that was certain. This was on the night of December 16th, 1773, and was the first move of the colonists toward open resistance. Then they waited to see what might be the next move of England.

Lord North was then Prime Minister of the English Crown, and he determined to deal harshly with such men. The port of Boston was closed as a port of entry and sailing for shipping; a heavy fine was imposed for the destruction of the tea. The charter of Massachusetts was revoked, and the governor was ordered to send political offenders to England for trial. In spite of the remonstrance of Lord Chatham, and of Edmund Burke, these measures became laws. Four regiments of regulars were sent to Boston, under the command of General Gage. The Americans held a day of fasting and prayer. More than this, they organized military companies, and began the process of equipment and drill. While all this was going on in the northern provinces, the other Colonies were not idle, but Massachusetts received the heaviest blows of vengeance. An invitation to all the Colonies to meet in General Congress at Philadelphia, on the fifth day of September, 1774, was sent out by the sturdy Representatives of Massachusetts, who met in Salem. Twelve States sent delegations to this Congress. Georgia, the youngest and most southern of the thirteen Colonies, alone stood trembling upon the verge of the perilous enterprise.

The first General Congress of the American commonwealth, met in Carpenter's Hall, in the city of Philadelphia, on the 5th day of September, 1774, agreeable to this call. The regular business of the Congress began on the 7th, and was opened with prayer. In all their proceedings, decorum, firmness, moderation and loyalty were manifested, and the delegates voted to adjourn to the 10th day of the following May, unless the English Crown in the meantime should redress their specified grievances. But King George was blind and stubborn.

Lord Chatham said in open Parliament of the men who formed this Continental Congress: "For solidity of reasoning, force of sagacity, and wisdom of conclusion under such a complication of circumstances, no nation, or body of men can stand in preference to the General Congress in Philadelphia." Peyton Randolph, of Virginia, was President, and Charles Thompson, of Pennsylvania, was secretary of this body. George Washington, Patrick Henry, John Rutledge, Richard Henry Lee, John Dickinson, and other men of that stamp were there. Washington assures us that this Congress did not aim at independence, but a removal of wrongs. The time was ripe for open resistance, and the patriots of Massachusetts were busy in the autumn and winter of 1774, in making preparations for war, and uniting the people to meet the storm that was sure to come.

THE BURSTING OF THE STORM.

NO alternative was now left to the colonists, and they saw that they must fight for their liberties or forego them altogether. Throughout the State of Massachusetts, where the heel of the oppressor was planted the heaviest, the most active preparations were in progress. Minute-men were drilling, and stores of arms and ammunition were being collected in central places, where they would be considered safe from seizure by the British. The press and the pulpit vied with the rostrum in their bold defiance of the aggression of the soldiers. Fathers and sons were urged on by their wives and mothers, and the spirit of freedom incited them to deeds of danger and sacrifice. The officers of the English Government were despised, the soldiers were defied, and the laws were set at defiance. Such was the condition of things when the spring of 1775 dawned upon the conflict. This is regarded as the first year of the long struggle of seven years which was to test the strength of the young country in her contest with the victorious armies of English warriors who came fresh from the battle-fields of Europe.

General Gage, the commander of the British forces in Boston, had learned that a large amount of military stores were secreted at Concord, eighteen miles away. He decided to send an expedition to seize it in the king's name. He sent eight hundred soldiers upon the errand. To prevent the tidings from being carried to the patriots the general forbade any one going out of Boston. The troops were silently embarked at the foot of the Common where the tide then reached and landed on the main. Doctor Warren, afterwards killed at Bunker Hill, made arrangements with his friend, Paul Revere, to carry "the tidings to every Middlesex village and farm." Young Revere escaped from Boston in a small boat just five minutes before the guard was stationed to prevent any one from leaving the city. He was to notify Hancock and Adams who were at Lexington, and to arouse the people all along the route. Revere waited on the Charlestown shore until his friend should learn how the British were to proceed. He was to hang a lantern in the North Church tower, "one if by land and two if by sea." At the instant the twin lights appeared upon the tower, Revere dashed off in the darkness and spread the tidings. He reached Lexington and warned Hancock and Adams. Then he proceeded toward Concord, but was arrested by a British guard, not, however, until he had communicated the news to a friend, who carried it forward.

The British, who had crossed the Charles River and marched all night, reached Lexington just as day was breaking. The minute-men were called by the beating of the drum, and about one hundred militia were gathered to meet eight times as many trained soldiers.

There they stood on the Common, on a very warm morning as the regulars came up. Captain Jonas Parker had ordered them not to fire on the British until the latter had first fired on them. Major Pitcairn rode up and ordered the "villains" and "rebels," with an oath to disperse, and instantly commanded his men to fire on them.

The captain of the Continentals had intended to disperse his men, but the fire of the British had killed eight and wounded several; about one-fifth of the whole. The British fire was returned only by a few of the wounded men; and three Englishmen were wounded. But the war had begun by the cold-blooded murder of Americans on their own soil.

It was no battle, and the act of the British officer was nothing less than wanton murder. Samuel Adams said when he heard it, "Oh! what a glorious morning this is," knowing that it would rally and unite all the people. The regulars cheered over their triumph of a few score farmers, who had not attacked them, and pressed on to Concord. They reached here at seven in the morning, but were too late, for the news of their coming had preceded them several hours. The military stores had most of them been removed and hidden away, and but little remained for them to destroy. In the mean time the towns all around had been aroused, and the militia were pouring in from every direction. There were not enough to attack the troops nor were there any serious thoughts of doing so, and they were withdrawn from the village of Concord to a hill on the other side of the river. The British scattered to find the concealed stores, and one party went over the north bridge and one over the south. As the party went over the north bridge, the provincial troops, if troops we could call them, were in plain sight, and therefore a part of the regulars, about one hundred, were left to guard the bridge, while the rest, about the same number, went over. The Continentals saw the British at the bridge and could see the smoke that arose across the bridge. What should they do? see their houses burned and not go to the rescue of their wives and children? They consulted and agreed to march down to the bridge, but not a man was to fire until they had been fired upon. The British saw them coming and began to tear up the bridge. The Continentals hurried on and the British fired upon them,—at first one or two shots by which no harm was done; then more shots were fired; two men were wounded; a whole volley and two of the patriots were killed. "*Fire!* fellow soldiers; for God's sake, fire!" cried Captain John Buttrick, leaping into the air and turning to his men. Thus began the American revolution. Two British were killed and several injured. Blood had been shed by men in armed rebellion, and the men who had done it were rebels and traitors. There could be no backward steps now, and the contest must wage till one or the other side should give in. This was the battle of Concord, and the first one of the war.

The British retreated from the town as quickly as possible toward Lexington and Boston. It had been a mild winter, followed by an early spring, and the day was intensely hot. The provision train which was to supply them with food had been taken, and all they could get was what they might plunder from the citizens. Nor was this the worst, for the minute-men, without any orders from their officers, but each on his own account, lay in ambush behind trees and fences and stone walls, where they were safe, and kept up a harassing fire upon the retreating British to the very shelter of their ships. As the troops would pass by one place the patriots would go forward by by-paths and fire upon them again from another position. When one party became worn out, fresh recruits would come up from the surrounding country, and thus the war was kept up all along the distressing march back to Boston. The march was kept up in good order at first, but broke into an irregular rout at last. About two o'clock in the afternoon they were met by twelve hundred British troops, sent out from Boston to aid them with two pieces of artillery. But their position was perilous even after the arrival of these reinforcements. The colonists were increasing in numbers every moment, and unless they moved rapidly the whole force would be cut off. The firing began again, and more and more of the patriots came up to aid the weary Continentals. They fought like men in thorough earnest, and although they were undisciplined and their methods were crude, they put the very flower of the English army to the worst, and it was not till seven o'clock at night that the regulars were safe under the protection of the guns of their ships.

The British lost seventy-three killed, one hundred and seventy-two wounded, and twenty-six missing; while the Americans had forty-nine killed, thirty-six wounded and six missing. The British suffered heavily in the loss of officers. This was the opening contest that the British had forced upon their patient and loyal subjects in America, and which was to rage for seven years. We will now speak of some of the heroes whose names are conspicuous in this period of American history.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,

THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE CONTINENTAL ARMY.

THE man who was fondly regarded as "the first in War, the first in Peace, and the first in the Hearts of his countrymen," could trace the line of his ancestry back nearly to the Norman conquest of England. He was born February 22nd, 1732, in Virginia, and was educated by his mother, who became a widow when her eldest son was eleven years of age. She early instilled into his mind a love of goodness and truth, which gave a color to all his after life, and to a great extent, moulded the destinies of America. Under her gentle yet firm control, George learned the great lessons of obedience and self-command, and in early life gave promise of the excellences which would ripen into a well-rounded manhood. He had his mother's love of command, and inherited her calm, judicial character of mind. Even among his schoolmates he became an arbitrator of their disputes and would not allow anything unjust or unfair. His person was large and powerful, and he delighted in athletic sports, and out-of-door pursuits. He had a bodily frame suited to a lofty soul, and could endure hardship, toil and fatigue, to almost any extent. His education was limited, and he learned no language but his mother tongue. He learned mathematics and land surveying, the keeping of accounts, and the framing of legal documents. This was the extent of his literary acquirements.

But George Washington was precise and exact in everything he undertook. His copy books, and measurements of surveying when studying, were as neat and scrupulously kept, as if they were of great pecuniary value. At the age of eighteen, we find him serving as a government surveyor for the State of Virginia. Many of his returns are on file in the county court-house and are so very accurate that their evidence is taken in contested disputes to this day, where the measurement or boundary of land is involved. He was Adjutant General of one of the military districts of his native State before the Indian war, and as we have seen, led towards the Ohio valley a body of troops, when he was just past twenty-two years of age. He covered the retreat of the remnant of General Braddock's army, at the Battle of the Monongahela, and was a member of the first Continental Congress at Philadelphia in 1774. He was for the years prior to the Revolution engaged in conducting the affairs of his private estate at Mount Vernon, Virginia, where he shipped his tobacco, kept his books and conducted his own correspondence. He raised a large quantity of wheat, and ground it at his own mill. It became renowned for its excellent quality; and such was his reputation for business integrity that no one thought of inspecting the barrel which bore his brand. He had the rare combination of a massive intellect, an iron will, and a gentle, loving heart. In him was united a perfect equipoise of all the elements of manhood, and in a great degree did he combine the qualities of the Spartan Lycurgus, the Roman Cincinnatus, and the Greek Alexander. A true patriot, a born leader, and a safe counselor in the army, in congress and at the head of government, he was the chosen instrument of Providence, raised up to meet the demand of the times in which he lived, and to earn the proud title which succeeding generations have given him, "The Father of his Country."

History has assigned to Washington a high position among her noble names, and delights to point to him as a revolutionary leader against whom the least act of wrong has never been alleged. Such was the man around whose name crystallizes the noble deeds of the Revolution in America. The life of this man has been so interwoven into the history of the nation, as to form a large part of it.

JOHN HANCOCK.

THIS man was President of the Congress which adopted the resolution for the "Declaration of Independence," and his bold autograph stands at the head of the names which are signed to that immortal instrument. It is a bold defiance to the home government, and flaunted like the battle-flag of freedom, it stands at the head of the list of noted names, in its vigorous strength a type of the man whose courage and undaunted power of will moved the pen which affixed it there in distinct characters for future generations to read, as he said King George could do, "without spectacles." He was born at Braintree, Massachusetts, in 1737, and received a collegiate education at Harvard, after which he became a clerk to his uncle, and at the death of the latter inherited his great wealth. He was one of the most wealthy and the most popular of all the leaders during the Revolutionary struggle, in Massachusetts. He began his public career quite early in life, and was President of the first Provincial Congress which met, independent of royal authority, in Salem, Massachusetts, in October, 1774; also of the Continental Congress of 1775 and 1776.

On June 10th, 1775, General Gage, commanding the British forces in Boston, issued his proclamation declaring the colonists rebels and traitors, but offering pardon to all who would give up their arms and take the oath of loyalty to the king, excepting John Hancock and Samuel Adams, whom he proposed to send to England to be hanged.

Hancock was a staunch patriot, and did much throughout the struggle to aid the army and supply provisions and equipments. He was Major General of the Massachusetts militia, and was sadly disappointed that he was not chosen Commander-in-Chief of the Continental forces. But for all this, he did not desert the Colonies, but gave his services and his money to his country without stint, and was unswerving in his loyalty to the American cause.

John Hancock was Governor of Massachusetts after the war, and died in 1793, honored and respected by all. He was buried in the old Granary burying-ground, in Boston, where lies the dust of many of Massachusetts' noble dead.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

WHEN George Washington was passing his boyhood at Mount Vernon, there was a young man at Philadelphia who was modestly toiling to gain a livelihood. He was a printer, publisher, stationer, and kept a store for the sale of sundry articles. He became a thriving man, and by his simple habits, genial disposition, and pure character won the esteem of his fellow-citizens. More than this, he was a popular writer, and a studious gentleman, whose name would afterwards be sounded over the world as a great philosopher. He would demonstrate to the savans of Europe that electricity and lightning were the same, and give the scientific world a proof that there are investigators and original thinkers among the rude people of the West. But he was more than this even, he was a patriot and statesman who would be an invaluable assistant to the generals in the field. This man was Benjamin Franklin, the printer, the economist, the philosopher, the patriot and the statesman. He was born in Boston, January 17th, 1706, of humble parentage. He was apprenticed to his brother to the trade of a printer, but set out at the age of seventeen to seek his fortunes in Philadelphia, without money or friends. In 1729 he established a newspaper, and began the publication of "Poor Richard's Almanac" in 1732. He established the free library of Philadelphia. He was appointed Deputy Postmaster General of the American Colonies in 1753, a year after he had astonished the world with his scientific discoveries. In 1764 he was sent to England as a representative of the Colonies to protest before the Privy Counsel against the obnoxious Stamp Act; and after being examined before a committee of the House of Commons, where he acquitted himself with remarkable ability, he returned home. He was chosen a member of the second Continental Congress in 1775, and the next year was a member of the committee which framed the Declaration of

Independence. Franklin, very early in the contest, agitated the separation of the Colonies from England, and took a prominent part in all the councils of that eventful period. In 1776 he was sent as the first ambassador to the court of France, where the good sense and simple manners of the old printer gained the favor of the French. He assisted in effecting a treaty between the two governments, which was signed at Paris, February 6th, 1778. He lived to a ripe old age, assisted in framing the Constitution, and was the instrument of forming the treaty of peace with England in 1782. He died in 1790 and was buried at Philadelphia.

ISRAEL PUTNAM,

The hero of Connecticut, who did much to arouse the patriotic zeal of his foster Colony, deserves more than a passing notice. He had taken an active and honorable part in the Indian and French wars, and was Major General of the Connecticut troops at the outbreak of the Revolution. In his wars with the Indians he had been taken prisoner, and at one time was bound to the stake to be tormented by having the savages toss their tomahawks at him with such dexterity as not to cut him, but was rescued by an unexpected deliverance. He had once engaged with a wolf alone in a den, and by his coolness and bravery in many exploits had won the esteem and respect of his fellow-citizens. He was a true patriot, and a stern disciplinarian. After the skirmishers at Lexington and Concord had stirred the people of Massachusetts to deeds of valor, the tidings came to Putnam as he was ploughing on his Connecticut farm. He unyoked his oxen, sent word to his family that he had started for Boston, mounted his horse and rode off to join the patriots in their noble defence. He was conspicuous for bravery at the battle of Bunker Hill, and rallied the militia who turned to run. Some years after this, he stood up in the church of which he was a member to answer to the sin of swearing on that occasion, and partially justified himself by saying that "it was almost enough to make an angel swear to see the cowards refuse to secure a victory so nearly won."

Putnam was born at Salem, Massachusetts, in 1718, and emigrated to eastern Connecticut in early life. He was conspicuous in all the exploits with the Indians of that period and was regarded as a brave and fearless man. In 1775, he was commissioned as a Major General of the Continental army. He was in command of the army in the Hudson Highlands, and superintended the erection of fortifications at West Point on the Hudson. He died in 1790, at the age of seventy-two.

PATRICK HENRY, THE ORATOR.

THIS man, who was a perfect Boanerges (son of thunder) at the outset of the Revolution, was also a native of Virginia, where he was born in Hanover county, in 1736. It is said that he was stupid as a scholar, and indolent in his habits during his youth, and gave no promise of the great power he possessed as a thinker and orator. His remarkable eloquence first broke out when he was twenty-seven, and his reputation as an orator spread over his native State after this. He was the first Governor of Virginia elected by the people, and served in that office for two terms. He was the first of all the public speakers of America to hurl down the gauntlet of defiance to the English. In the year 1765, he introduced into the house of Burgesses, of Virginia, of which he was a member, a series of resolutions highly tinctured with treason. They boldly maintained the doctrine that all the Colonies, and especially Virginia, alone had the right to impose taxes upon the people of that province, and they were not bound to obey any law in reference to taxation which did not proceed from their own representatives. The last resolution declared that whoever dissented from the opinions set forth in the resolutions preceding, was an enemy to the colonies.

Henry supported these resolutions with all the power of his matchless eloquence. In the midst of this memorable speech, when the impassioned orator had exclaimed, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles the First his Cromwell, and George the Third—" "Treason! Treason!" cried a voice from the gallery—"may profit by their example. *If that is treason, make the most of it,*" finished Henry.

Henry was a member of the first Continental Congress, as we have seen. The members sat silent in the assembly which gathered in Carpenter's Hall on that memorable day, the fifth of September, 1774. Not a voice broke the silence, and deep anxiety sat on every face. All at once a grave-looking man in a suit of minister's gray arose, and poured forth a torrent of eloquence in a sweet musical voice which stirred the hearts of all. "Who is he?" was whispered from lip to lip. The few who knew him answered "Patrick Henry, of Virginia." There was no longer any hesitation in the Congress, and the deliberations of that body went on to the end. His eloquence was of a high character, and impassioned in its style.

In the Virginia House of Burgesses, on the 23d day of March, 1775, before the battle of Concord and Lexington, Henry again aroused the enthusiasm of his fellow delegates in a patriotic speech, which has been published in nearly every school reader since that time, and ended with the sentence which became the rallying cry of the Revolution, "GIVE ME LIBERTY, OR GIVE ME DEATH." Twenty-six days after this, Governor Dunmore seized and conveyed on board the British man-of-war a quantity of gunpowder belonging to the Colony of Virginia. The enraged citizens compelled him to leave his palace at Williamsburg, and flee for his life on board of the same vessel. In October of the same year, the deposed governor landed with regular troops to punish the Colony and seize the town of Hampton, near Old Point Comfort. Patrick Henry at the head of the militia defeated him, and compelled him to pay for the gunpowder he had taken away the June before. His regiment carried one of the Earliest known American flags in this engagement, with the words "LIBERTY OR DEATH," and the picture of a coiled serpent under which were the words, "*Don't tread on me.*"

The soldiers were clad in green hunting shirts, with the words "LIBERTY OR DEATH" printed across the bosom. They wore hats with long bucks' tails trailing behind, and a belt with tomahawks and scalping knives stuck in them, and made a formidable appearance as they marched through the province. We will find the mention of Patrick Henry as we proceed further in the history.

SAMUEL ADAMS.

THIS man was the true leader in the city of Boston during the excitement of the Stamp Act and the destruction of the tea. He was then a man of middle age, well educated and with a stainless reputation. He was a most powerful speaker and writer;—a man who gathered his adherents by his eloquence, and held them by his wonderful power of persuasion and argument. He was a type of the old Puritan family from which he was descended, having been born in Boston, in 1732. His fellow citizens felt the power of his resolute will, and gladly followed when he led the way for them. The English rightly regarded him as a leader of the rebellion; for when they sent a proclamation to New England offering general amnesty to all who would lay down their arms and return to their allegiance to the crown, Samuel Adams and John Hancock were the only men who were exempt from the provision of pardon.

The keen foresight of this man took in the situation at a glance, and saw from the first that there could be no halt for the Colonies until a complete separation from the old country was effected. His strength of argument and powerful eloquence in the General Court and before the people did much to mould the action and direct the thoughts of the patriots of this stormy time. There can be no doubt that he was the leader in more than one encounter of the people with the soldiers before the battle of Lexington, and he was responsible for the destruction of the tea in Boston harbor. He seemed eager to incite the Colony to open rebellion, and was delighted with the news of the conflict at Concord and Lexington.

At the Assembly of the representatives of Massachusetts, in Salem, which sent out the invitation that resulted in the first General Congress, they provided for a plan of union between the Colonies, raised munitions of war, and formed a league of non-intercourse with England. General Gage sent his own secretary to dissolve the Assembly, but the door of the chamber was locked and Samuel Adams had the key in his pocket. He was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence and, afterwards Governor of Massachusetts. He was a true man, a noble patriot, a born leader of the people, and in the hours which tried men's souls he was brave, undaunted and heroic.

The unflinching advocate of liberty, he was among the first to pledge "his life, his fortune and his sacred honor," to the cause he loved, and his countrymen loved to do him honor. He died in 1803.

There are many other illustrious names of this period. General Warren, who fell at Bunker Hill, Henry Knox, the warm friend of Washington, General Green and a host of noble men, heroes all of them; but we must hasten on with our history, and let their heroic deeds speak their praise in more eloquent terms than words can proclaim.

BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL AND SIEGE OF BOSTON.

WE will resume the line of history at the point where we left off: the return of the discomfited British troops from their ill-fated expedition to Concord and Lexington. The initial blow for liberty had been struck, and it was appalling to friends and foes alike. The people were thoroughly aroused all over the land. General Gage had issued his proclamation, of which we have spoken.

Minute-men were gathering from all parts of the country, and the other Colonies heartily espoused the cause of their sister, Massachusetts. The ministry of the crown had cut off the Colonies from protection, exempting New York, Delaware and North Carolina, but these Colonies had spurned the offer and united with the others in a common cause. The news spread like wild-fire that patriotic blood had been shed, and already American freedom could boast of her martyrs. Mounted couriers were galloping in hot haste to other Colonies to carry the tidings of Lexington. "The war has begun!" was shouted in market-place and by the press. And all true men saw that the time to lay aside the avocations of peace, and gird themselves for the contest, had arrived. In her great eagerness, North Carolina threw off her allegiance to the crown and formed military organizations. Georgia and South Carolina sent gifts of money and food with cheering letters to the patriots of the North. There was a general rush to arms in Virginia, under the arousing influence of the orator, Patrick Henry. From almost every town and hamlet of New England men were rushing to Boston. That city could be easily blockaded. A narrow strip of land joined the peninsula to the main land at Roxbury; called Boston Neck. Three thousand British soldiers were quickly hemmed within the city, and still General Gage did not move. The New England yeomanry were pouring into the camp of the blockaders, undisciplined and ununiformed. The regulars of the English army mocked them as "a rabble with calico frocks and fowling-pieces." But they were free Anglo-Saxons with arms in their hands and a strong purpose in their hearts. It was unwise to despise such men.

A number of aggressive movements were undertaken by volunteers against forts and garrisons, which were successful from their very boldness and unexpectedness. Among the most important of these was the taking of Ticonderoga and Crown Point, on Lake Champlain, by the troops of Connecticut and Vermont. On the morning of the 10th of May, 1775, Colonel Ethan Allen and the Green Mountain Boys appeared in the vicinity of Fort Ticonderoga. It seems that there were two independent expeditions ignorant of the purpose of each other. The Colony of Massachusetts had given Benedict Arnold a commission as Colonel, and ordered him to raise a force of four hundred men to reduce the two forts. Connecticut lent eighteen hundred dollars to aid the enterprise, and ammunition was purchased which, as we shall see, was not expended for that purpose. The Connecticut men were first in the field, and went to Vermont and offered the command to

Ethan Allen. He was a bold, rough man who had made himself conspicuous by his resistance to the royal governor of New York, who attempted to take possession of Vermont. While the troops were concentrating at the rendezvous at Castleton, Arnold came up with his Massachusetts commission. He was allowed to join the army, but Allen was put in command. The first thing to be done was to obtain information of the condition of the fort. Captain Noah Phelps, of Connecticut, dressed as a farmer, went to the *fort to get shaved*, as he claimed he thought he could find a barber there. He obtained the information wanted and returned to the camp.

On the evening of May 9th, the force of Green Mountain Boys were ready to embark in the only boat that could be procured; but eighty-three men could cross at the same time. The two colonels went over in the first boat. When across the river, Allen could not wait for more men and undertook the capture of the fort at once. A young lad named Nathan Beman led them to the fort. The sentry was captured, and the little force of eighty-three men took possession of the fort without firing a shot. The officers were asleep in their quarters when a terrified soldier pointed out the door of the commanding officer. Colonel Allen cried out, "Come forth instantly or I will sacrifice the whole garrison!" Captain Delaplace, the English commander, had no time to dress and came out of his room as he was. "Deliver this fort, instantly!" said Allen. "By what authority?" asked the British captain. "In the name of the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress," replied the patriot. So he was compelled to surrender his fortress before he had learned that the war had actually begun. At once the men were paraded without arms, and the Americans obtained two hundred cannons, and a large stock of ammunition without a blow. Two days afterward, Colonel Seth Warner proceeded to capture Crown Point, which surrendered almost as easily as Ticonderoga, and then an armed sloop was taken on the lake. This gave the patriots complete control of Lake Champlain, and was of immense advantage to the Colonists.

Provincial Congresses had been held in many of the Colonies, and before the summer was gone every one had thrown off the authority of England.

The second Continental Congress met at Philadelphia on the very day that Allen had taken Ticonderoga, and voted a very conciliatory and open-handed address to King George, but not to be too late, they at the same time took measures to organize the Continental army, appoint a commander and general officers, and raise money for the war. The Provincial Congress of

Massachusetts appointed a committee of safety, May 19, 1775, sitting at Cambridge, with full powers to regulate the army of the province. Artemas Ward was appointed Commander-in-chief. Israel Putnam, John Stark, and other heroes of the French war were appointed to important commands.

On the 25th of May, six English men-of-war sailed into Boston Harbor, and it was rumored that reinforcements of troops, with generals Howe, Burgoyne and Clinton, the best generals in the English army, were in these vessels.

Gage now thought himself able to meet the undisciplined militia besieging him around Boston, but the Colonists did not permit him to choose his time and place for the first engagement. On the Charleston peninsula there are two hills within easy gun-shot of Boston, namely, Bunker Hill and Breed's Hill. In a council of war it was decided to seize and fortify one of these hills and prepare for the onset of the English. The rumor came that Gage intended to occupy these hills, and fortify them on the morning of the eighteenth of June. Not a moment was to be lost; on the evening of the sixteenth a band of twelve hundred Americans under Colonel Prescott, accompanied by General Putnam, were mustered on Cambridge Common for special duty.

Prayers were said and they marched away in silence, not knowing where they were to go. The men only knew that they were marching possibly to battle, and some to death. They passed under the very guns of the British ships and reached the hillside undiscovered by their enemy. They ascended Breed's Hill. A lovely June night, warm and still, was upon them. Across the Charles river now slept the unsuspecting foe. Swiftly and carefully they labored to throw up a breastwork and build rifle pits on the hill. When the morning came Gage saw a long line of intrenchments and armed men behind them, where the day before the untrodden grass waved in the summer air. He looked through his field glass and saw the tall figure of Colonel Prescott. "Will he fight?" asked the English general. "Yes, sir," said a bystander, "to the last drop of his blood!"

A simple plan of attack was agreed upon. The Continentals could never sustain the shock of regular troops, so an attacking column was sent to march straight up the hill to make an assault on the works in front.

Reinforcements were coming to the Americans; they were supplied with a gill of powder and fifteen balls each. To obtain even this small supply the balls were run from the organ-pipes of the Episcopal church at Cambridge.

At noon the English crossed the river, halted for rations, and the men from their earth-works could see and hear them. The bright uniforms and glistening bayonets of their foes did not deter them from their noble purpose. From church steeple and house-top, from all the surrounding cities, there were eager spectators watching the event of battle. The well-trained soldiers of England had no easy task. They marched up the hill upon that hot summer's day through the tall grass with their heavy knapsacks and equipments, weighing one hundred and twenty pounds per man. When they were more than a musket shot distant they fired a harmless volley at the patriots. "Aim low," shouted Putnam to his men, "and wait till you can see the whites of their eyes." Nearer and nearer the solid line of red-coats came up to the breastworks. At last the word is given to fire, and the American sharp-shooters made every shot tell with deadly effect. The English line recoiled. Once more they advanced to the very breastwork to receive a murderous fire from the patriots, and again sustain a bloody repulse. Now they throw off their knapsacks and great-coats, and come up again to the assault. They are resolute this time and will end the fight with the bayonet. The Americans have spent their little stock of ammunition and can give the red-coats only a single volley. They have no bayonets, and for a little time fight hand to hand with their clubbed muskets, but are soon driven out of their works and flee to Cambridge under the galling fire of the English ships. The English had doubtless won the day, but some things had been gained for the patriots; it had been demonstrated that American freemen could contend with the disciplined soldiers in a fair stand-up fight. Henceforth the success of the Revolution was a foregone conclusion. George Washington, it is said, exclaimed when he heard of this battle, "Thank God! the liberties of the country are safe."

The loss of the English in this engagement was nearly eleven hundred, and of the Americans five hundred, yet as the English obtained the works they regarded it as a victory. The Americans who had up to this time taken up arms and fought the English troops, had done so without any form of authority, and no responsible body or legislature had recognized or employed them. They had no supplies of any kind. Their friends at home wove and spun to send them clothing and blankets, and the neighboring citizens fed them as best they could.

The second Continental Congress appointed George Washington, of Virginia, the Commander-in-Chief of the Continental Army on the 15th day of

June, 1775, and shortly after the battle of Bunker Hill,* adopted the incongruous assembly of men at Cambridge as "the Continental Army." Washington hastened to join the army before Boston, and assumed command under a grand old elm at Cambridge. The condition of the army was a sad one. They were without much ammunition; only nine rounds for each man in the ranks. They could not use their artillery, and their rude and irregular fortifications stretched for eight or nine miles. The provincials were not soldiers enough to know how weak they really were. Any moment the English might break their feeble lines and hurl them back in utter confusion.

Washington saw the peril, but he was powerless. There was an army of ten thousand well-trained British soldiers in Boston. A noble body of men, but fortunately for the Americans they were led by incompetent generals. Gage quietly endured the seige without making a move. Small-pox broke out in his army and did fearful havoc. They were poorly supplied by the fleet, and had to destroy the very houses for fuel.

Gage was recalled by an angry ministry, and quitted Boston in disgrace. General Howe was to succeed him. Washington was at times almost in despair. His men had enlisted for three months, and they found that a soldier's life was a hard one, that even their patriotism could not endure. The general was a strict disciplinarian and would be obeyed. When January, 1776, arrived, he found himself with a new army much reduced in number, and he had to begin the weary process of drill and organization over again. He knew that Howe was informed of his condition, and he was constantly looking out for an attack. In February, Congress sent him a liberal supply of arms and ammunition. Ten regiments of militia were added to his little army and he began to feel that he could make a move.

The heights of Dorchester lay to the south of Boston, and if he could secure and hold this position he would be able to drive the British out of the city. He settled upon the night of the 4th of March for the undertaking of securing it. He kept the attention of the enemy by a constant discharge of artillery, while he sent a strong party of men to Dorchester to throw up a line of works. Huge wagons loaded with bales of pressed hay were driven there to form breastworks for the men, who could not dig rapidly in the frozen ground. The men worked with such energy that when morning came they had fashioned the bales of hay into redoubts and fortifications of quite a formidable appearance. In the morning General Howe, peering with his glass through the fog, saw the works and said, "The rebels have done more work in one night than my whole army would have done in a month." Howe prepared an expedition to cross to Dorchester and fight the patriots, but for two days a fearful easterly storm raged that scattered his transports, and on the third day he saw that the Americans had possession of the heights; then he knew that it was impossible to capture them. He laid aside his plans of battle and made preparations to evacuate the city. Washington might have taken them as prisoners of war, but he could not care for them, nor could the Colonies keep them until exchanged: so he gave a written promise that he would not hinder them in departing from the city. On the 17th of March not a British soldier was left in the city of Boston, and five thousand of the joyous Continentals entered it in triumph. Seven thousand soldiers, four thousand seamen, and fifteen hundred families of those who had been loyal to the king, sailed for Halifax.

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* The troops were ordered to fortify Bunker's Hill, but by mistake they fortified Breed's Hill. It was supposed to be Bunker's Hill until afterwards and so it is often erroneously called in history.

General Israel Putnam, with a second detachment of troops, entered the city and took possession in the name of *the Thirteen Colonies.*

Washington had learned that Sir Henry Clinton had sailed from Boston with his troops upon a secret expedition early in January, 1776, and he naturally supposed that the British general had gone to New York. He at once ordered one of his generals, Charles Lee, to go to Connecticut, raise troops for the defense of that city, and watch Clinton wherever he might attempt to land. Six weeks before the evacuation of Boston, Lee had twelve hundred troops in the vicinity of New York, and was on the watch for the British.

But in the mean time the citizens of New York had committed overt acts of treason on their own account. They had seized the cannon at Fort George, and had driven the royal governor on board of an English ship. In March, Clinton arrived with his fleet and army just outside of Sandy Hook, and on the same day, Lee, not knowing where the English were, marched into the city and took possession. Clinton, foiled in this attempt to obtain New York, sailed to the southward. Washington had not heard from Lee or Clinton, and as soon as he could leave Boston he pressed on to aid Lee and find Clinton, also thinking that Howe would sail to New York. He arrived about the middle of April, and began fortifying the city and the Hudson Highlands fifty miles above. General Charles Lee had been ordered south to assume command, and Lord Stirling, an American citizen of New York, who espoused the patriot cause, and was of Scotch descent, was left in command. Lee was hastening toward the Carolinas, arousing the Whigs, and on the lookout for the English General Clinton.

Clinton had been joined at Cape Fear by an expedition sent out from England under Admiral Sir Peter Parker, and the combined fleet appeared off Charleston, South Carolina, on the 4th of June, 1776. The patriots in the South were aroused, and, led by Colonel Caswell, had defeated an army of loyalists over fifteen hundred strong, in February of that year. When Governor Rutledge called for volunteers they rallied from all over the State, and six thousand well-armed men appeared at Charleston to repel the invaders. A fort of palmetto logs and sand was erected on Sullivan's Island, and twenty-six cannon were mounted, and a garrison of five hundred men was stationed there under Colonel William Moultrie. The British made a combined attack by land and water upon this island, but were repelled after a persistent battle of ten hours. Colonel Thompson, with a small force in a battery, held the advancing land forces of Clinton at bay, while the fort poured its shot and shell into the fleet. At night the crippled and discomforted fleet sailed away, and for two years the sound of British guns was not heard below the Potomac. The English fleet sailed for New York, June 31st, 1776, and the victory of the patriots of South Carolina had an inspiring effect upon all the colonists throughout the country.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

After these months of fighting there were those who could not come to think of separation from the home government but with pain. Those who were native Englishmen could not but love the land of their birth, and many were slow to abandon the proud title of British citizens. The Quakers and Moravians were opposed to war as sinful, and great numbers thought it was useless for a few weak colonies to measure strength against the power of Great Britain. There was long and anxious discussion. The land was flooded with pamphlets and papers setting forth the oppression of the home government and the grievances of the Colonies. The wisest and best minds of the age were agitating the question of a final rupture, because they saw that this was the only course. The vast weight of intelligence, learning and argument, as well as patriotism, was in favor of this.

Among these, a man who wielded a powerful pen, and aided the cause with the full weight of his influence and talent, was one who has never received the full amount of honor due him. He held a conspicuous place among the men of his time, and his judgment was considered of importance in the settlement of serious questions. We refer to Thomas Paine, an earnest thinker and writer. He had been but a few months in the Colonies, but his vigorous mind was enlisted on the side of human freedom. He wrote a pamphlet entitled Common Sense, in which he took the strong ground that the Colonies ought to be free. The Continental Congress was in session, and the time was ripe for a decision of this question. On June 7th, 1776, a resolution was introduced, "That the United Colonies are and ought to be free and independent." Some opposed, some favored. Pennsylvania and Maryland had instructed their delegates to oppose it. The Quakers were loyal to the last. Seven States were for, and six against this resolution. It was then voted that the matter be deferred two or three weeks.

On the 4th of July, the Declaration of Independence was adopted by the thirteen States, by the unanimous consent of all the Colonies. It was a most remarkable document, setting forth the wrongs done to the Colonies, and portraying the character of George the King, in the roughest handling he ever received, and ending with these wonderful words, "and finally we do assert and declare these Colonies to be free and independent States, and that as free and independent States they have power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do, and for the support of this declaration we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes and our sacred honor." To this immortal document, the names of all the members then present, were signed.

The original draft of the Declaration of Independence, in the handwriting of Thomas Jefferson, the youngest member of the committee, is preserved. The Declaration was first published to the world with only the names of John Hancock and Charles Thompson, appended: but two other names were signed on the 2d of August.

This act of the Congress inspired the patriots with enthusiasm. The Declaration was read by order of General Washington at the head of each regiment, and by the ministers in their pulpits and everywhere in posters and papers from Massachusetts to Georgia. The quarrel must now be fought out to the end, and result in a glorious victory for freedom, or in a shameful defeat. Everywhere the Declaration was received with shouts of joy. The soldiers in New York pulled down a leaden statue of King George and sent it to Litchfield, Connecticut, where the family of Oliver Wolcott melted it and ran it into bullets to hurl at the king's soldiers. General Washington issued orders to his troops, in his customary dignified style, in which he said, "The General hopes and trusts that every officer and soldier will endeavor so to live and act as becomes a Christian soldier defending the dearest rights and liberties of his country."

THE PROGRESS OF THE WAR.

JUST after the publication of the Declaration, General Howe, with Clinton and a large force of troops, made up largely of Hessians hired from some petty German Princes to fight the Americans, appeared off New York. These Hessians were hired at so much per head; and their employment in that case to make war on British subjects, was a scandal to Europe. Frederick the Great did not hesitate to express his unmitigated contempt for both parties to the bargain.

The British army was now composed of twenty-five thousand men, and General Howe had brought with him a commission to pacify the Colonies. They were now no longer Colonies, but free and independent States. So when General Howe invited them to lay down their arms, and promised them a free pardon, they replied that they were not seeking forgiveness but liberty.

The sword must be the arbiter now. The British landed upon Staten Island, a few miles from New York. With his fleet Lord Howe could hold undisputed possession of the bay, and at his leisure choose his point of assault. General Putnam was sent with a body of troops to take and hold the heights of Brooklyn which commanded the city of New York. Staten Island could be seen from the heights and after a while the English were observed moving. They struck their tents, marched on ship board and crossed the bay near the Narrows. Putnam marched out of the works to meet the enemy, for Washington did not hope for a victory, only to do all he could to cripple the enemy. The English landed ten thousand men, in three divisions. The left division under General Grant, moved along the shore towards Gowanus. The right, under Clinton and Cornwallis, towards the interior, and the centre, composed of Hessians, under De Heister marched up the Flatbush road. The right attacked the Americans, and others came to help what seemed the main attack, while the remaining column of British cut off their retreat, and the centre closed in upon them. The Americans retreated to their intrenchments. Howe might have captured them, but he waited for the co-operation of the fleet and began a regular siege. Washington perceiving the peril of the remnant of his forces at Brooklyn, silently withdrew them under cover of night, and in the concealment of a dense fog, they reached New York in safety. Early the next morning, before their flight was discovered, Washington retreated to Harlem Heights. The British followed; fought him at White Plains and captured Fort Washington. The Americans crossed the Hudson closely pursued by the British.

Lord Stirling had been defeated and taken prisoner; so also, had General Sullivan. It was indeed a dark time for the American cause. Scarcely four thousand men were left and they were dispirited at the defeats they had suffered. Thousands of their comrades had been killed, or, worse than death, were crowded in prisons and prison ships to die of neglect and starvation. This little army of men, without blankets or shoes, poorly armed and ill-fed, were a strange force to defend a continent. Washington was in full retreat to Philadelphia, and the British had possession of New York and Long Island. Again the British general issued his offers of pardon, and many of the rich colonists accepted them to preserve their property. The loyalists, who had been silenced by the popular uprising, now became clamorous and defiant. The terms of enlistment of the militia were expiring, and they were leaving the ranks, and the Continentals were deserting every day. Newark, New Brunswick and Princeton, were occupied by the British, and Washington reached the banks of the Delaware river with scarcely three thousand men. So near was the vanguard of the pursuing British, that their drums could be distinctly heard by the rear guard of the Continental army. And often the men engaged in destroying bridges behind the Americans would see the head of the column of the enemy before they had completed their work of destruction. Washington knew the desperate odds against him. He had not hoped to overcome the British in the Eastern States then, but he resolvd to do what he could with such an army as his country had given him. The British waited in New Jersey until the river should freeze and they be able to pass over. Washington strove to devise a plan by which he should win back success to his cause.

The defeats which had followed each other so rapidly for four months had caused the people to become uneasy and dispirited. The short terms of enlistment had been embarrassing to the army, and the increasing activity of the tories, as the loyalist colonists were called, all had a disastrous effect.

The winter of the second year of the war had come, and the British general was inactive; his officers and men were enjoying themselves in New York, and small detachments were scattered throughout New Jersey. Thirty miles from Philadelphia was the city of Trenton, held by a considerable force of British and Hessians. Washington crossed the Delaware Christmas night, 1776, in a storm, and made a hurried march to Trenton to surprise the careless army there. He succeeded. The general in command was slain, and the troops surrendered at discretion. A week after this encounter, three regiments of British troops came to Princeton, on their way to retrieve the defeat of their companions. While they were resting for the night, Washington surprised them at dawn on Jan 3, (1777), and after a sharp fight defeated them with heavy loss. These successes, slight as they seem, revived the drooping spirits of the patriots and restored the wavering confidence in Washington, which after this was unbounded. Congress gave him unlimited military authority for six months. They also decided that all enlistments thereafter should be for the war. Thus in the time of its deepest peril the infant Republic was rescued from its danger by the timely victories of Trenton and Princeton.

Thus opened the third year of the struggle with victory and enthusiasm for their Commander-in-Chief, and soon the hearts of the colonists were to be cheered by the arrival of a new ally to freedom, and a source of strength that would be of great aid to them in their contest for liberty and independence.

THE FRENCH AID TO THE COLONIES.

A NEW force was now to enter into this, which had been up to this time an unequal contest. France had long cherished a bitterness toward England for the loss of her possessions in Canada, caused by the defeat at Quebec. She had fondly hoped that America would avenge her for this loss by throwing off the British yoke. She had more than once despatched to the Colonies a secret agent to ascertain their temper; and since the troubles with the mother country had begun, her secret emissaries had been at work among them to offer sympathy and give pledges of commercial advantage. It was safe for her to foster the growing dislike of England in America, and to stir up the Americans to fit out privateers to prey upon British commerce. But there was one young man at this time serving in the French army, whose professions of friendship for America were not all flattery and inspired by hatred of the British. This man was a young French nobleman of large fortune and strong love of liberty. He was less than twenty years of age, and had first heard of the American struggle from the Duke of Gloucester, while he was dining with some French officers. That conversation made a radical change in the young man's plans for the future. He had the keenest sympathy with the cause of liberty in which he believed the American States to be engaged, and no sooner had he become satisfied of this than he was ready to ally himself with the patriot army. He had just been married to a beautiful lady whom he left in France, and came to America in a ship fitted out at his own expense. He offered his services to the Continental Congress in the third year of the war, when the cause seemed to be at its lowest ebb. His presence with other foreign officers stimulated the hopes of the whole nation, for it was a visible proof that there was help and sympathy for them beyond the ocean.

America has given this impulsive, generous young man a high place in her affection. The Continental Congress gave the zealous French youth a commission as Major General (July 31st, 1777), and three days afterwards he was presented to General Washington at a public dinner. Here on August 3rd, two men met for the first time whose names were forever after blended in grateful remembrance by a patriotic people, who regard them as deserving the highest love of the nation. George Washington, the plain Virginia planter, and the Marquis de Lafayette, the wealthy French nobleman, who had espoused the cause of the feeble Colonies with all his heart. Together these men were to play a grand and noble part in the Drama of Nations, and like brothers were to stand side by side through the darkest days of gloom until victory should crown their united efforts and a free people should sound their praises from the lakes to the gulf and from sea to sea. The Americans have delighted to do honor to the first and most faithful ally to their cause.

THE CAMPAIGN OF 1777 AND 1778.

WE left Washington after his victory at Princeton, in January, 1777, which caused returning enthusiasm of the patriots. He was too weak to attempt the capture of the large amount of British stores at New Brunswick, and therefore he hurriedly retreated to Morristown, where he established winter-quarters. He kept up his plan of harassing the enemy until, at the opening of spring, scarcely a British or Hessian soldier was left in New Jersey except at New Brunswick and Amboy. No general movement was made by either army until the first of June, and Washington remained in his winter-quarters till the last of May. His army was improving in health and numbers, in discipline, spirits and material. A few slight movements had been made in the spring. The British had made an expedition up the Hudson and destroyed some stores, returning the same night. They had also marched from the Sound to Danbury, Connecticut, destroyed the town, and fought the militia under General Wooster, Silliman and Arnold. The first had been killed, the second barely escaped, but Silliman had discomfited and harassed them all the way to the coast and inflicted severe injuries upon them while getting on board of their ships at Compo, near Westport, Connecticut.

May 22nd, Colonel Meigs had crossed the Sound from Guilford, Connecticut, attacked the British garrison at Sag Harbor, Long Island, burned a dozen vessels, destroyed stores, and returned the next day with ninety prisoners. A similar exploit was performed in Rhode Island. A party in whale boats rowed across Narraganset bay amid the hostile ships and captured the British General Prescott in his bed (July 10th), and he was sent under a strong guard to Washington. Colonel Barton led this expedition, and afterward received a fine sword, as a testimonial of his bravery, from Congress.

Thus the campaign was opening. Congress urged Washington to lose no time in attacking the enemy; but he could safely wait and bide his time, smiling at the vain confidence which had so quickly taken the place of distrusts and almost of despair. His army was being recruited every day, and the old soldiers whose time had expired were induced to remain by patriotic appeals and the promise of bounty. By the middle of June there were eight thousand men in the Continental army, tolerably well armed and clothed, and under a state of fair discipline.

The Hessians had committed many depredations in New Jersey, and a strong thirst to avenge private wrongs induced many of the wavering citizens of that State to enter the service. Howe desired to capture the capital of the Confederation, Philadelphia, and advanced his army to do so, but Washington was so strongly intrenched across his way that he dared not attempt it. He prepared an expedition to sail to the Chesapeake, leaving New Jersey in complete possession of the Americans.

At the middle of July, General Burgoyne, with a force of seven thousand men, had taken Crown Point and Ticonderoga from the Americans, and spread terror through Northern New York and Vermont. Sir Henry Clinton was left in command at the city of New York. The British forces under General Howe landed at Elkton, Maryland, on August 25th, and marched toward Philadelphia; and at Brandywine Creek a severe battle was fought with the Americans, September 11th, in which Lafayette was wounded, just forty days after his introduction to Washington. The patriots were defeated with an estimated loss of twelve hundred men. The generals of that time were disposed to blame General Sullivan, who commanded the right wing, for this defeat, because of alleged lack of vigilance. Washington had lost the battle, but not by any want of skill or bravery.

The British army was warmly received by the Tories of Philadelphia, and by demoralizing indulgence there during an entire winter it became so weakened that Dr. Franklin said "Sir William Howe has not taken Philadelphia, but Philadelphia has taken Sir William Howe."

The Federal Congress had fled at General Howe's approach, and when, a bright September morning, the British troops marched into Philadelphia, there were many citizens eager to receive them with open arms. The British were in possession of the long-desired prize, the Federal Capital, but they could obtain no supplies by sea, on account of two forts on opposite sides of the Delaware River, a few miles below the city. On the morning of October 22nd these forts were attacked by a large force of British under Howe. Fort Mercer was bravely held by Lieutenant-Colonel Christopher Greene of Rhode Island, and Fort Miffin by Lieutenant-Colonel Samuel Smith, who both made a gallant defense and drove the British away. The forts were afterward abandoned and the English had possession of the river to the sea. While the British were weakened by the large detachment which had gone down the Delaware, Washington decided to attack the main force of the enemy at Germantown, and a complete surprise was given them, which at first was successful. But in the obscurity of a fog, confusion arose among the regiments of the Continental army, and some of them mistook each other for enemies. The confusion increased to a wild panic and they fled in disaster.

We must leave Washington preparing to go into winter-quarters, and turn northward to see about the army of Burgoyne which we left in possession of Ticonderoga and Crown Point. This English general had set out on an expedition from Canada to subdue the northern part of New York. General Schuyler was in command of the Northern Department, but he had only a small force, chiefly of militia. These men were of different temper and spirit from the citizens of Philadelphia and vicinity, and when they heard of the invasion they assembled from all over the country. Each man took down his musket from where he had hung it, and hurried away to join the army. They were undisciplined but resolute of purpose. The invader made slow progress until he found himself at Saratoga. A force had been sent to Bennington, Vermont, to seize cattle and provisions which were gathered there. Colonel John Stark had been commissioned to raise troops in New Hampshire, and with his men defeated one party of the British, while Colonel Seth Warner met and overcame another, August 16th. Burgoyne was in difficulty; he had been impeded by the efforts of Schuyler in his march, was in an enemy's country without supplies, and found but little help from the Tories. It was now October and the heavy fall rains made the roads impassable. Provisions were getting low and hard to procure.

The Indians had been aroused in the Mohawk Valley and joined the British. They invested Fort Stanwix with a band of tories under Johnson and Butler, and had led General Herkimer with his militia into an ambush, at Iriskany, and defeated them, mortally wounding the General. But the besieged party under the command of Colonel Willet made a successful sortie and broke the seige. Arnold came up with a body of troops to relieve the garrison, and the Indians and their Tory friends fled in confusion.

The British general had little hope of fulfilling his promise to eat his Christmas dinner in Albany. He could not remain where he was; to retreat or to advance would be equally disastrous. He crossed the Hudson and fortified a camp on the hills of Saratoga. The American army was nine miles distant, at Stillwater. An indecisive battle was fought on the 19th of September, on Bemis's Heights, both sides claiming the victory. The British fell back to their camp. Here Burgoyne resolved to wait for reinforcements from General Clinton, but after a few days, not hearing from Clinton, he prepared another attack upon the Americans. He was completely defeated October 7th, 1777. His army had become enfeebled by frequent desertions of the Tories and Indians, while that of the patriots was being strengthened by the militia which flocked to them, and the Indian warriors of the Six Nations who joined them. Ten days after his defeat, when he had only three days' rations in camp, he surrendered his whole force to General Gates. Six thousand men laid down their arms. Well drilled, armed and clothed, the English surrendered to patriots who were mostly ununiformed and fought with powder-horns slung from their shoulders, and with muskets many of which had no bayonets. Such humiliation had never befallen the British army before. But this American army behaved with noble spirit toward the conquered. General Gates kept his men within their lines that they might not see the vanquished lay down their arms. Not a word or look of disrespect was given the enemy. "All were mute in astonishment and pity." The posts on Lake Champlain now fell into the hands of the patriots. The Americans had gained a large amount of small arms, cannon, and munitions of war.

England took this defeat very much to heart, and now too late, they resolved to redress the wrongs of the Colonies. The patriots were encouraged, the Tories were put down, and France was urged to espouse the cause of America. Parliament abandoned all claim to tax the Colonies, declared that every obnoxious law would be repealed, and that all would be forgiven if America would return to her allegiance. Commissioners were hurried away to bear the olive branch of peace to Congress. But the time for peace with England, as Colonies, had passed forever. In a few well-chosen words Congress declined the offer, and the war went on. America had chosen to be free, and proud England, whose armies had been victorious all over the world, could not tamely abandon her claim and retire defeated before the feeble Colonies.

The war so far had cost the English twenty thousand lives and increased the national debt to an alarming extent. Her ablest generals had been defeated by half-clad and half-armed yeomen. Trade was languishing, and there was dissatisfaction among the laboring classes. Commerce was crippled by American privateers, which attacked English merchantmen, and for all this loss what had been gained? Actually nothing but the satisfaction of having inflicted untold misery upon an industrious and frugal people, carrying sorrow and suffering to thousands of happy homes in America. They had caused men to leave their peaceful associations, their fields unsown and their shops silent. The trading classes had been impoverished, the fisheries and commerce well nigh annihilated, and solid money had disappeared from the country. That was all that England had gained; for the Americans were still determined to achieve their independence.

On February 6th, 1778, a treaty of alliance between the United States and France was signed, and now the Americans were not left to fight the powerful British nation single handed. Spain also joined with France, and from this union the cause of American independence seemed to be secured.

Washington had gone into winter-quarters with his troops, at Valley

Forge, where his poorly-clad and ill-fed army shivered in their log cabins, while the army of Howe were passing their time in luxury and ease within the comfortable homes of Philadelphia. If there is a spot on the broad Western Continent where a monument ought to be erected to perpetuate the memories of the Revolutionary struggle, it is at Valley Forge. Here Washington held his army together without sufficient clothing or camp equipage, and but little provisions, through the long, dark period of that terrible winter of 1777-78. The general shared with his men the privation and suffering of the winter, and neither lost hope in the justness of the cause, nor the final issue. And when the fearful ordeal had passed, and the troops received the news of the treaty with France in the early spring, shouts and cheers shook the air and were heard for miles around.

This alliance with France gave the Americans great hope and added to their zeal. Nor was this all, for the French government began active measures of aid at once. A fleet of twelve ships of the line was despatched to American waters to co-operate with General Washington, under the command of Count D'Estaing. The British Ministry ordered General Howe to leave Philadelphia and concentrate his forces in New York. Nor did the British leave that city any too soon, for the French fleet appeared in the Delaware early in July. Lord Howe had sailed to Raritan Bay, off the New Jersey coast into which the larger French ships could not enter. The British army at Philadelphia had started across New Jersey for Sandy Hook, under Sir Henry Clinton, pursued by Washington. He overtook them in Monmouth County, and fought a severe battle with them on Sunday, June 28, 1778. During that night the British army stole away, and were far on their way toward Sandy Hook the next morning. Washington did not follow, but marched to New Brunswick.

Washington urged D'Estaing to proceed to Rhode Island and assist in driving the British out of that province. General Sullivan was sent to take command of the troops there. John Hancock came with the Massachusetts militia. Several English ships reinforced the fleet at New York and appeared off Rhode Island the day the Americans landed. The French fleet came out to engage the English, but a storm disabled both fleets and the Frenchmen sailed for Boston to repair, leaving the land force to meet the British unaided. The Americans retreated to the north end of the Island, where General Sullivan defeated the British at Quaker Hill, August 29th, and then to avoid being cut off by Howe retired to the main land the next day.

THE WYOMING MASSACRE.

We come to a chapter in the American conflict which has no parallel in the scenes of carnage and cruelty that stain the pages of history, a tragedy that found no apologists in the nation in whose interests it was enacted. There were in all the provinces numbers of persons who still sympathized with the British. Some were born in England and loved the land of their birth better than the young Republic of the West; some were shocked by the fratricidal war and dreaded its consequences; some were conscientious loyalists who thought the patriots were guilty of treason; some were renegades who had private grievances to settle, and some were bribed by offers of British possessions and gold. All of them, from the peaceful Quaker and Moravian who would rather suffer than fight, to the lawless assassin who would kill for pay, were termed Tories. We have spoken of two, Johnson and Butler. The latter, Colonel John Butler, was in command of a body of Tories from Niagara, and he came southward inciting the Indians to arise against the settlers. They gathered at Tioga early in June, 1778, and by the 1st of July mustered eleven hundred white men and Indians, the latter from the head waters of the Susquehanna. They entered the beautiful Wyoming Valley on the 2nd of July. This was a part of the State of Pennsylvania. The strong men were mostly in the distant army on duty; the aged men with the women and children and a very few trained soldiers were all that were left in this defenceless valley. Colonel Zebulon Butler, a native of Connecticut, who had been in the early Indian and French wars, with a small force of four hundred men marched up the valley to drive the Tory, Butler, and his Indians back. They were met by the savage foe and after a fearful conflict were most of them killed or taken prisoners, July 4th, 1778. A few of them made their escape to Forty Fort, where the families of the settlers were gathered for shelter and defence. The invaders swept like a storm down the valley and surrounded the fort, where, contrary to expectation, they offered humane terms of surrender. The families returned to their homes in fancied security, but the Indians could not be held in restraint, and plundered and burned, slaughtered and butchered on every hand. They scattered in every direction at sunset, and when the darkness of night settled upon the scene twenty burning houses sent up their lurid flames to the sky. The cry of women and children went up from every field and house, and many who fled to the Wilkesbarre mountains and the black morasses of the Pocono, perished from exposure and starvation. That dark region between the valley and the Delaware is very appropriately termed the *Shades of Death.* Thus was enacted the most shameful crime committed among the many that disgraced the action of the English during the war. Joseph Brant, a Mohawk chief, who had adhered to the English, had gone with war parties south of the Mohawk River, and joined, with their allies, the Tory leader Walter Butler, and together they attacked the settlement of Cherry Valley, killed many of the people, and carried many of them into captivity. Such was the alarm in all that region that for months no eye was closed in security. The country for a hundred miles around was called the dark and bloody ground. The record of that one county in New York,—Tryon County, it was then called,—for four years, would fill a large volume. To such severe straits had the British government come in their contest with a united people fighting for their freedom. The Americans had a great account to settle with the Tories, who had already been the cause of much bloodshed and misery, and were always a source of strength and information to the British.

THE WAR IN 1779-1780.

THE Continental army had gained much in the former campaign although the spring of 1779 opened with the forces in the same relative position as the spring before. But the American army was in better condition and material than ever previous. France was in active sympathy with the States, and the latter were learning how to conduct naval operations and the art of civil government. The power of the British in the States north of the Potomac was becoming weak and the field of conflict was to be changed to the sparsely settled South. The French fleet had sailed to the West Indies to attack the English possessions there, and this drew away a part of the British force with some of their ships. Altogether the conditions of the conflict were bright for the side of America. The chief embarrassment was the fact that a large issue of bills of credit of the government was rapidly depreciating in value. This Continental currency had neither the binding force of a promise to pay in gold or silver, nor the pledge of public credit.

In the spring of 1779, Washington, in conference with a committee of Congress, matured a plan of campaign for the year. He was to act on the defensive so far as the British were concerned, and on the offensive in dealing with the Indians and Tories. The British troops were to be confined to the sea coast and the Indians and their allies were to be severely punished whereever a blow could be struck. The British had already sailed to the South and subjugated most of the State of Georgia, making their head-quarters at Savannah, which they held until nearly the close of the war, even after the rest of the State had been recovered. The patriots of Georgia and South Carolina contended with the invaders bravely and punished them at many points, but were overcome by superior numbers. They were kept out of Charleston and obliged to retire to Georgia, when General Prevost came up from Florida to join the British and assume command of the forces.

In the North the British were sending out marauding parties to harass the citizens along the sea coast. Such an expedition under General Tryon came to Greenwich, Connecticut, to attack General Putnam. The Americans were dispersed but rallied at Stamford and drove the invaders back, recaptured a part of their plunder, and harassed them all the way back to New York. An expedition under command of Sir George Collier sailed from Hampton Roads into the Elizabeth River, and laid the country waste on both sides from the Roads to Norfolk and Portsmouth. The last part of the same month two forts on the Hudson were captured by the same fleet, Stony Point and Verplanck's Point. These exploits ended, General Tryon went to New Haven, Connecticut, and burned that city, also East Haven, Fairfield and Norwalk, and boasted of his extreme clemency in leaving a single house standing on the coast. The Americans were not idle all this time, but were making ready to strike heavy and unexpected blows at different points. Three days after the burning of Norwalk the Fort at Stony Point was captured by General Anthony Wayne, who secretly attacked it on the night of July 15th, 1779, with ball and bayonet, and captured it after a strong resistance. This was one of the most brilliant exploits of the war. Another brilliant achievement followed this, the capture of a British force at Jersey City by Major Henry Lee, August 19th; but the joy which these events occasioned was changed to sorrow by disaster in the extreme East. Massachusetts fitted out an expedition of forty vessels to sail to the Penobscot and take a fort held by the British at Castine. The commander delayed to storm the place for two weeks after his arrival, and a British fleet appeared, destroyed the vessels and captured the sailors and soldiers, all but a few who made their way back to Boston through the trackless wilderness.

The settlers of the territories beyond the Alleghanies, who had been accustomed to fight the Indians from their first coming into the wilderness, were fearless and bold, and now they turned their attention to the British outposts to fight the white soldiers. Colonel George Rogers Clarke (who finally broke the power of the Indians who were incited by the Tories and English) led an expedition into the far wilderness of the Northwest Territory, where Illinois and Indiana now are, and took the fort at Kaskaskia, and the strong post at Vincennes. This had happened in 1778. But the British from Detroit retook the post in January, 1779. Acting as a peace-maker, Clarke again penetrated a hundred miles beyond the Ohio River, to quiet the Indians in the Northwest. He went through the "drowned lands" of Illinois in the month of February, and then came upon the fort at Vincennes like men who had dropped from the clouds. On the 20th of February, the stars and stripes floated once more over the fort.

The indignation of the people was thoroughly aroused by the massacre at Wyoming, and General Sullivan was sent to the very heart of the region held by the Six Nations to chastise and humble them. On the last day of July he marched up the Susquehanna and joined the forces of General James Clinton, a patriot soldier, in August, making an army of nearly five thousand men. On the 29th of August they fell upon a fortified band of Indians and Tories and dispersed them. Without waiting for them to rally, Sullivan went on dealing severe blows and chastising the savages on every hand. The Indians were awed and spirit-broken, for a while.

The campaign in the South had closed with the unsuccessful attempt of the Americans to capture Savannah. The French fleet was withdrawn, and General Lincoln was in full retreat towards Charleston. Thus closed the campaign for 1779 with discouragement for the Americans, as nothing of great importance had been accomplished in the South. In the North the British were driven out of Rhode Island by the fear of a French fleet. Lafayette had gone to France and induced the government to send a larger fleet and six thousand troops to America. Sir Henry Clinton sailed for South Carolina in December, 1779, and Washington went to winter quarters.

While at best there was no perceptible gain on the land, the American sailors were achieving wonderful success from their bravery and audacity. John Paul Jones had dared to attack the strongest ships in the British navy, and had followed them into the very chops of the British channel. The *Serapis* and the *Countess of Scarborough* had struck their colors to the *Bonhomme Richard*, the ship commanded by Jones, and he had taken in all, during the year, prizes to the amount of two hundred thousand dollars.

The British had gained nothing in America, and had a great weight of trouble in other parts of the world. Spain had declared war with England, and the hands of the English were full.

The campaign of 1780 in the South was a source of disasters to the Americans, resulting in the loss of Charleston, the whole State of South Carolina, the destruction of two armies, and the scattering of a good band of independent rangers. General Lincoln and his army surrendered at Charleston after a gallant defense of forty days. Thus the British took at one time between five and six thousand men, and four hundred pieces of artillery.

Colonel Tarleton, a name which is held in contempt by all honest men, and which appears on the pages of history as the synonym of the meanest treachery, surrounded a band of patriots, who were retreating from Charleston toward North Carolina, with a force twice the size of the Americans, and almost annihilated them, killing men after they had surrendered and while they asked for quarter. It was a cold-blooded massacre, which was denounced by the liberal press of England in the most scathing terms.

General Gates and Baron DeKalb were defeated at Sander's Creek near Camden, after a sanguinary encounter, and the Baron was slain. The flower of the American army was now destroyed, and the hearts of the patriots were troubled with anxiety.

General Gates had ordered General Sumter to command a detachment to intercept a detachment of British and take their supplies. But when he heard of the defeat of General Gates, Sumter fortified his camp at the mouth of the Fishing Creek. Colonel Tarleton fell upon him and scattered his band. Sumter escaped, but his power was broken.

But while these misfortunes were spreading a pall of darkness over the American cause, a man hitherto very little known was waging a warfare on his own account upon the Tories; and hanging upon the flanks of the British army, and dealing heavy blows to injure and cripple them. He was Francis Marion, a partisan leader of South Carolina, who had collected a band of Southern patriots after the fall of Charleston. He had been with the army in that city, but at the time of the surrender was at home with a wound, so he was not hampered by any parole. He came to General Gates just before the disastrous battle near Camden with a few ragged fellows, more grotesque than the soldiers of Falstaff. The general was inclined to ridicule them, but Governor Rutledge, who was present, knew the sterling qualities of the man, and made him a brigadier on the spot. The people of Williamsburg arose in arms and sent for him to command them. He went and organized his wonderful brigade, which defied the British power after the disaster at Camden.

Cornwallis organized the State of South Carolina as a royal province, himself as military governor, but he was so merciless, vindictive and selfish that even those who were friendly to the British fell away from him. On the 7th of October a band of patriots fell upon a British and Tory force under Colonel Ferguson, at Kings Mountain, two miles below the North Carolina line, and defeated them. This gave the republicans renewed hope. On the seaboard Marion's men were doing wonders in driving back the British and redeeming the country. Cornwallis fell back to Winnsborough and fortified. Here he remained until he went in pursuit of Greene a few weeks later.

Victory after victory crowned the efforts of Marion and his men, but he had confined his operations thus far to forays upon the enemy. Now he concluded to try strength in an open assault upon the British post at Georgetown. The partisan warrior was repulsed but not disheartened. He had a camp on Snow's Island in the Pedee country, and would sally forth so suddenly and attack the British unawares at so many and widely separated points in such a marvellously short time, that they became thoroughly alarmed, and determined to break up his rendezvous. This was not accomplished until the spring of 1781, when a band of Tories led the way to his camp in the swamp, while he was away, took the few men whom Marion had left there and destroyed his supplies. The hero, when he returned, was surprised, but not disheartened, and at once started in pursuit of the marauders. After following them, he suddenly turned and confronted the British colonel, Watson, who came up with fresh troops.

But now we will turn to the North for a little while. In June, 1780, Clinton had made an incursion into New Jersey, burned Elizabeth and Connecticut Farms, and had been driven back to Staten Island after a severe defeat at Springfield, on the 23rd. A French army under Count de Rochambeau had landed on Rhode Island with six thousand land troops, on July 10, 1780. Lafayette had arranged the whole affair during his visit in France; and to prevent any conflict of authority, as in the case of D'Estaing, the French had commissioned Washington a Lieutenant General in their army. Rochambeau first met Washington at Hartford, and many of the French soldiers were sent to encamp at Lebanon, Connecticut, as the season had too far advanced for them to be of service in the campaign.

THE FIRST AND ONLY TRAITOR.

NOW we come to a sad chapter with which to wind up the record of the year 1780. At different times during the war the British officers had attempted, directly or indirectly, to tamper with Americans of high rank whom they thought were of easy virtue, but not till the very last of the war had they found a single one to listen to their advances. Now they approached one whose personal ambition had led him to aspire to supersede his commander-in-chief, but he had failed in the attempt. Benedict Arnold, of Connecticut, the arch-traitor and the man whose name will go down to posterity covered with execration, was a brave man, but thoroughly bad. He had fought nobly at the outbreak of the war, as we have seen, and held a high command in the Continental army. He was impulsive, vindictive and unscrupulous; always in some sort of a quarrel with his fellow-officers, and unpopular with his command. When he was appointed to the command of Philadelphia, after being wounded at Bemis' Heights, he married the daughter of a prominent tory, and lived in splendor far beyond his means. To meet the exactions of his creditors, he resorted to a great many fraudulent practises, which caused him to be reported to the Continental Congress. He was convicted and severely reprimanded by a court martial appointed to try the case. Washington bestowed this reprimand, and Arnold, smarting under the disgrace, and pressed by the load of debt, attempted the grievous crime of betraying the post at West Point. He was regarded with suspicion, but Washington did not think him capable of treason. The price of his perfidy was to be a major general's commission in the English army and fifty thousand dollars. Major John André was employed by Sir Henry Clinton to complete the negotiations, which had been going on for months.

West Point was a fortified position on the Hudson, deemed of great importance to both parties, and was strongly garrisoned by the Americans. The plans were, that Clinton was to sail up the Hudson, attack the post, and after a show of resistance, Arnold was to surrender all the arms and men to him. But the final arrangements must be made by a personal conference, and André was sent for this purpose. He was taken up the Hudson on board of a British vessel, the *Vulture*, and landed on the West shore, where he met Arnold at about midnight. At daylight their conference was not ended and Arnold took André to a house within the American lines. Some patriots on a point of land off which the *Vulture* lay, fired round shot at her with such effect that she dropped down the river, and André was left behind. He was compelled to cross the Hudson, and start for New York on horseback. At Tarrytown he was stopped by three young Americans, searched, suspected and taken to the nearest American military post then in command of Colonel Jameson, who unwisely allowed the prisoner to send a letter to Arnold, although he could not see why; and then the traitor abandoned the unfortunate André, and escaped in his own boat to the *Vulture*. André was more to be pitied than blamed, but, found in the vile condition of an enemy taken in disguise, he was tried as a spy, found guilty and hanged, while the real miscreant escaped. Washington did his best to save the brave young officer, but the stern rules of war would not permit him to spare one engaged in such an act. There were dark intimations of other treasons, and it would not do to pass this lightly by. André begged to die a soldier's death, but this was denied him, and he was hanged on the second day of October, 1780. The double traitor, Arnold, whose life was not to be compared with that of André, lived and enjoyed the price of his treason.

And thus the campaign of the sixth year closed with a dark plot for the betrayal of the cause of the American States by one of its own high officers.

THE CLOSING YEARS OF THE STRUGGLE.

THE events of the year 1781 opened with one of the noblest displays of true patriotism in the army. For long years the soldiers had endured every privation and suffering from the want of money and clothing. The bills of credit in which they had been paid depreciated in value until it was almost worthless. Faction and disagreement had agitated the Continental Congress and prevented needed action upon important measures. The soldiers had enlisted for three years, or during the war, and this they regarded as meaning for three years if the war did not sooner end, but the officers interpreted it for the entire war, even if it lasted longer than three years. The soldiers asked for pay which was not given them. On the first day of January, thirteen hundred of the Pennsylvania line, who regarded their term of enlistment as having expired, marched out of their camp at Morristown and determined to return to Philadelphia in a body and demand their rights from Congress. General Anthony Wayne, who was much beloved by his command, tried by threats and promises to dissuade them, but they would not be persuaded. The poor fellows thought, rightly enough, that they had a righteous cause of grievance. General Wayne stood before them and cocked his pistol, but they presented bayonets to his breast and said, "We love and respect you; you have often led us to battle, but we are no longer under your command; be on your guard. If you fire your pistol we will put you to instant death." Wayne appealed to their patriotism, and they pointed to the unfulfilled promises of the Congress. He told them of the comfort and aid their conduct would give the enemy, and they pointed to their tattered garments and poorly-fed bodies, but said that they were willing to fight for freedom, for it was dear to their hearts, but Congress must make adequate provision for their comfort and necessities, and declared that they were determined to go to Philadelphia to enforce their rights. Wayne went with them, and when at Princeton they halted and drew up a written programme of their demands. This was forwarded to Congress and resulted in a compliance with their just demands. This Pennsylvania line was disbanded, but when Sir Henry Clinton endeavored to treat with them and sent emissaries to promise them all their back pay, if they would join his army, one of the leaders said, "See, comrades, he takes us for traitors! let us show him that the American army can furnish but one Arnold, and that America has no truer friends than we." They seized the emissaries and their papers and sent them to Wayne, who executed them as spies. When a reward was offered to the insurgents they refused to touch it and sent back word: "Necessity compelled us to demand our rights of Congress, but we desire no reward for doing our duty to our bleeding country." Many of them re-enlisted for the war. On the 18th of January the New Jersey troops, emboldened by this success, also mutinied, but the mutiny was put down by harsher means. Congress was aroused to action, and devised means for the relief of the soldiers. Taxes were imposed and cheerfully paid; money was loaned on the credit of the government; a national bank was established, and Robert Morris, who had given his wealth and personal services to the country, and aided in establishing the national credit, was the president. He supplied the army with food and clothing bought on his own credit, and doubtless prevented it from disbanding by its own act. All honor to Robert Morris, who, though not a soldier, was a patriot and the soldier's friend.

The military operations of the year were confined to the South, and opened with a series of depredations committed by the arch-traitor, Arnold, who seemed over anxious to inflict all the misery he could upon his suffering country, and earn the price of innocent blood with which his treason had been rewarded. He made two expeditions up the James river, destroying public and private property at Richmond and Petersburg; and although the Americans did their utmost to capture him, he was too cautious, watchful and quick for them, and after plundering the people on every hand, returned with the British fleet to the New England coast, where an inhuman butchery, equalled only by the massacre of the Wyoming Valley, was enacted, of which we will speak hereafter.

General Greene was appointed to supersede General Gates in command of the American forces in the South. The battle of the Cowpens was fought January 17th, 1781, and resulted in a brilliant victory for the Americans. Then followed the most remarkable military movement in the war, the retreat of General Greene through North Carolina to Virginia. He was not then strong enough to cope with the whole British army; but on the 15th of March, finding his force much increased in strength, he fought the battle of Guilford Court house, and although the Americans were repulsed and the British were in possession of the field, Charles Fox, in a speech in the House of Commons, declared "Another such victory will ruin the British army." A line in the Scotch ballad was fully illustrated:

> "They baith did fight, they baith did beat, they baith did rin awa'."

Cornwallis could not maintain the ground he had gained, and the Americans retreated in good order. Greene rallied his forces and pursued the British to Deep River, Chatham county. On April 25th the American army was surprised and defeated at Hobkirk's Hill, but Creene conducted his retreat in good order. The British commander, Rawdon, set fire to Camden and retreated May 10th. Within a week Greene captured four important posts, but was unsuccessful at Fort Ninety-six, from which he retired June 19th. Successes at other points were being reported. Fort Galphin and the city of Augusta, Georgia, had been taken by the Americans under Major Henry Lee. Now the British were retreating and the Americans were the pursuers.

The battle of Eutaw Spring, September 8th, resulted in a victory for Greene. The partisan bands under Marion and Sumter were winning victories on the Santee waters. The French army left New England to join the Americans on the Hudson, and Washington succeeded in avoiding the watchfulness of General Clinton in New York, crossed the Hudson into New Jersey, and was well on his way before Clinton was aware of his real intention. Arnold was sent to New England by the British to draw Washington back. Then followed the bloody and inhuman butchery of the garrison at Fort Griswold, opposite New London, in which nearly one hundred men were murdered in cold blood after they had surrendered.

Cornwallis was now fortifying his army at Yorktown in Virginia. Clinton sent a fleet to aid him, but he was too late, for when the British ships came to the mouth of the Chesapeake they found the French fleet there, under De Grasse, to oppose their advance. The combined American and French forces under Washington and Rochambeau were soon investing the whole British force under Cornwallis. A desperate defense was made and repeated sallies were attempted to drive the assailants from their works, but all without success. The end was approaching. In a few days the defenses at Yorktown were captured by the armies of Washington and his French compeer. The British guns were put to silence. One night Cornwallis attempted to break the lines and get his men back to New York, but was prevented by the obstinate fire of the besiegers, and barely escaped to his intrenchments. All hope was over, and eight weeks after the seige began Cornwallis and his army of eight thousand men capitulated to the American commander-in-chief.

Cornwallis felt the keenness of his humiliation and feigned sickness on the day of his surrender, and therefore sent his sword by an inferior officer. General Lincoln, who had before surrendered to Cornwallis under the most humiliating terms at Charleston, S. C., was detailed to receive the formal surrender. When the sword was handed to him he took it and at once returned it to the representative of the fallen English general. The war was virtually over; a little skirmishing was going on in Georgia and South Carolina, but all was rejoicing and gladness among the victorious Americans.

Old King George was stubborn, but his Parliament would not sustain him, and although a treaty of peace was not signed until 1783, there was but little hostile movement in America by the British troops, while the Americans were constantly on the watch. Savannah was evacuated July 11th, 1782. The last blood was shed in September following. Measures were taken by the American Congress and the British government to effect terms of peace. Peace was made with France and Spain. The Americans had become exhausted by the long struggle of eight years, and could show little more than their soil and their liberty in return for it all. Their commerce was dead; their fields ruined; some of their towns and cities desolated, and they had no money. The public debt had swelled to one hundred and seventy millions of dollars, and there was nothing which could be called a government. Five commissioners were appointed to meet the English commission in Paris, and effect a settlement. John Adams, John Jay, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson and Henry Laurens were the five chosen. A preliminary treaty was signed November 30th, 1782, but the final treaty was not signed till September 3d, 1783. That treaty gave full independence to the thirteen United States of America, with ample territory to the great lakes on the North and westward to the Mississippi river, with unlimited rights to fish on the banks of Newfoundland. The two Floridas were returned to Spain.

There is one little episode prior to this time which we desire to mention: After the surrender of Cornwallis on the 19th of October, 1781, and before peace was declared, everything seemed to be in a state of confusion. The thirteen States were loosely held together. Congress had but little power. There was no money to pay either officers or men, and they had been fighting much without pay. The army would be disbanded. They had fought bravely, heroically, and, as patriots, had won the victory. Now they must find a livelihood amid the desolations which had been wrought by the fearful struggle. The gloomy aspect threw a pall over all classes. Congress voted to retire the officers on half pay for life; but this was afterwards changed to full pay for five years, and the soldiers to full pay for four months, in part pay for their losses. Great dissatisfaction arose all over the country. Many attributed the trouble to the weakness of a Republican form of government, and desired a monarchy. Nicola, a foreign officer in a Pennsylvania regiment, in a well-written letter, advocated the claims of a monarchy, and proposed that the army should make George Washington king, but he was sharply rebuked for this by Washington himself, and it was never afterwards broached.

The United States was now a nation recognized by England, France, Spain and Holland. But the feeble compact claimed by the Continental Congress, called Articles of Confederation, could not long hold them together. Each State might or might not comply with its demand, as she saw fit. That power could only discuss and advise. No taxes could be collected but by their authority; they could only apportion certain amounts for the States to raise or not, as they chose, and most frequently they did not chose, and it became utterly impossible to raise money by this method. The hardships and miseries of the people fell with a severe burden upon the laborers. The sufferings of a patient people could not endure everything, and their impatience showed itself in mutterings of discontent. A band of two thousand men in Massachusetts arose in revolt and demanded that the collection of taxes should cease for a time. It was some time before this insurrection could be put down. Four or five years of intense privation and suffering followed the Revolution; and surrounded with the troubles of a misgoverned people, it almost seemed as if the war, after all, had been a failure.

There had been dark days during the war, when men's hearts failed them and they sometimes lost confidence in Washington. Reverses and disasters came thick and fast, and he was retreating far too much. He adhered to a defensive policy when Congress was demanding quick and decisive blows to curb the invader. The people did not consider the utter insufficiency of his resources, but laid the blame of every reverse upon him. But when the tide of battle had turned, and Washington, with his well-disciplined army, was moving on the offensive, and victory brought glory to him, they feared that he would become too powerful, and, like other conquerors, assume kingly prerogatives. His army loved him with a fervor that amounted almost to idolatry, and he had but to speak the word, it was feared, and they would rise to hail him king. The country feared that he might prove another example of a successful military chieftain, who would be actuated by the lawless and vulgar lust of power which has disgraced the pages of history.

But when the war was over, Washington sheathed his sword and resigned his commission. He had refused to receive pay for his services, and rendered to Congress a bill of his actual expenses, kept with neatness and precision, for the whole period from the time he assumed command to the close of the war. He then retired to cultivate the affection of men, and to practice the domestic virtues. He attended to his farm, and was thankful to escape the burden of responsibility which official position must bring. This exhibition of noble grandeur in its wonderful simplicity, endeared him forever to the hearts of the American people. Mount Vernon was to become the shrine to which the feet of patriots would turn, and where the measure of American devotion would be full. George Washington had won the proudest place in the hearts of his countrymen. The family of generals who composed his staff and his immediate companions loved him as a brother. The common soldier regarded him as much more than an ordinary being, and his presence would inspire them with intense enthusiasm. The great mass of the people all over the country hailed him as the deliverer of his people and esteemed him above all glorious names of those who had won them independence.

Washington and Lafayette were the two names that blended in all the public addressses and orations of the periods, and rested alike upon the lips of the rich and poor.

THE CONSTITUTIONAL PERIOD.

WASHINGTON and the leading minds of this period saw the great need of modifying or changing the Articles of Confederation which had held the thirteen States so loosely together. Congress was only a name, and the league held the States only for a moment; it might be sundered by any one or more of them at will. The lovers of their country could discover at a glance that there was imperative need of a central government which should exercise power over all, and be respected by all. In the absence of such a government, the liberties of the people would be constantly in danger from internal dissension within and foreign foes without. Some one might rise with the power to make himself king. Conspicuous among those who shared this view with Washington, was a New York man who had entered the army at nineteen, and had been the friend and companion of Washington through nearly all the war—Alexander Hamilton. He had risen to high rank in military command, and afterward he was called to high position in civil life. He brought order from the utter financial chaos which threatened the very existence of the army and country. It was he who first suggested the ground work of the CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES. He was the firm friend and staunch ally of Washington all through the troublous times that tried the very life of the infant nation, before the adoption of the Constitution. Hamilton was a brave and skillful soldier, a brilliant debater, a persuasive writer and a true statesman.

At the suggestion of Washington, a convention to remedy the defects of the Articles of Confederation was called to assemble at Annapolis, Maryland, in September, 1786; only five States sent delegates. John Dickinson was appointed chairman. They did little except to appoint a committee to revise the articles, and adjourn with a recommendation to Congress to call the meeting of a convention in Philadelphia the following May, to complete the work. Congress recommended the several States to send delegates to such a convention. The convention met with delegates from all the States excepting New Hampshire and Rhode Island, but they had not gone far before they found that no amount of amending and tinkering could make the old "Articles of Confederation" serve the purpose of a permanent government. For a number of days there was no progress. Such was the great variety and difference in opinion that everything was at a standstill. Franklin urged the necessity of imploring Divine assistance in a memorable speech. "How has it happened, sir," he said, "that while groping so long in the dark, divided in our opinions, and now ready to separate without accomplishing the great object of our meeting, that we have hitherto not once thought of humbly applying to the Father of Lights to illuminate our understandings? In the beginning of the contest with Britain, when we were sensible of danger, we had daily prayers in this room for Divine protection. Our prayers, sir, were heard and graciously answered. * * * The longer I live, the more convincing proofs I see of the truth that *God governs in the affairs of men.* I therefore move that henceforth prayers, imploring the assistance of Heaven and its blessings on our deliberations, be held in this assembly every morning before we proceed to business." The resolution was not adopted. The convention, excepting three or four members, thought prayers were not necessary, because in this case they would be merely formal.

After long and earnest discussion the convention referred all papers to a committee of detail, and adjourned for ten days. They reassembled and the committee reported a rough draft of the present Constitution. Amendments were made, long and angry discussion followed, and the whole matter was referred to a committee for final revision. This final report was made September 12th, 1787, and the Constitution was submitted to the Legislatures of the several States for adoption. The convention had worked for four months, and was composed of the ablest and best men in the country. George Washington was the president; Benjamin Franklin brought the ripe experience of four score years to this crowning task of a noble life. Alexander Hamilton came from New York. And with such men came many whose names are held in enduring honor by a grateful people. These men were the peers of any in the country, and this assembly had not seen its equal since the Congress which adopted the "Declaration of Independence" had met in the same hall eleven years before. Their great work had gone out to the country, and the people were divided in sentiment upon it. There were many true patriots and lovers of their country who were opposed to it. They were strong in their argument, and conscientious in their opposition. Some feared the most those evils which would arise from a weak government, and sought relief from this in a close union of the States under a strong central government, and some feared the example of the over-governed nations of Europe and hestitated to give too much power to the central government for fear that a despotism might arise. State sovereignty, sectional interests, and radical democracy, all had their advocates, and were united only in opposing the ratification. Hamilton wrote pamphlets and articles for the public press in its favor. Washington threw the whole weight of his influence in its favor. Richard Henry Lee of Virginia was one of the most persistent opposers of the Constitution. Excitement ran high. Somewhat reluctantly, and in many cases by bare majorities, the States all ratified it, and it became the organic law of the land. At once, ten amendments were proposed to meet the views of those who were apprehensive of too much power in the central government. A trial of its powers for nearly a century has demonstrated the wisdom of those men who devised it, and asked the blessing of God upon their deliberations.

This Constitution is the supreme law of the land. Under its authority the President, the Congress, and the Judiciary act; and all the laws passed must be in conformity to it. Congress may pass an act unanimously and the President heartily sign it, but if the Supreme Court decide that it is contrary to the Constitution, it has no binding force as law, and can never be executed. The great love of law which predominates in the Anglo-Saxon race has caused a reverence for this document which rouses the nation to arms when once it is assailed.

When eleven States had ratified this Constitution, the Continental Congress took measures to carry it out, and fixed the time for choosing the electors of President and Vice President. They provided for an organization of the new form of government, and a transfer of their power. On the fourth day of March the NATIONAL CONSTITUTION became the supreme law of the land, and the Continental Congress passed out of existence. This was the commencement of the glorious career of the United States as a nation.

One thing we should mention before passing to the Administration of the first President. The old Congress had organized a territorial government for the vast region northwest of the Ohio river. In the bill in which this was done there were many important provisions. It contained a provision striking at the old English law of primogeniture, in which estates descended to the eldest born. Instead of this law another was made which divided the property among all the children, or the next of kin. It also declared that "there shall neither be slavery nor involuntary servitude in said territory, otherwise than in punishment for crime whereof the party shall be duly convicted." This was adopted July 13th, 1787, and very soon a mighty tide of immigration began to flow into that fertile region, amounting to twenty thousand in one year—1788.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF WASHINGTON.

WHEN the vote of electors was opened by Congress it was found that George Washington had been unanimously elected for President, and John Adams for Vice President of the United States.

There was much work to be done to get the new machine of government into working order. The first serious question was what to do with the public debt. Washington, perplexed, asked a friend, "What is to be done about this heavy debt?" "There is but one man in America can tell you," replied his friend, "and that is Alexander Hamilton." The subject of the tariff was brought forward by James Madison, the acknowledged leader of the House of Representatives, two days after the vote of President and Vice President had been counted. He proposed a tax on tonnage and a duty on foreign goods brought into the United States, that were favorable to American shipping. Then three executive departments were organized, namely, of the *Treasury*, of *War*, and of *Foreign Affairs*, at the head of each was a secretary. These were to be appointed by the President with the concurrence of the Senate, and should form his advisory council, and report in writing when required. Alexander Hamilton was appointed Secretary of the Treasury. He was the most able financier of his time, and made those remarkable reports which for years formed the financial policy of the national government. He proposed the funding of all the public debt, registered and unregistered; the payment of the interest; the redemption of the Continental money, and the assumption of the State debts. The government certificates and Continental money had depreciated from their face value, and were held by speculators who had bought them at a low price, and some thought that the government ought not to pay full price for them, but Hamilton wisely claimed that the public credit was concerned in its full redemption. All these outstanding debts were to be funded, and interest paid at six per cent. until the government should be able to pay the principal. A sinking fund was formed by appropriating the receipts of post offices, and it was prophesied that in five years the United States could borrow money in Europe at five per cent. A system of revenue from imports and internal duties was devised by Hamilton. All of his proposed measures were adopted by Congress at their second session.

While the House was at work on the revenues, the Senate were engaged on the problem of the judiciary. Senator Ellsworth, of Connecticut, proposed a measure which was adopted, with some changes. Webster afterward said of Hamilton, in his eloquent style, " He smote the rock of national resources and abundant streams of revenue gushed forth. He touched the dead corpse of the public credit and it sprang upon its feet."

The vigor of a government, so unlike the old Congress, renewed the public confidence, and commerce began at once to improve. Ships were built, and in a few years the new flag was floating on almost every sea and in every port. The people at home were recovering from their poverty imposed by the war. Agriculture and manufactures were prosperous, and a steady stream of immigration from the coast westward was opening up the wonderful resources of the regions beyond the Alleghanies and Ohio river. North Carolina and Rhode Island, the only States which had not adopted the Constitution, now came into the Union, the first, November, 1789, and the latter May 29, 1790.

The third session of the first Congress met in December, 1790, and found all departments of government in good condition, ample revenue coming in, and general prosperity on all sides. During this session, the first of a long list of States which should come in to swell the original thirteen was admitted. Vermont came into the Union February 18th, 1791, and the territory southwest of the Ohio was formed. A national currency was established. The question of a national coinage of money was decided at the first session of the second Congress, and a mint was established at Philadelphia. The post office department was organized at this session, but the Postmaster General was not made a cabinet officer until 1829. Most of the first term of Washington as President was taken up in getting the government into working order, but such was the moderation, wisdom, and patriotism of these grand men who performed this gigantic but novel work, in which they had no model to guide them, that but few changes have had to be made, and none of these few were in any degree radical.

There had been some disturbance with the Indians in the northwest, incited by emissaries from the British, who still held some of the posts on the frontier, contrary to the provisions of the treaty of Paris. Open hostilities began in 1790, and General St. Clair, the governor of the Territory, with two thousand troops, was surprised and defeated in Darke county, Ohio, November 4, 1791. General Anthony Wayne was sent to take command and punish the savages, which he did so effectually that they caused little trouble afterwards until the war of 1812–15. Kentucky was admitted to the Union June 1st, 1792.

Party spirit assumed definite form during the second session of the Second Congress, just as the first term of Washington was coming to an end. Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson were the two men around whom two political organizations began to crystallize. They were both members of Washington's cabinet. Hamilton became the leader of the Federalists and Jefferson of the Republicans. The Federalists believed in a strong central government, and would concentrate the power of the national government, while the Republicans would distribute the power among the States. Hence arose the strife between the two, and the country was being stirred by bitter discussion. In the heat of this excitement the second presidential election came on. Washington and Adams were re-elected by large majorities. The Republicans were gaining in numbers and strength, and when the French Republic had declared war against England, Spain and Holland, Genet came from France to procure aid and sympathy from America. The Republicans and many Federalists received him with open arms, and he began to fit out privateers to fight England and Spain. Washington prudently issued a proclamation of neutrality, May 9th, 1793, but Genet insisted upon carrying out his schemes, and tried to excite hostility between our people and their own government. Washington finally requested his government to recall him, which was done, and the French assured the United States that their government disapproved of the course Genet had taken.

The first insurrection against the government arose in Pennsylvania, and is called the "Whiskey Rebellion." It was caused by Congress imposing an excise duty on domestic liquors. This measure was very unpopular, and awakened opposition. The insurrection broke out in the western part of Pennsylvania and spread over all that portion of the State, and into Virginia. At one time six or seven thousand men were under arms. The local militia were powerless, or in sympathy with the rebels. Washington issued two proclamations to them to disperse, but seeing that they would not disband by peaceful means, he ordered out a large body of militia from New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland and Virginia, under command of General Henry

Lee, which quelled the rebellion, and thus the trouble that had threatened the stability of the government was averted.

Another dark cloud arose above the horizon. England and America accused each other of infringing upon the terms of the treaty of 1783. The United States claimed that the British had not indemnified them for negroes carried away at the close of the war. That British posts on the frontier were maintained contrary to treaty. They had been inciting the Indians to hostility, and in the war with France the neutrality of our ships had been violated. The British claimed that the United States had not done as they agreed concerning the property of loyalists, and the debts contracted in England prior to the Revolution. War seemed inevitable, and was only averted by the prudence and wisdom of Washington, who sent John Jay as envoy extraordinary to England to compromise and settle. He effected the best arrangement he could by which the British might collect all debts actually due them before the war, but the United States would not pay for the slaves taken away. The British would pay for unlawful seizure in the war with France, and evacuate the forts on the frontier. This treaty was not satisfactory to most of the people, but Congress ratified it on the 24th of June, 1795. Soon afterwards John Jay proved his ability and patriotism by concluding a treaty with Spain, by which the United States gained the free use of the Mississippi River and the port of New Orleans for ten years. Through the whole of Washington's administration, the greatest prudence, circumspection and wisdom were needed. No sooner had one difficulty been surmounted than another appeared. The infant commerce, which was spreading all over the world, was attacked by the Algerian pirates, who captured large numbers of American sailors, and held them in slavery in the Barbary States, until their ransom was paid. This gave rise to efforts to establish a navy. After many attempts had been made, Congress finally, in the spring of 1794, passed a law creating a navy and appropriating seven hundred thousand dollars to build and equip vessels. In the absence of the proposed navy, the United States, in common with other governments, entered into a treaty to pay the Dey of Algiers an annual tribute for the ransom of captives taken by his pirates.

Washington's administration, which was drawing to a close, had been one of incessant care and action. The two parties that had arisen during his administration were ready to enter the political contest when Washington issued his famous Farewell Address. After retiring from office he lived for nearly three years at his home, Mount Vernon, and died December 14th, 1799.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN ADAMS.

THE two parties had but little time to engage in the contest for the election of a successor to Washington after the publication of his Farewell Address in September, for the election came in November. The contest was sharp and earnest, and resulted in a victory for both sides. John Adams was elected President, and Thomas Jefferson, Vice President. They were inaugurated March 4th, 1797, and were confronted at the very outset of their administration by a threatened war with France. The French Directory, which had the management of government at the time, had ordered Pinckney, the American minister, to leave the country; depredations were committed upon American commerce and the French minister had insulted the United States. Adams took very decided and active measures to redress the wrong. He sent three ministers to France to settle the difficulty, with Pinckney at their head. The French would not treat with them, and the Americans made ready for war. The navy was finished and ships put in commission. A large land force was collected and equipped, and there was a naval battle in which the French man-of-war was conquered. But there had been no formal declaration of war, and the French Republic, seeing the strong position of the United States, receded and made overtures of settlement. Three envoys were sent and conferred with Napoleon, and concluded a treaty of friendship and peace. The ambassadors returned to America, and the army was disbanded.

Two very unpopular measures were passed by the administration known as the Alien and Sedition laws, which were repealed the next year.

The death of Washington in the last month of the century was a sad bereavement to the country, and every party voice was hushed in silence while the nation did honor to his memory. Napoleon, then First Consul of France, rendered honor to his memory in a General Order to his army in which he said, "Washington is dead! This great man fought against tyranny; he established the liberties of his country. His memory will always be dear to the French people as it will be to all free men of the two worlds; and especially to French soldiers, who, like him and the American soldiers, have combated for liberty and equality."

The Congress of the United States, and the Legislatures of all the States, united with the whole people all over the land in paying the highest tribute to his memory.

In the year 1800 the second enumeration of the population was taken, and the census reported 5,319,762, an increase in ten years of thirty per cent.

There came another Presidential election in which party spirit ran high.

The Democratic party nominated Thomas Jefferson for President and Aaron Burr for Vice President; and the Federalists nominated John Adams and C. C. Pinckney. There was no election in the electoral college, and it was sent to the House of Representatives. After a severe struggle, in which thirty-five ballots were taken, Mr. Jefferson was elected President. Aaron Burr was chosen Vice President, by the House of Representatives.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THOMAS JEFFERSON.

THE inauguration address of Mr. Jefferson was waited for with much anxiety by the people throughout the country, as he was the first exponent of the new party who had been raised to the chief magistracy of the land. He surprised all classes by the manly and conservative views which he uttered, and at once all fears were allayed. Although he made some removals from office and set vigorously at work to reform abuses and irregularities, his measures were so conciliatory and just that many Federalists came over to his party and heartily supported his administration. The obnoxious laws were repealed. The diplomatic system was put on a better footing, the judiciary was revised, certain offices were abolished, and vigor and enlightened views marked the beginning of his term. One State and two territories were added to the Union in his first term of office. Ohio was admitted in the fall of 1802, and the territories of Louisiana and New Orleans were organized in the vast domain of Louisiana purchased of France for fifteen million dollars. This bargain had been effected in April, 1803, and the United States took peaceful occupation of the land in the autumn of the same year. It contained eighty-five thousand mixed population and forty thousand negroes.

A naval expedition was sent out to the Mediterranean to put an end to the infamous extortion of tribute from the United States for the redemption of American sailors held in slavery by the Barbary States.

Captain Bainbridge went to Algiers in 1800 with the tribute money, and when it was paid the Dey demanded the use of his ship to carry an ambassador to Constantinople. When Bainbridge refused, the Dey replied, "You pay me tribute, by which you become my slaves, and therefore I have a right to order you as I think proper." Although the captain was obliged to comply with that demand, the insult resulted in a severe punishment, which a few years later put an end to white slavery in the Barbary States. It is hard for us to realize that even in the nineteenth century our countrymen have been held in great numbers in the most degrading slavery in the north of Africa. The merchantmen who displayed the American flag made their appearance in the Mediterranean directly after the Revolution. The pirates of the Barbary States would attack them, and when captured would sell the seamen into slavery. There were thousands of sailors from New England and the Atlantic coast thus held when the century began. The indignation of the United States was aroused, and they determined to put an end to the infamy, which the government of Europe had long tolerated at their very doors. In 1803 Commodore Preble was sent to humble the pirates. After bringing Morocco to terms, he went to Tripoli. There he had the misfortune to lose a large vessel, the *Philadelphia*, which struck upon a rock, and before he could be got off she was captured. The officers were treated as prisoners of war, but the crew were sold into slavery. The next year, 1804, this disaster was somewhat repaired. Lieutenant Decatur with seventy-six volunteers, entered the harbor of Tripoli and boarded the *Philadelphia*, drove off her captors, and setting fire to her, made their escape without losing a man. This gallant act received ample acknowledgment from the Navy and the home government.

In the first term of Mr. Jefferson the first exploration to the Pacific was organized, and sent out under the command of Captain Lewis and Clarke. They left the Mississippi the 14th of May, 1804.

Mr. Jefferson was re-elected for a second term, but Mr. Burr, who had displeased the Democratic party, was not nominated by them, and George Clinton was elected Vice President. Burr, in anger, and feeling that he had lost the confidence of the people, resolved apparently to cause a revolt in the regions southwest of the Mississippi. He had murdered Alexander Hamilton in a duel July 11, 1804, and was generally shunned by all classes. The supposed attempt of Burr against the Government failed. He was tried for treason, but was acquitted. It was not proven.

There were some indications of a war with Spain, but it was providentially averted. The United States were continually irritated by the British claim to a right to search American vessels and take away any suspected deserters from their army or navy. An act of partial non-intercourse with England took effect November, 1806.

In 1807, the first steamboat was built by Robert Fulton, and the application of steam to navigation became a fact. The ominous war cloud that threatened the country grew heavy and dark. France and England were at war, and they both were inflicting injury and insult upon our young but thriving commerce. England still seized and searched American vessels; issued orders and decrees against commerce; proclaimed blockades on paper, and was crippling the marine interests of the United States, in order to prevent them from reaping any benefit from the French carrying trade. Napoleon retaliated with like orders, decrees and paper blockades; and between the upper and nether millstones of these two powers the commerce of America was being ground to pieces. The crisis came. Four seamen of the United States man-of-war, *Chesapeake*, were claimed as deserters from the British ship, *Melampus*, and Commodore Barron of the *Chesapeake* refused to give them up. A little while afterwards the *Chesapeake* was unexpectedly attacked by two English vessels, and was obliged to surrender some men. This aroused the nation, and Jefferson issued a proclamation in July, 1807, that all British ships should leave American waters. Great Britain continued in her unjust course, and a general embargo was placed upon all shipping, detaining all American and English vessels in any of the ports of the United States, and ordering all American vessels in other ports to return home, that their seamen might be trained for war. This embargo was the cause of great distress, and put American patriotism and firmness to a severe test. This measure failed to accomplish the desired result, and was repealed three days before Jefferson retired from the office which he had held for eight years, and at the same time Congress passed a law forbidding any commercial intercourse with France and England so long as their unjust orders and edicts were in force. James Madison was elected President, and George Clinton Vice President, for the next four years.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MADISON.

THERE was no man in the unprejudiced judgment of the people of all classes better fitted to administer the government in this period of gloom and doubt than James Madison, who had been the Secretary of State under

Jefferson. He made no change in policy, and pressed the claims of the United States for a redress of grievances upon both England and France. The latter acceded to the rights of America, but still continued to deal in a covert and underhanded way, while England, in a more honorable but wicked way, persisted in her right to impress and search. There was an important question at issue between the United States and the foreign governments. It was the right of changing allegiance from one country to another. England held that a man born under her flag was forever an English subject, and although he might settle in any part of the world, he could claim the privileges of a British subject, and was bound by the obligation of citizenship to render service to the English flag. America, on the other hand, claimed that a man had the right to choose the place of his citizenship, and could renounce his allegiance to the land of his birth, and become a citizen of any country he should choose to settle in. The Englishmen who had settled in America were regarded as American citizens and nothing else. America would defend the rights of her adopted sons, and maintain her position toward all the nations of the world.

England had a system of obtaining seamen for her navy by impressment; that is, she would take men who were engaged in the merchant service and compel them to serve on her men-of-war. This was a species of slavery, and the men thus obtained would embrace the first opportunity to desert. These desertions became frequent, and the natural refuge in America was in most instances sought and the protection of its flag obtained. Now it was very hard to distinguish between an English and an American sailor, and when the American ships were searched the English were not very exact as to nationality, provided they got a first class sailor. Thus things went on until 1811, when the British sloop of war, *Little Belt*, was met off the Virginia coast by the American frigate, *President*, and was obliged to pull down her flag, after a severe fight.

This same year an Indian revolt broke out which was evidently the result of English intrigue. All the frontier tribes were engaged in it, under a crafty, intrepid and unscrupulous chief, Tecumseh. It was suppressed by General William H. Harrison, after winning a decisive battle at Tippecanoe, in which the whole Indian force was dispersed. The Americans were now ready for war. England had an immense navy of nine hundred vessels with one hundred and forty-four thousand men, while America had only twelve vessels, which carried about three hundred guns. It seemed the wildest folly to cope with "the mistress of the seas" at such a fearful odds, but the rallying cry, "FREE TRADE AND SAILORS' RIGHTS" was taken up from the Lakes to the Gulf, and war was formally declared June 19, 1812. The people of the West and North were no less enthusiastic than on the seaboard. The only region where the Federalists, or peace party, was predominant was in New England. Congress at once voted an appropriation of fifteen million dollars for the army, and three million for the navy, and authorized the President to enlist twenty-five thousand regulars and fifty thousand volunteers for the army, and call out one hundred thousand militia for the defense of the coast.

THE SECOND WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE,

as this contest was rightly named, now began. Benjamin Franklin had said to a friend who had called the Revolution the war of independence, "Not the war *of* independence, but the war *for* independence." And now the second act of the grand drama was to be presented to the world. There had been all along a suspicion that England had not relinquished her hope to regain the colonies she had lost. The constant intrigues with the Indians, the subtle arts of diplomacy, and her heavy armament in Canada pointed to this. The Americans were watchful and jealous, and now the whole force of their power was engaged to settle the pending question forever. Four days after the declaration of war, England had repealed her blockading decree, and there remained only the question of the right of search and expatriation. The British minister at Washington had offered to peaceably settle the question at difference, but his proposition was rejected by his government.

The first attempts of the Americans, in the war, were signal failures. General William Hull was ordered to invade the British province of Canada, but after a feeble attempt he was compelled to retire and even afterwards to surrender. He was put on trial before a court martial, on his return to the States, found guilty, and sentenced to be shot. But he had been a brave officer in the Revolution, and for his past services he was pardoned. His reputation was afterwards vindicated, and the cloud was removed from his fair name, but he retired to private life. The war had been long threatening, and Canada had fortified her strong points and prepared for a threatened invasion. The able generals of the Revolution were now either all dead, or too old for active service; and the army was either under the command of men who had been inferior officers in their young manhood and were now old men, or of men who had seen but little service except with the Indians.

A second invasion under Colonel Van Rensselear was equally unsuccessful. The whole army of the Northwest had surrendered, and nothing was gained at that point. But on the sea, the American sailor had dared to measure strength with the British, and had been remarkably successful in every engagement during the first year of the war. In spite of the tremendous odds in the navies of the two countries, the American was gaining victory after victory. The British ship *Guerriere* had been taken by the frigate *Constitution*, August 19, 1812. The *Frolic* had struck the English flag to the little *Wasp* October 18th. The *Macedonian* surrendered to the *United States* October 25th, and the *Java* to the *Constitution* December 29th, all in the same year. This rekindled the national spirit, and made up for the defeat on the land. The country was justly elated by these successes, and sustained the administration by re-electing Mr. Madison to a second term.

The second year of the war, and the first of Mr. Madison's second term, was signalized by a series of important victories by the Americans in Canada; and the naval victory of Commodore Perry, on Lake Erie, by which the United States became masters of the Great Lakes. These were cheering to the Americans. At sea, England was doing her best to retrieve the severe blows she had received the year previous, and regain her injured prestige as "mistress of the seas." The loss she had met the autumn before, of five ships, was a heavy blow to her pride, and her statesmen regarded this humiliation as greater than the loss of so many battles. No other country, before this, had produced sailors equal to hers. Now she had met her first disasters from an inferior, and strenuous effort must be made to undo this disgrace. The British nation and navy felt this, and put forth their best endeavors to show their superiority. Two English ships cruised off Boston in the early summer of 1813, and Captain Broke sent a challenge to Captain Lawrence of the *Chesapeake* to come out and "try the fortunes of their respective flags." The English captain sent one of his ships away, and with the *Shannon* waited for the *Chesapeake* to come out. Captain Lawrence accepted the challenge, and went to his death. The fight lasted only fifteen minutes, but in that time the *Chesapeake* was discomfited, her commander killed, and her flag struck to the proud ensign of Britain. This was on June 1st, 1813. This same Captain Lawrence, who exclaimed, "Don't give up the ship!" with his latest breath, had, in February before, taken the English frigate *Peacock*, with the sloop

Hornet. In August another disaster befell the American navy. It was the loss of the *Argus*, which had taken Mr. Crawford, the minister, to France, which was obliged to surrender to the *Pelican.* The tide of victory now turned, and the English brig *Boxer* struck her flag to the brig *Enterprise*, September 5th. The complete naval victory of Commodore Perry, on Lake Erie, on September 11, in which he captured the whole English fleet of six vessels, followed. When the year closed, the balance seemed to be in favor of the Americans. On land, the war had been waged with varying fortunes.

The British had talked of chastising America into submission, and the instrument they sent was a squadron under the command of Admiral Cockburn, which was scattered to different points on the Atlantic coast and burned, robbed and slaughtered, *without mercy.* In April, they destroyed the town of Lewiston, on the Delaware; in May, Frenchtown, Havre de Grace, Georgetown, and Frederickstown on the Chesapeake, and all along the southern coast committed their fearful work of depredation and pillage. Commodore Hardy was sent to the New England coast, but his conduct everywhere was in strong contrast to that of Admiral Cockburn. He acted like a high-minded gentleman and generous enemy. He landed at Castine, Maine, and sent a land force up the Penobscot to capture the sloop of war *John Adams.*

The war was now carried on with renewed vigor by the United States and men and money were furnished without stint. The Americans were gaining victories and matters were progressing. Then came an act which was most reprehensible, and unusual in the annals of civilized warfare, for which the home government of England was solely responsible. Veteran troops of Wellington's Army, who had fought the French for years, were sent to America in the Spring of 1814. Some of them, destined to attempt the capture of the National Capital, landed on the shore of Maryland and pushed on towards Washington City. On their way occurred a sharp battle in which the Americans were defeated. The British entered the city: plundered private dwellings, and the Capitol, the President's house and other public buildings, and then withdrew. The navy yard and some ships in process of building were burned by the Americans themselves. The bridge across the Potomac was destroyed, and then the British withdrew to the coast. The war was scattered over a wide region and the Americans gained victories here and there. Commodore Macdonough had gained a complete success over the whole British fleet on Lake Champlain and at Plattsburgh. Macomb's American troops gained a great victory at the same time. The British sailor found his match on the ocean in his Anglo-American kinsman. Both sides were becoming weary of a devastating war and already there were negotiations for peace. A treaty was signed in December, 1814, and sent to America, but before it had arrived or was known one of the most remarkable battles of history had been fought and won. This deserves record and we will here give a short account of it.

THE BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

If there had been a submarine telegraph in 1815 the battle of New Orleans would never have been fought, and much English blood would have been saved. The treaty was signed December 24th, 1814, and it was seven weeks before the news came to the southern portions of America. New Orleans was then a town of twenty thousand inhabitants, and, as now, the centre of a large cotton trade. The English Commander, General Packenham, saw that it was an important point and decided to attack it. He had the best English troops, fresh from their victories in Europe. Andrew Jackson, then a Major-General in the army, arrived at New Orleans December 2d, and, declaring martial law, soon restored confidence. He fortified the city, and when the British squadron, bearing twelve thousand soldiers, made their appearance he was ready to give them a good reception. On the 23d of December he met the advance guard of the army, twenty-four hundred strong, and routed them at a place about nine miles below the city, and then he retired to a stronger position. He built a line of breastworks of earth to defend New Orleans, and awaited the attack that was made January 8th, 1815. These defenses were four miles from the city, and guarded the advance. General Packenham advanced with his entire army, numbering twelve thousand, under the best military discipline in the world. Jackson had less than six thousand men and the most of them were militia, but all had become good marksmen in the western woods. All was silent as the grave while the British advanced in solid column to carry the works. "Trust in God and keep your powder dry," had been Jackson's policy in the swamps of Florida, and now his men put it in practice. Steadily the attacking army advanced and not a shot was fired until they were half a gun-shot distant, and then a terrific fire, every shot of which did good execution, burst upon the assailants. The British column wavered; their general was killed, and they fled in confusion leaving seven hundred dead and more than a thousand wounded on the field. The fugitives hastened to their camp and ten days after sailed from the coast of Louisiana. This battle saved the whole South from invasion and rapine, which would have followed before the news of peace was received.

Thus the war closed, and both countries could point with pride to the heroic courage that had been displayed on land and sea, and deck their brave defenders with the medals of honor. The president issued his proclamation that peace was declared, February 18th, 1815, and the people united in celebrating the return of quiet all over the country. Business had become prostrated, the ships were lying idly at the docks and industry was at a stand-still. The echoes of the shouts of rejoicing had not died on the air before the ring of the woodman's axe was heard in the forest of the settler, and the sound of the carpenter in the deserted shipyard. Commerce revived and industry lifted its head. The Americans had the wonderful power of rapid recuperation from disaster.

The treaty was not all that America could ask, but she had asserted her claim and maintained her rights. Never afterward was a sailor taken from an American ship as an English deserter; sailors' rights were maintained, and the flag of the United States respected as never before. The Americans had lost thirty thousand men, and one hundred millions of treasure, while England had suffered much more heavily.

During Mr. Madison's term and after the peace with England, the Algerine pirates, thinking that the power of the United States on the sea had been broken, began their depredations again and were violating their treaty. Commodore Decatur was sent to punish them and forever put a stop to their infamous traffic. He bombarded Tripoli and the other capitals of the several Barbary States which were subject to Turkey, brought their rulers to terms and compelled each State to re-imburse the United States for the losses caused to American shipping, and to free all the American and English slaves held by them. This put an end to the infamy for all time.

The only events worthy of notice during the remainder of this Presidential term, were the admission of Indiana into the Union December, 1816, and the chartering of a United States Bank with a capital of thirty-five million dollars.

The new election resulted in the choice of James Monroe as President and Daniel D. Tompkins as Vice President.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES MONROE.

THE fifth President of the American Republic, James Monroe, had been the Secretary of State under his predecessor. His administration was distinguished by the rapid growth in material wealth and population, and the expansion of all the resources of the Republic. The manufactories of the United States, which had been kept busy during the war, suffered from the influx of foreign goods, and were obliged to contract their work. This compelled many who had been engaged in them to seek new homes in the fertile lands beyond the Alleghanies and Ohio, and a steady and uninterrupted flood of emigration flowed in from the seaboard. New States and Territories were formed and the natural resources of the country were being developed at a most rapid rate. Mississippi was admitted into the Union December 10th, 1817; Illinois December 3d, 1818; Alabama December 14th, 1819; Maine March 3d, 1820; Missouri March 2d, 1821. The buccaneering pirates that infested the Gulf of Mexico were surprised and put down. Florida was bought of Spain for seven million dollars by a treaty signed at Washington, February, 1819. It was an era of general prosperity and growth. But the continued presence of slavery was a menace to the Union, and in 1821 the measure known as the Missouri Compromise was approved by Congress, and Missouri was admitted as a slave State. The temporary excitement abated, and the re-election of Mr. Monroe and his associates was the most formal and quiet affair ever known in American politics. His administration had made itself popular by two measures which had been passed. The first was the pensioning of all the surviving soldiers of the Revolution, their dependent widows and orphans; and the second, the settlement of the boundary line from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains.

The visit of Lafayette, the friend and companion of Washington, to this country, in which he was the nation's guest and received ovations in every town and city through which he passed, occurred in 1824-5. He was everywhere greeted with the wildest enthusiasm and met men who had served under him in the war. He saw the wonderful improvement on all sides, and towns, countries, streets and public institutions on every hand had been called after him. When he was ready to return, the government placed at his service a vessel, named after the battle in which he first fought in the Revolution—the *Brandywine*.

LAFAYETTE.

THE FRIEND OF HUMAN RIGHTS AND AMERICAN FREEDOM!

THE Marquis de Lafayette was born in 1757, and was one of the most extraordinary and influential men of his time. He was, in the fullest sense, a member of the French aristocracy, and a gentleman of fortune. His precocity may be inferred from the fact, that at the age of fourteen he displayed marked literary ability, and wrote with great fluency. When but sixteen he married; and three years afterward, moved by a love of liberty, on hearing of the struggle in which the American Colonies were engaged, he resolved to leave wife, home and kindred, and draw his sword on the side of the oppressed. Here was a sacrifice at the shrine of human freedom!—Young, noble, wealthy, the friend of princes, and the beloved of an adored and beautiful wife, he separated himself from all, and the advantages pertaining to his rank, to share the dangers and the fate of the brave handful of half-starved, half-naked patriots, who dared to stand up for the right in the face of one of the most powerful nations in the world.

His freedom of action in this relation, however, was embarrassed, inasmuch as the king, who objected to his leaving France, ordered his arrest so as to prevent his carrying out his noble project. But here the French monarch was powerless, for the object of this persecution, having fitted out a ship at his own expense, escaped to it in disguise after untold privations, and after having once been recognized by a young girl who found him asleep on some straw, but who never once thought of betraying him.

He had heard of the loss of New York and New Jersey to the Americans, but this only served to increase his desire to hasten to the relief of the latter. And so, although pursued by two French cruisers, and menaced by the English men of war on the coast, he escaped all dangers and landed safely on the shores of South Carolina. Here everything was novel and delightful to him, as he observed in a letter to his wife shortly after his arrival, and he soon met Washington, at Philadelphia, for whom he formed an instant and abiding friendship, so impressed was he with the true nobility and commanding virtues of that great and mighty man.

When Lafayette first saw the poorly armed, ragged and half-fed forces of America in line before him at Philadelphia, nothing could exceed his surprise. But with a penetration beyond his years, he perceived in this stern, self-sacrificing and dogged army, all the elements of future success; and this conviction often seemed to impart strength and hope to any whose spirits tended to droop beneath the weight of the reverses and great privations that pressed upon them. Washington also soon began to discover the true metal in the young Frenchman of nineteen, whose sword invariably leaped from its sheath at the word of command. Hence, when but twenty, he was made a Major-General.

Lafayette's sufferings in our cause were severe, and his labors very great. He was wounded at Brandywine, and lay for six weeks at Bethlehem, whence, although scarcely able to move, he wrote letters constantly to France imploring its statesmen to attack England in India and the West Indies. Before his wounds were healed he rejoined the army. He performed in winter a journey on horseback of four hundred miles to Albany; he commanded at Rhode Island; fought like a lion, and bore all the hardships and privations of war. After this he was seized with a violent fever, and seemed for weeks at the point of death. On his recovery he set sail from Boston for his native land in 1780.

On returning to France, Lafayette was received with open arms by all the young nobles of liberal views, while the King pardoned him and sent him back to America with a promise of ships, money, clothes and men. Once again he rejoined Washington, who gave him his unbounded confidence. He was sent to Virginia, where he commanded with skill and bravery against Cornwallis, and with his illustrious chief planned the campaign which resulted in the taking of Yorktown and the close of a long and painful war.

After the surrender of Cornwallis, Lafayette returned to France once more, when the Revolution there, prompted by the ideas and the success of the Americans, began to move in ever-increasing strength. He was now the favorite of the people, and was all powerful in the land, but in his path crept the Marats, Dantons and Robespierres of the hour, while the armies of Europe were gathered, ready to crush his republican projects. He was overpowered by French radicals and constrained to fly from France and seek shelter on foreign soil; but instead of shelter, in a friendly sense, he found himself immured within the gloomy walls of Olmutz, where he remained for five years. For more than half that period he was cut off from all communication with the world; and could not even learn whether his wife and children were still alive. At length his wife, who had barely escaped from the guillotine, joined him with her two daughters, and shared his imprisonment—their son having been sent to America to the care of Washington. Nor was it until the armies of France, under Napoleon, began to shake Europe that they were released.

Lafayette now became a leader in every movement pertaining to the advancement of liberal government. He cultivated a large farm at La Grange, near Paris. On hearing of the death of Washington he wept bitterly; and in 1824-25, after an absence of forty years, he again visited America, this time with his son. His reception was magnificent beyond measure—the gratitude of a generous nation was exhibited everywhere. He visited once more many of the old historic places, and met many of his comrades in arms, with such intense emotion that it would be almost profanation to attempt to put it in words. On his return to France he still stood firm in the principles he had espoused and fought for; but the time of his departure was drawing nigh; for he breathed his last, in hope and in peace, at La Grange, in 1834, leaving behind him a character for all that was noble, self-sacrificing, courageous and just. His chateau at this place has been the shrine of many an American pilgrim, and it is still filled with reminiscences of the land he loved and aided so well. He left one son, George Washington, and two daughters. Edmund Lafayette, who visited America in 1881, is the son of that son, and the last of his name.

ADMINISTRATION OF JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

THE election of 1824 resulted in no choice by the people, and for the second time the election of President was referred to the House of Representatives. They elected John Quincy Adams, the second son of Ex-President Adams, to be President. John C. Calhoun had been elected Vice-President by the people. This administration was a quiet one and undisturbed by any very serious controversy. The trouble between the State of Georgia and the general government growing out of the claims of the latter, for the land of the Creek Indians, and their removal, was peaceably adjusted. The National Government took the position of defenders of the Indians, and quietly removed them to their reservation in a territory set apart for them.

A gigantic work of internal improvement for the times was undertaken and finished in the State of New York—the building of the Erie Canal.

A remarkable coincidence occurred in the year 1826. John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, who had both been Vice Presidents and Presidents of the

United States, and signers of the Declaration of Independence, died on the 4th of July.

The fiftieth anniversary of American Independence, July 4th, 1826, was made a jubilee through the entire Union. The celebrations were of the most patriotic nature, and reference was made in orations and addresses to the material expansion of the Republic. Better occasion for a jubilee the world had never known. The point to pause and look back had come. The rapid growth of the nation was unparalleled in the history of the world. The thirteen States had become twenty-four, and the area of the country nearly doubled. Its domain stretched from the Atlantic on the east to the Pacific on the west. Its right was undisputed from the lakes on the north to the gulf on the south. Two wars had been fought and won. The debt incurred in the first war had been paid and the second war debt was fast disappearing. Prosperity was on every hand. Canals provided an avenue for the rich grain lands of the West to the seaboard by the way of the lakes and the Hudson. A steady tide of emigration westward had opened up this boundless region to civilization, and the foreign trade of the country had swollen to two hundred millions per year.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF ANDREW JACKSON.

THE hero of New Orleans was the seventh President of the United States, and John C. Calhoun was elected Vice President. His election was by a large majority. His inauguration was marked by incidents of peculiar interest. He came to the Senate Chamber escorted by a few survivors of the Revolutionary War, and in the presence of the heads of departments and the Houses of Congress he addressed them. Then he retired to the eastern portico of the Capitol and there took the oath of office. Andrew Jackson was a man of strong passions, uncorrupt heart, and an iron will. His instructions to the first Minister whom he sent to England is a type of the man—"Ask nothing but what is right, submit to nothing that is wrong." His audacity annoyed his friends and alarmed his foes. There were not any middle-men. His friends loved and admired him; his opponents hated and feared him. He caused an impassable gulf between himself and his enemies which no charity could bridge over. He ruled with an iron hand, and was the firm opponent of disunion and the United States Bank. The first thing which came up at the beginning of his administration was the settlement of the Georgia question with the Cherokees. Jackson was in favor of Georgia, but the Supreme Court decided in favor of the Indians.

At last General Winfield Scott was sent to remove them peaceably if he could, but forcibly if he must. General Scott by his justice and moderation accomplished his task without bloodshed. The Cherokees were far advanced in civilization, and had churches, schools and farms, but they were induced to move beyond the Mississippi River.

Jackson was an implacable foe to the National Bank, believing it to be an institution fraught with mischievous power. He attacked it in his annual messages in 1830 and in 1831. When the officers petitioned for a renewal of the charter, and a bill for this purpose had been passed by both Houses with a decided majority, he vetoed it, and the charter expired by limitation in 1836. A commercial panic was threatened and business was injured.

An Indian war on the northwestern frontier broke out in 1832, known as the Black Hawk War, but was quickly subdued. A more portentous war cloud overhung the South. The cotton-growing States were opposed to a protective tariff which favored the North, and South Carolina declared, by law, that the national tariff laws were null and void within that State, and proclaimed the usual threats, that any attempt to enforce those laws in Charleston, would be met by opposition and the withdrawal of the State from the Union. Preparations were made for war, and it seemed as if civil strife was at hand. Jackson issued his famous proclamation which denied the right of any State to nullify the laws of the United States, and declared that the laws should be enforced, and any one obstructing them would be guilty of treason and punished. This declaration and a modification of the tariff laws deferred Civil War for about thirty years.

The contest of the President with the United States bank was renewed in 1833. The public funds were removed from it and placed in State banks. The amount of paper discounted by the bank was contracted, and much financial trouble arose. Jackson's fear of the power of the banks was prompted by much foresight and wisdom, though the immediate result of his course was disastrous to the commercial interests of the country. Then came the fearful business panic of 1833--34, in which hundreds of business men went down, never to rise.

There arose serious difficulty in 1835 with the Indians in Florida. The United States had set apart a territory west of the Mississippi for the use of all the Southern Indians east of that river, and Congress had provided for their removal to that territory. We have seen that there was trouble with the Creeks and Cherokees in Georgia upon this question, and now the Seminole tribe were in open war in reference to the same matter. Osceola, a brave but crafty chief, had gathered his tribe to fight the white people and contest the right to his land. We cannot see how he could do otherwise than defend the graves of his fathers and the homes of his children. The story of the Indians' wrongs and sufferings is a dark one on the pages of our history. In the Spring of 1836 General Winfield Scott, being in command in the South, prosecuted the war with great vigor. So did other commanders after him. A war lasting seven years and costing millions of treasure and thousands of lives was entailed upon the country and the incoming administration. Jackson's administration was marked with vigor and decision. He had compelled France to fulfill her promise to pay an indemnity of five million dollars in annual instalments for the losses sustained to American commerce by the decrees and orders of Napoleon.

A great excitement was engendered by the last official act of President Jackson—the issue of the circular to all the custom houses ordering that all collectors of revenue be required to collect duties only in gold and silver. This specie circular was denounced as arbitrary and tyrannical, as it bore heavily on every kind of business. Congress passed a law for its repeal, but the President kept it without signing until after the final adjournment of Congress. Jackson did this to prevent speculation and for what he considered wise reasons, but it caused a bitter feeling against him. Arkansas and Michigan were added to the Union during Jackson's term of office.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF MARTIN VAN BUREN.

THE inauguration of Van Buren, the eighth President of the United States, seemed to mark the dawn of a new era in its history. The Presidents prior to him had all been descendants of the English, but Martin Van Buren was a descendant of an old Dutch family and was born after the first conflict for Independence. When he was inaugurated he found the country on the verge of a disastrous commercial panic which swept all over the land. The immediate measures for the relief of the panic of 1833–34 were only temporary. The funds taken from the United States Bank and lodged in State banks were loaned to the people, and for a little time the relief was felt in business circles, but this only sowed the seeds of a commercial disorder which would bring its fearful harvest in the future. The banks, thinking these funds might be regarded as so much capital, loaned money freely and a sudden expansion of the paper currency was the result.

In January, 1837, the Secretary of the Treasury was authorized by Congress to distribute all the funds of the United States among the several States in proportion to population, reserving five million dollars. Consequently the funds were withdrawn from the banks January 1st, 1837, and an immense financial pressure was the immediate result. On May 10th the banks suspended specie payments, and a panic ensued which prostrated all kinds of business. An extra session of Congress was called to consider measures of relief, September, 1837. They authorized the issue of treasury notes to the amount of ten million dollars.

A disturbance broke out in Canada in 1837 which threatened to involve the United States. An attempt was made to make that province an independent State. The laws of neutrality were violated by those in the States who sympathized with the movement. A secret organization known as Hunters Lodges was formed. The British government held the United States responsible for this breach of neutrality, and a war cloud overhung the northern border for nearly four years. The next Presidential election resulted in the elevation of the Whig candidate, William H. Harrison, the hero of Tippecanoe, to the Presidency and John Tyler to the Vice Presidency. The campaign had been spirited and intense. The battle cry of this party had been "Tippecanoe and Tyler too." Personal abuse and vituperation united to make the canvass scandalous and offensive.

ADMINISTRATION OF HARRISON AND TYLER.

General William H. Harrison was an old man when inaugurated, and had passed through many hardships in wars, in the West, but he was vigorous and active with the prospect of a number of years of life. His inaugural address was well received and his cabinet chosen was confirmed. The only official act he performed was to call an extra session of Congress to meet in May to confer upon the financial condition of the country and its revenue. He died just one month after taking the oath of office—April 4th, 1841, and the Vice President, John Tyler, succeeded to that position.

Mr. Tyler retained the cabinet of General Harrison until after the extra session of Congress which had been called. At this session measures for the relief of the commercial troubles of the country were adopted. The subtreasury act was repealed and a bankrupt law was passed. The chartering of a Bank of the United States was defeated by the veto of the President, who, like Jackson, saw great danger in the system. This led to a violent censure of the Executive by his own party, and to the resignation of his Cabinet.

In 1842 the return of the United States Exploring Expedition from the South Atlantic Ocean; the settlement of the boundary line on the northeast frontier of Maine; the re-modifying of the tariff and the domestic difficulties in Rhode Island, were events of great interest. A tariff for revenue only was adopted. The boundary line of Maine was fixed by the Webster-Ashburton treaty, giving the United States jurisdiction over a large part of the disputed territory. Rhode Island had some difficulty in forming a State Constitution which divided the citizens into two parties, the "suffrage" and the "law and order" party. The threatened rupture caused the governor to invoke the aid of the general government, and the administration favored the "law and order" party, which resulted in the adoption of a constitution in November, 1842. The old charter from England had been in force up to this time, but the new constitution, more in accord with the system of government in the other States, went into effect on the first Tuesday in May, 1843.

Texas was an independent State and was seeking admission to the Union, but on account of the introduction of slavery into its constitution there was strong opposition to it in the North. A treaty for its admission was signed April 12th, 1844, but was rejected by the Senate. The subject then came up in the form of a joint resolution which passed both Houses of Congress in March 1st, 1845, and was signed by Mr. Tyler. This question had entered into the election of 1844, when James K. Polk, one of the candidates for President of the United States, who was pledged to the measure, was elected by a decided majority. The last official act of Mr. Tyler was to sign the bills for the admission of Florida and Iowa into the family of States, March 3rd, 1845.

ADMINISTRATION OF POLK, AND MEXICAN WAR.

THE absorbing matters which demanded the immediate attention of the new administration was the annexation of Texas, and the settlement of the northwest boundary on the northern line of Oregon. President Tyler had sent a messenger to the Texan government informing them of the action of Congress, and a convention was called to accept the measure. They adopted a State Constitution July 4th, 1845, and the "Lone Star State" was added to the American Union. The other question received immediate attention. A vast territory between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean, had been in dispute between England and the United States. In 1818 they had agreed to occupy the bays, harbors and rivers in common. This was renewed in 1827 for an indefinite period, with the promise that either government might rescind on giving a year's notice to the other. The United States gave such notice in 1846. The United States and Great Britain each claimed the whole territory to 54 degrees and 40 minutes north latitude, and the cry was "54-40 or fight," but at last a peaceful settlement was agreed upon on the 49th parallel of north latitude.

The annexation of Texas, as had been predicted, caused a rupture between the United States and Mexico. The latter government still claimed the right to Texas, although it had been acknowledged to be an independent State by the United States, England, France and other governments. The Mexican Minister at Washington demanded his passports, and on June 4th, 1845, the President of Mexico issued his proclamation, declaring his intention to appeal to arms. The United States had also other questions to settle with that Republic, growing out of its treatment of United States' citizens. An American army was sent to the extreme southeastern confines of Texas, and erected a fortification within easy range of the city of Matamoras. General Zachary Taylor was sent by the President to take command of the forces there. "An army of occupation" was organized and soon entered the territory of Mexico. The first blood was shed at Fort Brown, on the Rio Grande opposite Matamoras, which the Mexicans cannonaded and attacked with a superior force. The Commander, Major Brown, was mortally wounded, and a signal was given for General Taylor to advance to the Rio Grande. He met and overcame an army of six thousand Mexicans under Arista, at Palo Alto, and hastened toward Fort Brown. The next day he overtook and conquered a strongly fortified army at a place called Resaca de la Palma. A number of prisoners were taken and the army of Northern Mexico was completely broken up. These two battles were fought on the 7th and the 9th of May.

When the news of this first bloodshed reached New Orleans the whole country was aroused. Congress had declared, "by the act of the Republic of Mexico a state of war exists between the United States and that government." It authorized the Executive to raise an army of fifty thousand volunteers, and appropriated ten million dollars toward defraying the expenses of the war. The war with Mexico was a series of victories for the United States. The Mexicans were driven out of Matamoras May 18th. Monterey was besieged September 21st, and surrendered September 24th. An armistice was then observed until November 13th. Saltillo, the capital of Cohahuila, was captured November 15th. Santa Anna, the Mexican General, surrendered Tampico the day before, November 14th. All these victories were gained by General Taylor, who had been in command; but now there came a severe trial of his patriotism and patience. General Winfield Scott, who was his superior in rank, was sent to take command in Mexico, and General Taylor was left with a command of only five hundred regulars and five thousand volunteers. On February 22d, the anniversary of the birth of Washington, the little band of General Taylor was attacked by twenty thousand Mexicans under Santa Anna, who, after a severe battle, were repulsed by the Americans.

While these victories were being gained in Central Mexico, "The Army of the West" was sent, under command of General Kearney, to Northern Mexico. This army took possession of Santa Fé, the capital of New Mexico, August 18th. Here Kearney received information that the conquest of California had already been achieved by Commodore Stockton and Lieutenant Colonel Frémont, who had aroused the resident Americans on the Pacific coast and captured Sonoma Pass, June 15th, 1846, and driven all the Mexicans out of that region July 5th. On the 7th Monterey had been bombarded and captured. The Commodore and Lieutenant-Colonel had entered San Francisco on the 9th. The city of Los Angelos had surrendered on the 17th, and Frémont had been the true liberator of the whole Pacific coast. General Kearney on receiving this information pushed on his forces, and met Commodore Stockton, and Lieutenant-Colonel Frémont (December 27th, 1846); and with them shared the final honors which completed the conquest of California. Frémont wanted to be governor of the territory he had conquered, and his claims were favored by Commodore Stockton and all the people, but General Kearney, his superior in rank, refused to allow it. Frémont would not obey him but issued a proclamation as governor. He was called home to be tried for disobedience of orders. His commission was taken from him, but the President offered to return it the next day. Frémont refused to accept it, and turned again to the wilderness to engage in exploration.

While General Kearney was gone to California, Colonel Doniphan, with one thousand Missouri volunteers, forced the Navajo Indians to sign a treaty of peace, November, 1846, and then led his troops southward to join General Wool. He met and overcame a large force of Mexicans at Braciti, in the valley of the Rio del Norte, on December 22d. The Mexican General sent word to him, "We will neither ask nor give quarter." With a black flag the Mexicans advanced, and the Missourians fell on their faces. The Mexicans, thinking them all killed, rushed forward to plunder them, but the whole force sprang to their feet and fired with such deadly effect as to disperse the Mexicans with great slaughter. Colonel Doniphan met another force of Mexicans, four thousand strong, February 28th, 1847, and completely routed them. He raised the American flag over Chihuahua, a city of forty thousand inhabitants, March 2nd, and after resting six weeks marched to Saltillo, and turned over his command to General Wool. He had made a perilous march of five thousand miles, from the Mississippi, won two great battles, and then returned to New Orleans. All Northern Mexico and California were now in possession of the Americans, and General Winfield Scott was on his way to the city of Mexico.

General Scott landed before Vera Cruz with an army of thirteen thousand men on March 9th, 1847. The squadron was in command of Commodore Connor. The city was invested March 13th, and held out until the 27th, when the Americans took possession of Vera Cruz, and captured five thousand prisoners and five hundred guns. Ten days after this, General Scott commenced his march inland, and on the 18th of April he fought and won the battle of Cerro Gordo, at the foot of the Cordilleras. More than a thousand Mexicans were killed and three thousand taken prisoners. The latter Scott dismissed on parole, which they at once violated. The victorious army entered the city of Jalapa on the 18th, and on the 22nd of April, General Worth unfurled the Stars and Stripes on the summit of the Cordilleras, fifty miles beyond the city of Jalapa. But the victorious army did not halt here. They marched forward, and on the 15th of May, 1847, took possession of the well-fortified city of Puebla, containing eighty thousand inhabitants. Here they halted to rest for a while. In the short space of two months an army of ten thousand men had captured a larger number of prisoners than the army itself, taken possession of the strongest posts on the continent, and were waiting for the order "on to Mexico." In August, after being reinforced by fresh troops, Scott resumed his triumphal march to new victories. August 20th, the camp of six thousand Mexicans at Contreras was defeated by an American detachment under General Smith. Cherubusco was taken at the same time by General Scott. An army thirty thousand strong, in the heart of its own country, had been broken up by one less than a third of that number. The American army were at the very gates of the city of Mexico and might have entered in triumph, but General Scott held out the olive branch of peace and would have spared the Mexicans that disgrace. A flag of truce from Santa Anna came asking for an armistice, which was granted. Mr. Nicholas P. Trist, a commissioner of peace, appointed by the United States, was sent to the city to treat with Santa Anna, but returned with the information that he had not only rejected the offer with scorn, but was violating the armistice by strengthening his defenses.

General Scott began his demonstration against the city, September 8th, when a body of less than four thousand troops attacked a superior force at El Molinos del Rey, near Chapultepec, and at first suffered the only repulse of the war, but afterwards rallied and drove the Mexicans before them. On the morning of the 13th of September, the flag of the United States was unfurled over the ruined castle of Chapultepec, and Santa Anna was fleeing, a fugitive, with his shattered army and the officers of government. September 14th, the army of the United States entered the city of Mexico in triumph, and planted the Stars and Stripes over the National Palace. Order was soon restored in that ancient capital, and when a provisional government could be formed, peace was declared. Mexico gave up California, Arizona and New Mexico, and conceded all the claims of the United States. Mexico was evacuated by the American army, and twelve million dollars were paid by the United States to Mexico in four annual instalments. The United States also assumed the debts due to private citizens to the amount of three millions.

This treaty was signed on February 2d, 1848. The very next month gold was discovered in large quantities in California, and President Polk in his annual message, in December, 1848, published the fact to the world. The gold fever broke out all over the States, and spread to other countries; and during the whole year of 1849 a constant stream of emigration flowing across the plains and around Cape Horn, went to this Eldorado of the West to find the wealth which the early Spanish and French adventurers had sought in vain. Thousands came from Europe and South America, and ship-loads of Chinese came from Asia. The dreams of the voyagers in the fifteenth century seemed to be realized in the nineteenth. Emigrants continued to flock thither, and yet (1888) the supply is not exhausted.

The popularity which General Taylor had acquired in the Mexican war by his victories and his patriotism, led to his nomination and election to the Presidency, with Millard Fillmore as Vice President.

Two domestic measures during the administration of James K. Polk had been very popular. The establishment of a national treasury system, and a protective tariff. Wisconsin was admitted to the Union, May 29th, 1848, making thirty States in all. At this point we will stop for a while to review a dark episode in American history.

THE PERIOD OF AGITATION.

WE have brought our readers down the line of events to the time the twelfth President was about to take his seat of office. We have seen the continent relieved from the sway of its savage and barbarous inhabitants and settled with an active, energetic population of freemen who had acquired their independence; subdued the wilderness; developed its resources; spread their white-winged commerce on every sea; explored their own territory and made discoveries in other parts of the world; driven the pirates from their own borders and humbled the pirates in the Mediterranean; compelled the respect due to their flag from other nations, and established their widest boundaries by peaceful diplomacy or glorious war. They had grown from thirteen States to thirty and their domain now stretched in one broad belt from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the lakes to the gulf, with no nation to challenge their right. They were prosperous at home and respected abroad.

The industry, intelligence and enterprise of our citizens are unparalleled, and their inventions, discoveries and mechanical arts are astonishing the inhabitants of the old world. The inventors and discoverers of the United States have revolutionized the commerce, the manufactures and the travel of the past. The steamboat, the electric telegraph, the cotton gin and the inventions in every department of trade have startled the inhabitants of Europe from their dream of centuries. But in spite of the growth in material strength, in national domain and wealth, there was for a long period a dark blot upon the country, and the agitation and strife which it was continually causing, gave reasons for constant alarm to our wisest and best statesmen. How to deal with this subject was a serious question to the moralist, the patriot and the philanthropist. That question was the presence of American slavery and its insatiate demand for more territory.

To go back to the beginning: England had forced the African slave trade upon the unwilling colonists, and her parliament had watched with fostering care this hideous traffic. In the first half of the eighteenth century there was constant legislation in its favor, and every restraint upon its largest development was removed with solicitous regard. Twenty negro slaves were sold to the planters of Virginia in the same year when the pilgrims landed at Plymouth (1620), and these were the first brought into the present domain of the United States of America. In December, 1671, Sir John Yeamans, Governor of South Carolina, brought two hundred black slaves with him from the West Indies. In 1641, the blacks were recognized in law as slaves by Massachusetts. In Connecticut and Rhode Island in 1650; in New York in 1656; in Maryland in 1663, and in New Jersey in 1665. There were some slaves in Pennsylvania and Delaware about 1690. In North and South Carolina, they were introduced at the time of settlement. In Georgia the use of slaves was prohibited by law, but the planters evaded the law by hiring servants for one hundred years, paying their owners in the other colonies the value of such slaves. In New Hampshire the slaves came with the settlers from Massachusetts. So we see that slavery could be found, under the sanction of law, in every one of the original thirteen States, at the opening of the eighteenth century. The British government seemed determined to encourage the importation of slaves into the West Indies and the American Colonies by every means in its power. The Colonies sought to check the increase by imposing a tax on slaves brought into them, but Parliament compelled its repeal. A hundred acres of land in the West Indies was given to every planter who would keep four slaves. Forts were built and manned on the African coast to protect the men who were engaged in this traffic. The most humiliating chapter in the history of England was in regard to this subject. As late as the year 1749, the English Parliament passed an act bestowing still greater encouragement upon the traffic, in which it was stated: "The slave-trade is very advantageous to Great Britain."

The moral sense of New England was opposed to slavery, and very early the idea became prevalent there that it was unscriptural to hold a baptized person in slavery. They did not however liberate their slaves, but often withheld religious instruction from them. The magnates of the church and the officers of the crown endeavored to put them right on this question, and the Colonial Assemblies passed laws to reassure the people that it was right to hold Christians in slavery.

Before the Revolution three hundred thousand slaves had been brought into the Colonies from Africa, and at that time there were half a million slaves scattered over the country. These were in every Colony, although there were but thirty thousand in the North. The children of the Puritans owned Indians, and in due time came to hold Africans, but the soil was hard and sterile and required that the tiller should be a person of thought and intelligence. All kinds of labor demanded brain as well as physical force, and for this reason slave labor in the North was never remunerative, and gradually the slave population steadily diminished. The moral sentiment as well as the condition of the soil and climate of the North was opposed to the whole system of involuntary servitude.

There were different conditions in the fertile and sunny South. The climate was congenial to the African and the soil was productive to the extreme of luxuriance. The crops were such as the unskilled labor of the slave could produce with profit to his master—tobacco, cotton and rice. The land in the South was divided into large plantations and the cities were mostly engaged in the export of the staple products of the soil. Yet for all this, at the time of the Revolution there was a very wide-spread opposition to the institution of slavery. The free spirit which influenced the patriots was antagonistic to the whole idea of human bondage. The leaders of the conflict were many of them slaveholders, but they regarded the institution as odious and wrong. Washington provided in his will for the freedom of his slaves. Hamilton and Jay were members of a society which aimed at the gradual abolition of the whole system. John Adams was deadly opposed to it. Patrick Henry, Franklin, Madison and Monroe, were outspoken against it. Jefferson, who wrote the first draft of the Declaration of Independence, himself a Virginian, said "I tremble for my country when I remember that God is just." When the convention that met to frame the Constitution assembled in Philadelphia, the feeling was strong against slavery, and had the majority followed their own conviction of right, a provision would have been incorporated for its gradual and final extinction. But the desire to frame a document that would be acceptable to all the States led to a tender treatment of the subject, and finally to one of those compromises which have marked the whole course of legislation upon the subject for more than eighty years, and in time resulted in the most destructive internal war which has ever come to any nation. It was proposed to prohibit the importation of slaves at once, and all the Northern and most of the Southern members were in favor of it. But the delegates of South Carolina and Georgia threatened to withdraw from the convention if this was done; and instead, it was provided that the traffic should cease at the expiration of twenty years, or at the close of 1807.

Using the same threat of disunion, the slaveholder of the extreme South gained other concessions of great importance. First, that if a person escaped from a slave State to a free State that circumstance did not make him free; and second that in the apportionment for representatives to Congress the population of white citizens should be enumerated, and to this should be added three-fifths of all other persons excluding Indians not taxed. While the words slave and slavery are not to be found in the Constitution, by these concessions to the slaveholders the institution was intrenched within the organic law of the land. So the first and most important victory was gained for the abettors of the evil.

Even in the South there was a strong public sentiment against the system. Slave owners acknowledged its evils and freely discussed it. The pulpit preached against it, and men prophesied its extinction. The meanest black might hope that the time would come when the words of the Declaration of Independence would apply to him.

The purchase of the vast domain of Louisiana from France opened up a mighty region to the profitable cultivation of sugar cane and cotton by slave labor. The growth of cotton was becoming a matter of great importance. The invention of the spinning jenny by Richard Arkwright in England, in 1768, followed by the introduction of steam power by James Watts, had created an extensive demand for cotton, which Great Britain could only find in sufficient quantity and proper quality in the Southern States of the American Union. Eli Whitney, a New England farmer's son, was a born mechanic. In 1792, he was on a visit to the home of Mrs. General Greene, in the State of Georgia, and heard of the trouble which surrounded the cotton planters in separating the fibers of the cotton from the seed, and the wish that some device should be invented to overcome this. Young Whitney set his inventive genius at work to construct a machine for this purpose, and after much study, many improvements, and oft-repeated failures, finally invented the cotton gin. The planters of Georgia saw in the rudely constructed machine exhibited to them in the back room of Mrs. Greene's residence, the possibility of untold wealth for them, and heeded it as a sign of their deliverance from this trouble. The cotton gin made the growing of cotton vastly more remunerative than ever before. But the South treated the brain work of the eminent mechanic with great injustice. The secret of the inventor was stolen and used in making machines without remunerating him. The inventor of the instrument which gave the cotton-growing States their supremacy in the markets of the world, and brought a constant flow of wealth to their doors, died a poor man.

To return from this digression:

Ten years after Whitney's cotton gin had been invented, Louisana was added to the United States, and there was a great demand for slaves. The northern tier of slave States began to grow slaves for the southern market.

The interstate slave trade became pecuniarily profitable to both sections of the groups of slave States, and public sentiment on the subject of the wrongfulness of slavery became materially modified.

The new generation that came upon the field of active life saw only the remains of the old order of things, and found the slave system almost universally approved as an economic instrument and only mildly condemned by a few as contrary to Christian ethics. They accepted the situation as a matter of course. It was their heritage, and their right as guaranteed to them by law.

The new generation found in their midst an inferior class of human beings, intellectually, a vast majority of whom appeared to be content with their lot, and, as a rule, were happy. They were dependent; devoid of care; docile; obedient; easily won to the embraces of Christianity as presented to them; and many good men and women saw in the corresponding relations of the two races which circumstances had created, a field for the exercise of widespread benevolence. They persuaded themselves that the slave system was a civilizing and Christianizing force, providentially designed to place the Negro upon a higher plane of intelligence and surround him with more elevating influences than he could ever have obtained in his native land. Such sentiments were widely promulgated by the Pulpit and the Press, the most puissant utterers of doctrines and principles, religious and political.

The change in the sentiments of the clergy, in the slave States, during the twenty-five years preceding the Civil War was most remarkable. We will notice only two or three instances in a single religious body—the Presbyterians. In 1835, representatives of that denomination in South Carolina and Georgia, in convention assembled, made an official report against the perpetration of the system of Slavery.

"We cannot go into detail," they said: "it is unnecessary. We make our appeal to universal experience. We are chained to a putrid carcass. It sickens and destroys us. We have a millstone about the neck of our Society to sink us deep in the Sea of Vice. Our children are corrupted from their infancy, nor can we prevent it," etc.

In November, 1860, an eminent Doctor of Divinity in the Presbyterian Church said, in his pulpit in New Orleans, after speaking of the character of the South:—" The particular trust assigned to such a people becomes a pledge of Divine protection, and their fidelity to it determines the fate by which it is finally overtaken. What that trust is must be ascertained from the necessities of their positions, the institutions which are the outgrowth of their principles, and the conflicts through which they preserve their identity and independence. If, then, the South is such a people, what, at this juncture, is the providential trust? I answer, that it is *to conserve and to perpetuate the institution of domestic slavery as now existing.*"

Ten or fifteen years before the Civil War, an eminent Doctor of Divinity in Charleston, S. C., in a pamphlet, referred to the Declaration of Independence as the product of Presbyterians and as of almost Divine origin. In November, 1860, he said, in his pulpit, that he "found in the infidel, atheistic, French Revolution, Red Republican principle, embodied as an axiomatic principle in the Declaration of Independence," the root of all our evils.

The President of a Theological Seminary, at Columbia, S. C., asserted his convictions that the African slave-trade was "the most worthy of all missionary Societies."

Happily, the logic of events has relegated such sentiments to the shadowy realms of the past, and the "New South" is working out its noble destiny on a higher plane of action. We have alluded to these things only to illustrate the changeful phases of public opinion during the period of agitation which we are considering.

When the State of Louisiana was admitted into the Union, in 1812, the vast northern part of the purchase from France was without white inhabitants. This region was rich in natural resources. Iron, copper and coal enough to supply the earth lay beneath its surface. Large rivers flowed in natural highways to the seas. The climate was genial and mild. Gradually settlers came flocking thither. The slave-holder with his bond-servants was the first in the field, and the free settler turned aside to the northwest, from which slavery had been excluded by the act of the Continental Congress. So Missouri became a slave State. In 1818, there were sixty thousand persons in the Territory of Missouri, and she was knocking at the doors of Congress for admission. The slave States of Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Mississippi, had been admitted before this without any controversy, but now the slave power was becoming too aggressive and reaching far to the north. The first great contest between the North and the South was fought over this question. For more than two years the conflict waged, and after a desperate fight in the Halls of Congress and before the people, resulted in the Compromise measure. There had been heated debates which had agitated the whole country from Maine to Louisiana. The compromise was, that slavery should be allowed in all States south of 36 degrees, 30 minutes north latitude, and excluded from all States and territories north of that latitude. This conflict ended with a decided victory for the slave power. The cotton gin, the admission of Louisiana, and the teaching of events, all had their effect in making the South a unit, and the slave power very strong in the nation. The institution required more territory for its expansion; and this policy never changed. The agitation which had begun would rage over the country for fifty years, and find its solution only when the institution lay in ruins at the end of a gigantic struggle inaugurated to uphold it by an attempted dissolution of the Union. Indeed this was the threat all through the controversy that had led to the compromises which were always in favor of the slave power.

The active hostility of the North against slavery began to grow in the time of John Quincy Adams (1825--1829). General Andrew Jackson was President from 1829 to 1837, and during a part of the same time, John C. Calhoun was Vice President. This question was the overshadowing one for that period. The South found a faithful ally in a certain class at the North. People in the Free States participated in gains from the slave system in the South. The planter borrowed money in the North, and sold his cotton to the Northern manufacturer, and Northern ships were engaged in the cotton conveying trade. They were coining money out of the peculiar institution and had no scruples of conscience about it. There was a wide-spread opinion that the slave of the South was in better condition than the poorly paid laborer of Europe; and that was all that could be asked. It was claimed that cotton could not be grown without slave labor. And thus the institution, intrenched in the constitution, became united in the South, and had its friends in the North. There seemed no hope for the poor black now, and the South began to exercise absolute political domination in the National Legislature. But there was an influence at work in the free States, at first weak and insignificant, but like the leaven hidden in the three measures of meal, affecting the whole mass.

On the first day of January, 1831, there appeared in Boston the first number of a paper, called the "Emancipator," published by a journeyman printer, William Lloyd Garrison. It was devoted to the furtherance of the abolition of slavery. It was an insignificant opening for a noble enterprise, which found its consummation in the necessity of a civil war that threatened the very existence of the Republic. But every word spoken or written upon the subject found some willing hearer or ready reader; and gradually the influence reached the pulpit, the political caucus, and the Halls of Congress. An abolition society was formed, at first composed of twelve members. In three years there were two hundred such organized, and in seven years increased to over two thousand anti-slavery societies. The contest began in earnest. The conflict was long and fiercely waged.

The question of the tariff had its northern and southern side; and when the nullifiers of South Carolina, in 1832, resisted the government, it was in the interest of their cherished institution.

There is another side to the topic of the annexation of Texas to the Union than the one we have presented. Texas was a large, uninhabited tract on the southwest border of the country, and the South looked upon it as a desirable region for the spread of the slavery system. The climate was genial and the soil rich. It was of uncertain ownership, but it was recognized as belonging to Mexico. Under a grant of territory to a citizen of Missouri, by the Spanish authorities in 1820, citizens of the slave States flocked into Texas; and when, in 1833, there were 20,000 Americans there, a revolutionary movement for achieving the independence of Texas began under the leadership, chiefly, of Samuel Houston, of Virginia. Mexican troops under Santa Anna invaded Texas, and were defeated in battle, by Houston with a Texan force. The Mexicans were driven from the country; the independence of Texas was achieved in 1836, and it was speedily acknowledged by the United States, Great Britain, France and other nations.

The grateful Texans made Houston President of the Republic which he had thus saved.

Mexico still claimed the territory. A warm debate arose in Congress, and the first proposal from Texas to enter the Union was rejected. The conflict became bitter. If Texas was admitted she would come as a slave State; on this ground the North opposed it, and the South favored it.

Daniel Webster said, "We all see that Texas will be a slave-holding State, and I frankly avow my unwillingness to do anything which shall extend the slavery of the African race on this continent, or add another slave-holding State to the Union." The Legislature of Mississippi said in resolutions on the subject, "The South does not possess a blessing with which the affections of her people are so closely entwined, and whose value is more highly appreciated. By the annexation of Texas, an equipoise of influence in the Halls of Congress will be secured which will furnish us a permanent guarantee of protection." Such was the plain statement of the question from both sides. The matter went to the people and resulted in a victory for the South. Texas was admitted, two votes for slavery were gained in the Senate, and unlimited room for the expansion of the ancient institution. But the victory cost a war with a sister Republic, in which might was arrayed against right, and the United States won the questionable glory of conquering a weaker power and dismembering her territory to a vast extent. In this Mexican war we find the names of many men who won their first military honors in the "country under the sun," and afterwards took a conspicuous place in history. Ulysses S. Grant and Robert E. Lee took part in this war; but never met face to face until many years afterwards, when they had a conference under an historic apple tree, near Appomatox Court-House in Virginia, to arrange for the surrender of a brave but conquered army. General Franklin Pierce, and General Zachary Taylor were also in the war with Mexico, and became Presidents of the United States. There was a strong opposition to this war, and in the North dominant public opinion was instantly aroused in regard to the demands of the arrogant slave power.

Thus far in the conflict of agitation and argument the South had gained at every move, and in their pride of success they considered themselves safe to demand that their institution should be considered a national one. But there came other agencies into the field, and the very war which had been waged in Mexico became, under Providence, the means of checking their supremacy and putting an end to the acquirement of any more slave States. Of the original thirteen States, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, were slave-holding. Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, and Texas had been added to their number. But now there was to be a halt, and the voice of Providence seemed to say "Thus far shalt thou go and no further, and here shall thy proud waves be stayed." The discovery of gold, and the rapid increase of population in California, made up of men who came to carve out their fortunes, was unfavorable to the introduction of slavery, and the people framed a State Constitution and asked and obtained its admission as a free State. This was a grievous disappointment to the slave States which had been so enthusiastic in pressing on the Mexican war, for the sake of gaining the control of new States, more votes in the United States Senate, and a large area for the spread of slavery. The people from the North had flocked to the Pacific Coast and quickly decided the fate of the first State formed on that coast.

But we will now resume the line of general history at the end of Mr. Polk's administration. General Zachary Taylor, who had been conspicuous for his bravery and patriotism in the war with Mexico was elected to the Presidency by a large majority, as we have said.

ADMINISTRATION OF ZACHARY TAYLOR.

THE twelfth President of the United States was inaugurated March 5th, 1849—the 4th being Sunday—and from the start had the sympathies and best wishes of a large majority of the people. The administration of the newly inaugurated incumbent promised to be one of unusual happiness and prosperity.

The Constitution framed by the people of California at Monterey was adopted by the convention on the first day of September, 1849. The birth and formation of a crude State had been so sudden as to surprise the country, having been only twenty months from the time of the discovery of gold. Edward Gilbert and G. H. Wright were sent as delegates to Congress and John C. Frémont and William M. Gwin were elected Senators, and appeared at Washington with the State Constitution in their hands, and presented a petition asking to be received as a free and independent State. Then there came a severe struggle in the two Houses of Congress over the anti-slavery clause, and the excitement ran high all over the country. The old and oft-repeated threat of disunion was raised, and again another compromise was effected. Henry Clay appeared as a peacemaker and implored the people to make any sacrifice but honor to preserve the Union. Daniel Webster warmly seconded the efforts of Mr. Clay and the compromise measure was passed September 9th, 1850. This is known as the "Omnibus Bill," and provided "for the admission of California as a free State; second, the formation of the territory of Utah; third, the formation of the territory of New Mexico, and ten million dollars be paid to Texas for her claim on this territory; fourth, the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia; fifth, the fugitive slave law." This last measure was extremely unpopular in the North. Its provisions were excessively obnoxious to the whole non slave-holding States, and raised a storm of opposition, evasion and violation, which led to serious disturbances and much bitter strife. In the midst of this excitement the President died, and was succeeded by the Vice President, Millard Fillmore, July 9th, 1850.

In the brief administration of General Taylor, there had been a number of important events which affected the issues of the impending Civil War. One of these was the invasion of Cuba by General Lopez, a native of that island, who had come to the United States and raised, organized and equipped a force in violation of the neutrality laws. He landed in Cuba the 19th of April, 1850, expecting to find the Cubans ready to rise and make a strike for freedom from Spain. But in this he was disappointed, and returned to the States to raise a larger force. Of this we shall speak further on. The other event was the establishment of Mormonism in the region called Utah, a large tract of country midway between the Mississippi and the Pacific Ocean. The Mormons composed a religious sect who had accepted the delusion of Joseph Smith, in 1827, and had emigrated from the State of Illinois. They came across the plains and founded their settlement, after many hardships and trials, in a land among the mountains in mid continent which they called Deseret. They were fanatical in their notions, and had adopted a system of marriage which was antagonistic to the religious and moral sentiment of the whole country. They recognized the right and held to the practice of polygamy, or a plurality of wives. They spread their doctrines by means of missionaries over all parts of the world and converts came in large numbers to Utah. They have long had sufficient population to form a State, but up to this writing—1888—have been kept out of the Union on account of their peculiar institution of polygamy.

ADMINISTRATION OF MILLARD FILLMORE.

THE compromise measure adopted, as we have seen, was the first movement of importance during his term of office. The cabinet of General Taylor resigned at the time of his death, but the incoming President retained them in office, and zealously carried out the policy which had been inaugurated by his predecessor.

The Fugitive Slave Law was supported by the Executive power, and occasioned wide-spread dissatisfaction all over the non-slave-holding States. Before this time, while the slave-owner could claim, and recapture his so-called property when found, he could not demand the aid of northern officials or citizens in aiding him in the search; but this law authorized him to employ the representatives of the general government in the search and delivery of his fugitive slaves, and any citizens could be called upon to assist in this, when a United States Marshal demanded it. This was at utter variance with the spirit of free institutions in the North, and the people of that section, and a large number of the South, were in favor of its repeal. This led to a fearful struggle on the part of both sides to carry their points, and the final result was most disastrous to the nation for a time.

In the spring of 1851 there were enacted the most salutary changes in the Post Office laws, and a great reduction in rates of postage. The electric telegraph had been perfected, and thousands of miles of wire were binding together cities, countries and States. Thus instantaneous communication could be held between distant points. Fulton and Morse, by their discoveries, had annihilated time and space, and bound the distant States into a more solid union than had ever been known before.

In the summer of 1851, there was increased excitement over the proposed invasion of Cuba a second time under General Lopez. The watchfulness of the government was awakened, and the United States' marshals were ordered to arrest any persons suspected of violating the neutrality laws. The steamer *Cleopatra* was detained in New York harbor, and several respectable citizens were arrested for complicity in the matter. General Lopez made his escape from the authorities, with four hundred and eighty men, and landed on the northern coast of Cuba, August 11th. He left Colonel N. L. Crittenden, of Kentucky, with one hundred men at that point, and went into the interior with the rest. Crittenden with his party was captured, taken to Havana, and shot on the 16th. Lopez was attacked on the 13th, and his band dispersed. He had been deceived in finding any of the natives ready to aid him. There were no indications of any uprising and he was a fugitive. He, with six of his men, was arrested on the 28th, and on September 1st, 1851, they were all executed.

In the Fall of 1851, there was more accession of territory for the United States. Many millions of acres of land were purchased of the Sioux Indians and they were removed to the reservation appointed for them. The territory of Minnesota was organized, and emigration soon filled it with a white population. The number of Representatives and Senators in Congress had increased so much since the war of 1812, that it now became necessary to enlarge the Capitol building in Washington, and the corner-stone was laid for a new wing July 4th, 1851, by the President, with appropriate ceremonies.

The expedition of Elisha Kent Kane, M. D., a surgeon in the United States Navy, started for the Arctic Ocean, in 1853, and resulted in many scientific discoveries which settled the fact of an open Polar Sea, but the object of the search, to find Sir John Franklin, was not accomplished.

The visit of Louis Kossuth, an Hungarian patriot to this country during Mr. Fillmore's term of office, was an occasion of much interest in awakening the sympathies of the people for his oppressed country, but the government did not give him the material aid he sought.

There was much ill feeling engendered between the United States and England, growing out of the Newfoundland fishery question; but it was settled in October, 1853, without any rupture.

An event of great commercial interest occurred in the same year in the distant East. Commodore Perry,—a brother of the hero of Lake Erie,—made a treaty with the Government of Japan, in which it was agreed that part of that Empire should be opened to American commerce; that the steamers from California to China should be furnished with coal, and that American sailors shipwrecked on the coast of Japan should be hospitably treated by the natives.

The relations between the United States and Spain became involved in unpleasantness, growing out of the Cuban matters, and for a time war was threatened. There was a feeling in Europe that the United States wanted Cuba, to hold command of the entire Gulf of Mexico. England and France, asked that the United States should enter into a treaty with them which should secure Cuba to Spain, and disavow, "now and forever hereafter, all intention to obtain possession of the Island of Cuba." Edward Everett, Secretary of State, answered this demand in a logical, and unanswerable argument, which was praised for its power and patriotism, and the subject was dropped.

The most important event at the close of President Fillmore's term was the organization of the Territory of Washington, from the northern half of Oregon. This became a law on March 2d, 1853, two days before the newly elected President, General Franklin Pierce, took his seat. William R. King, of Alabama, had been elected Vice President, but failing health prevented him from entering upon the office.

ADMINISTRATION OF FRANKLIN PIERCE.

THE day on which Mr. Pierce was inaugurated, March 4th, 1853, there was a bitter storm of sleet and rain, the most severe ever known in Washington, and seemed to augur a tempestuous administration. So it proved in the sequel. The first serious difficulty that arose was in regard to the boundary line between Mexico and the United States, and for a time war seemed inevitable. The Mexican army occupied the disputed territory: but the matter was amicably settled by peaceful negotiation, and friendly relations between the two republics have existed ever since.

In the early part of this administration a large exploring expedition was sent to the Pacific coast of Asia, which was of great importance in view of the establishment of numerous steamship lines between the ports of Asia and the United States. The question of connecting the Atlantic and the Pacific coasts with railways, was agitated in connection with this subject. Four explorations were sent out by the government to survey as many routes: one from the head waters of the Mississippi to Puget Sound; one from the same river to the Pacific along the thirty-sixth parallel of latitude; one by way of the Great Salt Lake to San Francisco,—which line was completed in 1869; the fourth from the lower Mississippi to Southern California. The explorations were made, and a vast amount of scientific, geographical and natural information was gained.

A world's fair of Industry and Mechanical Arts was opened in New York, in the spring of 1853 and modelled after a similar one held in Hyde Park, London, England, in 1851. This gave great encouragement to the manufacturers and the mechanical arts in America, and showed the nations of Europe what strides the young republic was making in the march of improvement.

The lull which precedes a fierce storm had fallen upon the country at the time Congress met, in December, 1853. There was an unprecedented calm in the political world, and the quiet of a settled peace rested upon the country, rippled only by a wave of trouble with Austria, which was soon smoothed.

Important treaties with Mexico and the Central American States were in progress of settlement in regard to various inter-oceanic communications by railway or water. In the distant Pacific there was a kingdom whose inhabitants had become civilized, Christianized, and established in a civil government, with a wide extent of commerce in a single generation, namely, the Sandwich Islands. The king and his people desired to unite with the American States, and took steps to bring that about. France and England at once were jealous, and charged the whole scheme upon the American missionaries. The United States Minister and the missionaries denied that they had influenced the natives. The American government denied the right of foreign governments to interfere, and a treaty for the annexation of the Sandwich Islands was in preparation when King Kamehameha died, and his successor discontinued negotiations. These were revived in 1866, by Queen Emma, when she returned from her visit to England.

The slavery question which had been so quiet for a few years, suddenly presented itself just as Congress was sitting down to work on the important matters of commerce and internal improvement. Stephen Douglass, United States Senator from Illinois, introduced a bill which aroused the people to the most intense excitement, and broke in upon the harmony of Congress. Near the centre of our continent there was a vast domain embracing one-fourth of all the public land of the country. It extended from the thirty-seventh parallel of north latitude to the British possessions, and was the most fertile and best watered portion of America. The bill of Mr. Douglass provided that this domain should be organized into two territories—Kansas and Nebraska—and contained a provision to repeal the Compromise of 1820, and allow the people to decide whether or not slavery should be permitted. The thunder storm broke over the country in renewed fury, and violent discussion arose in the North and South. The bill was discussed in the Senate from January 30th to March 3d, 1854, and thousands of remonstrances poured in from all parts of the North, but it passed the Senate by the decided vote of thirty-seven to fourteen. In the House of Representatives it was shorn of its worst features by amendments, and the final defeat seemed almost certain. A bill for the construction of a railroad to the Pacific was reported to the Senate. A Homestead Act, giving one hundred and sixty acres of land from the public domain to any white male citizen who would occupy and improve the same for five years, was introduced in the House of Representatives. An amendment graduating the price of land was passed in its stead. Another victory for slavery. But the excitement quieted down till the 9th of May, when the Nebraska bill was called up again. At once the public pulse ran up to fever heat. The debate was fierce and intense; the suspense of the people was fearful, but on the 22d of May the bill as amended passed the House, was rushed through the Senate, and signed by the President the last of May. Every barrier to the lawful spread of slavery over the public domain was now removed; but the end was not yet.

Another chapter in the controversy concerning Slavery opens at once. Spain had a cause of grievance with the United States in regard to Cuba. The American steamship *Black Warrior* was seized in the port of Havana by the Cuban authorities. The Spanish government justified the act when the American Minister at Madrid asked for redress. But the Cubans became alarmed and offered to give up the ship by the owners paying a fine of six thousand dollars. The owners complied under protest. The matter was amicably adjusted between Spain and the United States. The slave power used the irritation caused by this incident as a pretext for a gigantic scheme of propagating slavery.

In 1854 President Pierce appointed James Buchanan, then ambassador at London, James M. Mason, ambassador at Paris, and Mr. Soulè, ambassador at Madrid, as a commission to confer about the difficulties in Cuba, and to get possession of that island by purchase or otherwise. The famous Ostend Circular was issued by them, on the 18th of August, 1854, in which they said, "If Spain, actuated by pride and stubborn sense of honor, should refuse to sell Cuba to the United States," then, "by every law, human and divine, we shall be justified in wresting it from Spain, if we possess the power." This is the argument of the highway robber, and why it should not have been rebuked at Washington can only be understood in the light of future events. In the light of these events, we learn that the stupendous design embraced the plot of "the Golden Circle," which was to establish an empire with Havana as its centre, embracing an area of sixteen degrees of latitude and longitude, to take in the slave States, the West Indies, and a great part of Mexico and the Central American States.

We find a little relief in turning from this subject for a moment to others.

The boundary line between Mexico and the United States was established upon satisfactory terms, as we have already stated. The United States was to pay ten millions of dollars, and be released from all obligation imposed in the former treaty of 1848—seven millions on the ratification of the treaty and three millions when the line should be established. These conditions were faithfully carried out.

An important reciprocity treaty was made with Great Britain, which was of great advantage to both parties, and removed to a considerable extent the restrictions on free trade between the United States and Canada. The two governments agreed to the introduction of many articles, such as breadstuffs, coal, fish, and lumber, from one to the other, free of duty. England gave the United States the free use of the St. Lawrence, and the canals of the provinces, and in return enjoyed the right of fishing, as far as the thirty-sixth degree of north latitude, and other privileges. This treaty continued until 1866.

The attempt on the island of Cuba had failed; but there was started at once an expedition to Central America to get possession of a portion of the Golden Circle. This was organized by a warm personal friend of Jefferson Davis, Secretary of War, under the administration of Mr. Pierce. His name was William Walker. He invaded the State of Nicaragua, on what is known as the Mosquito Coast, under the pretext that the British were attempting to take this coast, in violation of the principle of the "Monroe doctrine." Many persons had emigrated hither from the Southwestern States. The guns of the United States Navy had already awakened the echoes of the tropical forests. The Mosquito King had sold a large tract of land to two British subjects, and emigrants, led by Colonel H. L. Kinney, had settled there. The attention of our Minister to the State of Nicaragua had been called to this matter, and our government could not wholly ignore the subject, but dealt with it so mildly as to leave the inference that the emigrants would not be molested by the United States. Captain William Walker went to the aid of Colonel Kinney, and with his band attempted to capture the city of Rivas, but his attack was repulsed, and he escaped to the coast.

Walker returned, with armed followers, in August, 1855, and in September the emigrants assumed the independence of Nicaragua. Walker, after gaining some victories, placed General Rivas in the Presidential chair of the independent "State of Mosquito," and drove Colonel Kinney away. He strengthened his military power, and was recognized by a British consul. The other States of Central America became frightened at this display of audacity, and combined to drive Walker out of his position. Costa Rica formally declared war against this new power. Walker raised a strong band, and shamelessly proclaimed that he was there by invitation of the liberal party of Nicaragua. The army of Costa Rica came to attack him, and he overcame them. Walker then became arrogant, forced a loan from the people, and after Rivas had abdicated the presidency, Walker was elected President, by two-thirds of the popular votes. He was inaugurated June 24th, and our government hastened to recognize the new nation. It was the opening chapter in the grand plot. He held his position for two years, and finally was obliged to surrender his army of two hundred men, and flee to New Orleans. He attempted to raise another expedition, and on the 25th of November landed at Puntas Arenas, where he was captured by Commodore Paulding, of the United States Navy, and with two hundred and thirty-two men was taken to New York. President Buchanan *privately* commended Commodore Pauling for the act, but for "prudential reasons" *publicly* censured him in a special message to Congress, January 7th, 1858. Walker was discharged, and preached a new crusade against Nicaragua all through the Southern States, collecting money to aid him in a new invasion. He sailed from New Orleans, on a third expedition, but was arrested, and tried before the United States Court, for "leaving port without a clearance," but was acquitted. Then he went to Central America, recommenced hostilities, was taken, and shot at Truxillo by the natives. Thus ended another act in the civil strife which was raging.

In 1855, there was serious trouble with the Indians in Oregon and Washington Territories, and the United States Army was sent to quell it. The barbarians overcame them, and a massacre of white families followed. In the season of 1855--6, it seemed that the combination of Indians was so strong that the settlers would have to abandon the territories named, but General Wool was sent to Oregon to organize a force against the savages, and the trouble was settled the following Summer.

A slight trouble arose between Great Britain and our government, growing out of the enlistment of men in the United States for the Crimean war. This was done under the sanction of several British consuls in this country. After some diplomatic correspondence the offending consuls were dismissed; also the British minister was sent home and his place was filled by another. The British Parliament disavowed any complicity in the matter.

The remaining events in the administration of Franklin Pierce were full of incidents having immediate reference to the great struggle going on in the country between the advocates of the spread of slavery and the advocates of free soil. The contest was most intense and bitter in Congress, and in the political canvass. Silently there were unseen and complicated moral forces at work, but none the less potent because unseen. A great party sprung into existence in the North, and found many adherents in the South. John C.

Frémont of California, and William L. Dayton, were the candidates of this party for President and Vice President. This was the Republican party. Another organization throughout the country known as the American or Know-Nothing party, who were opposed to the foreign element in the national politics, nominated Ex-President Fillmore and A. J. Donelson of Tennessee, for the same offices. The Democratic party put James Buchanan and John C. Breckenridge, in nomination for the same. The political canvass of 1856 was the most exciting and antagonistic that the country had ever seen. The press, the pulpit and the rostrum rang with the utterances of men who were alive to the questions of the hour. In every hamlet and village of the North, and most of the South, the party lines were distinctly drawn, and families and neighborhoods were stirred with the agitation of the all-absorbing subject.

The day of the election came and the whole country waited in breathless anxiety for the returns. The election of James Buchanan for President, and John C. Breckenridge for Vice President, was the result.

THE STRUGGLE IN KANSAS.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES BUCHANAN.

THE virtual repeal of the Missouri Compromise of 1820 led to a renewal of the contest between the two contending forces, and Kansas became the battle-ground of the decided champions on the two sides. The people from the North began to pour into the new territory and it became apparent that they would largely outnumber the settlers from the slave States. People of the South were the first in the field and took possession of land in all parts. Missouri was near at hand and Kansas was easy of access, but the Southern people were not an emigrating class and their numbers came slowly. There were people enough to form a State, in time, but the Northern settlers could outvote the Southern. The time for election was coming and some decisive steps must be taken. Large bodies of Missourians went in 1854, and when a delegate was chosen from the Territory, out of nearly twenty-nine hundred votes cast over seventeen hundred were by Missourians who had no legal right to vote there. These men from "over the border" were in tents and had artillery with them as if arrayed for battle. A legislature was illegally chosen to meet at Pawnee City, nearly one hundred miles from the Missouri line. This body immediately adjourned to meet on the very borders of that State, and proceeded to enact laws in favor of slavery. They were vetoed by the governor and passed over his veto. The actual settlers of the territory appointed a convention to meet at Topeka, October 19th.

Governor Reeder was nominated for Delegate to Congress, and was at once elected by the legal voters. On the 23d of the same month a convention chosen by the actual citizens of Kansas adopted a Constitution providing that it should be a free State and asked admission to the Union under this instrument. Governor Reeder and the pro-slavery delegate appeared at Washington as contestants for seats. In the meanwhile (January 17th, 1855), an election was held and the State officers were chosen by the legal voters of the Territory. President Pierce (January 24th) sent a special message to Congress representing the action of the people in Kansas in forming a State government as a rebellion.

Then there came a reign of terror for Kansas in which violence, bloodshed and fraud were rampant. The actual settlers resisted the efforts of their pro-slavery neighbors in forcing upon them a condition of things obnoxious to their sense of right and justice. The struggle seemed to be like the death grapple of giants. Finally a committee of investigation was sent from Congress, and a majority of them agreed in their report to sustain the acts of the legal voters and refuse the frauds by which Whitfield, the pro-slavery delegate, had been elected and the pro-slavery constitution passed. The member of the Committee from Missouri alone dissented from the report, and the mission failed to accomplish any result either way. Then came the election of Buchanan as fifteenth President of the United States.

There had been an important case pending in the United States Supreme Court in which a decision had been reached before the election, but it was withheld from the public until the result of the popular vote should be known. It was the famous Dred Scott decision. Scott was a slave of a United States officer who had taken him into a free State, and while there he had married the slave girl of another officer, both masters giving their consent. Two children had been born of this marriage on free soil. The master of Scott bought the wife of his slave, and took the parents and their children to Missouri and held them all. Scott claimed his freedom on the ground of his involuntary service in a free State and the District Court had given him the case. It went to the United States Supreme Court of the State, which reversed the decision. Then it came before the Supreme Court upon the question of jurisdiction solely. The Chief Justice of that court decided against Scott, and announced that no person "whose ancestors were imported into this country and sold as slaves" had any right to sue in the courts of the United States. The majority of the Court agreed with him. After the election was decided they published their decision, and went beyond the question at issue to say that our Revolutionary fathers "for more than a century before" regarded the African race in America as "so far inferior, that they had *no rights which the white man was bound to respect*," and they *were never thought or spoken of except as property*. President Buchanan in his inaugural address *two days before* this strange decision had been promulgated, referred to a mysterious something which would settle the slavery question "speedily and finally," and expressed the hope that thus the long agitation of this disturbing question was approaching its end! *But the end was not yet.* Kansas was still a battle-ground and the contending parties had not given up the struggle. Peace was for a while restored, but the two forces were energetic and active. The question of a free or a slave State was not yet decided.

The pro-slavery party had met in convention and framed a constitution favorable to their side, at Lecompton, in September, 1857. It was submitted to the people in this way: They could vote "For the Constitution with slavery" or "For the Constitution without slavery;" in any case they must vote for this Constitution, which was "all one way," and that protected slavery until 1864. Of course the free-soil men would not vote at all, and the pro-slavery Constitution was adopted by a large majority. An election for the territorial legislature was held under assurance from Governor Walker that the people should not be molested, and although there were many frauds, the anti-slavery party had a large majority. The legislature ordered that the Lecompton Constitution should be sent to the people to vote "for" or "against" the measure as a whole. It was rejected by over ten thousand majority. But in spite of this the President sent the Lecompton Constitution to the Senate (February 2d, 1858), by whom it was at once passed. The House of Representatives amended the bill by referring it again to the people of Kansas for acceptance or rejection. It was again rejected by over ten thousand majority, and finally Kansas was received into the Union as a free State. In the year 1862 the opinion of the Supreme Court was practically rejected as untenable, by the Secretary of State granting a black citizen a passport to travel in foreign countries. Such were some of the skirmishes which preceded the war of 1861--65.

The "Southern Commercial Convention," convened at Vicksburg, voted on the 11th of May, 1859, that "all laws, State or Federal, prohibiting the slave trade, ought to be abolished," and a scheme was soon started to promote the African slave trade, under the specious disguise of an "African labor-supply Association." The withdrawal of American cruisers from the coast of Africa, was discussed in the United States Senate by Mr. Slidell, of Louisiana, and Mr. Buchanan protested against the right of British men-of-war to search suspected slave-traders who flew the United States flag. Ship-loads of slaves were landed in southern ports directly from Africa. The northern States had, in many instances, passed personal-liberty laws, restricting the Fugitive Slave law so far as they could do without a violation of the national law. This exasperated the other party. A National Emancipation Society was formed in Cleveland, Ohio, which aimed at the gradual extinction of the institution of slavery.

The attention of the country was turned to the disturbing Mormon question. These people in Utah were rising in a revolution because they could not gain admission as a State. They destroyed the records of the United States District Court, and by orders of Brigham Young, their governor and spiritual guide, they were to look to him for all law. Colonel Cummings, the actual governor of the Territory, was sent with an army to enforce the United States law. The Mormons destroyed a provision train, committed sundry depredations, but finally Young surrendered the seal of the territory, and threatened to gather his people and leave the country rather than submit to Gentile rule. But he thought better of it, and in a short time Utah made another unsuccessful attempt to enter the Union.

This little episode made scarcely any impression upon the great excitement that was agitating the country. The "Mormon War" had ended in smoke. The South American troubles were settled. Walker's operations in Nicaragua had ceased to interest the public mind, and Congress was engaged upon the Homestead Act, the Pacific Railroad bills, Soldiers' Pensions for the war of 1812, and other peaceful and unexciting measures, when suddenly the smouldering flame of excitement broke out afresh, and startled the whole country. John Brown, an honest enthusiast, with a handful of followers assembled at Harper's Ferry, Virginia, and with a written Provisional Constitution and Ordinance for the People of the United States, he was ready to make opposition to the government as far as slavery was concerned. His little band consisted of seventeen white men and five blacks. The whole land was informed by telegraph from Baltimore, that "an armed band of Abolitionists have full possession of the Government Arsenal, at Harper's Ferry."

All the border States were thrown in a ferment of anxiety; their homes, their sacred altars, and their institutions were in danger. Governor Wise, of Virginia, summoned the State Militia, and General Robert E. Lee, with United States troops and cannon, was hastened to the spot to suppress the insurrection. Two of Brown's sons were slain, and he was arrested. He was tried for exciting the slaves to insurrection, for treason and murder, found guilty, and hung on the 2d day of December, 1859. This was the raid of John Brown. The excitement and terror of Governor Wise, of Virginia, was very great. The most exaggerated rumors concerning the affair spread over the whole country, and Governor Wise prepared to repel the invasion which he was sure was being organized in the Northern States to sweep over Virginia. A thorough investigation developed the fact that Brown had less than twenty persons associated with him in his undertaking, and had no open sympathizers in the whole land.

The indications of the election of 1858 and 1859 pointed to a loss of supremacy of the party which had held the national government so long, and something must be done to protect their own interests. The designing politicians had a gigantic plot in view, and while the great mass of the people in the South were a law-abiding people, who would abide by the Constitution and the laws of their country if left to their own judgment, these men, comparatively few in number, deliberately set about the scheme of severing the Union, and establishing a Confederacy of Slave States in the South. The time had come for their action, for the new party were growing strong. If they did not strike at the close of Mr. Buchanan's administration, although they might succeed in electing a President in sympathy with them, their power in Congress would be much weakened. Now if they could give the people of the South another cause for their action, and succeed in "firing the Southern heart" to the sense of wrong, they would gain a material advantage when the blow should be struck. It would not do, then, to have their candidate of the Democratic party elected, and the first point was to assure the election of a Northern man to the office of President, by the vote of Northern States. How could this be done? The answer was easy enough. Divide the grand old Democratic Party into two factions. Then with the plea that the Republican party was a sectional one, and would oppress the South, inflame the people of the slave-owning States with the idea that their State institutions were in danger, and arouse them to patriotism and an active defense of their respective States.

Now the people of the South were brave, her men were conscientious, and her so-called upper classes were the peers of any community in intelligence. The doctrines of Jefferson had been the theme of her orators for two generations, and the theory of State Sovereignty had taken root in a rich and productive soil, where it had grown to a stalwart tree. The training of years had taught the great mass of her people to believe that Slavery was right, or if not morally right, was a necessary evil in the very condition of things. The North had agitated, discussed, and stirred up strife when the whole land had been prosperous and at peace, and had caused contention and unreasonable commotion in their internal affairs. What though the North disavowed any intention of interfering with Slavery in the States where it then existed, the very agitation of the subject on their borders made them restless and stirred up their slaves. The conspiracy of a few score men could magnify all this into a grievous wrong, and stir the warm blood of the South to the intensest heat, and unite the people in a common cause, as dear to them as that which moved the hearts of their Revolutionary sires.

For months there had been indications that the Democratic convention which was to meet in the city of Charleston, South Carolina, would be a stormy one, and there were mutterings of the coming tempest, that should shake the country to its centre. The gathering of the six hundred delegates, from all the States in the Union, began on the 23d of April, 1860; and from the hour of the opening of the Convention there was the strong pressure of the conspiracy felt. Caleb Cushing was chairman, and Stephen A. Douglass, of Illinois, was the strongest candidate whose name had been proposed before the convention. He had won the title of "Little Giant of the West." His idea of popular sovereignty had been engrafted into the platform of the party at Cincinnati four years before. The Opposition were in favor of a speedy adoption of the institution of Slavery as a national institution, but the friends of Douglass were not ready for this. The Convention, by a handsome majority, re-affirmed the doctrine of popular sovereignty, and at once the plot was sprung. The leader of the delegation from Alabama announced that he, and his colleagues, would formally withdraw from the Convention. Other delegates followed, and a new Convention was formed in another Hall.

The dismemberment of the Democratic Party was now complete, and the plot was subsequently unmasked by Mr. Glenn, of Mississippi, who said in the new convention, "I tell Southern men here, and for them I tell the North, that in less than sixty days, you will find a united South, standing side by side with us." Charleston was the scene of great delight that night, for South Carolina understood what that utterance signified. The result of this secession was that John C. Breckenridge was nominated for President by the seceding Democratic Party, and Stephen A. Douglass was the candidate of the Regular Democratic Party. The Republicans afterwards nominated Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, for President, and Hannibal Hamlin, of Maine, for Vice President. A fourth party, The Constitutional American Party, which adopted the Constitution of the United States for its platform, nominated John Bell, of Tennessee, for the Presidency and Edward Everett, of Massachusetts, for the Vice Presidency.

The political contest was fought with vigor such as had seldom been known before. The Republican and the pro-slavery wing of the Democratic party were antagonistically opposed, and William H. Seward had said there is "an irrepressible conflict between Freedom and Slavery;" "The Republic cannot exist half slave and half free," and "Freedom is the normal condition in all the Territories." This was the Republican side of the question. Mr. Breckenridge claimed that no power existed that might lawfully control slavery in the Territories, and it existed in full force wherever a slave-holder, and his slaves, entered it; therefore it was the duty of the National Government to protect it there. The issue was plain and decided; no one need misunderstand it. Abraham Lincoln was elected by a majority of the votes in the electoral college; but since there were four candidates in the field he had a large MINORITY of the popular vote. This was a part of the plot, to claim that he was a sectional President, and received only a minority of the votes of the people. There would be four months in which to mature and carry out the plans already working so well.

Two years before this, William L. Yancey had written to a friend: "Organize committees all over the Cotton States; fire the Southern heart; instruct the Southern mind; give courage to each other; and at the proper moment, by one organized, concerted action, precipitate the Cotton States into revolution." Mr. Yancey had been an active public speaker in the South during the canvass of 1860, and when the result was known, the leaders in the South were as much elated over the election of Lincoln as any one in the Republican party. Now the pretext that the platform and the policy of the Republican party, and the utterances of the President elect, with the fact that he was a sectional candidate, elected by Northern votes, and these a minority of all the votes cast, led the people of the South to fear that he would be a usurper of their rights, and they listened until their righteous indignation was stirred, and they were easily led to make one bold and united stand for their inalienable rights. In the third year of the war, a Southern gentleman wrote in a letter to a friend, "Perhaps there never was a people more bewitched, beguiled and befooled, than we were when we went into this rebellion."

In President Buchanan's Cabinet, there were three, if not four men, in active sympathy with the movement, and they were anxious to wait until the end of the term before the blow should be struck. There were arsenals, fortresses, custom houses, and other public property in the South. The forts and arsenals in the North were stripped of movable military stores, and were sent South. The United States Navy was scattered to the four quarters of the globe, and most of the ships in commission were beyond the reach of speedy recall; others were lying in ordinary in the navy yards under the pretense of being repaired, but no work was being done upon them. The United States Army Officers, in suspected sympathy with the North, were sent to the extreme West, and the credit of the government was purposely injured. A small loan could not find a market at twelve per cent. interest. This was the condition of things. Some wanted to strike the blow as soon as the election was over; others had another plan, which was this, as avowed by a disunionist who was in the plot:

"We intend to take possession of the army and navy and the archives of government; not allow the electoral votes to be counted; proclaim Buchanan Provisional President if he will do as we wish, if not choose another; seize Harper's Ferry Arsenal and the Norfolk Navy Yard, and sending armed men from the former, and armed vessels from the latter, seize the city of Washington and establish a new government." Why was this not done? Lewis Cass was Secretary of State, and he discovered the treason of his associates; but being powerless to avert the danger, he resigned. The Attorney General was promoted to be Secretary of State, and Edwin M. Stanton was called to be Attorney General. Joseph Holt and John A. Dix, who had been called into Buchanan's Cabinet, were loyal men, and brought a pressure upon the President that he could not withstand, and while he did nothing to openly aid the plot, he was obliged to make a show of sustaining the National government.

The first step to open revolt was made by South Carolina. A convention of delegates in Charleston, adopted an Ordinance of Secession December 20th, 1860. This was signed by one hundred and seventy members. A similar ordinance was passed by the following States in the order given: Mississippi,

January 9th, 1861; Florida, January 10th; Alabama, January 11th; Georgia, January 19; Louisiana, January 26th; Texas, February 1st; Virginia, April 17th; Arkansas, May 6th; North Carolina, May 20th; Tennessee, June 8th.

On the fourth of February, 1861, delegates from six of the States above named met at Montgomery, Alabama, and formed a league styled THE CONFEDERATE STATES OF AMERICA. A provisional Constitution was adopted, and Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, was chosen Provisional President, with Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, Vice President. This organization of a few conspirators,—since no Ordinance of Secession was ever submitted to popular vote,—became a self-styled government, and made war on the United States; seized its public property; put a loan upon the markets of the world; issued letters of marque and reprisal, and raised armies to overthrow the government, while yet the passive friend of the slaveholders was in the presidential chair at Washington. To increase the difficulties which now beset the President, his former Attorney General, J. S. Black, had declared substantially, that the Executive possessed no constitutional power to use the Army and Navy for the preservation of the life of the Republic.

A Peace Convention was held at Washington in February, 1861, but its efforts to effect a compromise were futile. All propositions for compromise made in and out of Congress were rejected by the loyal National legislature. The poor, distressed President Buchanan had to do his best for the time which remained of his term of office. The Southern members of his Cabinet holding on to their positions as long as they could be of any service to the South, had left their chief to fill their places with Northern men. The first overt act of war was performed when Major Robert Anderson, a loyal Kentuckian, refused to give up Fort Sumter, into which he had retired from a weaker fort, Moultrie.

The General-in-chief of the army was Lieutenant General Scott, who was enfeebled in body and mind from age, and although he was loyal he was unable long to cope with the mighty problem. He, however, was vigilant and took efficient measures to secure the safety of Mr. Lincoln on his arrival after his perilous journey through Baltimore, on the 23d of February, 1861. He secured peace and quiet in Washington until after the inauguration of the new President.

THE CIVIL WAR, 1861-5.

ADMINISTRATION OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

THE sixteenth President of the United States was inducted into his office in the midst of bitter enemies on every side, on March 4th, 1861. General Scott had arranged the military forces at his disposal in such a way that they could be called upon in any exigency that might arise from any suspected outbreak in the National Capitol. But all passed off quietly, and the President took the oath of office, as his predecessors had done, in the open air, at the east portico of the Capitol. The Senate confirmed his nominations at once.

The new administration set itself at work with great zeal to ascertain the resources of the government and found what we have already hinted at. The public credit was injured, but the now loyal Congress set at work to restore it. The Army and Navy were of little use. Of the former there were only 16,000 men, and most of them were on the frontiers. Sixteen forts with all their equipments were in the hands of the South, and all the arsenals there. The value of the public property in the hands of the insurgents was thirty million dollars. There were forty-four vessels in commission, and of these only one, the *Brooklyn*, of twenty-five guns, and a storeship were ready for immediate service. Many officers of the navy were Southern men and had resigned, leaving this branch of service very weak and crippled.

The first gun fired at Sumter, April 12th, 1861, awoke the slumbering nation, which had thought that all this array in the South was for effect. Before Major Anderson and his heroic band brought away the flag from Sumter, which *he evacuated but did not surrender*, there was a divided sentiment in the North; some thought that there could be no war and that a peaceful solution was still possible; others comprehended the spirit of the revolt and were satisfied that the struggle would produce bloodshed. The flag was lowered from Sumter on April 14th, and a terrible civil war was at once inaugurated. Such an uprising the land had not seen before. Men of all grades of society at the north, and every political and religious creed, were ready to spring to arms in defense of the Union, at the call of the President two days later. Seventy-five thousand men were called for a three months' service, and were hurried to the front from all the Northern States. The six slave States, to whose governors a requisition for troops was sent, treated the whole subject with utter scorn. The crusade was spontaneous; in every town and hamlet and village the Stars and Stripes were displayed, and brave men enlisted with alacrity, and marched to the front. Nothing like it had been known since the crusades of the Middle Ages to redeem the tomb of the Saviour from the Moslem. The Nation was in danger, and the old spirit of the fathers now glowed in the bosoms of their sons. But little did they know what was before them. Three months they thought would suffice to put down the revolt. Three months and they would come home as heroes, and a grateful country would honor them as the preservers of their nation. They soon found that the South was organized for war, and fighting at its own doors on the defensive. They had mistaken the spirit and temper of the men in arms against the government.

In the South there was also a wide-spread mistake in regard to the North. They thought that the Northern people would not fight, and that their friends of the pro-slavery party there would make a strong resistance in their favor. Within seven days after the attack on Sumter, the South had an army in the field ready for battle, and the shout "On to Washington," was as enthusiastic as the cry "On to Richmond" was afterwards in the North. The South and the North were of the same race, but under the sunny sky the former had warmed up to fever heat, and were ready for war at the instant; the latter, under a colder climate, was longer in being aroused, but when once in thorough earnest they had entered the strife with the determination to conquer or die. These were the two parties in the contest, and now, in dead earnest, there could be no cessation in the deadly grapple until one or the other should succumb to superior strength and determination.

Governor Pickens had said to the people of the cotton-growing States, "Sow your seed in peace for old Virginia will have to bear the brunt of battle." So prompt was the uprising of the people in the North that three days after the issue of the call for troops several companies of militia arrived in Washington ready for service. The Sixth Regiment of Massachusetts volunteers were attacked on the streets of Baltimore, and the first blood was shed in the war on the 19th of April. Communication by rail and telegraph was severed between that city and Washington, and for several days the President and his Cabinet were virtually prisoners in their Capital, but General Benjamin F. Butler with Massachusetts men found a way there by water to Annapolis, and partly by rail across Maryland, and relieved the anxiety of suspense. Troops of hopeful men began to throng to the Capital, but they were none too soon, for an army was being collected in Northern

Virginia to march to Washington and take the city. Harper's Ferry Arsenal and the Norfolk Navy Yard had fallen into the hands of the insurgents.

There was an opinion on both sides that the war would be brief, and the South thought that she had only to march on to the Capital of the United States, seize, hold it and dictate terms of peace favorable to herself; while the North regarded the Southern uprising as a formidable riot that could be crushed in ninety days, so little did either party understand the grit and persistency of the other. The truth was that six millions of people in the South, high spirited, possessing a fertile soil, with a great industry upon which the manufactories of England were dependent for a supply, had risen against the government after months, if not years, of careful preparation. The problem before the loyal States, taken at a fearful disadvantage in the matter of preparation, was how to conquer. The new flag of "stars and bars" was floating over Alexandria in full view of the National Capital. Preparations were being pushed to fortify Arlington Heights from which the Confederates could shell the city of Washington. At Manassas Junction a large army were encamped only thirty miles away. It would seem to a casual observer that the proper course to pursue would have been to act on the defensive, but the North were now fully aroused. They had been deceived by the threats of disunion so many times before that it had taken some time for them to realize the fact now, but once awake to its stupendous existence they bent all their energies to its suppression. A blockade of all the Southern ports was declared, and in a few weeks ships enough were manned to shut every Southern port of any considerable size.

The government had gained much in a short time but there was a general cry for some decisive battle. The Secretary of War, at this time more sanguine of a short contest than he was a few months later, yielded to the popular pressure and ordered the imperfectly disciplined army of citizen soldiers to battle. General MacDowell, with an army variously estimated from thirty to forty thousand, marched from Arlington Heights and vicinity for Manassas Junction, on Sunday, June 17th. The volunteers, not yet inured to hardship, suffered much on this march, and when they reached Bull's Run, which was to become famous as the scene of a great battle, they were met by the Confederate army of General Beauregard, when a general engagement took place on the 20th, in which the loss was heavy on both sides. The Union army was repulsed and fled in a precipitate rout to Washington. The men were hurrying in wild confusion from the field of conflict. The defeat had caused a general panic, and baggage trains, artillery, cavalry, infantry, and civilians were mixed in a promiscuous mass. The Confederates had won the battle, but showed no disposition to follow up the advantage. In fact they had suffered severely, and in this first general engagement each side was equally astonished at the force displayed on the other, and awoke to the consciousness of the fact that there was equal determination and bravery in both armies. The North were taught that the work of putting down the insurrection was a more stupendous task than had been imagined, but their purpose was not shaken.

On the day after the battle Congress voted to raise five hundred million dollars and five hundred thousand men to put down the insurrection. A few days afterwards a resolution passed both Houses, saying that it was a sacred duty of the nation to put down the revolt, from which no disaster should deter them, and to which they pledged every resource, national and individual. Mr. Lincoln said: "Having chosen our course without guile and with pure purpose, let us renew our trust in God and go forward without fear and with manly hearts."

The spirit of the North was fully aroused, and no thought of any other issue than of success came to them. Thousands of earnest youth and middle-aged men thronged into the ranks, animated with the same lofty spirit of patriotism. Many of the three months' men re-enlisted for three years. Regiments and brigades, divisions and army corps, were organized, and the army was rapidly disciplined and prepared for the fearful task imposed. Public credit was established and the warmest patriotism was aroused. The money to pay the soldiers of a Connecticut Regiment was not ready on time, and a private in the ranks drew his check for one hundred thousand dollars to advance the pay of his comrades. This man was Elias Howe, Jr., of Bridgeport, the inventor of the sewing machine. He had a physical infirmity which would have exempted him from military service, and when a commission was offered to him he refused it on the ground of his inability to perform the duties; but he enlisted as a private to encourage other men who could perform good service, to do the same.

After the disaster at Bull's Run, General George B. McClellan was placed in command. He was a skillful engineer and organizer and set about the task of forming this incongruous mass of patriotic volunteers into a well-arranged and thoroughly disciplined army. His friends knew that he was the man to mold the army and make it what it should be, an obedient, disciplined and well-officered instrument of the government. In October, 1861, he was the commander of two hundred thousand fighting-men, the largest army the United States had ever known. The men loved him with an enthusiasm that had been unequalled since the days of Bonaparte, and the army delighted to call him "The young Napoleon of the West."

After the secession of Virginia the Confederate government removed its seat from Montgomery, Alabama, to Richmond, and now the capitals of the two contending forces were within a few hours' travel of each other. The most severe fighting of the entire war was occasioned by each endeavoring to capture the capital of the other, and the brave obstinacy displayed in the defence of each.

General Robert E. Lee became the commander of the Confederate army. He had been educated at the United States Military Academy at West Point, and was an officer in the United States Army when his native State, Virginia, joined her fortunes with the Confederacy, and following his sense of duty and honor, he allied his fortunes with those of his native State. He was a brave, conscientious and skillful general, and a calm, thoughtful, unpretending man. He contended almost always with a force superior in number and armament, —such was the fortunes of war—but he made up more than the deficiency by his genius and skill with the aid of very able assistants. By his consummate ability, and his devotion to the cause, the war was maintained after the hope of success was gone, and when at length the overpowering resources, and numbers of the North compelled his surrender, he was esteemed even by his enemies, who were proud of this noble but erring son, who had been educated by the nation against which he had, with mistaken judgment, drawn his valiant sword.

Thomas J. Jackson, who earned the epithet of "Stonewall" Jackson, was the most celebrated of Lee's generals. He was an earnest, religious man of stern, uncompromising integrity, which won the admiration of friend and foe alike; and he had gone into the war from a high sense of duty, and showed how a brilliant man can be sadly mistaken in judgment. He was scrupulously exact in his own private life, led a class in Sunday School, taught his negroes, and delivered lectures on the authenticity of the Scriptures. He firmly believed in the justness of slavery, and ordered his slaves to be flogged when he thought the circumstances required it. General Jackson worked and fought for the preservation of the Slave system with the earnestness of a conscientious zealot. He was the strong right arm of General Lee after the latter became the chief of the Confederate Army. He was a brave, expert and successful general, and died regretted by honest men in both armies.

In January, 1862, President Lincoln ordered General McClellan to advance with his finely equipped army upon the enemy, and by the end of March he was ready to move.

At the opening of the new year we will glance back over the history of the year 1861. Fort Sumter had been evacuated by Major Anderson, April 14th. President Lincoln had issued his call for troops on the 15th. The sixth Massachusetts had been mobbed in the streets of Baltimore on the 19th. The offensive operations were begun by the United States Army on the 18th of May. The engagements of Big Bethel, Philippi, Fairfax Court House, Paterson Creek, Mather's Point, York Bridge, Laurel Hill, Rich Mountain, Beverly, Carricksford, Bunker Hill, Barboursville, all in Virginia, had been fought before the disaster at Bull Run, of which we have written. They were, for the most part but preliminary skirmishes, and in no sense decisive. The insurrection in Maryland had been strangled at its birth, and that State was saved to the Union. In Missouri, engagements of considerable importance had been fought, namely at Boonville, Carthage, Dug Springs and Wilson's Creek. The Confederate privateer *Petrel* was sunk by the *St. Lawrence*, August 1st. Fort Fillmore in New Mexico was treacherously given up by Major Lynde, with seven hundred and fifty men; Lovettsville, Grafton, Boone Court House, Carnifex, Lucas Bend, Lewinsville Elk Water, Cheat Mountain, Darnstown, Romney, Fall's Church, Chapmansville, Greenbriar, Bolivar, Balls Bluffs, Vienna and Drainsville, all in Virginia, were places where more or less blood was shed during the opening years of the war. In the State of Missouri, whose governor was determined to take her out of the Union, a severe contest ensued, which resulted in driving the Confederates from her borders, and preserving her to the United States. Potosi, Wilson Creek, Charlestown, Lexington, Blue Mill Landing, Papinsville, Fredericktown, Springfield, Belmont, Mount Sion, were the names of places where engagements were fought in that State.

In Kentucky the Confederates gained a slight foothold in the southern and western part. The governor encouraged the secessionists whilst he kept up a show of neutrality. He allowed them to establish recruiting camps for the Confederate Army, and looked with complacency upon the invasion of the State by a Confederate force under General Polk, who took possession of Columbus, on the bank of the Mississippi River. Union officers took vigorous opposing measures. General Grant took possession of Paducah at the mouth of the Tennessee River. The "neutrality" of Kentucky was soon ended, and the State finally took a positive stand for the Union. There had been considerable skirimishing on its soil during the year, and severe battles were fought there afterwards.

In the fall of 1861, there occurred an event which for a time threatened to cause a rupture with Great Britain. The Confederate government had sent two commissioners as ambassadors to the English and French courts, which had already acceded belligerent rights to "The Confederate States of America." These gentlemen, each with his secretary, had succeeded in running the blockade at Charleston on the stormy night of October 12th, 1861, and proceeded to Cuba. Here they took passage on the British steamer *Trent* for St. Thomas, intending to take the regular packet steamer from that port for England. The United States vessel, *San Jacinto*, Captain Charles Wilkes, took them from the *Trent* and carried them to Boston, where they were incarcerated in Fort Warren, then used as a military prison. This act was in the strictest accord with the British interpretation and practice of the act which the war of 1812 led to, and which was left undecided in the treaty of peace at the close of that war. But it was in direct opposition to the avowed theory and policy of the American government. England now claimed, as the Americans claimed in 1812, that this was a violation of the rights of neutral powers. Thus after fifty years, in which she had strenuously maintained the right to do the very thing which the United States had now done, that proud nation acknowledged that the principle was wrong. A demand was made for the return of the ambassadors, James M. Mason and John Slidell. The American government were too glad to vindicate their policy, and to rid themselves of the burden, by giving up the men on January 1st, 1862. The ambassadors did not gain the advantage they sought, and the event silenced forever the arrogant claim of England to search the ships of neutrals.

THE OPERATIONS OF 1862.

THE year 1862 opened with preparations to establish the national power on the Atlantic coast of the Southern States. An expedition under command of Major General A. E. Burnside, sailed from Hampton Roads January 11th. The result was that Roanoke Island and the waters of Albemarle Sound fell into the hands of the Union forces. The Confederate force fled from Port Royal, South Carolina, January 2d.

In Kentucky there had been a fight near Prestonburg, in which General J. A. Garfield, defeated the Confederate General Humphrey Marshall, January 10th. General Thomas had defeated General Zollicoffer in a battle at Mill Spring, Kentucky, where the latter was killed. Kentucky was saved and a path of escape made for the Union men in East Tennessee by these two decisive victories. The Confederates fled into Tennessee.

A flotilla of gun boats had been built and equipped under the direction of General John C. Fremont, of California fame, at Cairo on the Mississippi. Commodore A. H. Foote had been put in command. An expedition against Forts Henry and Donelson had been organized, and General U. S. Grant had been put in chief command. Commodore Foote was ordered to the Tennessee River with his gun boats. On February 3d, he was in front of Fort Henry, and on the 6th, the fort surrendered. General Grant made immediate preparation to attack Fort Donelson on the Cumberland River, while Commodore Foote hurried back to Cairo to obtain mortar guns for the siege. The battle began on the 13th, continued on the two following days, when the fort was surrendered on the 16th with thirteen thousand three hundred prisoners of war. The Confederate Generals, Floyd and Pillow, fled the night before and left General Buckner, who was the only brave man of the three, to surrender the fort. This was the first brilliant victory for General Grant during the war. The fall of Fort Donelson was a heavy blow to the Confederates, but the news caused wide-spread rejoicing all through the loyal States. It was regarded as a crushing blow to the Southern cause, and lost to them the States of Missouri, Kentucky and all northern and middle Tennessee.

The campaign in Arkansas resulted after a few skirmishes in a decisive victory for the Union forces under General S. R. Curtis, at Pea Ridge, on the 7th of February, 1862, in which the five Confederate generals, Van Dorn, McCulloch, McIntosh, Pike and Price were engaged. McCulloch and McIntosh were mortally wounded, and Van Dorn retired behind the mountains. The Confederate army lost thirty-four hundred men in killed and wounded, and sixteen hundred prisoners.

While these important victories were going on in the West there were events of interest occurring in Virginia. The Confederates had taken an old frigate which they sheathed in iron and roofed her with iron rails and fitted her up as a formidable iron-clad vessel. There was no ship in the United

States Navy which could withstand her attack. On the 8th of March she steamed down to assault the Union vessels in Hampton Roads. This monster, which had been re-christened the *Merrimac*, came into the very midst of the wooden ships. Not a man was seen on board, not a gun was fired, and the broadsides poured in upon her rolled off her iron sides and left her unharmed. She destroyed the *Congress* and *Cumberland*, and no power could withstand her assault. The Union vessels there were apparently doomed, and this monster seemed able to devastate the whole Northern coast. There were anxious hearts that day through all the North as the news of this encounter flew on the wires over the country. The Confederates had the advantage of them now, and could rest on their laurels for one night at least. The next day she came down the James to complete her work of destruction so well begun the day before. But at midnight a mysterious something came in from the sea, lighted on her way by the burning *Congress*. The thing looked like a cheese box on a raft; and there had been nothing like it in the whole history of naval warfare. It was the *Monitor* on her trial trip from New York. That day was the trial of strength between the inventive genius of the two sections. The Yankee cheese box won the prize. In the novel naval engagement she was the victor, and the *Merrimac* crawled back to her moorings disabled and useless. The United States Navy had found a champion that could defend her from the monster that but yesterday threatened her annihilation.

The army of the Potomac under McClellan was transferred to Fortress Monroe, and began his march up the Virginia Peninsula. General Banks was sent up the Shenandoah Valley to confront General Stonewall Jackson. The battle of Winchester was fought on the 23d of March and resulted in a victory of the Union arms.

The month of May found General Fremont in the mountains of Virginia; General Banks at Strasburg in the Shenandoah valley; and General McDowell at Fredericksburg on the Rappahannock, for the two-fold purpose of defending Washington and helping McClellan. The swift-moving General Ewell had joined Jackson, and on May 8th struck Fremont a heavy blow, and May 23d sent Banks flying down the valley to Winchester. Then the tide turned and Ewell was driven back, pursued by Fremont and Shields. Jackson rallied his forces, joined Ewell and, on the 9th of June, the national armies began their second great race down the Shenandoah Valley followed by the Confederates.

The two main armies were face to face with each other on the first of

June, within six or seven miles of the Confederate Capital. The army of the Union were anxious to enter the city of Richmond at once, and the time had come for a decisive blow. The leader was wanting; McClellan's habitual caution and desire to save human life led him to be over anxious for the safety of the army, every man of which loved him. They were burning to win glory and honor, and were in good condition to march directly into the city. Lincoln urged him daily to make the attack, but still he hesitated. The Confederates came out to attack him, and after several battles the general made preparations to retreat to the shelter of the gunboats on the James River. He would save his army or "at least die with it and share its fate."

The army of patriots were anxious to fight on the offensive and could decide the question of its own fate, but the general, over-solicitous, moved away from the enemy, and his army was daily attacked by the Confederates, and as often gained the victory; but still they held back. Once they drove the enemy fleeing before them and the soldiers demanded to be led into Richmond. The army was strong enough but its leader was weak. McClellan was loyal and desired the success of the North, nor would we for an instant hint at any improper motives. He lost fifteen thousand men in seven days' fight from Gaines' Mills, June 28th, to July 3d, 1862. The army of General Lee had sustained a loss even larger, and when McClellan was fortifying his camp near the James River, Lee was glad to rest his shattered and discomforted troops behind the fortifications of Richmond. The retreat was a masterly and skillful one, and showed good generalship no doubt, but neither the army nor the country were in a humor to appreciate the greatness of a General whose skill consisted in conducting a successful flight. The prize had been within the grasp of a hand powerful enough to seize it, but the brain that directed that power was conservative and cautious, and therefore the city of Richmond was to be a bone of contention between the magnificent army of the Potomac and the brave army of Virginia for nearly three years longer. The Confederates were exultant, and the North was sadly disappointed with the results of the campaign of the Spring of 1862.

We will turn in this swiftly changing panorama to the West. The silent, determined and persistent General U. S. Grant was doing valiant service for the Union army, and rising in rank and influence. After the fall of Fort Donelson, Johnston saw that he could only save the Confederate army by evacuating Bowling Green, and Columbus, Kentucky; he then marched his forces to Nashville, Tennessee, closely followed by General Buell, and at the same time the national gunboats moved up the Tennessee River with land troops in gunboats. Nashville was surrendered to the Union forces February 26th, and on March 4th Andrew Johnson was appointed Military Governor, with the rank of Brigadier-General. Columbus was taken by Commodore Foote and General W. T. Sherman, March 4th, 1862.

Island Number Ten, a thousand miles from New Orleans, was now regarded as the key to the Mississippi River, and was strongly fortified by the Confederates. This was flanked by General Pope; and Commodore Foote hammered away at the defenses from his gunboats until it surrendered, April 7th. This was another heavy blow to the Confederates, and they never recovered from it. General Grant had sent the gunboats up the winding Tennessee River, from Fort Henry, and they penetrated the country as far as Florence, Alabama, under Lieutenant-Commander Phelps, United States Navy, who found an intensely loyal feeling among the people. The army were anxious to advance to their aid, and General Grant attempted to do this. The objective point was Corinth, a city on the Memphis and Charleston Railroad. The large Union army was encamped at Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing, about twenty miles from Corinth, on the first of April. General Buell was trying to join Grant with his forces from Nashville, leaving General Negley in command in that city. Huntsville, Alabama, was captured April 11th, by a part of Buell's army under General Mitchell.

The battle of Shiloh had been fought and won by Grant, on the 7th. The Southern army had advanced from Corinth to within four miles of the Union army unperceived on the morning of the sixth, Sunday, and fell upon Generals Sherman and Prentice. The battle raged all day, and the Union army at night was driven, discomfited, to the shelter of their gunboats, on the Tennessee. General Johnston had been killed. Beauregard, then in chief command, telegraphed a shout of victory to his chief at Richmond, but Buell and Lew Wallace arrived in the night, crossed the river, and Grant's army was saved. The next day, when the fight was renewed, Wallace charged on the Confederate left, and pressed Beauregard back. The battle became general, and the Southerners were driven from the ground that they had taken the day before. Then they fled in precipitate rout, covered by a strong rear guard. The South lost ten thousand men, the North fifteen thousand; and that night the Union army buried the dead on the battle field, while the enemy fled to Corinth. General Hallock came from St. Louis, April 12th, and assumed command, but instead of marching directly upon Corinth, he moved by slow approaches with spade and pick, fortifying as he advanced. On the morning of May 30th, when he sent out skirmishers "to feel the enemy's position," there were no enemies, for Corinth had been evacuated, and the city burned.

Seventy-five miles above the mouths of the Mississippi the Union fleet under Commodore Farragut, with land troops under General Butler, had captured Forts Jackson and St. Philip. New Orleans had been occupied by General Butler, who declared martial law April 29th. Commodore Foote, with his flotilla, beseiged Fort Pillow, May 10th, and on the 4th of June the Confederate forces fled to Memphis, where Commodore Davis, who had succeeded Commodore Foote, had a severe engagement on June 6th, but soon after the flag of the United States waved over the city. All this was going on in the west while the army of the Potomac was moving so cautiously under General McClellan.

The expedition to North Carolina was accomplishing much in gaining that State back to national control. The battle of New Berne was fought on March 8th, and a fight occurred upon the 11th of April, near Elizabeth City. The Northern troops had taken the coast, and were moving into the interior. The national forces captured Fort Mason, at the entrance of Beaufort Harbor, April 25, and now held undisputed sway from the Dismal Swamp to Cape Fear River.

While General Burnside was engaged in this work in North Carolina, General T. W. Sherman and Commodore Dupont went upon a similar expedition to the coast of South Carolina and Georgia. Fort Pulaski was taken after a severe pounding, April 12, and this commanded the entrance to the Savannah River. The coast of Florida was easily seized in the early winter. Fort Clinch, the first of the national forts re-occupied since their seizure, was taken in February; Jacksonville, Florida, March 11th, St. Augustine and Pensacola, opposite Fort Pickens, which never had been in possession of the South, were captured in March. Thus in less than a year from the fall of Sumter, the United States was in possession of the Atlantic and Gulf Cast, as far as Pensacola bay, with the exception of Charleston harbor.

The scene will change again to the army of the Potomac. General McClellan had disappointed the country, and when the news of disasters to the Union forces, in front of Richmond, swept over the North, the hearts of the people sank within them. The commander assured the government, three days after the battle of Malvern Hill, that he did not have "over fifty thousand men with their colors." What had become of the one hundred and sixty thousand men who had been sent to him within the one hundred days previous? Lincoln with an anxious heart hastened to the head-quarters of McClellan to solve this question and answer his request for more troops. The result of this conference was that Lincoln found forty thousand men more than the general had reported, and yet there were seventy-five thousand men missing. Orders were given to remove this army from the Peninsula, and concentrate it before Washington, but McClellan was opposed to this plan, and he was slow to obey.

In the month of August, 1862, the national Capitol was in great danger. The battle of Cedar Mountain had been fought on the 9th of that month. In this fight the national troops were under command of General Banks. They were driven back, but by the timely reinforcement of General Rickett's division, were able to check the Confederate advance in one of the most desperate encounters of the war. Both sides claimed the victory. General Pope was reinforced by Burnside's army, and moved to the Rapidan, intending to hold that position until the arrival of McClellan, but was driven back by Lee. The Confederate general found that he could not force a passage in this direction, and he moved toward the mountains to outflank Pope. This general did his best to thwart the plan of Lee, but his army was much weakened, and McClellan protesting against moving from the James delayed reinforcements from that quarter. Pope, therefore, concentrated his forces at Rappahannock Station, August 23d, 1862, that he might be able to fall with a superior force upon the flanking army under "Stonewall" Jackson. This adroit and skillful general, with accustomed swiftness, crossed the Bull Run Mountain at Thoroughfare Gap, and placed his large force between Pope and Washington. His cavalry swept as far as Fairfax Court House and Centerville, and his main army were at Manassas, waiting for a heavy column under Longstreet, who was advancing. Pope moved with quickness to attack and capture Jackson before Longstreet could come up. But the latter succeeded in joining Jackson, and Pope, who was now assured that he need no longer wait for reinforcements from McClellan, saw that he must fight. The second battle at Bull Run was fought with great loss and defeat to the Union army, August 30th. Pope fell back to Centerville, where he was joined by Franklin and Sumner. Lee did not now attack them, but made another flank movement August 31st. This resulted in a battle September 1st, at Chantilly where

Generals Kearney and Stevens were killed, and the whole army driven within the fortifications of Washington.

The Confederates now had the advantage and determined to follow it up. The time had come when they could make a formidable advance upon Washington, and carry the war into the land of the enemy. September 7th, Lee crossed the Potomac with almost his entire force, and marched into Maryland with the belief that thousands of people in that State would join his army and fight, to rescue her from the Northern forces. In this he was sadly disappointed. McClellan with the Army of the Potomac, numbering 90,000, came to the rescue, and the army of Virginia was merged into it. Mc Clellan moved cautiously. At the middle of September his forces fought and won the battle of South Mountain, in which the gallant General Reno was killed. Harper's Ferry was captured by Lee's army, where Colonel D. H. Miles, a Marylander, surrendered nearly 1200 United States troops.

The crisis was coming and the issue must be met at Antietam. The Confederates had possession of the right bank of the stream, and the Union army the left. The contest opened with artillery firing from the former. McClellan was not ready to move until noon. Hooker crossed the Antietam and had a successful fight on the Confederate left, and rested on his arms that night to renew the fight in the morning. The fight opened early the next day, by Hooker charging on Lee's left again; Burnside on the right, was doing good execution against Longstreet. The contest raged all day, and at night the Confederate army retreated from the scene. Fourteen thousand fresh troops came to the aid of McClellan, and it would seem as if he might have followed up his advantage, and taken the Confederates; but when he was ready to move, thirty-six hours later, Lee's shattered and broken army were behind their own defenses on the south side of the Potomac, whither they had hastened under cover of darkness the night before.

McClellan came to Harper's Ferry, which he found abandoned by the Confederates, and ten days after the battle of Antietam, while the North were hourly expecting to hear that his victorious army had pursued and overcome Lee, he coolly declared his intention to remain where he was, and "attack the enemy should he attempt to re-cross into Maryland." On October 1st, President Lincoln instructed the Commander of the Army of the Potomac to move at once across the river; but twenty days were spent in correspondence, during which the beautiful October weather, which was favorable for military movements, had passed, and Lee's army was resting, recruiting and fortifying. Then, November 2d, McClellan announced that his whole army were in Virginia, prepared to move southward, on the east side of the Blue Ridge, instead of pursuing Lee on the western side. The patience of the government and the loyal people of the North was exhausted, and McClellan was relieved November 5th, and General A. E. Burnside was placed in command. This ended the military career of Major-General George B. McClellan, the commander of the army of the Potomac, who was over-cautious and careful of the lives of his men.

General Burnside reorganized the army and formed a plan to capture Richmond. For this purpose he made his base of supplies at Acquia Creek, and took position at Fredericksburg, from which he intended to advance. But before he was prepared to cross the Rappahannock, Lee appeared with an army 80,000 strong, on the heights in the rear of the city, and destroyed all the bridges on the river. Burnside was obliged to cross upon pontoon bridges. The Union army advanced under a heavy fire, and a bloody battle ensued, which lasted from the 13th to the 16th of December. The Unionists were defeated with great slaughter. Lee took possession of the city, and the National forces retired under cover of darkness. Burnside was superseded by General Joseph Hooker January 26th, 1863, when the army were in winter-quarters. We must here leave them, while we turn our attention to the stirring events on the Mississippi.

We left the Northern army June 1st, 1862, in possession of the Mississippi below New Orleans, and from its sources to Memphis, Tennessee. Colonel John H. Morgan, of Tennessee, had organized an independent band for guerilla warfare, and was overrunning his native State with his horsemen, making long and swift raids through the country in all directions preparatory to an invasion of Tennessee and Kentucky by a Confederate force. By these raids much damage was done to private and public property, and many tributes were wrung from the people. General E. Kirby Smith, with a large Confederate force, entered Kentucky from East Tennessee, and toward Frankfort, the capital. A desperate battle was fought August 30th near Richmond, Kentucky, in which the Union army under General Manson was defeated. The affrighted Legislature, in session at Frankfort, fled to Louisville. The Southern army pressed on toward the Ohio River, with the intention of crossing that stream and destroying the city of Cincinnati. They found their way obstructed by strong fortifications on the south side of the river and a force under General Lew Wallace. Smith then turned toward

Frankfort, captured the city, and waited for General Bragg. Bragg crossed the Cumberland River September 5th with 8000 Confederates, and September 14th the advance guard was repulsed by Colonel T. J. Wilder; but two days afterward Colonel Wilder was compelled to surrender to a superior force. Thus far the Southern army had had it their own way, but now there came a change. General Buell fell upon the combined armies of Bragg and Smith at Perryville, and after a severe fight drove the Confederates from Kentucky, with severe loss, October 8th. General Buell like General McClellan was too cautious and careful. If he had acted with vigor and decision, the invasion of Smith and Bragg would have been crushed at once by the capture of the entire force. As it was it was harmful rather than beneficial to the Southern cause, and General Bragg, who was responsible for it, was relieved of his command by the Confederate government.

While all this was going on in Kentucky, Generals Van Dorn and Price, were invading Tennessee with another Confederate force. General Rosecrans with a small force overcame the Confederates in a closely contested battle at Iuka Springs, September 19th. The beaten army fled southward, and at Riply were reinforced, and prepared to attack Corinth, now held by Rosecrans, and in both engagements of October 2d and 3d, the Southern army was repulsed, and finally driven back to Riply. Then there came a period of quiet in the department over which General Grant was then in command.

In the meantime there were important events transpiring on the Great River. The forces under Admiral Farragut, had move dup the river from New Orleans and taken Baton Rouge, the capital of Louisiana, as early as May 7th. Farragut's vessel ran up to Vicksburg and exchanged salutations with the gun-boats of Admiral Davis, which came down from Memphis, June 29th. Farragut, with the *Hartford* and other vessels, ran by the forts of Vicksburg and joined the fleet above. He besieged the city, and attempted to cut a canal across the peninsula, and avoid it altogether, but this failed, and the fleet returned down the river. There was an attack by the Confederate troops under General Breckenridge, at Baton Rouge. The Union General Williams was killed, but the assailants were repulsed. The Confederate ram, *Arkansas*, was destroyed by the United States gun-boat *Essex*, Captain Porter, commander, August 6th. Captain Porter went up the river to reconnoitre and had a sharp fight at Port Hudson, September 7th. A large part of Louisiana, on the west bank of the Mississippi, was brought under control before the close of the year. General Butler was relieved of the command of New Orleans by General Banks, December 16th.

The account of one more battle will end the record for the year 1862. General Rosecrans had taken the sadly demoralized army of the Cumberland, and thoroughly reorganized and disciplined it. It was in the vicinity of Bowling Green when he took command. Bragg had a large force at Stone River, near Murfreesborough, and was preparing to annihilate the Union army. A most sanguinary conflict was begun there on the 31st of December, and was fought all day. At night the Unionists were so completely overcome that Bragg expected that they would see safety in flight during the darkness, but to his astonishment they were still in his front, ready to renew the encounter. The contest was fierce and sharp, and the day seemed to be irretrievably lost to the North, when a charge of seven regiments under the leadership of Brigadier-General W. B. Harzen, sent the Confederate lines flying in confusion, and won the prize of victory from the very teeth of defeat. Bragg retreated to Chattanooga, and Rosecrans held possession of Murfreesborough.

Thus begins the year 1863, with a decided and a glorious victory for the Nationals on the field of battle; but there was a moral victory also won on this day, which decided the fate of the country for future generations.

THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION.

THE National Government had disavowed any intention to make war upon slavery in the States where it existed. The contest was for the supremacy of the Nation, and the enforcement of its laws and Constitution. There came a mighty revolution of feeling among those in the North, who had sympathized with the peculiar institution of the South. They came to see that this institution was the fundamental cause of the insurrection, and at the same time a means of prolonging the strife. The negroes could plant, gather the crops, and attend to domestic affairs, while the white men were doing military duty. The course of many of the Northern generals in returning the fugitive slaves who came into their lines, was very unpopular.

The Republican party in Congress was pressing upon the attention of President Lincoln the importance of emancipating the slaves held by those who were fighting the national government. Congress had abolished slavery in the District of Columbia, and on the 22d of September, Abraham Lincoln on the authority of Congress, issued a preliminary proclamation, in which he declared his purpose to issue a Proclamation of Emancipation on the first day of January, 1863, forever setting free the slaves of all men found that day in open rebellion against the United States. The Confederates sneered at this, and their Northern sympathizers, of whom there were some still remaining, called it a "Pope's Bull against a Comet."

The war went on, as we have seen, prosecuted with vigor on both sides. The dawn of the New Year came, and "THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION" was issued under the seal of the United States. The friends of freedom hailed it all over the world as the harbinger of success to the North. At once the fetters were stricken from over three millions of human beings, and they were free before the law to enter the union lines, and as fast as new territory in the South was occupied by Union arms they were set at liberty. It was a severe blow to the South, and took away their hope, but it allied all the real friends of human liberty in the world to the cause of the Union. While the North was engaged in this work, the Confederacy was engaged in extensive preparations to destroy the commerce and the power of the nation. Privateers, built in British shipyards, equipped with British guns and seamen, and fitted out in British waters, were sent to prey upon American commerce, with the "stars and bars" flying at their peak. When the people of New York heard the cry of the starving operatives at Manchester, England, whose supply of cotton had been cut off by the blockade of the South, they sent a ship-load of provisions to aid them. This vessel, laden with the voluntary bounty of America to the starving citizens of England, was guarded upon her voyage by an armed government vessel to preserve her from the piratical torch, lighted by British hands.

The course of Great Britain, during all the period of the Civil War in America, was a peculiarly inconsistent one. With the proud boast that no slave could live under her flag, she hastened to recognize the belligerent rights of the "Confederate States," then holding millions of human beings in bondage, gave the moral aid of her indifference and apathy if not support to acts of illegality, and stultified herself in regard to her national policy of eighty years on the question of neutrality; she gave a ready market to the bonds of the "Confederate States," and sheltered and abetted the enemies of a country with which she was at peace, and furnished ships, munitions of war, and men to fight against the same country. All this for the sake of aiding a cause avowedly resting upon slavery as its chief cornerstone, for her supposed commercial advantage.

The Confederate privateer *Alabama*, the principal one of the craft fitted out by the British, committed fearful depredations on American commerce during the last ninety days of the year 1862.

THE MILITARY OPERATIONS OF 1863.

We will open the account of the year with the operations on the Mississippi. A portion of this great river was still in the hands of the Confederates, from Vicksburg to Port Hudson. The Confederates had erected strong fortifications at the latter place, a distance of twenty-five miles from Baton Rouge. Grant had a large amount of supplies at Holly Springs, which, owing to the carelessness or something worse of the commandant there, fell into the hands of the Confederates December 20th. Grant was forced to fall back, and thus a large force of Confederates was able to come to Vicksburg. Sherman had planned to attack the city in the rear, but in an engagement on the Chickasaw Bayou was defeated with great loss December 28th, 1862. He was compelled to abandon that enterprise, and January 2d, 1863, he was superseded by General McClernand, who out-ranked him. About the middle of January the Confederate fort at Arkansas Post was captured and many supplies destroyed. Grant had come down the river from Memphis, and Vicksburg was placed under siege. The army was organized into four corps, and after a series of movements, which would in themselves fill a volume, he finally struck upon a plan which he followed to the end. Some of the naval fleet ran down by Vicksburg to destroy the Confederate fleet below, but were themselves taken and destroyed. A strong force went down the west bank of the river in command of Generals McClernand and McPherson, in the direction of New Carthage. Porter determined to run by the batteries at Vicksburg, and succeeded in doing so with most of his fleet and transports on the 16th of April. On the 22d six transports accomplished the same feat, and now Grant prepared for a vigorous attack upon the flank and rear of the city. A most wonderful cavalry raid under Colonel Grierson through the very heart of Mississippi had assured Grant that the bulk of the Southern army of that region was in Vicksburg.

Porter attacked and again ran by the batteries of Vicksburg April 29th, and on May 1st Grant's troops gained a victory at Port Gibson. Sherman joined the Union army May 8th. The Confederates were defeated near Raymond, May 12th, and again at Jackson May 14th. The Confederates were driven northward and another victory was gained for the Union army at Champion Mills. On the 16th and 17th Grant drove them from Big Black River, and on the 19th he had the whole Confederate army penned up at Vicksburg. He had lived off the enemy's country for two weeks, in which time his army had gained repeated victories. The very day on which he arrived before Vicksburg Grant made an assault, but was repulsed. This he followed up with another unsuccessful attempt on the 22d. Then he settled down to a regular siege of the city, for forty days, pouring shot and shell into the beleaguered town day and night. The citizens were safe only in caves which they dug in the banks of the hills with which the city abounds. The army and people were reduced to the verge of starvation and were in great distress. They were driven to the necessity of eating mule meat. Fourteen ounces of food for two days was the extent of the ration issued. General Pemberton, the Confederate Commander-in-chief at Vicksburg, gave up all hope of being relieved by Johnston, who he thought would strike in Grant's rear, and on the morning of July 3d he sent proposals to surrender. The formal surrender was made on the fourth of July, and there was great rejoicing, for on the same day another hard-fought battle was won in the East. Twenty-seven thousand stand of arms were taken and the strongest fortified post on the Mississippi fell into the hands of the Unionists.

Port Hudson, which had been bravely besieged by General Banks for forty days, surrendered on the 9th.

We will recount the doings of Banks in the Lower Mississippi Gulf region prior to this. He had sent troops to the support of the Union forces at Galveston, Texas, but the Confederate General Magruder had repulsed them and retaken the city. This was a barren victory to the Confederates, for Admiral Farragut maintained a strict blockade over that port. After this a land and naval force was sent into the Teche region, and made a successful expedition to repossess the western part of Louisiana. An expedition up the Red River under Banks penetrated the country as far as Alexandria, where the general proclaimed that all Southern and Western Louisiana was free from Confederate rule. With this impression he led his troops to Port Hudson and invested that point. He made an assault on this fortress on May 29th, but was repulsed with much loss. The siege went on for forty days, and after Vicksburg fell into the hands of the Unionists, the Confederates saw that it would be useless to try to hold out longer and capitulated. Now the river was open to the sea, and the Confederacy was severed in two parts. The blow was a severe one, and the wiser men of the Confederacy saw that their cause was hopeless from this point in the contest.

We left the army of the Potomac in winter-quarters at the opening of the year, Major-General Joseph Hooker in command. There followed a period of three months in which he was busily engaged in re-organizing that army. A large number of officers and men were absent from their regiments. There were officers who were opposed to the Government's policy on the question of slavery, and many were crying out it is a "war for the negro" and not a "war for the union." These men were removed, and their places were filled by energetic men in full sympathy with the administration. Order and discipline became thoroughly established, and Hooker had over one hundred thousand available troops on the first day of April. The period of rest and reformation of the army had done much to add to its tone and strength. During this same time General Lee had been engaged in strengthening the army of Northern Virginia. A rigid conscription act had been enforced and all the available men were hurried into the ranks. He had made the defenses of Richmond almost impregnable, and with wonderful energy and skill had put his army into the best condition for the coming struggle. In April, Lee had a well-organized and enthusiastic army of more than sixty thousand men. A part of his army under Longstreet were in South-eastern Virginia, but Lee was behind the strong fortifications and able to cope with a much superior force.

Early in April Hooker determined to make an advance upon Richmond. He threw a mounted force of ten thousand men in the rear of Lee's army, and moved with another large force to Chancellorsville, within ten miles of Fredericksburg. The left wing of Hooker's army, consisting of the First, Third, and Sixth Corps, was near Fredericksburg, under General Sedgwick, and by their demonstration on the Confederate front so completely deceived General Lee that Hooker was well on the way before Lee was aware of his real design. But Lee did not turn back to Richmond, as Hooker thought he would when he discovered his peril, but pushed the column of Stonewall Jackson forward, and compelled Hooker to fight at Chancellorsville, with his army divided. There was great peril for both armies. The bloody battle of Chancellorsville was fought the 1st and 2d of May, and resulted in a bitter defeat for the Union army. The struggle was severe and sanguinary, and Hooker's army was driven back on the road leading to the Rapidan and the Rappahannock. Lee's forces were united, but Hooker's were divided. Sedgwick, near Fredericksburg, was in danger and could not come to Hooker's aid. When he received the orders of his chief, he moved at once and took possession of Fredericksburg—stormed the heights, and drove General Early back, May 3d. He then moved on to join Hooker's main body, but was checked at Salem Church, a few miles from Fredericksburg, by the whole of Lee's army. Now, instead of being able to join Hooker, he was driven across the Rappahannock May 4th and 5th. Hooker, hearing of the disaster to Sedgwick, was obliged to also retreat across the river. The Union forces united and fell back on May 5th. The whole movement had resulted in a severe loss to the Union army, and a decided victory to the Confederates. Longstreet had made a spirited and vigorous attack upon General Peck, but had been repulsed at Suffolk at the head of the Nansemond River, in southeastern Virginia. Longstreet, hearing of the disaster at Chancellorsville, joined Lee and made his army as strong as that of the Nationals. The Union army had been out-generaled once more, and the skill and energy of the Confederate commander had won the day.

Under the impression that there was still a large body of people in the North who would manifest active sympathy with the Confederates if they had the opportunity to do so, and highly elated by their successes at Chancellorsville, the Confederate authorities ordered Lee to prepare for another formidable invasion of Maryland and Pennsylvania. But they misunderstood the temper and the resources of the North. Hooker suspected this design, and reported his convictions to the government at Washington. The term of enlistment of a large number of troops that had volunteered for nine months had expired, and Hooker's army was being weakened by their discharge, but other recruits for three years or during the war were coming in.

By a flank movement Lee compelled Hooker to break up his camp on the Rappahannock and move toward Washington. Lee at the same time sent his left wing up the Shenandoah, and a battle was fought at Winchester, in which General Milroy was driven back and the Union forces suffered severe loss, but escaped into Maryland and Pennsylvania with their supply and ammunition trains. A large cavalry force pursued Milroy into Pennsylvania, and destroyed the railroad up the Cumberland Valley to Chambersburg, in Pennsylvania, plundering the people all along the march. The Confederate army was upon Northern soil on June 25th. Hooker had been vigilant and active in the meanwhile, and crossed the Potomac at Edwards' Ferry. A disagreement arose between General Hooker and General Halleck—then

Commander-in-chief—and Hooker resigned. General George G. Meade was placed in command of the army of the Potomac June 28th, and retained it to the close of the war.

At this time the Union army were in Frederick, Maryland, ready to cut off Lee's line of communication, fall upon his columns in retreat, or follow him on a parallel line toward the Susquehanna River. Lee was then preparing to march on to Philadelphia, but learning of the danger which threatened his flank and rear he recalled Ewell, who was within a few miles of Harrisburg. The rapid gathering of the militia of Pennsylvania and surrounding States alarmed him, and Lee, therefore, concentrated all the army of Northern Virginia in the vicinity of Gettysburg. He did this for the purpose of falling upon the army of the Potomac with crushing force, and then march upon Baltimore or Washington, or, in case of defeat, have a line of retreat to the Potomac River. General Meade did not comprehend this design of Lee until June 30th, and then at once he prepared to meet the shock of battle on a line a little south of Gettysburg. This was the pivotal battle of the war, and deserves more than a passing notice.

The Confederates had invaded a Northern State, and were now to meet the Union army on its own soil. The great cities of the North were threatened. The Southern army had touched its highest point, and upon this issue the fortunes of the country hung. A new general had assumed the command of an army with which he was unacquainted two days before the contest was commenced. Meade had an oft-defeated army of from sixty to seventy thousand men with which to meet the seventy-five thousand victorious troops of Lee. McClellan, Burnside and Hooker had measured ability with this adroit and self-possessed chieftain, and been worsted again and again. It seemed a hopeless task, but Meade was calm, quiet, resolute, brave, and unpretending. He set himself about the task assigned him, and he accomplished it by the loyal co-operation of his brave corps commanders, and the persistency of the noble rank and file who were determined to conquer or die. Thousands of men who had hitherto excused themselves from active military service in the field arose to arms, and offered themselves for immediate service, when the field of battle was changed from Southern to Northern soil. The Union cavalry under General Kilpatrick had met and defeated a force under General Stuart, at Hanover, a town east of Gettysburg, June 29th; and on the same day Buford and his horsemen entered Gettysburg, but found no Confederates there. On the 30th, General J. F. Reynolds, the brave commander of the

First Corps, who fell on the field of battle the next day, arrived with his troops.

General Hill of the Confederate army was approaching with a large force from Chambersburg, which encountered Buford's cavalry in the early morning of July 1st. The sound of a sharp skirmish brought Reynolds to the field, and a severe engagement ensued on Oak or Seminary Ridge, in which the gallant Reynolds fell dead. General O. O. Howard with the Eleventh Corps came up and the battle became more general, for Lee was concentrating his forces there. The Union army resisted the attack, and held their ground bravely as charge after charge was made upon their lines, but at night they were pressed back to a more advantageous position selected by General W. S. Hancock, the intrepid and beloved commander of the Second Corps. This position was on a range of rocky hills back of but close to the village. The line was formed on the two sides of a triangle, with Cemetery Hill, the point nearest the town, forming the angle. Here the troops halted for the night, and threw up a breastwork of defense. General Meade with the main body of the army hastened up to join the forces who had sustained the brunt of the first day's fight.

The next day the forces were facing each other on what was to prove the most hotly contested battle field of the war. Each commander understood the immense value of the prize at stake, and seemed loth to make the first move in the decisive contest. Not until late in the afternoon of July 2d did the carnage open. General Lee then precipitated his solid columns upon Meade's left, commanded by General Sickles, and the fearful harvest of death began. This extended to the centre, commanded by Hancock, and the heavy masses of armed men rolled up to his line to be driven back, like the waves of the sea from a rock-bound coast. Huge furrows were plowed through the solid ranks of men by the shot and shell that swept them from the Union artillery, and yet they would re-form and march up again to be swept back by the awful whirlwind of slaughter that opposed them. At sunset the battle ceased on this side of the triangle. The rocky eminence called Little Round Top had been the centre of the most determined struggle, and the Confederates endeavored to take it at any cost so that they could hurl the left wing back on the centre. But the brave troops stationed there were as firm as the impenetrable granite, and held the position. The right and right centre were commanded by generals Slocum and Howard. The latter occupied Cemetery Hill, and the former Culps Hill. Early and Johnson, of General

Ewell's corps of the Confederate army, fell with great vigor upon these points, and seemed determined to carry them at all hazards. They were repulsed with great slaughter from the right centre on Cemetery Hill, but succeeded in turning the right wing, and holding it for the night. This struggle ended at ten o'clock at night. This day's fight had resulted in some advantage to the Confederates. Lee was sanguine that another day would bring a complete victory for the Confederate cause. That was an anxious night in many a Northern home, as millions of sleepless men and women were reading the swiftly flying news of the deadly encounter.

The loss of Lee had been considerable, but the Union line was weakened, and an attack in the morning would sweep it from the field he thought. This was the hour of deepest gloom to the Union cause, and not a man from the Commander-in-chief down to the humblest private in the ranks but knew it. A million of brave men throughout the country were in arms, but the course of Lee's northward march could not be prevented if he won this decisive battle field. At four the next morning General Slocum advanced and re-occupied the ground he had lost the night before. Meade strengthened his weakened lines. A hard fight of four hours was necessary to retrive the old position, and hold the persistent columns of Ewell in check. The Union left and left centre were impregnable, and Lee prepared to fall with crushing effect upon the weaker right. The entire forenoon was passed by the opposing generals in making preparation for the fearful death grapple. At one o'clock the artillery from Lee's army opened upon Howard's front. The challenge was answered by the Union army. The country for miles around was shaken by the thunder of over two hundred heavy guns. For three hours the awful duel was kept up, sending death and carnage to either side. Then Lee, under the cover of this heavy cannonading, precipitated his solid columns which were to break the Federal line and gain the day. They swept over the plain, and with the fearful yell of battle, attacked the breastworks, only to be swept down by the grape and canister, belching forth from a hundred cannons. The ranks fell as grass before the mower's scythe; but on and on the gathering columns pressed, and the harvest of death ceased not till the sun went down. As men fell in the bloody contest their places were filled by those who pressed on after them, and brave men contended hand to hand. At one time Lee, who, like Napoleon at Waterloo, was watching the battle from a hill-top, saw through the lifting battle-cloud the Confederate flag waving on the Union ramparts at a certain point. His generals congratulated him on a victory; but he looks as another dense cloud of smoke lifts, and his men are seen broken and fleeing down the fatal hill-side, where dead men cover the ground so thick that the retreating army tread upon them at every step. This last attack has failed and the Nationals have won THE BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG.

Lee began his hasty retreat on the fourth of July, and Meade, with his victorious but exhausted army, followed him in hot pursuit to the Potomac, where by fortifications and a show of force, Lee was able to hold the Nationals at bay until he had got his army and artillery safely across the river into Virginia. This was the last Confederate advance into the territory of the Northern States.

The National Government now resolved to make one grand effort to suppress the Confederacy. A call for men to fill up the army not meeting with so ready a response as the circumstances required, a draft was made upon able-bodied men between eighteen and forty-five. This gave rise to much dissatisfaction among the Peace Faction, and was the occasion of fearful riots in New York, and great destruction of life and property. These riots were put down by the police, aided by troops, and the draft went on.

After his defeat at Gettysburg, Lee moved up the Shenandoah Valley, followed by Meade, in a parallel line on the eastern side of the Blue Ridge, as McClellan had done in the opposite direction the previous year. There were skirmishes in the mountain passes. Lee gained a position in front of Meade between the Rappahannock and Rapid Anna Rivers. At the middle of September Meade crossed the Rappahannock and drove Lee behind the Rapid Anna. There had been sharp cavalry skirmishes here and there whilst the two armies were resting. Finally, in October, Lee started for Washington, when another exciting race occurred between him and Meade. After a sharp battle at Bristow's Station, Meade drove Lee back to a strong position behind the Rapid Anna, and the National Army went into winter quarters.

In the State of Tennessee there were some startling events during the summer and fall of 1863. In June, Rosecrans ordered an advance of his army in three divisions under Generals Thomas, McCook and Crittenden. The point to be reached from Murfreesborough was Chattanooga. On June 30th Bragg, who saw the design of Rosecrans, fled before him and passed over the Cumberland Mountains. Rosecrans followed hard after him. Bragg reached the Tennessee River, and crossed it at Bridgeport, destroyed the bridges behind him and then hastened to Chattanooga. Rosecrans pursued Bragg as far as the base of the mountains; here he halted and rested for a whole month. At the middle of August he surprised Bragg by appearing on his front, with a line extending along the Tennessee River from above Chattanooga, westward for a hundred miles, and poured shot and shell into the Confederate camp.

Early in September, Thomas and McCook had crossed the Tennessee River, and by the 8th had secured the passes of Lookout Mountain, while Crittenden was in Lookout Valley, near the river. When Bragg was informed of this, he abandoned Chattanooga to defend his line of communication, and Crittenden moved his forces into the Chattanooga Valley. Thus without a battle the object of crossing the mountains was gained. Bragg had been driven from Middle Tennessee, and from his stronghold. Burnside crossed the mountains into East Tennessee with twenty thousand troops, and joined Rosecrans on the line of the railroad south-westerly from Loudon.

Rosecrans thought Bragg was in full retreat and pushed forward to strike his flank, but found him concentrated at Lafayette. About the middle of September the two armies were face to face on the Chickamauga Creek. A battle ensued and the Confederates won the closely contested field at a fearful loss to themselves. Chattanooga was held by the Nationals, but they were hemmed in by Bragg and his army. The Government decided to hold this point, and ordered Generals Grant, Burnside and Rosecrans to concentrate there. The Nationals were now threatened with famine, but General Hooker was sent from the army of the Potomac with the Eleventh and Twelfth Corps, Howard's and Slocum's, to hold the line of communication for Rosecrans. So the attempt of Bragg to starve out the Nationals in Chattanooga failed. The Confederates had possession of Lookout Mountain, and swept down upon the Twelfth Corps October 28th-29th at midnight, but found the general upon the watch and they were repulsed. In the mean time Longstreet had been sent into Tennessee to seize Knoxville and drive out the army of Burnside. He came swiftly and secretly, and Burnside was closely besieged in a fortification near that city.

Grant saw that he must attack Bragg at once upon the arrival of Sherman's troops. Grant was determined to strike the centre of Bragg's army on Missionaries' Ridge and his right on Lookout Mountain. Thomas advanced to Orchard Knob, and fortified it November 23d. Hooker carried the works at the base of Lookout Mountain, and his victorious troops pressed up the sides of the lofty eminence, which was hidden from sight by a heavy fog, and fought above the clouds. The Union armies in the valley below heard the cannonading and the shout of the charge, but could not see anything of what was being done until the fog cleared up, and showed Hooker in possession of the mountain top.

While Hooker was fighting above the clouds Sherman had successfully performed his part in the plan and secured a strong position on Missionaries' Ridge. In the night of November 24th Bragg retired from Lookout Mountain and concentrated all his forces on Missionaries' Ridge. The severe and desperate encounter of the 25th raged all day—Sherman, Thomas and Hooker all taking part, and at night the fires of the National army lighted up the whole length of Missionaries' Ridge and Bragg was in full retreat. Sherman advanced to the relief of Burnside at Knoxville, and Longstreet was compelled to raise the siege December 3d, and return to the army of Virginia. Sherman returned to Chattanooga and Burnside was left at Knoxville. So great was the rejoicing at these victories that President Lincoln proclaimed a day of thanksgiving and praise, as he had done after the Union victory at Vicksburg and Gettysburg.

There were military operations of some little account in North Carolina during the year, where General D. H. Hill had been sent by order of General Lee to harass the National troops, but the Union forces held the advantage gained and the State did not pass from their control. There was a most desperate attempt to capture Fort Sumter and Charleston, waging all the year, with repeated failures and discouragements. The harbor had been filled with the strongest obstacles in the form of torpedoes, heavy iron chains, sunken vessels and other impediments, and guarded by batteries of great strength. General Q. A. Gillmore was placed in command of the Union forces there June 12th, 1863, and Admiral Dupont was succeeded by Admiral Dahlgren July 6th.

Active operations were commenced at once from Folly Island, held by the Union forces, against Morris Island. General Strong landed on the latter island July 10th, and drove the Confederates to their fortification, Fort Wagner, but when he attacked them the next day he was repulsed with heavy loss. Gillmore began a siege of this fort, which continued until September 6th, when the Confederates abandoned it, and at once the Nationals occupied Fort Wagner and Fort Gregg. Now they had full command of the city of Charleston, though at a great distance, and could send shot and shell into the streets of the doomed city. Fort Sumter was made a heap of shape-less ruins in October by the heavy cannonading that Gillmore poured in upon it.

There were some operations of more or less consequence beyond the Mississippi, inflicting some damages upon the National troops and stirring up the Indians against the United States. But these resulted in no very decided advantage to the Confederates, and at the close of 1863 all Texas west of the Colorado was in the possession of the Nationals.

The finances of the United States were in a healthy condition. In spite of the enormous debt, constantly increasing, the public credit never stood higher, while the Confederate States were in a most deplorable financial situation. Their war debt was as large as that of the National government and credit was wanting. They were forced to seize supplies for their army, and in order to keep their ranks full, they passed a most severe conscription act, calling out every available man for military service, "robbing the cradle and the grave."

THE MILITARY OPERATIONS OF 1864.

THE Congress of the United States in the opening of this year saw that there had been some radical trouble in the management of the conflict, and came to the conclusion to put some one man in command of the entire force of the Government and make him responsible for the conduct of the war. Hitherto there had been, at times, a conflict of authority, and different generals had been working upon opposing theories, and this had been the prolific cause of delays and reverses. Now a new rank was created by law, and U. S. Grant was commissioned Lieutenant-General and Commander-in-chief of all the United States forces. He believed that the surest way to end the war, and in the long run save human life, was to strike decisive and heavy blows and follow them up with hard fighting. He would make war with the horrible intention of killing men and ending the contest as quickly as possible. Two expeditions were formed, one having the capture of Atlanta, Georgia, and the other, that of Richmond, in view. For the first he put General W. T. Sherman in chief command, and for the second, General G.G. Meade. The task of the latter was to beat the army of General Lee, and the former the army of Johnston. These were now the chief armies of the Confederacy, and upon their destruction hung the issue of the war.

The year 1864 began with a series of reverses in the extreme South and South-west. The capture of Fort Pillow and the treacherous massacre of its garrison by General Forrest, in April, was a foul blot upon the civilization of the age. He sent a flag of truce demanding the surrender of the fort, and while it was under consideration secretly arranged his forces to fall upon it unexpectedly. This was done with the cry "No quarter," when a large number who threw down their arms were butchered in cold blood. Forrest said in self-defense: "War means fight and fight means kill—we want but few prisoners." General Banks was sent up the Red River upon a disastrous expedition. Missouri was invaded by a large force, which caused considerable trouble throughout the summer and was not driven out until November. Arkansas had come under the control of the Confederates, and the Union citizens who had been making preparations to return the State government to its allegiance to the Union, were silenced. The operations in Charleston Harbor were being carried on slowly. East Tennessee was the scene of stirring events of minor importance, but the country turned from all these to the more sanguinary and gigantic operations in Virginia and Georgia.

Some movements were undertaken in the early spring of 1864, with the design of capturing Richmond and releasing the Union prisoners in Libby Prison and on Belle Isle. In February, General B. F. Butler sent fifteen hundred troops against Richmond, but his design was frustrated by treachery. Later than this General Kilpatrick swept around Lee's right flank with five thousand cavalry and penetrated the outer defenses of Richmond, but was compelled to retire March 1st. Another part of the same command was able to enter the lines at another point, but were driven back with the loss of Colonel Dahlgren and ninety men. General Custer, with a considerable force, threatened to cut Lee's communications with the Shenandoah Valley. These operations were preparatory to the execution of General Grant's far greater plans.

The mistaken opinions in the early part of the war had been corrected by bitter experience, and the North and South were alike aware that the fight must wage to the end. A well-tried general, in whom the whole North had confidence, had assumed command. The volunteer army was no longer a mass of citizen militia, but hardened veterans of battle, inured to heavy marching and heavy fighting. The spirit of the North was resolute and as determined as ever. Grant had his headquarters with the army of the Potomac, which had been re-organized and formed into three corps, the Second Corps under General Hancock, the Fifth in command of General Warren, and the Sixth with the gallant Sedgwick at its head. General Burnside with the Ninth Corps, which had been filled up by recruits and thoroughly reconstructed during the winter, was attached to the army of the Potomac. General Grant ordered Meade in Virginia and Sherman in Georgia to advance at the beginning of May. We will follow the fortunes of the first.

On the 4th of May the army of the Potomac was led into the region known as the Wilderness, to attack the Confederates who were intrenched on Mine Run. A fearful carnage in that trackless and tangled country ensued for two days; Lee's front could not be carried, and his flank must be turned if possible. General Warren led the movement out of the Wilderness with the Fifth Corps on May 8th, and came to the open country at Spottsylvania, where he found a part of Lee's army posted across his path, and the rest of the force rapidly concentrating there. The flanking movement had been expected by Lee, and he was ready to meet it. On the 9th, General Sedgwick was killed while superintending the arrangement of a battery. The battle opened on the 10th, and was contested with fearful loss on both sides. On the 11th Grant sent his famous dispatch to Washington, "*I intend to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer.*" On the 12th Hancock broke Lee's line and gained a decided advantage, but the following night the Confederate army silently withdrew behind this second line of intrenchments and was as strong as ever. Another flank movement was impending, and Lee made an attack to prevent it on May 19th and was repulsed. While these operations were going on, General Sheridan made a raid upon Lee's rear with a large force of cavalry, and came to within a few miles of Richmond, destroying railroads and military supplies. General Sigel was in the Shenandoah and Kanawha valleys, and had a fight at New Market May 15th, in which the Confederates gained the day.

General Butler with the army of the James had left Fortress Monroe with twenty-five thousand troops in transports, followed by Admiral Lee with gun-boats, and they took possession of both sides of the river as far as City Point by the aid of fifteen hundred mounted men, who had forded the Chickahominy and taken their position on the James opposite City Point. This was done with but little fighting, for there were few Confederates there. Butler fortified Bermuda Hundred and intended to cut communication between Petersburg and Richmond. The former city could have been easily taken, but for some reason it was not accomplished, and the Confederates from South Carolina hastened there to aid in its defense. Beauregard got into Petersburg before the railroad was destroyed, and on the morning of May

16th attacked Butler's right, and after a sharp fight drove his army into their intrenchments. At the same instant a charge on Butler's front was repulsed. For several days there was much fighting all along his lines.

Grant's army was moving by the left flank, but Lee had the inside line of the parallel circles on the road to Richmond and consequently was able to move faster than his antagonist. A heavy battle was fought at the North Anna River. Grant was satisfied that he could not carry the strong position of Lee, and again resumed his march by the left flank. On the 26th of May the whole army was south of the Pamunkey River. Lee was again in a fortified position and a heavy battle ensued. "By the left flank" again came the order, and the army moved to Cool Arbor. Ten thousand men from General Butler's army under command of General W. F. Smith re-enforced the army of Meade, and he made an advance upon the enemy in front. The fight here on June 3d was bloody and short. In twenty minutes the Union army lost ten thousand men and only succeeded in holding their own position. The line of Lee's army could not be broken. Other attempts to force the lines the next day met with similar results, but all the while the Union forces were moving by the left flank and on June 7th rested on the Chickahominy. Sheridan crossed the river with his cavalry and tore up the railroads and bridges. The whole army moved across the river to Lee's right and crossed the James June 14th and 15th. Butler made an unsuccessful attempt to take Petersburg before aid could arrive from Richmond. The failure to accomplish this disarranged the plans somewhat, and caused the long and exhaustive siege of both cities which lasted for ten months. Grant established his head-quarters at City Point, and on the 16th preparations were made to carry the city of Petersburg by assault. Warren, Hancock and Burnside made a desperate attack on the lines here, but it was evident that the whole army of Lee was south of the James. The assaults of the Union army on the 17th and 18th of June resulted in some advantage to the Nationals, but it was plain that the time to take Petersburg by direct advance was past.

An attempt was now made on the right of the Confederate army to cut the Weldon Railroad and turn Lee's flank. The railroad was destroyed as far as Ream's Station. The besieging lines of Meade's and Butler's army extended from City Point and Bermuda Hundred to the Weldon Railroad, partly around Petersburg and toward Richmond. A disastrous attempt to break the Confederate lines at Petersburg was made on the 30th of July by exploding a mine under a fort at the outpost of the line. This proved a heavy disaster to the Confederate army, in which about three thousand troops were lost. September 29th Butler stormed and carried the strongest works on Lee's left, known as Fort Harrison. On October 27th an attempt was made to extend the Union lines to Hatcher's Run, but after heavy fighting the National troops were obliged to retire to their fortifications in front of Petersburg. Here they settled down for a winter's siege of that city. From the opening of the campaign in May to the 1st of November the Nationals had lost in killed, wounded, prisoners and missing, the enormous number of one hundred thousand men.

There were exciting times in the Shenandoah Valley in the summer and early fall of 1864. A Union army had encountered a Confederate force at Winchester on July 20th and defeated it, taking many prisoners and supplies. General Early was in full force up the valley, and so sanguine was he that he sent an invading force of cavalry into Maryland, who burned the city of Chambersburg, Pennsylvania. Sheridan was sent into the Shenandoah valley with thirty thousand troops to attack the Confederates. By a series of the most brilliant and dashing operations and unexpected movements, Sheridan sent them "whirling up the valley." There was a battle at Winchester, in which Early was driven to his strong position at Fisher's Hill on September 19th. He was forced from the new position the 21st and fled to the mountains. Early had less than one-half the men now that came with him into the valley. Sheridan had his position at Cedar Creek near Strasburg, and Early, who had been re-enforced heavily, now came with crushing effect upon the Union army at a time when Sheridan was "twenty miles away." Their lines were driven back in great confusion. The Eleventh Corps were not able to withstand the fierce onslaught of Early's men. Sheridan hastened to the scene of battle, reformed the broken lines, and riding along the regiments and brigades with cheers encouraged his men, regained the lost ground, and sent the Confederates in hopeless flight up the Shenandoah. Early's army was nearly annihilated and Lee could spare no more men for it. This ended the contest for the fertile valley which had been overrun so often by the opposing forces. Sheridan had burned and destroyed on every hand—such was the stern necessity of war—and the Confederates could no more gain the abundant supplies which they had found in the rich valley, and which for years had been the store-house of their armies.

At the beginning of May, (1864) when General Grant ordered the two great armies to move, Sherman was at Chattanooga with about one hundred thousand men. His antagonist was General E. Joseph Johnston, with fifty-five thousand troops, who was at Dalton, strongly intrenched. Sherman's plan was to move by the left flank and compel the Confederates to abandon one strong position after another in order to save their army. A sharp fight took place at Resaca Station May 15th, which drove Johnston across the Oostenaula. The Union army closely followed in three divisions. At Adairsville, Johnston made a stand, but when the Nationals advanced he pushed on and fortified a position commanding the Altoona Pass. After resting a little Sherman moved forward to the right, and had a severe contest May 25th. This was a drawn battle, without advantage to either side. June 1st, Johnston was forced to abandon the Altoona Pass. Sherman took possession of this and made it a second base of supplies by repairing the railroad to Chattanooga. He here received reinforcements. On June 9th he took possession of Big Shanty, and by persistency and frequent fighting forced Johnston to give up Pine Mountain June 15th, Lost Mountain June 17th, and Kenesaw Mountain July 2d. On the morning of July 3d the stars and stripes waved over the last-mentioned mountain, and Sherman rode in triumph into Marietta, close upon the heels of Johnston's army. The Confederates succeeded in crossing the river here before Sherman could give them a crushing blow. Johnston was obliged to retreat (July 10th) toward Atlanta, Georgia. He fortified his army on a line covering that town from the Chattahooche River to Peachtree Creek. He knew that his force was less than that of the Nationals, and therefore he preferred to save his army rather than to risk an engagement. He had had already a number of severe encounters, and had been worsted in them all.

General Johnston was now relieved of the command of the Confederate army, and succeeded by General Hood. The former was a cautious, scientific soldier, while the latter was a dashing, reckless officer, who did not care for the loss of men if he could make quick work. On July 16th, General Rousseau, with two thousand cavalry, joined Sherman. On the 19th, all the Union forces were across the river. A flank movement was made to cut the railroad leading to Augusta. This was accomplished. On the 20th, Hood attacked the weakened lines in front, but was repulsed with heavy loss. On the 22d, the Confederate lines on the heights about Peachtree Creek were abandoned, and Sherman thought that Hood, like Johnston, had evacuated the city, and consequently moved his army rapidly toward Atlanta. He found Hood in a strong line of works near the city, which had been built the year before.

Preparations were made for carrying the city by assault, when a large part of Hood's army, which had gained Sherman's rear in the night, fell upon him, and a most sanguinary and hotly contested battle raged for four hours. The Union army was successful, and the Confederates were driven back to their breastworks. On July 28th, Hood made another attack upon Sherman but was replused with heavy loss, and seeing that the Unionists were gradually getting possession of all the railroads leading from the city, after a month of countermaneuvering the Confederate general abandoned Atlanta, having destroyed all factories, warehouses and whatever would be of advantage to the enemy. He left no food for the inhabitants, who were on the point of starvation. Sherman took possession, and not being able to feed the citizens and his own army, humanely ordered all non-combatants to leave the city, either for the North or South, as they might choose. He furnished transportation for all who wished to go to Chattanooga.

Hood, after leaving Atlanta, moved upon Sherman's base of supplies at Altoona Pass, and threatened the small force there. Sherman sent a force to their assistance, and drove the army of Hood with great slaughter. Then he returned to Atlanta with all his troops, destroying all founderies, dismantling the railroads, and preparing to cut loose from his base of supplies. His army numbered sixty-five thousand men of all kinds. He cut the wires which connected him with the North, and started on his grand march to the sea. The people in the North did not hear from him for some time except through the newspapers of the South, and this was far from being reliable. His army was divided into two great columns; one under General O. O. Howard, the other under General W. H. Slocum, with the cavalry in command of General Kilpatrick. Nothing was heard from this army until December 13th, when it appeared near Savannah and captured Fort McAllister, on the Ogeechee River, not far from that city. Savannah was invested at once, and on the 20th, Hardee evacuated it and fled to Charleston with fifty thousand troops. The army of Georgia entered the city the next day and there rested, after a march of two hundred and fifty-five miles, inflicting very heavy loss upon the Confederates and sustaining but little loss in return.

Some active measures were going on in Florida and North Carolina during this time, but the most interest was centered upon the two grand armies. In September and October there were some interesting events, and after considerable skirmishing on both sides there was a general engagement at Franklin, a few miles south of Nashville, in which the Confederate forces at first drove their antagonists from their breastworks, and were in turn driven back; Hood, the Confederate general, lost three thousand men. On the 15th of December, a desperate battle was fought in front of Nashville, where Hood was besieging the Nationals under General Thomas. The attack was opened by Thomas, who drove the Confederates from their works and pursued them out of the State. The campaign ended with complete success for the Union army.

The Anglo-Confederate privateers were doing immense damage to American commerce in various parts of the world. The chief depredator was the *Alabama*, in command of a former United States navy officer, Captain Raphael Semmes. The English also built for the Confederates the *Florida*, *Georgia*, *Tallahassee*, *Olustee* and *Chickamauga*, all of which committed great depredations upon the vessels and cargoes of American ship owners. This drove a large part of our maritime commerce to seek the protection of foreign flags. A stupendous effort was made to capture and destroy these cruisers. The *Georgia* was captured off the coast of Lisbon in August, 1864, by the United States vessel *Niagara;* the *Florida* by the *Wachusett*, October 17th, in a port of Brazil. The *Alabama* had been sunk some time before this by the *Kearsarge*. Captain Semmes was rescued from capture by a British vessel which was conveniently near at hand, but the "common people" were left to drown or be picked up by the American vessel and a Frenchman. This had occurred on Sunday, June 19th.

Admiral Farragut had captured the port of Mobile with a fleet of eighteen vessels aided by a land force under General Gordon Granger. This fleet passed between the two forts (Morgan and Gaines), at the entrance to Mobile Bay, lashed together in pairs, on August 5th, 1864. It was in this engagement that the brave admiral was lashed to the rigging of his flag-ship. The Confederate ram *Tennessee* was destroyed and a complete victory gained. The forts were surrendered after cannonading and siege, Fort Gaines on the 7th and Fort Morgan on the 23d of August. The port of Mobile was closed.

We will turn for a brief space from the consideration of military to political affairs. The National Republican party had met in a convention at Baltimore, in June, and nominated Mr. Lincoln for re-election, affirmed its determination to maintain the Union and the policy of his administration, and pledged themselves to sustain it to the end. Andrew Johnson was nominated for the Vice-Presidency.

On August 29th delegates of the opposition or "Democratic" party met in Convention at Chicago, and displayed an intense anti-war feeling. General George B. McClellan was nominated for the Presidency and George H. Pendleton for Vice-President. The resolution that declared the war a failure was scarcely dry upon the paper before the people of the United States were called to devote a day to thanksgiving and praise for the victories of Sherman and Farragut. The election resulted in the most overwhelming majorities for Lincoln and Johnson. Only the three States of Delaware, Kentucky and New Jersey gave their votes to the opposition.

THE CLOSING EVENTS OF THE WAR—1865.

THE year that saw the closing operations of the civil strife had come, and General Sherman, after giving his gallant army a rest of more than a month, at Savannah, started for a march into the interior. On the 17th of February, 1865, he captured Columbia, the capital of South Carolina. Wade Hampton had ordered all the cotton in that city to be piled in the public square and burned. In the strong wind which was then blowing the burning cotton set the city on fire and destroyed it in part.

Sherman had now flanked the city of Charleston, which so long had withstood the most persistent siege, and in consequence the Confederates abandoned it. Hardee fled from the city and the United States colored troops marched in and raised the stars and stripes upon the public buildings on February 19th. Sherman pressed onward to North Carolina, leaving a track of destruction forty miles wide, until he came to Fayetteville, March 12th, where he found the concentrated Confederate forces under Johnston, numbering forty thousand. Sherman here halted three days for rest. After destroying the Confederate armory and the military stores, he marched on in two columns, as when in Georgia. The column under Slocum had a severe fight at Averysborough with Hardee's force of twenty thousand men, and won the victory, March 16th. Slocum marched on towards Goldsboro', and was attacked by Johnston, whom he repulsed near Bentonville, March 18th. Johnston had fully expected to crush Slocum before the main body could come to his aid, but that commander held his ground firmly, and after six desperate attempts to drive him back, Johnston gave up the contest at night fall. The next morning, the 19th, there were sixty thousand Nationals in front of Johnston when the latter retreated. Sherman's whole army soon reached Goldsboro', the point for which they had started. Sherman then hastened to City Point to confer with Grant and Meade, and returned to his command three days later. Here we will leave him for awhile.

After closing the port of Mobile, the only harbor left to which blockade-runners could gain access was that of Wilmington, N. C., on the Cape Fear River. Near the close of 1864 a land and naval force was sent against Fort Fisher at the mouth of the Cape Fear, with a view to closing the port of Wilmington. The fleet was commanded by Admiral D. D. Porter, and was accompanied by General B. F. Butler with land troops. The attack was unsuccessful. Another attack by Porter and General Terry, early in 1865, resulted in the capture of the Fort and the closing the port of Wilmington against blockade runners. In the Gulf Department the fleet of Farragut had prepared the way for the fall of Mobile, which was accomplished on April 20, 1865. What were the army of the Potomac and General Lee's forces doing all this while? Let us see.

Grant was holding Petersburg and Richmond in a vise-like grip, which prevented Lee from going to the assistance of Johnston. He dared not send him any men, for in so doing he would weaken the defense of the Confederate capital. The besiegers were pounding away with shot and shell upon the fortifications around the doomed cities, daily extending the cordon of difficulties, and cutting one after another of the railroads which brought food to them. About the end of February, Sheridan with ten thousand cavalry left his quarters in the Shenandoah Valley and sweeping through Staunton on March 2d scattered Early's forces at Waynesborough and destroyed the railroad as far as Charlotteville, then dividing into two columns, one to destroy the railroad toward Lynchburg, and the other to destroy the James River Canal. Accomplishing this, he swept around Lee's left and joined the army of the Potomac March 27th.

Lee now made a desperate attempt to break through Grant's lines and join Johnston. A most desperate assault was made March 27th upon Fort Steadman, in front of Petersburg, held by the Ninth Corps. The Confederates captured the fort and held it about four hours; then it was recaptured by the Nationals, and Lee's last chance to break the Union lines was gone. The Union troops were nearer the city at night than when the attack was made in the morning.

A grand movement was begun on March 29th by General Sheridan with ten thousand cavalry, the Fifth Corps under Warren, and the Second under Hancock, while the Ninth, under Parke, held the long line of breast-works.

Lee saw his peril and made great haste to avert it if possible, but his army was disheartened by the hard work of the winter, the want of supplies, and the loss of all hope. A heavy fight ensued at Five Forks, in which Sheridan was forced back on Dinwiddie Court House, but held his ground (April 1st, 1865). On the evening of the same day a continuous and concentrated cannonade was opened upon Petersburg all along the line, and at early dawn of the 2d a part of the works was carried. The left had been successful, and when General Longstreet came down from Richmond to aid Lee he was too late to be of any service. Lee sent word to President Jefferson Davis: "My lines are broken in three places; we can hold Petersburg no longer: Richmond must be evacuated this evening." Davis and his cabinet fled to Dansville, where Lee hoped to join him, but Sheridan was in the way at Amelia Court House. Lee endeavored to escape and did some heavy fighting in the desperation of despair, but on the 9th of April, after one final charge to break the National lines at Appomattox Court House, he sent a flag of truce with an offer of surrender. Grant and Lee met under an apple tree on the grounds of W. McLean to make generous terms of surrender.

Mr. Lincoln went to Richmond on April 4th, and was enthusiastically received by the officers high in rank, and the colored people, and then returned to Washington happy that the cruel war was over. On the evening of the 14th, while the patient man who had endured the most fearful strain of these anxious years, was quietly sitting in a private box in a public place of amusement at the National Capital, he was shot by an assassin, who entered from behind and deliberately aimed his revolver at his unsuspecting victim. John Wilkes Booth, a play-actor of moderate ability, and a warm secessionist, was the actor in this diabolical crime. The Confederate government were not responsible for the act, much less the brave men who had contested so many hard fought battles with the North. No man was found to openly applaud the act save here and there a solitary voice in the North, which was quickly hushed by the intense popular excitement of the times. Andrew Johnson took the oath of office as President, April 15, 1865, and entered at once upon the discharge of his duties. After some active operations in North Carolina General Johnston asked for an armistice, proposing to refer the matter of settlement of grievances to General Grant. The armistice was granted on the 14th day of April, but the idea that the defeated chieftain should dictate terms caused Grant to order a resumption of hostilities on the 26th. This was followed by the surrender of Johnston on the same generous terms that had been given General Lee. Jefferson Davis attempted to escape from the country. The fugitive President of the Confederacy was captured at Irwinsville, Georgia, May 11th, and sent to Fortress Monroe, and there he was treated with marked kindness, until he was released under bail placed at one million dollars.

Lieutenant-General Grant issued a patriotic and stirring farewell address to the "Soldiers of the Armies of the United States," on June 2d, 1865. The military prisons, where tens of thousands of Confederate prisoners of war were held for exchange, were opened and the men were sent to their homes at Government expense. The millions of liberated blacks were cared for by Government; and the people, happy that peace had again dawned upon the distracted country, were loud in their demonstrations of joy.

The most brilliant pageantry of modern times was held in Washington, consisting of a grand review of the Union armies of the Potomac and of the James, and of Sherman's army. This lasted two days, and then the task of disbanding the mighty Union army began. The rolls were made out, the arms were stacked, the artillery parked, and flags were furled. In an incredibly short time the hundreds of thousands of boys in blue had donned the garb of private citizens and returned to the avocations of peace. The great work of putting down armed resistance to the Government had been accomplished, and now the peaceful question of regulating the commercial, political and social relations of the States late in arms would be settled in the halls of Congress.

REORGANIZATION AND PROGRESS.

ADMINISTRATION OF ANDREW JOHNSON.

WHAT was the position of those States which had passed the ordinances of secession? The war had closed, but it had been maintained by the North that the States were all the while an integral part of the Union and had no power to dissolve their allegiance to it. What was to be done? Should their territory be held as if it had been conquered from a foe? They had endeavored to sever the bonds that bound them to the Government, but had been prevented by the firm hand of armed law. They now claimed the right to resume their old places in Congress as if they had never attempted to secede. What should be done? The Proclamation of Emancipation had given freedom only to those slaves whose masters were in arms on the first day of January, 1863. There were many others whose owners could hold them under that proclamation, but many of the slave States soon removed this impediment of their own account. Louisiana, Maryland, Tennessee, Missouri and Arkansas had abolished it within their borders. An amendment to the Constitution of the United States had been submitted to the several States and adopted, in 1865, by more than the required number to make it a part of that instrument.

Another amendment was submitted to the States, giving the fullest rights of American citizenship to all native-born and naturalized citizens of the United States. This was made the condition for the restoration of rights to those men who were seeking to return to their old position of citizenship. The questions growing out of all this state of affairs were most delicate, and required the careful consideration of patriots; but the institution which had caused all the controversy of the past, all the bloodshed and ruin which had come to both sections of the country, must be thoroughly eradicated now, and leave no seeds to spring up in after years. So the men who had won the fight thought, and the men who had yielded "to the stern necessity of war" came to accept the situation with what grace they could, and slowly the work went on to its completion.

On April 29th, 1865, President Johnson issued a proclamation removing certain restrictions on commercial intercourse with the Southern States. On May 20th provisional governors were appointed for the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Texas. An order for rescinding the blockade was issued the 23d of June, another to still further remove the restriction on inter-state commerce August 29th. State prisoners were released October 12th. The privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus was restored December 1st.

The provisional governors in the States, who were anxious to do all that could be done to reorganize their Commonwealth, called conventions of delegates, chosen by citizens, who could take the oath required by the act of Congress. Before the session of Congress had met in December five States had ratified the proposed amendment to the Constitution, formed new State Constitutions, and provided for Representatives to Congress.

When Congress met there arose at once a conflict between the President and the Legislative Department. This breach widened until it became an open rupture. The Cabinet resigned, with the exception of the Secretary of War, E. M. Stanton, who was advised to remain by his friends. On April

2d, 1866, the Executive issued his proclamation declaring that the civil war was at an end. Tennessee was finally restored to the Union July 23d.

The Emperor of the French had subverted the Republic of Mexico, and by military power had placed and supported on a throne Maximilian, an archduke of Austria, as Emperor of that dominion. On the 5th of April, 1866, our Government informed the French Emperor that the continuation of the French troops in Mexico was objectionable, and at once the assurance came that they would be withdrawn.

The elections throughout the Northern States showed that the people sustained the policy of Congress. The act conferring the elective franchise upon all citizens in the District of Columbia was passed December 14th. This was vetoed by the President, but passed over his veto by more than a two-thirds vote, January 7th, 1867. The same day the preliminary steps were taken for the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, which resulted in a trial before the Senate, with the Chief Justice presiding, in May, 1868.

The territory of Nebraska was admitted into the Union as a State on March 1st, 1867. There was intense excitement over several bills which the President vetoed and which Congress at once passed over his veto. The thirty-ninth Congress closed its session March 3d and the fortieth Congress met at once. This Congress adjourned on March 31st, to meet on the first Wednesday in July. This was done, and then the two Houses adjourned, July 20th, to meet again on November 21st. In the mean time the President attempted to remove E. M. Stanton, Secretary of War, who refused to resign. General Grant was ordered to assume the office, which he did, and held it a short time. The controversy went on until the impeachment of the President. The trial lasted from March 5th to April 26th, when he escaped conviction by only one vote. Two-thirds of all the votes cast are required to convict. Every member was present. Thirty-five voted guilty and nineteen voted not guilty.

The Secretary of State certified to the fact that the required number of States had adopted the XIVth amendment to the Constitution conferring civil rights upon all citizens, without regard to race or color.

The work of reorganization was now completed in all the States save three, and the people of the South were betaking themselves to the task of retrieving their ruined fortunes, and thus comparative quiet was restored.

An important treaty with China was ratified by Congress before its adjournment. The Indian question had caused some discussion, and an attempt to transfer the conduct of these affairs to the War Department failed.

A fifteenth amendment was proposed by Congress February 26th, 1869, and submitted to the States, the requisite number of which ratified it soon afterwards.

General U. S. Grant was chosen President of the United States, and Schuyler Colfax Vice-President, at the election of 1868, and on the 4th of March, 1869, took the oath of office and entered upon the discharge of their duties.

ADMINISTRATION OF ULYSSES S. GRANT.

PRESIDENT GRANT entered upon the task of finishing the incomplete work of reconstruction at once, and sent a special message to Congress April 7th, 1869, in which he urged that body to adopt and maintain such measures as would effectually secure the civil and political rights of all persons within the borders of the States not yet in full relations to the Union. Both the Executive and Legislative Departments took every means in their power consistent with the provisions of the amended Constitution to restore the people, who were not yet represented in the National Congress, to this position. This was finally accomplished in 1872, when, on the 23d day of May, every seat that had been abdicated in 1861 by members from the Southern States was filled by legally elected members. On May 22d a general Amnesty Bill was passed by Congress, removing the disabilities imposed by the Fourteenth Amendment from all persons, with the exceptions of those who had held positions in the National Government, the diplomatic corps, and the army and navy of the United States during the administration of James Buchanan. The political unity of the whole country was now established by law, and the rights of American citizenship were conferred upon all native-born and naturalized persons within the borders of the United States, with the exception of the comparative few mentioned above.

The last tie which completed the railroad from the Atlantic to the Pacific was laid May 10th, 1869, and marked an important event in the social and commercial life of the United States. By this the States on the eastern seaboard and the distant Pacific coasts were brought together, and a grand highway opened to facilitate the overland trade from China and Japan. There was a general rejoicing as the last spike was driven, for communication was made with the entire telegraph system of the country, and the blows of the hammer were recorded in the telegraph offices in all parts of the land.

An extensive insurrection arose in Cuba with which many citizens of the United States were in close sympathy, but the Government wisely maintained neutrality, and measures were taken to suppress all fillibustering. A number of gunboats ordered by the Spanish Government were detained in the United States on suspicion that they were to be used against Peru. They were released. There arose much excitement (and war was threatened) growing out of the seizure of the steamship *Virginius* in Cuba while flying the American flag, under the belief that she was bringing arms and supplies to the Cuban insurgents. A number of her passengers and her captain were shot by the Spanish authorities. The whole matter was finally settled by diplomacy. The *Virginius* was sunk at sea while being conveyed to the United States in a gale off Cape Fear.

There was a violation of the neutrality laws in 1870 by a large band of Irishmen known as Fenians, who assembled to the number of three thousand on the borders of Canada in the State of Vermont. They invaded that province with the intention of freeing Ireland by some vague plan. The two governments suppressed the trouble, and our adopted Irish citizens have not since then attempted to violate the neutrality laws in force between the two countries.

The United States had long desired some territory in the West Indies, and in 1869 a treaty was made with Hayti by which that island was to be annexed to the United States; but the Senate did not ratify it, and thus the movement in that direction ceased to be a government measure. The survey of a proposed inter-oceanic canal across the Isthmus of Darien was made by an exploration under Commander Selfridge in 1870.

In the year 1871 two of the most destructive fires that ever visited this country amounting to a national calamity occurred. In October of that year the greater portion of Chicago was swept by the flames, which raged for forty-eight hours and devastated two thousand acres of territory and destroyed two hundred million dollars' worth of property. This disaster called forth the sympathy and material aid of the civilized and commercial world. The next month, November, the fire-fiend swept away the very center of Boston, destroying seventy-five million dollars worth of property.

President Grant found at the opening of his first term of office the question of the *Alabama* claims an open one with the English Government. A joint commission was proposed by the United States, and England agreed to it. This "joint high commission" met at Washington May 8th, 1871, and completed a treaty referring the whole matter at issue to a court of arbitration.

This treaty was at once ratified by both countries. There were four important questions involved: 1st. The settlement of all claims by either government growing out of losses sustained during the Civil War. 2d. The permanent settlement of the American coast fisheries. 3d. The free navigation of certain rivers, including the St. Lawrence, and, 4th. The settlement of the boundary between Vancouver's Island and the mainland on the Pacific coast. The first question was referred to a tribunal of arbitration, which met at Geneva, Switzerland, December 15th, 1871, and adjourned to June 15th, 1872. The final meeting of this tribunal was held September 14th, 1872. By their award Great Britain was to pay to the United States the sum of fifteen million five hundred thousand dollars in gold, as an award for losses sustained by the depredations of the *Alabama* and other British-built privateers during the Civil War. The money was paid the following year. The fourth question was referred to the Emperor of Germany, who decided in favor of the United States, giving to that Republic the island of San Juan, which had been in dispute.

The other important measures and events of General Grant's first term were the adoption of weather signals by means of the Morse telegraph under control of the National Signal Service. This has proved of inestimable value to American commerce and agriculture. The apportionment of representatives to Congress, by which there was one representative to every one hundred and thirty-seven thousand eight hundred population, making two hundred and eighty-three members in all. A new pension law was passed in aid of all Union soldiers who had suffered the loss of limbs or health in the late war. Early in 1873 the franking privilege was abolished, by which much money was saved to the Post-Office Department. In 1872 an important embassy of twenty-one officials of the Chinese Government visited the United States, and the Grand Duke Alexis of Russia also came to this country. Steps were taken to celebrate the centennial anniversary of American independence, which would occur in 1876, by a display at Philadelphia of the industries of all nations.

The political campaign of 1872 was begun in May by the nomination of Horace Greeley for President and B. Gratz Brown for Vice-President by a convention of "liberal Republicans." The Democratic party coalesced with them and ratified the same nominations on July 9th. The Republicans renominated General Grant for President and Henry Wilson for Vice-President June 5th. The election resulted in retaining General Grant for a second term and making Mr. Wilson Vice-President.

The relation of the troublesome Mormon question to the general government agitated the public mind to some extent during this time. The system of polygamy was strongly intrenched in the very heart of the Continent, and a petition signed by twenty-five hundred women of Utah in its favor was presented to Congress. The elective franchise had been given to the female sex, and out of a large vote in favor of a State Constitution nearly one-half of the ballots were cast by women. There had been population enough in Utah for some time to constitute a State, but Congress refused to admit it with the system of polygamy.

The second term of General Grant as President began March 4th, 1873, and his nominations for Cabinet officers were at once confirmed by the Senate. The country was prosperous and rapidly recuperating from the sad effects of the war. The improvement in the feelings between the South and the North was very marked, growing out of the leniency with which the Government treated those lately in arms against it.

The Indian troubles assumed unusual proportions during the second term of Grant's administration. The humane policy inaugurated at the beginning of his first term had not resulted in all that was hoped for it. The trouble seemed to be in the fact that the Government treated the tribes of Indians as distinct nations, and made treaties with them, appointed agents and commissioners, supplied them with bounties and subsidies, and compelled them to remain upon reservations set apart for them. The men who were acting as Indian agents were not always true men and caused ill feelings on the part of the red men. Not far from three hundred thousand Indians are living in the States, of whom about one third are civilized or half civilized. The remainder are in a savage state.

General Custer was sent into the Dakota region in 1874 with a military and exploring expedition, and gave such a glowing account of the country as to excite the mining population to enter and prospect for the precious metals, in great numbers. At the close of 1874 a bill was introduced into Congress to extinguish as much of the title to the Black Hills reservation as lay within the territory of Dakota. This greatly irritated the chiefs of the Sioux, for they, with great show of justice, regarded it as a step toward robbing them of their lawful domain. A national geologist, guarded by a large military escort, went to this region early in 1875, and the Indians began preparations for war. A strong force of troops was sent to the Yellowstone region early in 1876, and were arranged into three divisions, General A. H. Terry in chief command. The three columns were commanded respectively by Generals Terry, Cooke and Gibbon, intended to form the meshes of a net into which they expected to ensnare Sitting Bull, the warlike chief of the Sioux. General Gibbon had a fight with the Indians on June 17th, when he was obliged to fall back. General Custer, with General Terry and his staff, joined Gibbon on the Yellowstone, near Rose Bud Creek. Custer was ordered to make an attack with his force, which consisted of the Seventh United States Cavalry. He and Gibbon advanced to the Big Horn River, and Custer, coming up with the Indians first, gave them battle without waiting for Gibbon, and falling into an Indian ambush was killed, with the greater part of his men. Many gallant officers and men were slain in this terrible encounter, including two of Custer's brothers and a brother-in-law.

This was on June 25th, 1876. At once the Government sent a large force to this region. The Sioux evaded a contest with them and the troops went into winter quarters. Sitting Bull with his followers retired to the British Possessions, whither the United States troops could not follow him.

The Government had a war with the Nez-Perce (nose-pierced) Indians in 1875. They had been a peaceable and friendly tribe since the time of Jefferson, when the early explorers had come to their country. They were living happy and contented in the fertile Walla-Walla Valley. When agents were first sent to them they had been a little dissatisfied, but there had been no outbreak. Now the settlers had begun to crowd upon them, and treaties were made with a part of the tribe to remove to a reservation upon the Government paying them a certain fixed annuity. But an old chief, by the name of Joseph, who had taken no part in the treaty, refused to leave, and in 1873 Grant had ordered that they should not be molested. When the avaricious whites began to encroach upon the domains of this tribe the President was induced to revoke this order, and in 1875 a force was sent to compel them to move at a given time. Before the time came Joseph became incensed at the encroachments of the white settlers, and about twenty white people were murdered. War was begun, and lasted until the Indians were forced again to make a humiliating treaty in 1877. These measures embittered that part of the tribe which had not engaged in the war, and they became enemies of the Government.

Sitting Bull, who had gone to the British Possessions with his warriors in 1876, was an unwelcome guest there, but he remained stubborn and sullen. The United States sent several commissioners to treat with him, but he regarded them with contempt until 1880. The British authorities had informed him that if he attempted to cross into the United States with hostile intentions that Government would join with the United States in making war upon him. Finally he offered, in 1880, to surrender with his braves, and a thousand of them did so in the early part of 1881, but their wily chieftain did not give himself up until some time later. Colorado, the "Centennial State," was admitted into the Union July 4th, 1876.

The year 1876 was the "centennial year" and the year for a Presidential election. The celebration of the opening new year was very general throughout the United States, with bonfires and the ringing of bells as the old year and century passed. The events of the political arena were the impeachment of Mr Belknap, Secretary of War, for maladministration of office. He was acquitted in August. A resolution for submitting another amendment to the Constitution was passed in the House, but defeated in the Senate. At the end of June a resolution to provide for the coinage of ten millions of silver currency was passed, and very quickly that metal became plenty. The fractional paper currency, which had come in use during the war, at once disappeared from circulation. On June 16th Rutherford B. Hayes was nominated by the Republican party for the Presidency and William A. Wheeler for Vice-President. On the 27th of the same month the Democratic party nominated Samuel J. Tilden and Thomas A. Hendricks for the same offices respectively, and a most exciting canvass was carried on until November, of which we will speak hereafter.

THE CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION.

THERE had been a wide-spread desire to celebrate the centennial year in some way in which all nations could rejoice with the young Republic of the West. It was proposed to hold a gigantic exposition of the arts, manufactures and industries of all nations at Philadelphia. Invitations were sent to other governments and were very generally accepted. The early inception of the plan was set forth by a communication of the Franklin Institute to the Mayor and other authorities of Philadelphia asking for the use of Fairmount Park for an international exhibition. A committee of seven members of the municipal government proceeded to lay the subject before Congress. At the same time the Legislature of Pennsylvania sent a committee to Washington for the same purpose. On March 3d, 1871, an act was passed empowering the President to appoint a commission for superintending the exhibition, and an alternate commission from each State and Territory in the Union. These commissioners met at Philadephia on March 4th, 1872, and when twenty-four States and three Territories were represented. "The United States Centennial Commission," was organized by the choice of Joseph R. Hawley, of Connecticut, as president, with five vice-presidents, a temporary secretary, an executive committee and a solicitor. John S. Campbell afterward became permanent secretary. A Centennial Board of Finance was appointed in 1873, and on the 4th day of July of that year the authorities formally surrendered the grounds to the commission.

There were five grand buildings erected, the Main Building, Art Gallery, Machinery Hall, Agricultural Hall and Horticultural Hall. The applications for space from foreign governments was so great that it was seen that the work done by women would be thrown out or lost in the maze of other exhibits, and therefore the women of America raised thirty thousand dollars to build a Woman's Pavilion. The first five buildings named covered, in the aggregate, seventy-five acres of ground, and cost the sum of four million four hundred and forty-four thousand dollars. There were besides these mentioned a number of other buildings erected by the several States and Territories and by foreign nations, as well as by individual exhibitors, in all amounting to one hundred and ninety.

At the beginning of 1876 there were lacking funds to the amount of one and one half million dollars to make it a success upon the plan that every one interested thought should be carried out. Congress advanced the money, with the provison that it should be returned out of the proceeds of the Exposition.

The exhibition was formally opened on the designated day, May 10th, with imposing ceremonies. The President of the United States received the presentation of the grounds and buildings from the President of the Centennial Commission, and the Stars and Stripes were unfurled upon the Main Building, to signify that the Exposition was opened to the public. The total number of admissions to the grounds was 9,910,965, at an admission fee of fifty cents each. In the month of October there were 2,663,911 persons passed the several gates. Thirty-six States had exhibits, and most of the foreign governments. We will speak of the material effects of this Exposition further on.

The day of the national election came, and the result was in great doubt, owing to two sets of returns from each of the States of Louisiana, Florida and South Carolina. Both parties claimed the presidency, and for the first time in the history of the country each party claimed the election of its candidate. One hundred and eighty-five votes in the Electoral College were necessary to a choice. It was at once conceded that Mr. Tilden had one hundred and eighty-four. Representative men from both parties went to the questionable States to watch the official counting of the votes. Excitement ran high, and there were muttered threats of revolution. The United States troops in Louisiana and South Carolina were under orders November 10th to be in instant readiness to preserve the peace. The air of Washington was filled by mutual accusations and charges of fraud. The way to settle the matter in such a contingency was not clearly defined by the Constitution, and it was at length agreed to submit the decision of the question to an Electoral Commission, composed of an equal number of both parties. A committee similarly constituted was to report a bill to put this in effect. On January 18th, 1877, they reported the bill, which provided that five members from the House and five from the Senate, with five justices of the Supreme Court, should constitute the Commission, to be presided over by the justice longest in commission. Both parties agreed that the decision of the board should be final. The bill was passed and signed by the President on January 29th. The next day the Senate appointed Messrs. Edmonds, Morton, Frelinghuysen, Thurman and Bayard. The first three were Republicans, the others were Democrats. The House of Representatives appointed Messrs. Payne, Hunton, Abbot, Garfield, and Hoar, the first three of whom were Democrats, and the others Republicans. Associate Justices Clifford, Miller, Field, and Strong were appointed, and they chose Joseph P. Bradley for the fifth. They met in the Hall of Representatives on February 1st. The commission did not reach its final decision until March 3d, when they declared Rutherford B. Hayes duly elected President of the United States.

ADMINISTRATION OF RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

THE nineteenth President was inaugurated March 5th, 1877, Chief Justice Waite administering the oath of office. Hayes nominated his Cabinet, and they were at once confirmed by the Senate. He began with a kindly, conciliatory policy toward the South, and endeavored by every means to produce the best of feelings among the citizens of the distracted States. He appointed Mr. Key, of Tennessee, one of the military leaders in the Confederate army, Postmaster-General. The United States troops were removed from the Southern States, and left the management of the public affairs in the hands of their own civil leaders. He pronounced in favor of civil service reform. An extra session of the forty-fifth Congress had to be called (October 15th, 1878) to provide for a deficiency of $35,000,000, which had not been appropriated to pay the expenses of military service. The object was not attained, for debates of an exciting partisan character consumed the time, and showed a disposition to block the wheels of government. A bill opposed to Chinese emigration was passed by Congress and vetoed by the President, and the opposition, having the power, failed to pass the appropriation bills. Another special session was called, to convene on March 18th, 1879, when the House passed appropriation bills with such obnoxious provisions for extraneous matters that the President vetoed them, after which the bills were passed with the unsatisfactory measures omitted, and he signed them. This session adjourned July 1st.

There was an immense exodus of negroes from the Lower Mississippi States and the Carolinas to Kansas and Indiana in 1879, which caused Congress to appoint a committee to inquire into its cause. The results obtained did not prove in any way satisfactory.

Specie payment was resumed January 1st, 1879, after having been suspended for eighteen years. The business of the country had been in a depressed condition since the great panic of 1873, but it now began to rapidly improve. In opposition to this measure there arose a "Greenback party," which clamored for an unlimited issue of irredeemable greenbacks, as the national paper currency was then called. They prophesied the financial ruin of the country to result from a specie currency, and have waited to the present time to see it come, but instead the country has been prospering in all departments. There was a fearful outbreak of the Ute Indians in 1879. The government agent, N. C. Meeker, was murdered, and for a time a general

Indian uprising was feared. Major Thornburg was sent against them, but he and ten of his men were killed, and the rest were surrounded for six days. The troops intrenched and held out until succor arrived, and soon the Utes were put down. A joint resolution, having for its design the enfranchisement of women, was introduced into the House of Representatives on January 30th, 1880. The same in substance was presented to the Senate January 19th. It is known as the Sixteenth Amendment to the Constitution.

The project of an inter-oceanic canal was revived by a visit to this country, in 1880, of M. de Lesseps, the engineer of the Suez Canal. He examined the Isthmus, and declared his belief in the feasibility of the scheme. The President sent a message to Congress March 8th, 1880, in which he apprised the world that it is the duty of the United States to assert and maintain such supervision over an enterprise of this kind as will protect our national interests.

The presidential election of 1880 was one of intense interest, and party spirit ran high. There were four candidates in the field. James A. Garfield and Chester A. Arthur were nominated by the Republicans on June 2d. On the 9th, the Greenback party nominated James B. Weaver and Benjamin J. Chambers. The Prohibition party put in nomination Neal Dow and A. H. Thompson on June 17th. The Democratic party assembled in Chicago on June 22d, and nominated Winfield S. Hancock and William H. English. There is another fact which, if not mentioned in history, would be soon forgotten. There was another party in the field, whose candidates were John W. Phelps and Samuel C. Pomeroy. It was the Anti-masonic party. All of the four candidates for President had been generals in the Union army. The canvass was particularly spirited and bitter. The excitement ran high, and many rumors were put in circulation which had no foundation in fact. James A. Garfield was elected by an unquestionable majority. On the 28th day of February the President elect left his home at Mentor, Ohio, and in company with his family proceeded to Washington, accompanied by his aged mother.

A special session of the Senate was called to confirm the nominations of the new President.

ADMINISTRATION OF JAMES A. GARFIELD.

THE inaugural address of President Garfield met with the general approbation of the country. The chief points were: equal protection for all without respect to race or color; universal education as a safeguard of suffrage; an honest coinage; the funding of the national debt at a lower rate of interest; the prohibition of polygamy and the regulation of the civil service. These were well received by all parties and the administration started off with high hopes. The Senate of the United States was so evenly divided between the two great parties that at the beginning of the administration of General Garfield there was quite an animated contest over the appointment of officers for that body. This caused a dead-lock for a number of weeks. There had been a gentleman nominated by the President for the office of Collector of the port of New York, who was distasteful to the senior Senator from that State, Roscoe Conklin, and because the Senate confirmed the nomination the latter, with his colleague, resigned and left that great State unrepresented in the United States Senate till an election of their successors. The Legislature of New York was in session at Albany, and at once there began an exciting canvass for the election of the United States Senators. This lasted for several weeks and finally resulted in the retirement of Mr. Conklin and his colleague to private life and the election of two other gentlemen to take their places. In the mean time Congress had been performing its regular work. A treaty with China concerning immigration and commerce; with the United States of Columbia in regard to extradition of criminals; a consular convention with Italy; a convention with Morocco and a reciprocal treaty with Japan concerning shipwrecked sailors had received the attention of Government. On May 18th the Senate postponed the resolution reasserting the Monroe doctrine.

The country was startled on the eve of a general wide-spread celebration of the anniversary of American independence by the news that the President of the United States had been shot by an assassin and would probably die. This diabolical crime had been committed at the passenger depot of the Baltimore and Potomac Railroad at Washington on Saturday morning, July 2d. Hon. J. G. Blaine, the Secretary of State, and the President were walking arm-in-arm through the waiting-room when two pistol shots were fired in quick succession from the rear. One shot penetrated the President's body, and he was carried wounded to a room in the second story of the depot, and as soon as possible removed to the White House. The assassin was at once arrested by a police officer and taken to the jail. He proved to be Charles J. Guiteau, a man of great self-conceit and little ability, who had been for months beseeching the President and the Secretary of State for an official appointment, and at length, becoming incensed at not receiving the attention he thought he merited, he resolved upon revenge. It may have been that his unbalanced mind was inflamed by the discussions going on in the Republican party. The President, before leaving the depot where he had been shot, caused a telegram to be sent to Mrs. Garfield, who was at Long Branch, to relieve her of any undue anxiety in regard to his condition. It was in these words:

> "The President desires me to say to you from him that he has been seriously hurt, how seriously he cannot yet say. He is himself and hopes you will come to him soon. He sends his love to you.
>
> A. F. Rockwell."

Contrary to the expectations of the attending physicians the President did not die at once, but seemed to rally, and hopes were entertained of his final recovery. The deepest gloom was over the nation, and North and South alike felt the fearful shock of the blow. The celebrations which were planned for July 4th in all parts of the country were abandoned. Messages of sympathy and condolence came from all parts of the civilized world. Crowned heads in several countries, American citizens in foreign lands, every form of association, commercial, social, benevolent, political and religious, vied with each other in tendering the deepest expressions of sympathy in this hour of sadness. Most heartfelt and touching were the kind words sent by the widowed Queen of Great Britain. Then followed the long and painful struggle for life which lasted for weary weeks. There were repeated relapses and rallyings, which caused the nation to alternate between the hope of final recovery and the despair of sorrow, until September 16th he had an alarming relapse. He was at Long Branch, where he had been carried in the most careful manner by a special train from Washington to the very door of the cottage where he was to die. The struggle for life had been heroic, persistent and patient, but the President must die. At 10:55 Monday, September 19th, he drew his last breath, and thus passed away the man who had risen from the humble position of a driver on a canal to the proudest station in the gift of a great people. This sad ending of an eventful life had filled the country with gloom and foreboding. Instantly the painful news was telegraphed all over the world, and the messages of condolence and kindest sympathy poured in from every quarter of the globe. The noble Queen of England sent a message to her not less noble sister in America, Mrs. Garfield, in the following words:

> "Words cannot express the deep sympathy I feel for you at this moment. May God support and comfort you as He alone can. THE QUEEN."

The Cabinet at once summoned Vice-President Arthur to take the oath of office without delay, and he did so at a little after midnight, on September 20th. The oath was administered by Judge John R. Brady, of the Supreme Court, in New York. The remains of the dead President were conveyed to Washington, where they lay in state in the Rotunda of the Capitol for two days. The floral tributes were of the most beautiful and expensive kind; and throughout the entire country the tokens of mourning were displayed from public and private buildings. The mansions of the rich and the homes of the humble poor; the large commercial palaces of business and the humble stand of the street vender; the massive factory of the wealthy corporation and the shop of the mechanic, all alike were decked with some emblem of mourning. The South vied with the North, and the whole country united in their heartfelt expressions of sorrow.

ADMINISTRATION OF CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR was formally inaugurated in Washington on September 22d. The oath was re-administered by Chief Justice Waite in the presence of Mr. Garfield's Cabinet, ex-Presidents Grant and Hayes, and some military and civil officers. He then delivered a brief inaugural address, and immediately issued a proclamation appointing Monday, September 26th, as a day of fasting, humiliation and prayer. He called an extra session of the Senate, to meet October 10th.

The body of the late President was removed from Washington, after appropriate religious services, and conveyed by a military guard, accompanied by a Congressional Committee and prominent citizens. Among the many emblems which were presented was a floral ladder, on the successive rounds of which were the words, "Chester, Hiram, Williams, Ohio State Senator, Colonel, General, Congressman, United States Senator, President and Martyr." These names indicated the upward steps by which James A. Garfield had advanced in his public career. Chester was the seat of an obscure seminary where he began his education. Hiram is the name of an insignificant college where he was a teacher, and Williams is the college where he graduated. The other titles explain themselves.

The last public services over the remains were performed in the presence of two hundred thousand citizens in the cemetery at Cleveland, Ohio. There were services in all the cities and towns in the country at the same time. On the 23d of October the body was quietly transferred from the receiving tomb to the private vault of Captain L. T. Schofield, in Lake View Cemetery.

The special session of the Senate met October 10th, and the President's nominations for Cabinet officers were confirmed. They were as follows: E. T. Frelinghuysen for Secretary of State; Chas. J. Folger, Secretary of Treasury; Samuel J. Kirkwood, Secretary of the Interior; Robert T. Lincoln, Secretary of War; Wm. A. Hunt, Secretary of Navy; Benjamin H. Brewster, Attorney-General, and Timothy O. Howe, Postmaster-General. Other nominations were confirmed and the routine business of the Executive Department, which, to some extent, had been interrupted by the illness and death of the late President, was resumed. The Senate had considerable trouble in organization, growing out of the even division of the two great parties. It ended in the election of David Davis, of Illinois, as President *pro tempore* of the Senate.

The centennial celebration of the surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, at the close of the War of the Revolution, was an occasion of great national interest. A grand naval review and a military display on shore, with historical addresses and public festivities, were the main features of the occasion. The French Government was represented by a large number of officials and a national vessel. Among the distinguished guests were lineal descendants of Count D'Estaing, Lafayette and Rochambeau, who had aided the patriots in their early struggle. Other nations of Europe were also represented. The President and Cabinet, with the diplomatic corps of the nations of the world, took part in the occasion. The celebration began October 18th, 1881, and lasted for a number of days.

The trial of Guiteau, the assassin of President Garfield, was begun in November of the same year. The widest latitude was given the accused to present his defense. The counsel were allowed ample time to prepare their answer, and the brother-in-law of the prisoner, associated with Mr. Reed, his counsel, undertook the case for him. After a fair, impartial and lengthy trial, in which the plea of insanity was strongly urged, Guiteau was found guilty of murder and sentenced to be hanged on June 30th, 1882. Two ineffectual attempts to shoot the prisoner were made during the progress of the case; the first by a civilian, whose name was Wm. Jones, on the 26th of November, who shot at him while being conveyed in a van from the court house to the jail. The second attempt was by Sergeant Mason, of the military guard, who shot through the window of the prisoner's cell and failed to injure him.

They were both brought to trial and punished as their cases demanded. A number of unsuccessful measures were taken by the family and legal advisers of Guiteau to set aside the verdict, obtain a new trial, or induce President Arthur to interpose his executive clemency in favor of the condemned man, but all of no avail, and on the appointed day he was hanged. To the last he displayed his egotism and excessive self-conceit by making a characteristic speech from the gallows on which he was executed on June 30th, 1882.

The first regular session of the Forty-seventh Congress met in December, 1881, and entered upon a long and heated debate upon political questions. The people were demanding a revision of the tariff and a reduction of the burdens of taxation occasioned by the immense war debt and the heavy expenditures of government. They were demanding reform in the civil service and purity in the administration of public affairs. The people of the Pacific States were clamoring for a national law to prevent the immigration of Chinese into the country. The opportunity for Congress to distinguish itself in passing measures of great public benefit was never more plainly presented. The session lasted nearly eight months, and when, at last, it adjourned, the people felt a sense of relief, for its doings had been generally unsatisfactory.

Early in 1882 the trial of persons connected with that branch of the Postal Service known as "The Star Route System," was begun at Washington and continued several months. They were charged with gross frauds. An incumbent of the General Post office and others in official stations were implicated, but through defects in the jury system most of them escaped punishment.

The President, who favored Civil Service reform, recommended in his annual message (Dec., 1881) action upon it. He also recommended legislation looking to the suppression of Polygamy in the Territory of Utah, and offered valuable suggestions concerning the treatment of the Indians with a view to their ultimate civilization. This latter topic, so important to the future welfare of our country and that race, still commands the attention of the people. Much has been done in that direction, but much yet remains to be done to accomplish the desirable result.

At different periods changes had been made in the apportionment of population to each representative in Congress, so as to keep the number of Representatives (325) nearly the same. The apportionment made by Congress in 1882, gives a representative to about 137,000 inhabitants.

Their peculiar social condition and habits, with their cheap labor, made the Chinese, who had been rapidly locating on the Pacific coast, obnoxious to the people of that section, and a movement to exclude them from the country was inaugurated. In compliance with this demand, and notwithstanding the Burlingame treaty, an act was passed by Congress in 1882 excluding the Chinese for ten years. Thus was opened the great question, which still agitates the country, of restricting immigration and shutting out undesirable residents. An act for the suppression of polygamy in Utah also became a law.

This session of Congress closed on the 8th of August. Between 6,000 and 7,000 bills had been presented to it, but only 251 public acts, 233 private acts, and 84 joint resolutions became laws. Commissioners were appointed to negotiate a commercial treaty with Mexico, composed of Gen. U. S. Grant and William H. Trescott. That duty was soon performed, and the treaty was ratified in March, 1884. It provided that the chief agricultural products of Mexico should be included in the free list of the tariff of the United States. The schedule of articles to be admitted free into Mexico from the United States comprised five great classes of manufactures and the chief mineral products.

A commission appointed under the Anti-Polygamy act made a registry of the voters in the Utah Territory. The Chairman of the Committee reported, in the autumn of 1882, that one thousand polygamists of both sexes had been disfranchised.

The Fall election in 1882 changed the political complexion of Congress, giving to the House of Representatives a Democratic majority of 77. This was largely brought about by the disaffection of a considerable number of "independent" Republicans, who were dissatisfied with their party methods. In the State of New York this disaffection was most remarkable, the Democratic candidate for Governor of that State—Grover Cleveland—being elected by almost 200,000 majority.

The two hundredth anniversary of the landing of William Penn in America was celebrated at Philadelphia, with imposing ceremonies. Penn was a leader of the sect called Quakers, who oppose war, and yet the chief feature of that celebration was a great military and naval display.

The final session of the Forty-seventh Congress was opened on Dec. 4, 1882. In his annual message President Arthur made prominent the topics of Civil Service reform and revenue reform. A bill for the promotion of Civil Service reform was introduced into the Senate and became a law in January, 1883. Commissioners appointed under it entered upon their duties. The corrupt method of assessing office-holders for election funds was forbidden by an act, in accordance with a decision of the United States Supreme Court.

The Forty-seventh Congress expired on March 4, 1883. It had reduced the rate of letter postage to two cents. It had also passed a joint resolution for the termination of the treaty with Great Britain concerning the fisheries.

A commission was appointed to sit during the recess of Congress to inquire into the condition of labor in the United States, with a view to suggest a solution of the great problem of the true relations between labor and capital, which has so long occupied the attention of statesmen and publicists, and which had been often alluded to in the debates during the session just closing. That committee sat in New York in the Fall of 1883, but accomplished no important result.

Two wonderful achievements of engineering skill took place in the United States in the year 1883. In May of that year a great Suspension Bridge over the East River, connecting the sister cities of New York and Brooklyn by a lofty high-way, was completed. President Arthur and Governor Cleveland and many other distinguished persons were present on the occasion. During the same year the Northern Pacific Railroad was completed by joining the eastern and western portions, in the territory of Montana, in August.

Two important centennials were celebrated in 1883. At Newburg on the Hudson and at Fishkill Village, the event of the disbanding of the Continental Army was celebrated early in June, with imposing ceremonies. Intimately connected with this event, was the evacuation by the British army of the city of New York on November 25, 1783. The centennial of this event was celebrated in the city of New York, on which occasion a bronze statue of Washington, colossal in size, and standing in front of the United States Sub-treasury building, was unveiled.

The first session of the Forty-eighth Congress began on December 3, 1883, when John G. Carlisle of Kentucky was chosen Speaker of the House of Representatives. In his annual message, the President recommended that some form of civil government should be given to the people of Alaska; also a repeal of the law conferring upon the people of Utah territorial power, and the "assumption by Congress of the entire political control of the Territory, and the establishment of a Commission with such powers and duties as shall be delegated to it by law."

The government was embarrassed at the beginning of 1884 by a surplus of money in the treasury. It was found that it was receiving from $75,000,000 to $150,000,000 from taxes levied on the people, more than it needed for current expenditures. The grave question arose, What shall be done to decrease the receipts or to dispose of the surplus? Four plans were proposed to Congress. The extreme Protectionists proposed to abolish the tax on whiskey and tobacco, but leave the duty on foreign imports untouched. Another method proposed was to divide the surplus among the States. A third proposed to divide the whiskey and tobacco tax among the States; and a fourth proposed to expend the surplus in measures for reviving the shipping and export trade. The question yet remains unsolved.

The Mormon problem has occupied the attention of the people and their representatives ever since it was proposed. Measures have been adopted which have greatly restrained the evil, and promise to lead to a final suppression of polygamy in the United States in the near future.

Earnest efforts have been made for the suppression of a more gigantic and destructive evil, that of the Liquor Traffic and its consequence, widespread intemperance. The Census report of 1880 showed that in one year, ending in June, 1880, $900,000,000 were paid by the people of the United States for intoxicating drinks, or more than as much as they paid for their bread and meat. This great evil caused the active efforts of an organized Prohibition Party, and the rapid increase of its adherents. It caused the formation in the Republican Party of an "Anti-Saloon League."

Efforts for the enlightenment of our people by decreasing the amount of illiteracy have been made. In the Spring of 1884, a bill was introduced into Congress appropriating the sum of $77,000,000 to be distributed among the States and Territories, in proportion to their illiteracy, on the basis of the Census of 1880, the payments of the money to extend over eight years. Nothing has been done. The test oath, called the "iron-clad oath," required of all persons before assuming the functions of any public office, civil or military, who might be suspected of having engaged in the Rebellion of 1861-65, was repealed.

Preparations for the presidential campaign, in 1884, were made between May 29 and July 23, when National Conventions of the four political parties then in the field were held. The *Greenback* convention, assembled at Indianapolis on May 29, nominated Benjamin F. Butler for President, and A. M. West for Vice-President. The Republican convention assembled at Chicago, on June 3d, nominated James G. Blaine for President, and John A. Logan for Vice-President. The Democratic convention assembled at Chicago July 8th, and nominated Grover Cleveland for President, and Thomas A. Hendricks for Vice-President. The Prohibition convention met at Pittsburg, Penn., on July 23d, and nominated John P. St. John, Ex-governor of Kansas, for President, and William Daniel for Vice-President. Cleveland and Hendricks were elected.

The political canvass in 1884 was very warmly carried on. Independent Republicans, anxious for reform in the civil service, refused to vote for the candidate of their Party. Disaffection in the Republican Party was widespread, and several Republican newspapers supported the Democratic nominee. The aim of the Prohibition Party was and is to obtain a national law forbidding the manufacture, importation and sale of intoxicating liquors as a beverage. They polled a large vote, which, with the votes for Cleveland of the disaffected Republican party, secured his election by a small majority.

Lieutenant Greeley of the United States Navy and a scientific party had been sent to the Polar regions by their government to establish a post for scientific observations at a high latitude. Failing to receive supplies in the autumn of 1883, Greeley established a permanent camp on West Greenland. Early in 1884 his supplies were few and very soon starvation began. Relief vessels were sent to their rescue, and when discovered on June 23d 17 of the party of 25 had perished. The survivors were brought to the United States; among them Lieutenant Greeley.

Another catastrophe to an American party in Polar waters had recently occurred. The Steamship *Jeannette* had been sent to the Arctic regions, under Captain James H. DeLong, of the U. S. Navy. The vessel was not heard from in about two years. She was wrecked on the coast of Siberia. Captain De Long and some of his companions had reached the icebound shores, where he and nearly all of his party perished from starvation.

The French people, chiefly in commemoration of the emancipation of the slaves in the United States, presented to our government an immensely colossal statue made of copper, of " Liberty enlightening the World." It was executed of beaten copper by Bartholdi, an eminent sculptor. The corner-stone of the pedestal was laid on an island in the harbor of New York in August, 1884. The height of the pedestal and statue is about 300 feet. The statue, designed for a lighthouse, is on Bedloe's Island, where it was unveiled with imposing ceremonies, in October, 1885.

The visit of M. De Lesseps to the United States and the Isthmus of Panama, in 1880, in furtherance of his scheme for the construction of a Ship Canal across the isthmus, aroused the American government and people to the importance of such a work at another point on the narrow strip of earth which connects North and South America. In November, 1884, a treaty between the United States and Nicaragua, which provided that the former should construct a canal across the isthmus of Tehuantepec, and the latter grant the right of way, with a strip of territory three miles wide. The Senate of the United States failed to ratify the treaty, but the project was not abandoned.

During the same month a treaty was negotiated between the United States and Spain for commercial reciprocity between our Republic and Cuba and Port Rico. The Senate did not ratify it.

The Second Session of the Forty-eighth Congress began on Dec. 1, 1884. The President in his annual message to Congress alluded with satisfaction to the labors of the Civil Service Commission, and the salutary performances of the Utah Commissioners, and again recommended Congress to assume absolute political control of the Utah Territory. He called their attention to the condition of our foreign trade, which he regarded as "one of the gravest of the problems which appeal to the wisdom of Congress." It was shown that only a little more than seventeen per cent. of our combined exports and imports were conveyed in American vessels.

A "World's Fair" was opened at New Orleans in December, 1884, in the presence of 30,000 people. The Exhibition was instrumental in promoting harmony and good feeling between the citizens of the Republic in all sections.

In December, 1884, the capstone of the obelisk, constituting the Washington monument at the National Capital, was put in place, and on the 22d of February following the obelisk was dedicated with imposing ceremonies.

The Administration of President Arthur closed on the 4th of March, 1885. The National debt, which on January 1, 1866, was $2,800,000,000 had been reduced one half on January, 1, 1885. Arthur was succeeded by Grover Cleveland, like himself a citizen of New York, as the occupant of the chair of State of the Great Republic of the West.

Congress, just before its expiration on March 4, 1885, honored General U. S. Grant by authorizing the President to place him on the retired list of the Army with full pay and title of General, for life. Immediately after this act, Grover Cleveland was inaugurated President of the United States in the presence of 40,000 or 50,000 citizens of the Republic.

ADMINISTRATION OF GROVER CLEVELAND.

Grover Cleveland, a son of a Presbyterian clergyman, a successful lawyer, a Mayor of Buffalo, N. Y., and Governor of the State of New York, was elected President of the United States in the autumn of 1884, and took his seat in the presidential chair on the 4th of March, 1885, at the age of fifty-one years. His administration of public affairs in the commonwealth of New York had been so generally satisfactory, that he began his national administration with the good will of all parties in the Republic. The oath of office was administered to him by Chief Justice Waite. His inaugural address was received with great enthusiasm by a vast crowd, who heard it uttered on the eastern portico of the Capitol.

The administration of Mr. Cleveland was marked by many important events in the history of our nation. Almost his first act was to withdraw from the Senate the unratified treaty with Nicaragua, with a view to the subsequent presentation of a substitute. It was early in his administration that the Prohibition law of the State of Iowa, passed in 1884, was submitted to a constitutional test. The unanimous opinion of a full bench of the Supreme Court of the State pronounced the act to be constitutional.

In the Spring of 1885 a rebellion or large mob having suddenly appeared in the Isthmus of Panama, which menaced the safety of American property if not lives there, and had destroyed Colon or Aspinwall by fire, over a thousand marines of the United States Navy were sent thither. They landed at the ruined town, crossed the Isthmus to Panama and soon restored order.

Trouble with the fierce Apache Indians, led by an able chief, Geronimo, gave much alarm in Arizona, New Mexico and the border districts of Mexico, but United States troops soon subdued them. They are the most warlike of our Indian tribes. In July, the same year the Cheyenne Indians broke out of their Reservation and went into Texas, creating great alarm. General

Sheridan hastened to Fort Reno, whither United States troops were sent. Led by General Miles they soon ended the outbreak and the scare. The Cheyennes were brought back to their Reservation and made satisfied by just treatment.

On the 23d of July (1885), ex-President and General U. S. Grant died at Mount McGregor, not far from Saratoga Springs. His body was taken first to Albany, where it lay in state for a brief period, when it was conveyed to New York by railroad. It lay in state in the City Hall there, and was interred in a temporary vault in Riverside Park, on the banks of the Hudson, in the Great Metropolis. The largest and most distinguished procession ever seen in New York city followed his remains to the tomb.

Knights of Labor, a very strong association of Labor Leagues of various kinds, assuming to control and regulate the labor arrangements between employers and the employed of the country, tried the power of the association by ordering a "strike," or cessation from labor, on railroad lines centering at St. Louis, Missouri. They began their operations by ordering a strike on the street cars of St. Louis at a time (October) when fully 100,000 strangers were in the city attending a great Fair. A mob wrecked twenty street cars in the following Spring (1886). 8,000 to 10,000 employees on the Gould southwestern system of railways struck without adequate cause apparent, by order of leaders of the Knights of Labor. This was the beginning of an attempt to cripple the great system of railroads in that region and so impress the people with a sense of the power of the Knights. For some time all traffic was paralyzed, and the malign influence of the movement was felt all over the country.

Archbishop McCloskey, the first Cardinal in America, died at his Episcopal residence in New York City on Oct. 7th, and on the 29th of the same month, Major-General George B. McClellan, ex-Governor of New Jersey, died very suddenly of heart disease at his residence in New York City.

The first session of the Forty-ninth Congress began on December 4, 1885. The sudden death of Vice-President Hendricks, in the Fall of 1885, left the chair of the president of the Senate vacant. General John A. Logan was nominated by the Republicans to fill the place *pro tempore*, but declined; Senator John Sherman accepted it. The Democrats nominated Isham Harris for the position. They also nominated John S. Carlisle of Kentucky for Speaker of the House, in which they had a majority, and he was elected.

In his first annual message President Cleveland made special reference to the condition of the National finances, and suggested that in any modification of the revenue laws the industries and interests in which citizens had made large investments should not be "ruthlessly injured or destroyed;" and that the interests of American labor should be protected. He alluded to the enormous amount—$65,000,000—of coinage then in the treasury, largely in silver, and the evils to be apprehended from such a state of affairs. Indian Reservations and Chinese policy; immigration; Polygamy in Utah, and the Nicaragua Canal treaty, were noticed at length. He opposed the Canal treaty and concluded not to return it to the Senate.

At the middle of December, a conspiracy was discovered in San Francisco, formed by a band of dynamiters, to destroy several leading citizens with the terrible explosive, and to murder all the Chinese there. The conspirators were arrested.

The dusky natives occupying the "Indian Territory" were much disturbed by the introduction of Bills into Congress tending to interfere with their political rights and their property. The Cherokees, the most enlightened of these natives, took action in council, and by resolutions denied the right of the United States to dispose of their property in any way, save by the consent of their Council; also, that the Cherokee nation did not authorize the sale of any of its lands for white settlements or for any purpose.

The "Mormon Question" occupied the attention of Congress. Senator Edmunds of Vermont introduced into the Senate a stringent Anti-Polygamy bill, which passed that body on January 8th (1886) by 37 yeas to 7 nays. At about the same time, the Land Commissioners made a decision which affected a claim of the Northern Pacific Railroad to about two and a half million acres of land, valued at $25,000,000. The validity of the claim of the Company to these lands had long been disputed by settlers on them, many of whom had made improvements. The decision of the Commissioners was against the claim of the Company.

The Presidential Succession Act became a law at the middle of January (1886). It provides that in case of the death of the President and Vice-President of the United States the vacancy shall be filled by a member of his cabinet selected in the following order: the Secretary of State; of the Treasury; of War; the Attorney-General; the Post-Master-General; the Secretary of the Navy and the Secretary of the Interior.

Early in March, 1886, a State Anti-Chinese Convention held at Sacramento, California, organized an *Anti-Chinese non-partisan Association* for the purpose of discouraging the employment of Chinese labor. The Association resolved to "boycott" any person who should employ Chinese labor, directly or indirectly, or who should purchase the products of Chinese labor.

Connected with the warfare of the Knights of Labor against the Southwestern railroads were the serious operations of a mob at East St. Louis, on the Illinois side of the Mississippi River. Sheriff's deputies were sent from St. Louis to quell the disturbance, and being defied, they fired among the rioters and killed six persons and wounded as many more. The Mayor of St. Louis, who was drunk, tried to arrest the deputy-sheriffs, when shots were exchanged and one man was killed. On that night incendiary fires were kindled in the rail-road yards along two miles of river front. Forty-two cars were burned. The total loss of property was estimated at $150,000 before the rioters were checked by the arrival of Illinois State militia. The business of the whole country was deranged for more than a year afterwards by successive "strikes" ordered by the Knights of Labor or other "labor unions."

A serious movement against the order of Society was begun in Chicago in the Spring of 1886 among foreign residents, who were anarchists. They were chiefly Germans. A large number were engaged in riotous proceedings in the suburbs on May 3d. On the following evening a large crowd had been called together in the city to listen to seditious harangues, and to inagurate anarchist proceedings. After listening for awhile to incendiary remarks from a man named Fielden, the Inspector of Police led a band of the reserved police force to the gathered crowd and commanded the speaker to cease his harangue. At that moment a dynamite bomb was thrown before the front line of policemen, which exploded and killed several of the latter. At the same time the mob fired on the police, who returned the fire. Seven of the leading anarchists were arrested, tried for "murder before the act," in July, found guilty and sentenced to be hanged in November. By efforts to obtain a new trial, the interference of the United States Supreme Court, and a commutation of sentence by the Governor of Illinois, their execution was postponed for about a year. Four of them were hanged, two were sent to prison for life, and one committed suicide in his cell.

In June, 1886, President Cleveland and his ward, Miss Frances Folsom, were married at the Executive Mansion, in Washington, in the presence of members of his cabinet, Justices of the Supreme Court, Senators and Representatives, the Diplomatic corps, Lieutenant-General of the Army, Admiral of the Navy, other officials in Washington, and personal friends of the "high contracting parties."

A resolution was introduced into the Senate in June (1886), proposing an amendment to the Constitution to prohibit Polygamy within the bounds of the Republic; defining marriage, and providing punishment for those who should violate the laws to regulate the institution in accordance with the definition of marriage.

Numerous private pension bills were presented to the President from time to time, many of which on careful examination he felt constrained to veto. His first veto message was issued early in May, 1885. From that time until 1888 he sent back to Congress about one hundred vetoed bills.

Early in Mr. Cleveland's administration vexatious treatment of American fishermen by the authorities of the Dominion of Canada, occurred. They fitted out cruisers to observe and prevent any encroachment of American fishermen within Canadian waters, and these annoyed the fishermen and produced great irritation. Matters were assuming such a threatening aspect that the Secretary of State opened correspondence on the subject in July, 1886, with the British minister at Washington, which finally led to the negotiation of a treaty early in 1888, the avowed object of which was the removal of all causes of misunderstanding in relation to the treaty of October, 1818, and the "promotion of friendly intercourse and good neighborhood between the United States and the possessions of her Majesty in North America." It agreed to the appointment of a mixed commission to carry out the terms of the treaty. Late in August, (1888) the Senate of the United States rejected the treaty, whereupon the President, in an exhaustive message, asked for fuller powers to enforce retaliatory measures toward Canada, in accordance with a former law of Congress, authorizing retaliatory Acts.

On the day before the adjournment of Congress early in August (1886) the President submitted to the Senate a new extradition treaty with Japan, which covered more offenses than any other similar treaty with foreign powers. It was suggested by the Japanese government.

At the close of August the most destructive earthquake ever felt in this country occurred most severely, at Charleston, S. C., and vicinity. There were ten principal shocks at Charleston, between the night of August 27th and September 1st. The tremor was felt over an area of 900,000 square miles, or one quarter of the United States. The most destructive shock occurred on the night of August 31st. It destroyed many buildings and about forty lives (a large portion of them among the Negro population), and more or less injured almost every structure in Charleston. People rushed from their houses and encamped in the streets. The Negroes, believing that the world was coming to an end, huddled in groups at the corners of the streets, shouted incoherent prayers and sang hymns, while the groans of the wounded and dying swelled the dreadful chorus. It was truly a night of horrors in the stricken city. The sympathy of the whole country for the sufferers was instantly aroused and munificent aid was sent to the authorities of Charleston. Its shattered and ruined buildings were soon repaired or rebuilt, and prosperity soon made the city glad.

An effort was made among the Temperance members of the Republican party to make the doctrine of sobriety a leading feature in its character. For that purpose a "Republican Anti-Saloon League" was formed in many parts of the Union, and in Sept., 1886, a National organization was effected at a convention held at Chicago, which was attended by about 200 delegates, who represented sixteen States and one Territory. A National Committee was appointed, with Albert Griffin of Kansas, the originator of the movement, as chairman.

The Bartholdi statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World," presented by the French people to those of the United States, was unveiled in New York Harbor, on Oct. 24th, 1886. It was a gala day in the city and harbor, though the weather was inclement. The event was celebrated by an immense procession in the city, and a gathering of a vast multitude of water-craft of every description in the harbor, laden with men, women and children. The imposing special services of the occasion were observed on a platform in front of the Statue, on Bedloe's Island, in the afternoon. There was an opening prayer, a presentation address by Count de Lesseps, the constructor of the Suez and Panama Canals, an address of acceptance by the President of the United States, and speeches by Senator Evarts and Chauncey M. Depew.

At about the middle of the following month, ex-President Arthur died, when the President ordered the Executive Mansion and the Government buildings to be draped in mourning for thirty days.

In January, 1887, a bill was reported in the Senate to incorporate the Maritime Canal Company, and a resolution calling on the President to enter into negotiations with the Government of Nicaragua, with a view to obtaining concessions from, and entering into a convention with that Republic for the construction of a Ship Canal through the State of Nicaragua from the Atlantic to the Pacific oceans, the canal to be built either by the United States government or its citizens. At about the same time an act was passed to create a Department of Agriculture and Labor.

An Inter-State Commerce Act—a most important measure—for the regulation of traffic between the States, whether the transportation shall be by railroad or otherwise, was adopted on January 21st, 1887. The President immediately appointed five Commissioners to carry out the designs of the Act. On the same day the Senate ratified a new treaty with the Hawaiian government, which extends the commercial relations of the United States with the islands for some years. On May 4th, the Queen of Hawaii arrived at Washington on her way to attend the Jubilee of Victoria, Queen of Great Britain.

The Centennial celebration of the adoption of the form of the National Constitution, by a convention at Philadelphia at the middle of September, 1787, was celebrated in that city during three days (Sept. 15, 16, 17, 1887), with imposing civic and military parades, ovations, et cetera. The more intellectual proceedings occurred on Saturday the 17th, when the President of the United States and Justice Miller of the Supreme Court made addresses. The form of the constitution was agreed to on Sept. 15, and it was signed by the members of the Convention, on the 17th, 1787.

The first session of the Fiftieth Congress began on December 4th, 1887. The most prominent topic of the President's annual message was revenue reform, the curtailment of the receipts of Customs duties, and the reduction of the enormous accumulation of hoarded coin in the treasury. He recommended a reduction of tariff taxes, which were necessarily imposed for war purposes. The message caused the subject of a tariff for "revenue" and a tariff for "protection" to become a vital question at issue in the Presidential campaign of 1888. There being a difference of opinion on the subject by members of the two great political parties, made the issue of the campaign extremely doubtful and intensified its conduct.

In January, 1888, the President nominated L. Q. C. Lamar, his Secretary of the Interior, to a seat on the bench of the Supreme Court of the United States. In expectation of the nomination, the Secretary had resigned his position in the Cabinet on the 7th of January.

The great miners' strike in the Schuylkill coal region that so affected the Reading railroad and the coal supply of the country, ended at about the middle of February by agreement, when 20,000 laborers who had been idle for weeks resumed work.

On the first of March, Mr. Mills, Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives, made public their tariff bill, known as the "Mills Bill." Its general plan is based on the suggestions of the President's last annual message, recommending tariff reform by reducing the rate of duties imposed on certain articles. It caused long and earnest debates in and out of Congress. The Bill passed the House of Representatives, in which the Democrats had a majority, on July 13th, but was opposed by the Senate, in which the Republicans preponderated in numbers.

Early in March, 1888, the German population of our country were deeply moved by tidings of the death of the aged Emperor of Germany, who was ninety-one years of age. The President of the United States directed the American minister at Berlin to make known that "the death of the venerable Emperor had deeply aroused the sorrow and sympathy of the people and government of the United States."

The most severe storm of snow and wind ever known in the Middle and Eastern States of the Union, was experienced in that region on the 12th and 13th of March. It was like a genuine "blizzard" of the Western States. It paralyzed all human operations out of doors for several days, preventing transportation of every kind, and almost every kind of labor but shovelling snow.

Morrison R. Waite, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, died on March 23d, and was succeeded on the 20th of July following by Melville W. Fuller, of Illinois.

The text of a treaty with China concluded in 1880 for the purpose of regulating, limiting or suspending the arriving of Chinese laborers to, and residence in, the United States, was made public at about the beginning of April. Soon afterwards a bill for the restriction of Chinese immigrants to Chinese officials, teachers, students, merchants or travellers for pleasure or curiosity, with the permission of their government, these persons identified by certificates, and the repeal of the Chinese act of May 6th, 1880, introduced into the House of Representatives late in April 1888. The Chinese government rejected the Treaty, and the Chinese Emigrant Restriction Bill was passed in September. At about the same time a bill for the division of the Territory of Dakota, and constituting the southern half a State bearing that name, and the northern part a Territory named Lincoln, passed the Senate. It was defeated in the House.

Lieutenant-General Sheridan, commander-in-chief of the armies of the

United States, was prostrated at his residence in Washington by the effects of "fatty degeneration of the heart" at near the close of May. On the first of June he was given the rank and commission of "General." He lingered between life and death until August 5th, when he died at his cottage home at Nonquitt, Massachusetts.

Since 1884, a third political party, known as the "Prohibition Party," which labors for the prohibition of the manufacture, importation and sale of intoxicating liquors as a beverage, has rapidly increased in strength, and has assumed a national character. The Prohibitionists held a national Convention at Indianapolis on the 30th and 31st of May, nominated General Clinton B. Fiske of New York for President of the United States, and John A. Brooks of Missouri for Vice-President, and adopted a national platform. A Democratic National Convention, held at St. Louis on June 5, 6, and 7th nominated President Cleveland for the high position he occupied, and Allen G. Thurman of Ohio for Vice-President. They adopted a platform of principles in agreement with the President's annual message in December, 1887. The Republicans held their National Convention at Chicago from June 19th to June 25th. There were many candidates for the presidency, nineteen persons receiving one or more votes for the nomination. They also adopted a platform of principles. They nominated General Benjamin Harrison of Indiana, a grandson of President W. H. Harrison, for President, and Levi P. Morton, of New York, for Vice-President.

On the anniversary of the Battle of Gettysburg, soldiers of the National and Confederate armies who were engaged in that decisive struggle met in friendly reunion. The special re-union ceremonies were held in the National Cemetery and the most cordial good feeling prevailed.

During the months of August and September (1888) the city of Jacksonville, Florida, was frightfully scourged by yellow fever, while the rest of the Union seems to have been almost entirely free from the dreaded pestilence.

The first session of the Fifty-first Congress closed on October 20. It was the longest session of Congress ever held. Ten days afterwards (October 30) the British Minister at Washington, Lord Sackville West, was dismissed by the President, for words uttered in a reply to a correspondent in California who made insinuations of bad faith and deception on the part of the President, in his dealings with the fishery question. In his reply, the Minister acquiesced in his correspondent's opinions of the character of the President. His letter was marked "private." As fore-determined by the correspondent, it was published broadcast. It was a political trick to secure votes against the President at the election about to take place.

On November 6, at the close of a most exciting canvass, the Presidential election took place. It resulted in the choice of Benjamin Harrison of Indiana for President, and Levi P. Morton of New York for Vice-President.

The second session of the Fifty-first Congress began on the first Monday in December, 1889. The President in his Message reiterated with emphasis his sentiments concerning revenue reforms. The most important act of this session was the creation of four new States: Washington, North Dakota, South Dakota and Montana. The President signed the bill on the 22d of February, 1889.

OUR NATIONAL PROGRESS

AND THE WONDERFUL DEVELOPMENT OF OUR MATERIAL RESOURCES SINCE THE CIVIL WAR.

THE war had been practically ended with the surrender of Generals Lee and Johnston in April, 1865, and both sections of the country rejoiced at the return of peace. The South had suffered most heavily and lost her all. Many wealthy families were reduced to the verge of necessity. Their slaves were free, their plantations were uncultivated, and their prospects for the future were dark indeed. Where the land remained in possession of its former owners they had not the means to cultivate it nor the money to buy seed. The worthless Confederate bonds and currency in which they had invested or which had been forced upon them was of no use to them now. Their towns and villages were filled with brave men who were shattered in life and limb, and had no government to care for them. Their industries were paralyzed and their commerce destroyed, and their political status was as yet uncertain. The first thought was for personal preservation, and all classes bent their energies to the raising of the first crop of cotton, for which the manufacturers of the world were waiting. The demand for cotton and their ability to supply this demand was the only line of hope. Bravely and grandly did they seize upon it. Could it be produced without slave labor? This was a problem as yet unsolved. It must be done. The freedman was given an interest in the growing crop, and he labored with more zest than he had ever shown for the kindest master. He was dependent upon his own resources now, and with no owner to care for him his first experience in the new condition of things was at best a hard one. Even with the kindest disposition the white people were unable to aid the blacks. The bounty of the Government was extended to all alike. The United States issued rations of food and clothing to both blacks and whites in many places, and thus the first season after the return of peace was passed. The cotton crop brought a good market. The deserted factories in the North sprang into action, and the production of cotton goods, which had been curtailed for years, was actively resumed once more.

In the North the industries had been somewhat disarranged, but not to the extent they had been in the South. The manufacturing of all manner of army supplies had been pushed to its utmost limit. Iron factories had been running day and night. The demand of the army for clothing and equipments had been immense; but that was all changed by the disbanding of the army, and the industries of the North must be turned to other channels. The vast numbers of returned soldiers must be provided with means of livelihood and positions for peaceful employment. There was an abundance of paper money in the country, but it was below par value and prices were high. There had been a disposition to withdraw capital invested in mercantile and manufacturing pursuits. But with the return of specie payments and depreciation in prices in 1879 came a general impulse for investments. The capital of the North was moving southward. Cotton mills and other factories were being erected nearer to the supply of the raw material. There arose a period of railroad development, and thousands of miles of new roads belted the country. Real estate was advancing in price, and the desire for speculation was upon the nation before they were aware of it. All the while the South was recuperating most rapidly. The vast war debt of the nation was being reduced and its interest lessened. A long panic followed, in which the public was taught to contract private expenditures and perform business upon solid principles. The lesson was a bitter but a needful one, and the people were taught by a hard experience that inflated values and high living are destructive to financial success. Slowly the public confidence returned, and the revival of business began and assumed a healthy tone.

The Centennial Exposition had displayed to the amazed countries of the world the wonderful progress in all the arts, manufactures and improvements of the age, the United States leading in nearly every department of trade, and at the same time showing the old world her desirable advancement in the refined arts and scientific discoveries. In machinery and labor-saving appliances she had distanced the nations of Europe. While in defensive and offensive military armature she had given them lessons which they were but too ready to learn and improve upon. A grand impetus was given by this exhibition to all the industries of the United States, while it opened up the markets of the world as never before. The fertile wheat and corn-growing sections of the great central Western States, as well as the cotton-growing South, found a ready market in the old world.

The public debt has been largely reduced year after year, and refunded at a low rate of interest. The cities of the South and the North have shared in the general prosperity and largely regained the lost ground caused by the war. The enterprise of the whole country has been stimulated by a healthful rivalry in business, and the bonds of commercial intercourse are fast blotting them out. The following extract shows the real feeling of the South, especially among its young men:

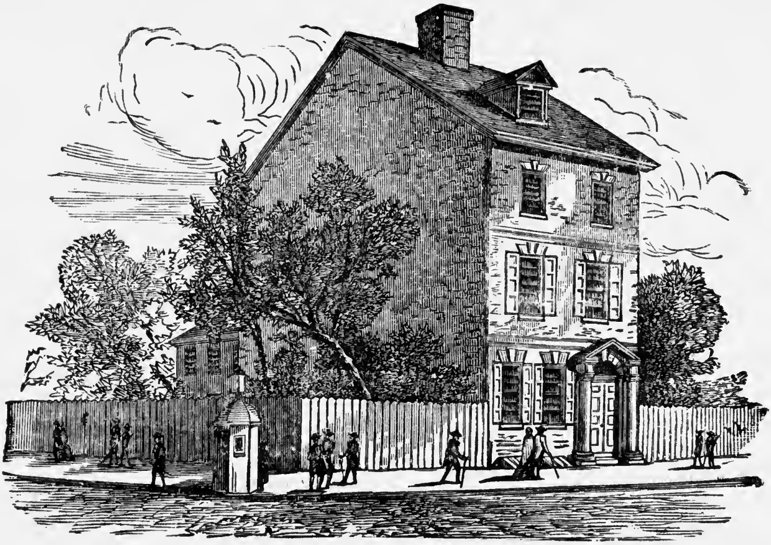
From the Century.

The Southern States are now rearing a large number of young men before whom the outlook is bright. Some of them are sons of the old ruling families, but many of them have sprung from the lower and middle classes. They enjoy the advantages of poverty; they have no money to spend in luxuries or diversions; they have fortunes to retrieve or to gain; they have grown up since the war, and have inherited less than could be expected of its resentments. "Well," said a bright fellow at the close of a college commencement in Virginia last Summer, "Lee and Jackson have been turned over in their graves but once to-day." The sigh of relief with which he said it indicates the feeling of many of these young men. They keep no grudges and have no wish to fight the war over again. The sentiment of patriotism is getting a deep root in their natures.

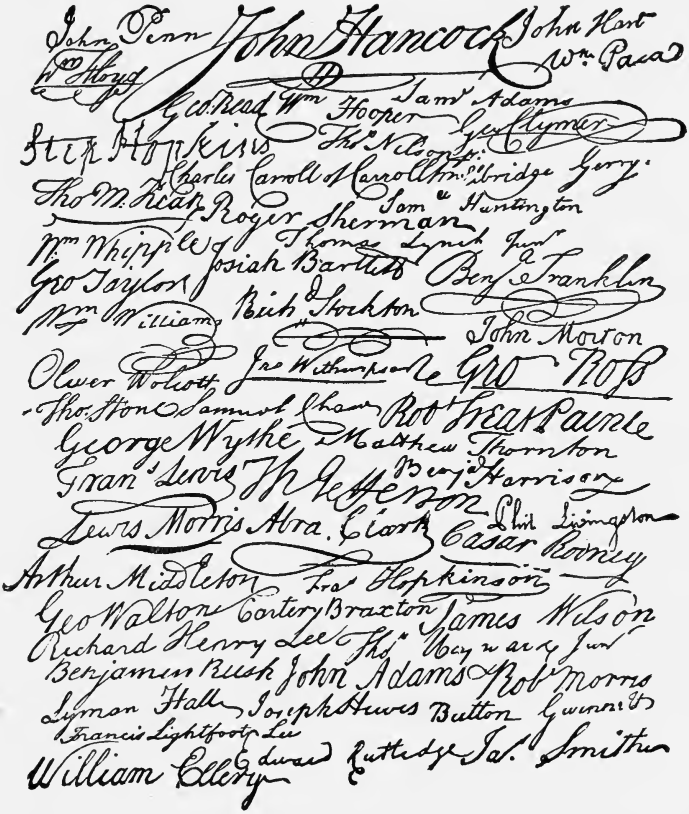
Yet they are full of faith in the future of their own section. Well they may be. During their lifetime the industry of the South has been revolutionized, and the results already achieved are marvelous. An era of prosperity has begun; and there are few intelligent men at the South to-day who will not at once confess that it is destined to be a far brighter era than they have ever seen. Free labor is unlocking the wealth of farms and mines and falling waters in a way that slave labor never could have done. New machinery, new methods are bringing in a new day. In the midst of the stir and movement of this industrial revolution these young men are growing up. Hope and expectation are in the air; the stern discipline of poverty goads them on, and the promise of great success allures them. All the conditions are favorable for the development of strong character; and any one who will visit the Southern colleges and schools will find in them a generation of students alert, vigorous, manly and tremendously in earnest. Probably they do not spend, on an average, one-third as much money per capita as is spent by the students of the New England colleges; and in the refinements of scholarship the average Southern student would be found inferior to the average Northern student; but they are making the most of their opportunities. They ought to have better opportunities. Most of the Southern colleges and schools are crippled for lack of funds, and much more of the flood of Northern bounty might well be turned southward, to the endowment of schools and colleges for whites as well as blacks. The generous sentiment of the young South would thus be strengthened, and the bonds of union more firmly joined. But whatever may be done in this direction it is evident that a race of exceptional moral earnestness and mental vigor is now growing up in the South, and that it is sure to be heard from. If the young fellows in the Northern colleges expect to hold their own in the competition for leadership, they must devote less of their resources to base ball and rowing and champagne suppers and come down to business.

The "Cotton Exposition" in the beautiful and rejuvenated city of Atlanta, Georgia, in October, 1882, was a gigantic exhibition of the resources of the great cotton-growing States, and displayed the rapid stride made by a people but a few years ago prostrated by an exhaustive and unsuccessful struggle. The vast domain of the South-west is being rapidly opened up by the means of railroad communications and the influx of immigration. The crowded denizens of the old world are thronging in inconceivable numbers to the western republic as never before in the history of the country. Since 1820, when the Government first began to keep the official account, there have come to the United States no less than 11,800,000 persons of foreign birth to find homes in this country. In addition to these there have come over 230,000 Chinese who have been less welcome and more harshly treated than any of the rest.

This vast heterogeneous mass of men and women of different races and types has become assimilated and equal under the law. They have aided much in developing the resources of the land and added to its material wealth in many directions. The vast improvement in every department of science has kept pace with the demands of the age. The telephone, the audiphone, the electric light, have been invented during the period of which we are writing. The future success of this republic is assured if the institutions of its founders are maintained and its constitution and laws are kept unimpaired. The purity of the ballot-box, the maintenance of public honor, the education of the masses and the civilization and Christianization of the foreign element and of the aborigines are demanded by the spirit of the hour. The great blots still remaining upon the national character—the permission of polygamy and the treatment of the Indians—should be removed. The sanctity of the marriage relation and observance of the Sabbath should be required. Public faith with nations, tribes and individuals is imperatively demanded, and then the fondest dreams of the most enthusiastic well-wisher of his country will be realized. Private integrity, sobriety and industry, with the qualities above mentioned, will secure us from the fate of the old republics that tottered to their fall as soon as these were wanting.



THE BIRTHPLACE OF THOMAS JEFFERSON.



John Penn John Hancock John Hart
Wm Floyd Wm Paca
Geo. Read Wm Hooper Saml Adams
Step Hopkins Thos Nelson jr. Geo Clymer
Charles Carroll of Carrollton Elbridge Gerry
Tho M: Kean Roger Sherman Saml Huntington
Wm Whipple Thomas Lynch Junr
Geo Taylor Josiah Bartlett Benj Franklin
Wm Williams Richd Stockton
John Morton
Oliver Wolcott Jno Witherspoon Geo Ross
Tho. Stone Samuel Chase Robt Treat Paine
George Wythe Matthew Thornton
Fran's Lewis Th Jefferson Benja Harrison
Lewis Morris Abra. Clark Phil Livingston
Caesar Rodney
Arthur Middleton Fras Hopkinson
Geo Walton Carter Braxton James Wilson
Richard Henry Lee Thos Heyward Junr
Benjamin Rush John Adams Robt Morris
Lyman Hall Joseph Hewes Button Gwinnett
Francis Lightfoot Lee
William Ellery Edward Rutledge Jas. Smith

SIGNATURES TO THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

IN CONGRESS, July 4th, 1776.

By the Representatives of the United States, in Congress assembled.

A DECLARATION.

WHEN, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitled them, a decent respect for the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident :—that all men are created equal ; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights ; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness ; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed ; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes ; and accordingly all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies ; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former system of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the mean time, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without and convulsions within.

He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures.

He has affected to render the military independent of and superior to the civil power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation,—

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us:

For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States:

For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world:

For imposing taxes on us without our consent:

For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury:

For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offenses:

For abolishing the free system of English law in a neighboring province establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies :

For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering fundamentally the forms of our government :

For suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection. and waging war against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries, to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun, with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow-citizens taken captive on the high seas. to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren or to fall themselves by their hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes. and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms ; our petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attention to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts made by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and consanguinity. We must therefore acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war—in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies solemnly publish and declare that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States ; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved ; and that, as independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

Signed by order and in behalf of the Congress.

JOHN HANCOCK, President.

Attested, CHARLES THOMPSON, Secretary.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Josiah Bartlett,
William Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.

Samuel Adams,
John Adams,
Robert Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

RHODE ISLAND, Etc,

Stephen Hopkins,
William Ellery.

CONNECTICUT.

Roger Sherman,
Samuel Huntington,
William Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

NEW YORK.

William Floyd,
Philip Livingston,
Francis Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

NEW JERSEY.

Richard Stockton,
John Witherspoon,
Francis Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abraham Clark.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Robert Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benjamin Franklin,
John Morton,
George Clymer,
James Smith,
George Taylor,
James Wilson,
George Ross.

DELAWARE.

Cæsar Rodney,
George Read,
Thomas M'Kean.

MARYLAND.

Samuel Chase,
William Paca,
Thomas Stone,
Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.

George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Thomas Jefferson,
Benjamin Harrison,
Thomas Nelson, Jr.,
Francis Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

NORTH CAROLINA.

William Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Edward Rutledge,
Thomas Heyward, Jr.,
Thomas Lynch, Jr.,
Arthur Middleton.

GEORGIA.

Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
George Walton.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution of the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

Section I.—All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Sec. II.—1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States; and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

2. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of the State in which he shall be chosen.

3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of *New Hampshire* shall be entitled to choose three; *Massachusetts*, eight; *Rhode Island and Providence Plantations*, one; *Connecticut*, five: *New York*, six; *New Jersey*, four; *Pennsylvania*, eight; *Delaware*, one; *Maryland*, six; *Virginia*, ten; *North Carolina*, five; *South Carolina*, five; *Georgia*, three.

4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

5. The House of Representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers, and thall have the sole power of impeachment.

Sec. III.—1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided, as equally as may be, into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

3. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

4. The Vice-President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president pro tempore in the absence of the vice-president, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

7. Judgment, in cases of impeachment, shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall, nevertheless, be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

Sec. IV.—The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may, at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year; and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Sec. V.—1. Each house shall be judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members; and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members in such manner and under such penalties as each house may provide.

2. Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

3. Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and, from time to time, publish the same, excepting such parts as may, in their judgment, require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

4. Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

SEC. VI.—1. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to or returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house they shall not be questioned in any other place.

2. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

SEC. VII.—1. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it; but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house; and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays; and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journals of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless Congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return; in which case it shall not be a law.

3. Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States, and before the same shall take effect shall be approved by him or, being disapproved by him, shall be repassed bv two-thirds of the Senate and House of

Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SEC. VIII.—The Congress shall have power—

1. To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises; to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States: but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States:

2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States:

3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes:

4. To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies, throughout the United States:

5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures:

6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States:

7. To establish post-offices and post-roads:

8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries:

9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court:

10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations:

11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water:

12. To raise and support armies; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years:

13. To provide and maintain a navy:

14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces:

15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions:

16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia, according to the discipline prescribed by Congress:

17. To exercise exclusive legislation, in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may by cessionof particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings: And,

18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this con-

stitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SEC. IX.—1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States, now existing, shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight; but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importations, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

2. The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when, in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it.

3. No bill of attainder, or ex post facto law, shall be passed.

4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State. No preference shall be given, by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one State be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

6. No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

7. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State.

SEC. X.—1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts; or grant any title of nobility.

2. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty on tonnage, keep troops or ships of war in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

SEC. I.—1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of fou years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

3. [Annulled. See Amendments, art. 12.]

4. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes, which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

5. No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

6. In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President; and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

7. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected; and he shall not receive, within that period, any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

8. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the constitution of the United States."

SEC. II.—1. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States: he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two-thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint, ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established

by law. But the Congress may, by law, vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions, which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SEC. III.—He shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient ; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper ; he shall receive ambassadors, and other public ministers ; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed ; and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SEC. IV.—The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

SEC. I.—The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may, from time to time, ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SEC. II.—1. The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority ; to all cases affecting ambassadors, and other public ministers, and consuls ; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction ; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party ; to controversies between two or more States ; between a State and citizens of another State ; between citizens of different States ; between citizens of the same State, claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign States, citizens or subjects.

2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls and those in which a State shall be a party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the Congress shall make.

3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury ; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed ; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such a place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SEC. III.—1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or confessions in open court.

2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

SEC. I.—Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SEC. II.—1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

3. No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered upon claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

SEC. III.—1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union, but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislature of the States concerned, as well as of the Congress.

2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States, and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SEC. IV.—The United States shall guarantee to every State of this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and, on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature can not be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress: provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article, and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

1. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this constitution as under the confederation.

2. This constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

3. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by an oath or affirmation to support this constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

John Langdon,
Nicholas Gilman.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Nathaniel Gorham,
Rufus King.

CONNECTICUT.

Wm. Samuel Johnson,
Roger Sherman.

NEW YORK.

Alexander Hamilton.

NEW JERSEY.

William Livingston,
David Brearley,
William Patterson,
Jonathan Dayton.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Benjamin Franklin,
Thomas Mifflin,
Robert Morris,
George Clymer,
Thomas Fitzsimons,
Jared Ingersoll,
James Wilson,
Gouverneur Morris.

DELAWARE.

George Read,
Gunning Bedford, Jr.,
John Dickinson,
Richard Bassett,
Jacob Broom.

MARYLAND.

James M'Henry,
Dan'l of St. Tho. Jenifer,
Daniel Carroll.

VIRGINIA.

John Blair,
James Madison, Jr.

NORTH CAROLINA.

William Blount
Rich. Dobbs Spaight,
Hugh Williamson.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

John Rutledge,
Charles C. Pinckney,
Charles Pinckney,
Pierce Butler.

GEORGIA.

William Few,
Abraham Baldwin.

Attest, WILLIAM JACKSON, Secretary.

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION.

Art. I.—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

Art. II.—A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

Art. III.—No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by the law.

Art. IV.—The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Art. V.—No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia when in actual service, in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled, in any criminal case, to be witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

Art. VI.—In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor; and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ART. VII.—In suits of common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved; and no fact, tried by a jury, shall be otherwise reëxamined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of the common law.

ART. VIII.—Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ART. IX.—The enumeration in the constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ART. X.—The powers not delegated to the United States by the constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ART. XI.—The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

ART. XII.—1. The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the persons voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each; which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate. The president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted; the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest number, not exceeding three, on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But, in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President.

2. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole

number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice.

3. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

ART. XIII.—1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ART. XIV.—1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

2. Representatives shall be appointed among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each house, remove such disability.

4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payments of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any

claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

5. Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ART. XV.—1. The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude.

2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

THE EMANCIPATTION PROCLAMATION.

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

WHEREAS, on the twenty-second day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, a Proclamation was issued by the President of the United States, containing among other things the following, to wit:

"That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State, or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward and forever free, and the executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authority thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom."

"That the executive will, on the first day of January aforesaid, by proclamation, designate the States and parts of States, if any, in which the people thereof respectively shall then be in rebellion against the United States, and the fact that any State, or the people thereof, shall on that day be in good faith represented in the Congress of the United States by members chosen thereto at elections wherein a majority of the qualified voters of such State shall have participated, shall, in the absence of strong countervailing testimony, be deemed conclusive evidence that such State and the people thereof are not then in rebellion against the United States."

Now, therefore, I, ABRAHAM LINCOLN, President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested as Commander-in-chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, in time of actual armed rebellion against the authority and government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, do, on this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and in accordance with my purpose so to do, publicly proclaim for the full period of one hundred days from the day the first above-mentioned, order and designate, as the States and parts of States wherein the people thereof respectively are this day in rebellion against the United States, the following, to wit:

ARKANSAS, TEXAS, LOUISIANA (except the parishes of St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Jefferson, St John, St. Charles, St. James, Ascension, Assumption, Terre Bonne, Lafourche, St. Mary, St. Martin, and Orleans, including the city of New Orleans), MISSISSIPPI, ALABAMA, FLORIDA, GEORGIA, SOUTH CAROLINA, NORTH CAROLINA, and VIRGINIA (except the forty-eight counties designated as West Virginia, and also the counties of Berkley, Accomac, Northampton, Elizabeth City, York, Princess Ann, and Norfolk, including the cities of Norfolk and Portsmouth), and which excepted parts are, for the present, left precisely as if this Proclamation were not issued.

And by virtue of the power and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States and parts of States are, and henceforward shall be free; and that the executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons.

And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free, to abstain from all violence, unless in necessary self-defense, and I recommend to them that in all cases, when allowed, they labor faithfully for reasonable wages.

And I further declare and make known that such persons of suitable condition will be received into the armed service of the United States to garrison forts, positions, stations, and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service.

And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution, upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind and the gracious favor of Almighty God.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my name, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

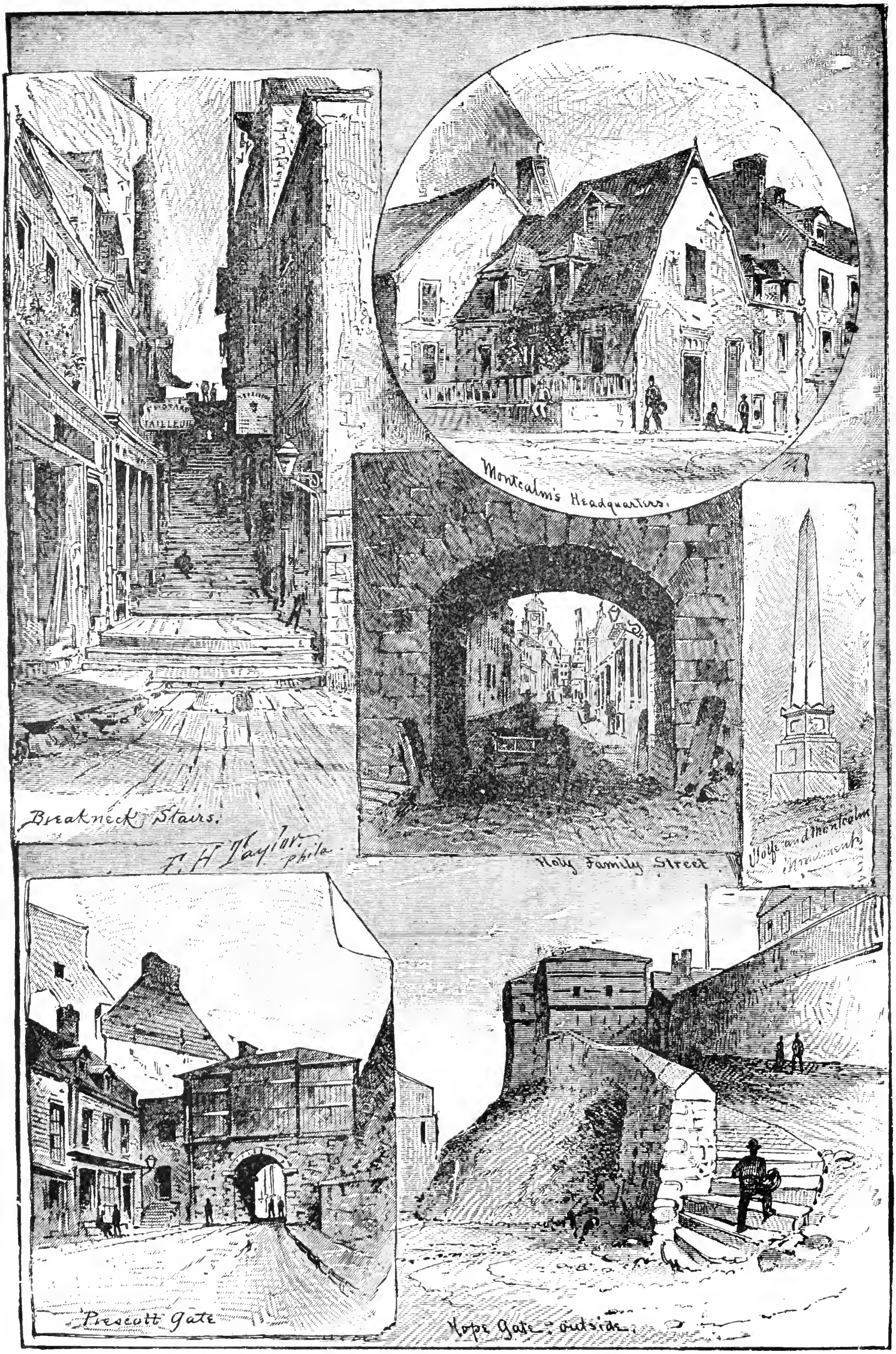
[L. S.] *Done at the City of Washington, this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and of the Independence of the United States the eighty-seventh.*

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

By the President:
WILLIAM H. SEWARD,
Secretary of State.

BEYOND

THE STATES.


Breakneck Stairs.
TAILLEUR
F. H. Taylor. Phila.
Montcalm's Headquarters.
Holy Family Street
Wolfe and Montcalm Monument
Prescott Gate
Hope Gate: outside.

HISTORICAL SPOTS IN THE CITY OF QUEBEC.

BEYOND THE STATES.

THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

Her Provinces and Principal Cities.

THE great confederation of British American provinces occupied in 1889 the whole of the enormous territory of the North American continent lying between the Arctic Ocean on the north, the Atlantic on the east, the United States on the south, and the Pacific on the west, excepting Alaska, Greenland, and Newfoundland. It is almost equal to the whole of Europe in extent, having a length of 120° and a breadth of 90° of longitude. Its area has been variously estimated at from 3,515,324 to 3,580,310 square miles, but as about 3,000,000 square miles are practically uninhabited and very little known, the area can only be approximated. It is the most important British possession on the American continent, and according to the census of 1881, had an aggregate population of 4,350,933, a gain of 680,858 in ten years. The Dominion is composed of the former provinces of Ontario, previously known as Canada West, Quebec, formerly Canada East, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Manitoba, Prince Edward Island, British Columbia, and the Northwest Territories. Newfoundland, though not at present (1889) a political part of the Dominion, is naturally and intimately associated with it. It has its own provincial government, wholly distinct from that of the Dominion.

The government and constitution of the Dominion are modeled after those of Great Britain and the United States. The supreme authority is vested in the sovereign of Great Britain, who is officially represented by a viceroy, styled the Governor-general. He is aided in the administration of his great trust by a privy council, composed similarly to that of the home government. The executive authority descends from the sovereign through the Governor-general to a Lieutenant-governor for each province, who has the aid of an executive council, a legislative council, and a legislative assembly chosen by popular vote. The supreme legislative authority is vested in a parliament, composed of a senate and house of commons, corresponding with the English house of lords and house of commons, excepting that the senate is more democratic, and that membership therein is not a prerogative of a titled class of citizens, nor a hereditary possession. The senate is composed of seventy-seven members, who are appointed for life by the Governor-general, and the House of Commons (1889) of 206 members who are elected by popular vote. The latter body, like the United States House of Representatives will increase in membership with the growth of population. In the provinces the forms of government are independent of the parliament, save that their actions must conform to the supreme laws, just as the acts of the State governments and legislatures in the American Union must harmonize with the federal constitution, the decisions of the United States Supreme Court, and the legislation of Congress. The provinces are subdivided into districts and counties, each with its own subordinate form of administration. Every male British subject, 21 years of age, and possessing a small property qualification, has the right of suffrage.

There is no state religion in the Dominion, nor is any interference with the forms of worship which its citizens wish to observe permitted. The census of 1881 reported the following denominational adherents: Roman Catholics, 1,791,982; Methodists of all forms, 742,981; Presbyterians of all forms, 686,165; Anglicans, 574,818; Baptists all forms, 296,525; Lutherans, 46,350; Congregational churches, 26,900; Disciples of Christ, 20,193; Brethren, all forms, 8,831; Adventists, all forms, 7,211; Friends, 6,553; Universalists, 4,517; acknowledged pagans, 4,478; Reformed Episcopal, 2,596; Jews, 2,393; Unitarians, 2,126; and "no creed" and "creed not given," 136,323; total, 4,350,933. The Roman Catholics were the most numerous in the province of Quebec, and also constituted a plurality in that of New Brunswick; the Methodists were the most numerous in Ontario, and the Presbyterians in Nova Scotia.

From the establishment of the Dominion in 1867 till 1887, the government expended the following sums on public works: railroads, $97,056,423; canals, $29,876,800; lighthouses and navigation, $8,284,580; acquisition and government of the Northwest Territories, $5,356,035; government buildings and miscellaneous works, $13,680,829; total, $154,254,667. The increase in the public debt has been as follows: 1868, $96,896,666; 1872, $122,400,179; 1876, $161,204,687; 1880, $199,125,323; 1886, gross, $273,164,341, net, $223,159,107; 1888, gross, $284,513,841, net, $234,513,358. The ordinary revenue in 1886 amounted to $33,177,040, and the expenditures to $39,011,612. The movement of trade was—Exports: 1868, $57,567,888; 1872, $82,639,663; 1876, $80,966,435; 1880, $87,911,454; 1886, $85,251,314. Imports: 1868, $73,457,644; 1872, $111,430,527; 1876, $93,210,346, 1880, $86,489,747; 1886, $104,424,561. During this period the highest exports were in 1873, $89,789,922, the lowest, 1868, $57,567,888; and the highest imports, 1874, $128,213,582, the lowest 1869, $70,415,165. The distribution of this trade among the chief countries and its relation to the United States are shown in the following table of the transactions during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1886:

Countries.	Imports.	Exports.
United States	$50,475,418	$36,578,769
Great Britain	40,589,500	41,542,629
Germany	2,139,426	253,298
France	1,866,392	534,363
British West Indies	995,422	1,256,549
Other West Indies	1,511,412	865,021
Other British Possessions	583,839	253,290
Japan	1,485,932	1,708
South America	1,052,496	1,012,806
China	903,439	61,415
Newfoundland and Labrador.	388,171	1,752,048

The imports of iron and steel and manufactures thereof into the Dominion for home consumption amounted in value to (1884) $14,790,727; (1885) $11,415,713; and (1886) $11,053,365. In the fiscal years 1887–8 the value of the fishery catch fell considerably below the figures of the preceding year. Of the total value of the catch, only 37 per cent. was exported, 63 per cent. being retained for home consumption; and of the total exports of pickled mackerel—which fell off 61 per cent.—the United States took 87 per cent., but only 15½ per cent. of the total shipments of dry-salted cod. The total value of fish of all kinds exported to the United States was $2,717,000, or 40 per cent. of total export.

Canada was discovered by John and Sebastian Cabot in 1497, but the French were the first to profit by the discovery. Records are extant that show that Frenchmen were engaged in cod-fishing off Newfoundland very early in the sixteenth century: a Frenchman, Denys by name, is said to have made a map of a portion of the Gulf of St. Lawrence about 1506; and in 1508 a French merchant captain visited the shores of the gulf, and, fearing lest his story might be discredited on his return, carried with him living evidence in the form of several natives. Furthermore, the King of France sent Verazani, a Florentine navigator, with four ships, to take possession of the country and prosecute further discoveries in 1524. He made three voyages, and on the last perished with all his crew. Again, in April, 1534, the king commissioned Jacques Cartier to carry out his instructions to Verazani, and gave him two ships and 122 men. He came in sight of Newfoundland in May, but, being deterred from landing by the enormous quantity of snow, sailed to the 51st degree of latitude in the vain hope of realizing the dream of the navigators—a direct passage to China—and then returned home. In the following year with three ships he was more successful. He entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence on St. Lawrence's day (whence the name of the gulf and river), took possession of the country in the name of the King of France, explored the river a distance of 300 leagues, built a fort, and wintered there.

In the reign of Henry VII. of England, Bartholomew Columbus presented to the king some new maps of the world and charts for navigation, which up to that time had not been employed. He also laid before the king the views of his brother, Christopher Columbus, respecting the existence of a vast continent across the Atlantic, and a proposition to enter the royal service and prosecute further discoveries of the comparatively unknown country. No substantial effort could have been made by the king to promote the enterprise, otherwise Columbus would never have struggled so long at the court of Spain for the royal command. It was, therefore, due either to the indifference or preoccupation of the King of England that France took possession of an extreme northern portion of the American continent, and Spain acquired domination over the greater and richer portion with its numerous islands. Had he supported the enterprising Cabots and acceded to the modest proposal of Columbus, he would have achieved the glory of adding an entire continent to his realm.

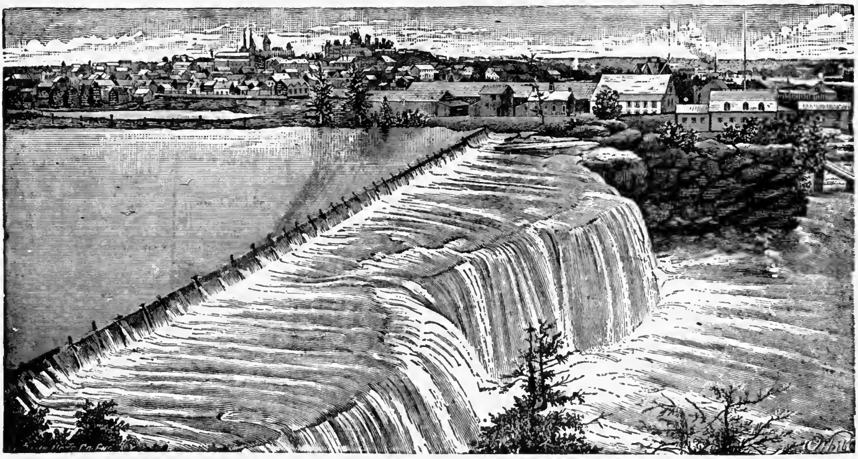
Though Cartier made his discovery and took possession of it in 1535, it was not till 1608 that a permanent settlement was made on the river he dedicated to St. Lawrence, though a few scattering and short-lived settlements were made near St. Croix River under grants of Henry IV. of France in 1604. This first settlement was made by a body of Frenchmen under Champlain, on the spot now occupied by the city of Quebec. The French made a treaty of peace with the Indians, and by the time the settlement was getting into a prosperous condition, war broke out between England and France, and an English expedition was sent against Quebec. The city surrendered to the

English in 1629, after peace had been signed by the belligerents, though the fact was not known in Canada; and consequently the territory had to be returned to France. Canada continued to be a possession of France till 1759, when Quebec was taken by General Wolfe, and the province was ceded in full sovereignty to Great Britain by the Treaty of Paris in 1763. Local affairs were then regulated by the ordinances of the governor alone till 1774, when under an act of parliament a legislative council of twenty-three members was appointed by the king. This form of government was changed in 1791, and the country was divided into an upper and a lower province, each of which was provided with a governor, an executive council appointed by the crown, similar to the privy council of England, a legislative council, the members of which were appointed for life by the king, and a representative council elected for four years.

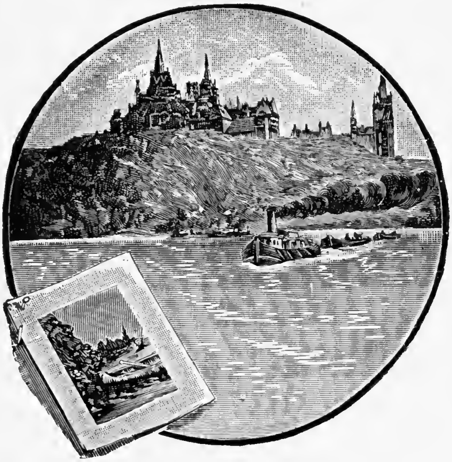
A long course of violent dissensions between the provincial houses of assembly and the executive governments reached their climax in 1837, when insurrections occurred in both provinces. In 1838 the Earl of Durham was appointed governor-general and high commissioner for the adjustment of internal difficulties, and upon his report the English parliament passed an act for the reunion of the provinces in 1840, which was consummated 1841. In 1844 the seat of government was transferred from Kingston to Toronto; in 1858 Ottawa was made the capital; in 1865 the Canadian parliament consented to a federal union; and in 1867 the Dominion of Canada was established by the union of Upper and Lower Canada, or Canada East and Canada West, with the provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. The vast Northwest Territories were purchased by the Dominion government from the Hudson Bay Company and incorporated in the Union 1870; the province of Manitoba, formerly known as Assiniboia and as the Red River Settlement, was admitted the same year; British Columbia, established as a province in 1858, joined the confederation in 1871; and Prince Edward Island united with it in 1873.

CITY OF OTTAWA.

OTTAWA is the capital of the Dominion of Canada. It is situated in the Province of Ontario, 88 miles above the junction of the Ottawa River with the St. Lawrence, 450 miles from New York, 126 miles from Montreal, and 95 miles from the city of Kingston. It was incorporated as a city in 1854. Prior to this it was called Bytown, in honor of Colonel By, who constructed the Rideau Canal in 1827. The scenery in the vicinity is very beautiful, and not surpassed by any in Canada. In the neighborhood are three magnificent cataracts. The first of these is the Chaudiere Falls, on the Ottawa River, at the west end of the city. The falls at this point are spanned by a suspension bridge, connecting Upper and Lower Canada. Its great industry is lumber, its immense water-power being made use of in numerous saw-mills. The imports are about $2,500,000, and the exports nearly $5,000,000, annually. In 1858 Ottawa was selected by Queen Victoria as the capital of Canada. The erection of magnificent Government buildings was commenced in 1860, the Prince of Wales laying the foundation. The Parliament buildings are probably as fine as any in America. The principal railroads are the Canada Central lines and the St. Lawrence & Ottawa. The city is connected by steamer on the Ottawa River with Montreal; the Rideau Canal connects it with Lake Ontario at Kingston. While the city derives its chief importance from being the seat of the government, the natural beauty of its surroundings and its fine architectural structures attract the attention of the tourist. Population, 1889, 48,750.



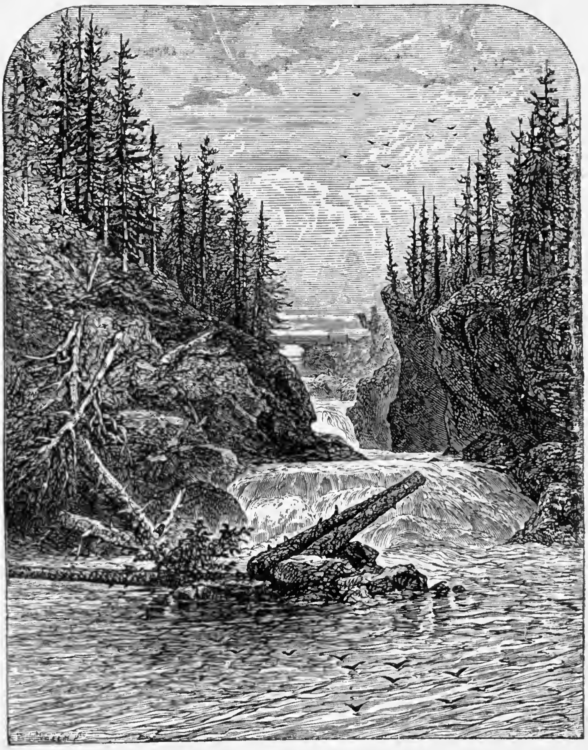
CHAUDIERE FALLS.



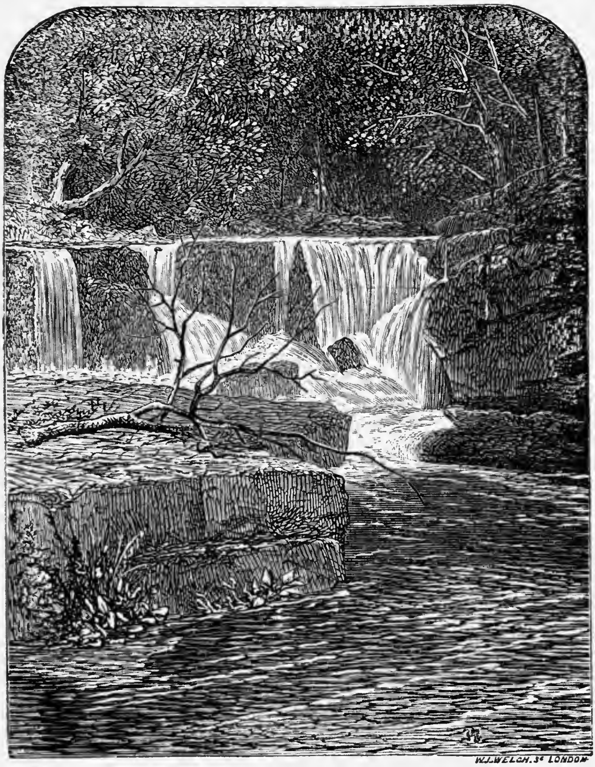
PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, OTTAWA.

PROVINCE OF ONTARIO.

THE most populous province of the Dominion is situated between latitude 41° 30′ and 50° 30′ north, and longitude 74° 25′ and 90° 30′ west. It formed a part of the province of Quebec up to 1791, thence to 1840 was known as Upper Canada, and then re-united with Quebec. The census of 1881 gave it an area of 101,733 square miles, and a population of 1,923,228, of whom 976,461 were males and 946,767 females. Of the face of the country 19,259,909 acres were occupied, 11,294,109 improved, 8,370,266 under crops, 2,619,038 in pasture, and 304,805 in orchards and gardens.


GREAT SOUTH FALLS, MUSKOKA RIVER, IN THE MUSKOKA REGION, KNOWN AS THE "HIGHLANDS OF ONTARIO."

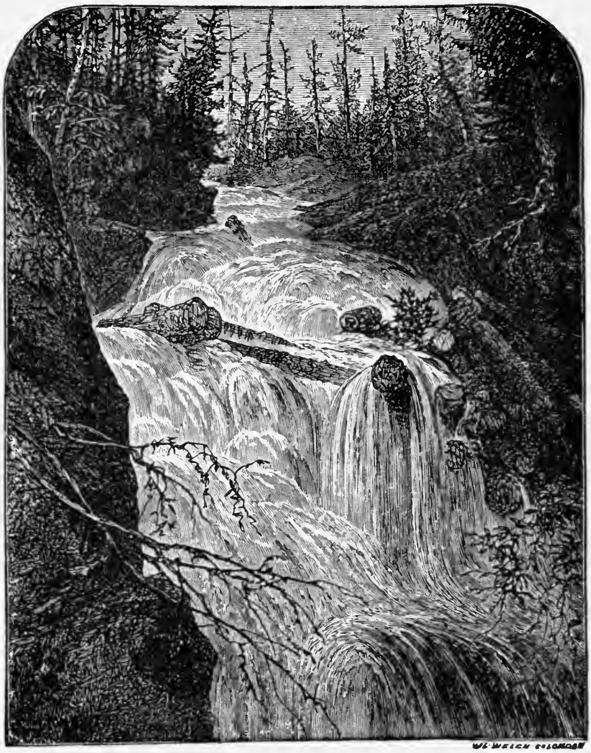
The surface of the country is generally undulating, with several ridges or hills over 2,000 feet high in the Lake Superior region. In the south and west are the St. Lawrence River and Lakes Ontario, Erie, St. Clair, Huron, and a part of Superior, with many connecting rivers, affording a vast extent of lake coast and an abundant ocean outlet. The principal rivers are the Ottawa, Madawaska, Thames, and Trent, all of which are navigable by large boats for a considerable distance. Its water-front of 3,000 miles is provided with numerous bays and harbors, notably those of the Georgian in the west, Pigeon on Lake Erie, and Burlington and Quinta on Lake Ontario. The mineral wealth is varied in character and considerable in quantity, though as yet comparatively undeveloped. Iron is found in large quantities, and lead, copper, antimony, arsenic, gypsum, marble, building-stones, gold, and salt are known to exist in numerous localities, while silver is abundant along the shores of Lake Superior. There are numerous large forests of valuable timber, particularly red and white pine. White fish, trout, and herring are plentiful; fur animals are still trapped by hunters, but strictly wild animals have almost entirely disappeared. But little manufacturing is carried on in the province.



SOUTH FALLS, MUSKOKA RIVER, IN THE MUSKOKA REGION, KNOWN AS "THE HIGHLANDS OF ONTARIO."

The chief industry of the population is agriculture, for which the soil and climate are well adapted. The official returns of 1881 embraced the following figures in this line: wheat, 27,406,091 bushels; barley, 14,279,841; oats, 40,209,929; rye, 1,598,871; peas and beans, 9,434,872; corn, 8,096,782; potatoes, 18,994,559; turnips, 33,856,721; hay, 2,038,659 tons; tobacco, 160,251 pounds; and hops, 615,967 pounds. Other farm products were: butter, 54,862,365 pounds; cheese, 1,701,721; wool, 6,013,216; maple sugar, 4,169,706; honey, 1,197,628; and flax and hemp, 1,073,197. The farm animals numbered 590,298 horses, 23,263 oxen, 1,678,904 milch cows and other cattle, 1,359,178 sheep, and 700,922 swine. The extent and value of the timber supply are shown by the following productions in the above census year: white pine, 12,262,570 cubic feet; red, 1,848,927; oak, 8,448,263; tamarack, 1,515,360; elm, 2,925,382; walnut, 741,431; all other timber, 27,190,629; number of pine logs, 14,945,670; other logs, 7,621,610. The share of the province in the fishery catch of the Dominion was represented by five steam vessels with fourteen men, and 1,129 boats with 2,101 men, and 928,008 fathoms of net, engaged in 681 fisheries. The product was 15,605 barrels of herring, 38,301 of white fish, 55,497 of trout, and 18,817 of other fish, and 1,629 gallons of fish oil. The orchard products were 11,400,517 bushels of apples, 3,697,555 pounds of grapes, and 644,707 bushels of other fruits.

The executive authority, like that of all the provinces, is vested in a Lieutenant-Governor; the legislative in an assembly composed of one member from each of the eighty two districts into which the province is subdivided, elected for four years; and the judicial in the courts of Queen's bench, common pleas, and appeal, each with a chief justice and three judges, beside whom there are one chancellor and two vice-chancellors. The principal cities are Ottawa, the capital of the Dominion; Toronto, the capital of the province; Hamilton, London, and Kingston. The province has an excellent system of free public schools, beside many Roman Catholic educational institutions. All children between the ages of seven and twelve years of age are required to attend some school during a specified portion of each year. The public schools are under the control of a minister of education, who is aided by a chief superintendent. The school population in 1881 was 405,857, for whom there were 410 high schools and 5,313 elementary schools. There were also seventeen colleges and universities and forty-four boarding schools. In the same year there were 5,075 churches, of which number the Methodists had 2,375, the Presbyterians 852, the Church of England 680, the Baptists 389, and the Roman Catholics 367. The chari-

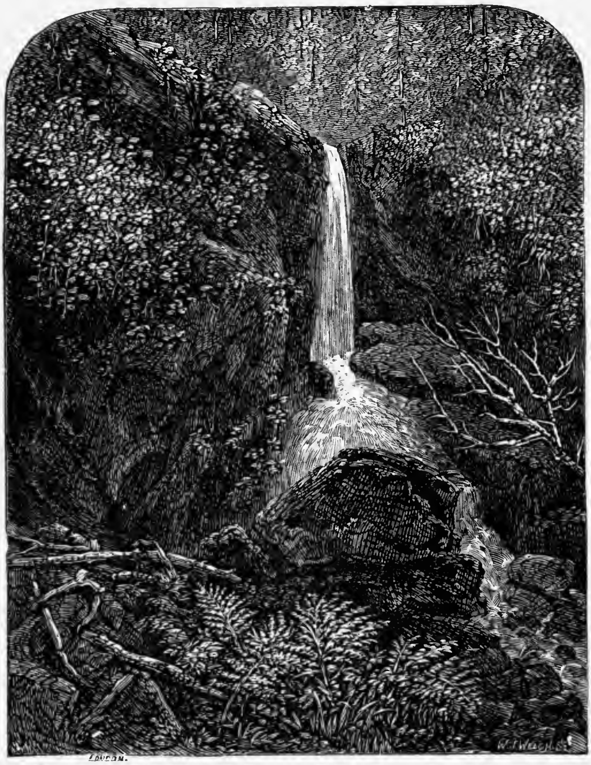


HIGH FALLS IN THE LAKE MUSKOKA REGION, KNOWN AS THE "HIGHLANDS OF ONTARIO."

table institutions included twenty-one hospitals and twenty-two orphanages. The province had 5,223 miles of railroad in operation.

CITY OF TORONTO.

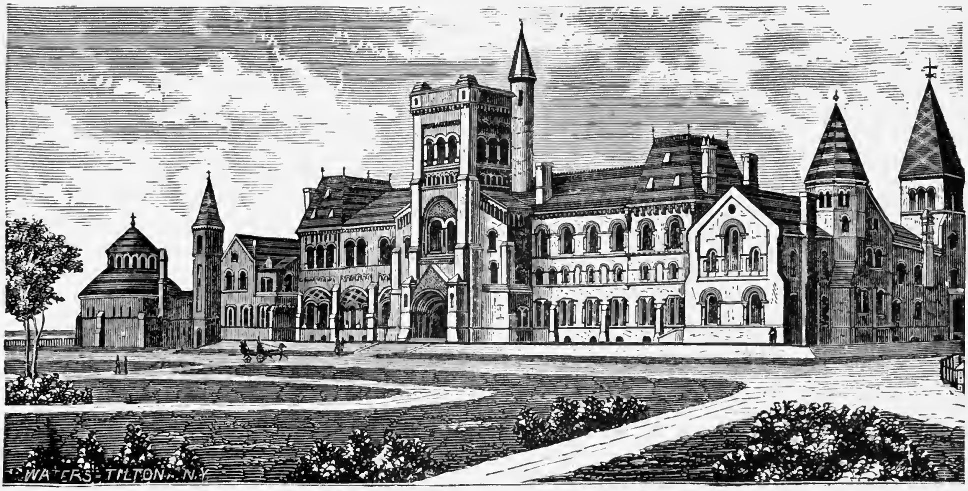
TORONTO, a port of entry and the capital city of the Province of Ontario, is situated on the north shore of Lake Ontario, 165 miles from Kingston, and 320 miles southwest of Montreal. It is connected with Canada and the United States by the Grand Trunk Railway and numerous other lines. Its industries are extensive, and consist of iron foundries, rolling-mills, car-shops, breweries, distilleries, machine-shops, carriage factories, soap-works, tanneries, boot and shoe factories, flour-mills, and cabinet-ware factories. It is over two miles in length from east to west, is bounded on the south by the Bay of Toronto, a spacious inlet of Lake Ontario, and is one and a half miles broad from south to north. The situation of the town is low and flat. The most elevated quarter—the Queen's Park in the west, containing the University, Observatory, and handsome private residences—is only from 100 to 200 feet above the level of the lake. The harbor or bay is a beautiful sheet of water, about five miles long and one mile in width. It is separated from the lake by a long, narrow strip of land, except at its entrance. It is capable of accommodating the largest vessels that



THE BRIDAL VEIL FALLS IN THE LAKE MUSKOKA REGION, KNOWN AS THE "HIGHLANDS OF ONTARIO."

navigate the lakes and is defended at the entrance by a fort, mounted with the most efficient modern ordnance.

Toronto has much the appearance of an English town, and is distinguished for the number and beauty of its churches, many of which are surmounted by handsome spires. The principal are St. James' Cathedral (Anglican), a noble edifice in early English, erected in 1852; St. Michael's Cathedral (Roman Catholic); Knox's Church and St. Andrew's (Presbyterian); the Metropolitan (Methodist); and the Unitarian Chapel. Toronto is the fountain-head of the Canada school system, and its educational institutions are numerous and well-appointed. The University, charmingly situated in the well-wooded Queen's Park, was inaugurated in 1843. Trinity College and the Upper Canada College have numerous students. Knox's College, recently built, is the Presbyterian theological hall. The University Park, with its beautiful monument to the volunteers who fell at Ridgeway, and the Horticultural Gardens, are frequented by all classes of the community. There are also the Normal and Model schools, in the first of which teachers exclusively are trained. Attached to the University is the Observatory. There are many benevolent institutions and handsome official buildings. It is the seat of the Supreme Courts of the Province, and contains the Legislative buildings, the Government house, the Custom-house, and the Post-office. There are two large theatres in Toronto. During open navigation magnifi-


WATERS–TILTON, N.Y.

TORONTO UNIVERSITY.

cent steamers ply in all directions on the lake. The exports are manufactured lumber, flour, wheat, and other grain.

The name Toronto is supposed to be of Indian origin. The town was founded in 1794 by Governor Simcoe. It was incorporated in 1834, was burned by the Americans in 1813, and suffered severely in the insurrection of 1837, on which occasion it was the headquarters of the rebellion, as also from fire in 1849. Population in 1870, 56,000; 1886, 80,000; 1889, 166,809.

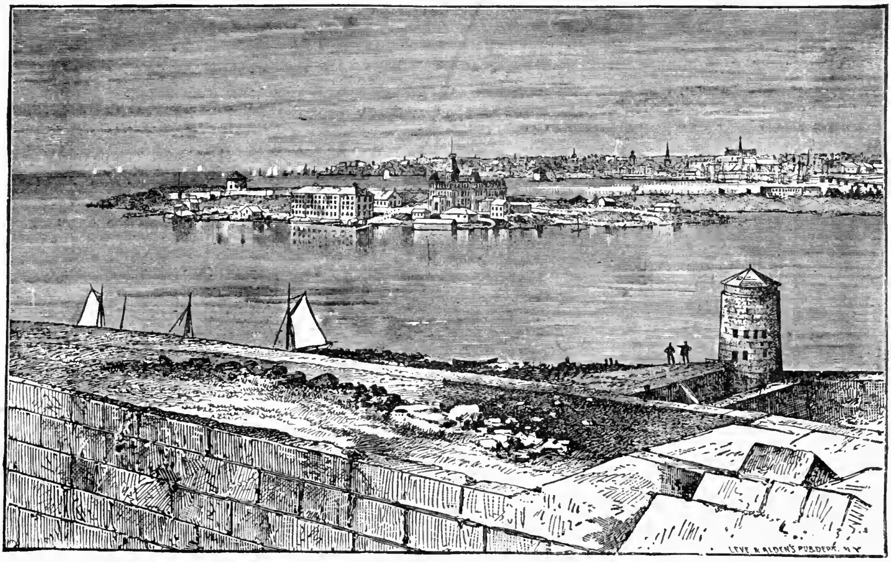
CITY OF HAMILTON.

HAMILTON is a city in the Province of Ontario. It is situated on Hamilton Bay, formerly Burlington Bay, at the west end of Lake Ontario, and is 38 miles from Toronto, 378 miles from Montreal, and 43 miles from Niagara Falls. It is an important railroad centre; the Hamilton & Port Dover, the Great Western, and the Hamilton & Toronto roads radiate from this point; while it has by the great lakes and rivers water communication from Chicago, Duluth, and Fort William at the West to the Atlantic. It is situated in the midst of the finest agricultural district. In 1840 the population was 3,000; six years later the population was nearly 7,000, and a city charter was obtained. This rapid increase was due to the railroads and the grain district in which it is situated. Its manufacturing establishments are extensive, and comprise steam-engine and locomotive works, large iron works, car works, foundries, and clothing, and sewing-machine factories. The last census of Canada, taken in 1881, showed that the capital invested was nearly one thirty-fourth of the whole capital invested in manufacturing industries throughout the Dominion.

The city has 33 churches, seven banks, and a large insurance company; a Young Men's Christian Association, and a fine public-school system, with 5,000 pupils and 100 teachers; the Collegiate Institute and Training College has 600 students, with 15 masters and teachers. There are also five separate Catholic schools in Hamilton, and a Methodist College for young women; numerous charitable institutions, the Hamilton Association for investigating natural history, botany, etc., and private institutions for commercial and business training. Population in 1889, 43,250.

CITY OF KINGSTON.

KINGSTON is a city in the Province of Ontario. It is situated on the northeast shore of Lake Ontario, where the waters of the Canadian lakes issue into the St. Lawrence, and is distant from Montreal 198 miles, from Toronto 165 miles, and from New York 274 miles. It was the site of a French fort from 1673 till 1758; began to be settled by the British about 1783; was laid out in 1793; and was incorporated as a town in 1838, and as a city in 1846. On the union of the two Canadas, in 1840, the seat of government was established at Kingston, but was removed again in 1845. The harbor of Kingston affords a most imposing and effective picture. In the midst of the scene a storm-washed martello tower rises from the water, and beyond it is a granite battlement, upon the mainland behind which rises the shapely form of the City Hall. The public buildings of Kingston are all excellent examples of architecture. Across the channel is Wolfe Island, which is connected with the city by a ferry. Upon a prominent hill to the right is the large defensive work known as Fort William Henry, and near it the Military college, which is the West Point of Canada. There is a decided military air to Kingston, due to this fact. The Thousand Islands


LEVE & ALDEN'S PUB.DEPT. N.Y.

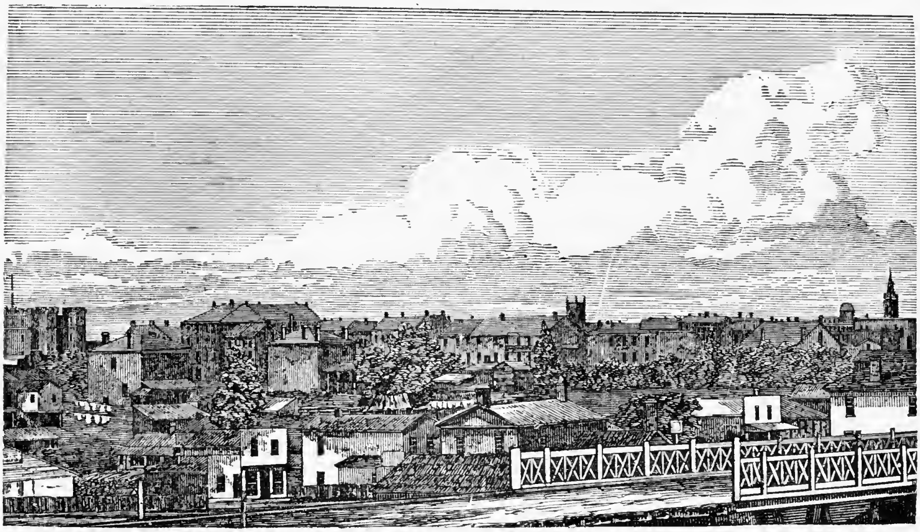
KINGSTON FROM FORT WILLIAM HENRY.

begin about Kingston, continue for some 50 miles down the river, and steamboats run daily from the city to the popular summer resorts among them.

The ship-building of Kingston is second in Canada only to that of Quebec. The Canadian Engine & Machinery company manufactures railway rolling-stock on the most approved principles. Besides it there are several large foundries for the manufacture of engines and locomotives, of agricultural implements, edge-tools, axles, and nails. There are also large tanneries and breweries. Beside its outlets by water, Kingston communicates with all parts of the country by the Grand Trunk Railway, which passes within two miles of the city, and connects by a branch with the wharves; and by the Kingston and Pembroke Railway, which connects with the Canada Pacific. The shops and offices of the Kingston and Pembroke Railway are in Kingston. Next to Quebec and Halifax, Kingston is the most important military position in British America. Queen's University and College at Kingston is one of the most popular and progressive of the great educational institutions of Canada. It was incorporated by royal charter in 1841, for the education of a Presbyterian ministry, and has since instituted the additional faculties of law and medicine. There are also a Catholic institution called Regiopolis College, the County grammar school, and the common schools, besides several private academies. The provincial penitentiary and the asylum for the insane, and local hospitals and homes for the poor are situated in the city. In 1862 Kingston became the seat of the new English bishopric of Ontario. Many beautiful homes adorn the suburban avenues. Population in 1871, 12,407; 1886, 20,000; 1889, 23,175.

CITY OF LONDON.

LONDON is the chief city of the county of Middlesex, Ontario. It is situated at the junction of the two branches of the Thames River, about 114 miles west-southwest from Toronto, with which it is connected by the Great Western Railway. The site of the city began to be cleared and laid out in 1825; in 1852 the population was 7,124. When the city was called London, the river, which had formerly been known by an Indian name, received that which it now bears; a Westminster and a Blackfriars bridge were thrown over it; and the names given to the principal streets and localities still seem to indicate a desire to make it a reproduction, as far as possible, of the capital of England. It has an outlet by railway to every part of the American continent. The centre of a rich agricultural district, London carries on a large trade in the produce of the country, while there are also many foundries, tanneries, breweries, printing-offices, and, outside the city, large petroleum refineries. Huron College, Hellmuth College, and Hellmuth Ladies' College are the principal educational institutions. Population in 1889, 35,000.



LONDON, ONTARIO.

PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

QUEBEC, the oldest province in the Dominion, is situated between latitude 45° and 53° 30′ north, and longitude 57° 8′ and 79° 30′ west, and was formerly known as Lower Canada. The census of 1881 gave it an area of 210,000 square miles and a population of 1,359,027. Of the total land area, 12,625,877 acres were occupied, 6,410,264 improved, 4,147,984 under crops, 2,207,422 in pasture, and 54,858 in orchards and gardens.

That part of the province lying north of the St. Lawrence is rocky and mountainous, while the southern part is mostly hilly. It has a gulf coast of 1,164 miles, which is indented with numerous small bays, and a number of islands lying in those waters belong to it. The country is dotted with many beautiful lakes, and watered mainly by the St. Maurice, Saguenay, Gatuinea, and the Richelieu rivers. Like Ontario, the province possesses considerable undeveloped mineral wealth, which embraces large veins of iron and copper and smaller ones of gold, silver, lead, platinum, and zinc. The climate, though subject to extreme variations of temperature, is generally healthy. It is much colder in winter and warmer in summer than in Ontario, the thermometer at Montreal frequently going as low as 30° below zero in winter and as high as 90° in the shade in summer. The soil in the valley of the St. Lawrence and the eastern part of the province is fertile, and there are large tracts of fine grazing country; but the greater part of the surface is covered with forests which supply vast quantities of timber for the lumber and shipbuilding industries. The chief woods are pine, ash, beech, birch, elm, and hickory. Some wild animals still frequent the forests in spite of the many lumber-camps, and the fur-bearing ones are sufficiently numerous to supply a trade worth nearly $200,000 annually. Manufacturing is chiefly confined to simple articles of domestic use.

Outside the large cities the population is mainly engaged in farming, dairying, fishing, lumbering, and maple-sugar boiling. In 1881 the agricultural products were: wheat, 2,019,004 bushels; oats, 19,990,205; barley, 1,751,539; peas and beans, 4,170,456; potatoes, 14,873,287; turnips, 1,572,476; buckwheat, 2,041,670; corn, 888,169; tobacco, 2,356,581 pounds; hops, 208,542; and hay, 1,612,104 tons. The dairy products included 30,630,397 pounds of butter and 559,278 of cheese; there were 273,852 horses on the farms, 49,237 oxen, 900,096 milch cows and other cattle, 889,833 sheep, and 329,199 swine; and the farmers raised 2,730,544 pounds of wool and 865,340 of flax and hemp. The fisheries of the province, more extensive than those of Ontario, employed 14,744 men, 146 vessels, and 6,761 boats, and yielded a product of 462,388 quintals of cod, 130,354 barrels of herring, 10,725 of mackerel, 4,360 of sardines, 517,734 pounds of canned lobster, 101,861 barrels of other fish, and 263,374 barrels of fish oil. The lumbering industry gave returns of 5,495,183 cubic feet of pine, 59,587 of oak, 2,707,745 of tamarack, 2,784,395 of birch and maple, and 14,612,669 of other timber. From the total 13,582,407 logs and 104,248 masts and spars were cut. Other products of note were 15,687,835 pounds of maple-sugar, 559,024 of honey, 777,557 bushels of apples, and 158,031 pounds of grapes.

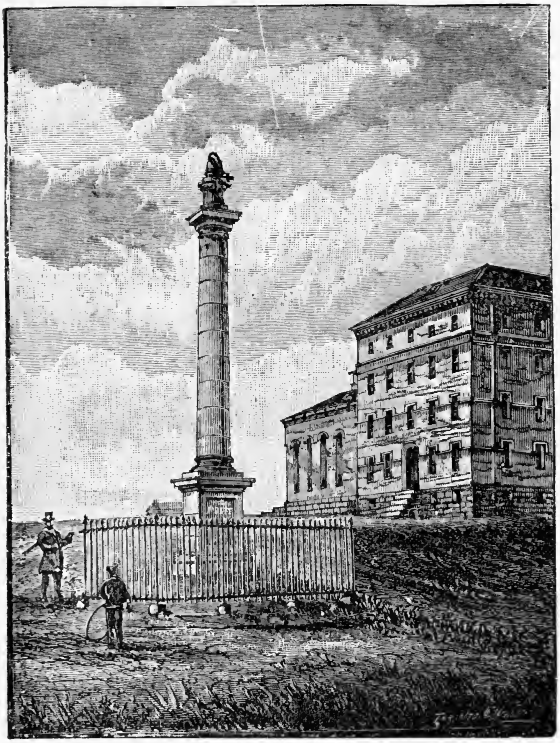
The executive authority is vested in a Lieutenant-Governor, who is aided by an executive council and a premier and commissioner of public works, a solicitor-general, a commissioner of crown lands, and a provincial secretary; the legislative in a council consisting of twenty-four members appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor for life, and an assembly composed of one representative from each of the sixty-five electoral districts chosen for four years; and the judicial in a court of queen's bench and a superior court, each having a chief justice and the former four puisne judges. The province has twenty-four representatives in the Senate branch of the Dominion parliament. The principal cities are Quebec, the capital of the province and the great seaport of the Dominion, and Montreal, the commercial metropolis of both province and Dominion, situated at the junction of the Ottawa and St. Lawrence rivers. The province has a well-regulated and effective school system, under control of a superintendent of education. The school population in 1881 was 209,623; number of elementary public schools, 4,404, with 170,858 pupils; colleges, forty-four; academies, 246; special schools, eighteen; normal, three; and model, 333. The prevailing form of religion was the Roman Catholic, which had 712 churches and 1,170,718 adherents. The Presbyterians were second in number, 184,706. The total number of churches was 1,280. The Church of England had a bishop at Montreal, ranking as Metropolitan of Canada, and another at Quebec; the Roman Catholic Church had an archbishop at Quebec, and bishops at Montreal, Ottawa, Three Rivers, St. Hyacinthe, and Rimouski; the Presbyterian Church of Canada is a branch of the Kirk of Scotland, and the Canadian Presbyterian Church is an independent body. The charitable institutions included twenty-nine hospitals and eleven orphanages. The province had 1,911 miles of railroad in operation.

CITY OF QUEBEC.

QUEBEC is a fine commercial city in the Province of Quebec, and is considered the most important military position in British North America. It is situated at the junction of the St. Lawrence and St. Charles rivers, on a steep ridge or promontory formed by the rivers. It is 180 miles northeast of Montreal, 500 miles northeast of Toronto, 578 miles north-northeast from New York, 360 miles from the sea, and 2,070 miles from Liverpool. The Grand Trunk Railway, the Canadian Pacific Railway, and the Quebec Central Railway, connect it with the systems of railroads in Canada and the United States.

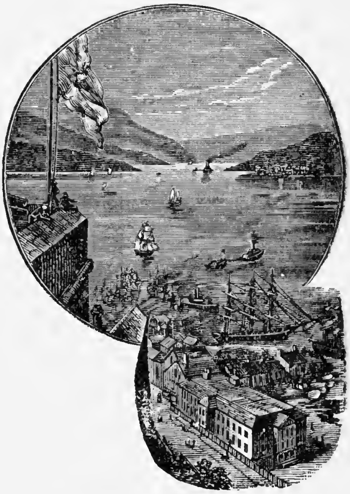
In 1534, under the patronage and direction of Francis I. of France, the navigator, Jacques Cartier, started from St. Malo with three ships upon an exploring voyage, entered the river St. Lawrence upon the festival day of the saint of that name, and upon the 14th of September reached the bold promontory where the citadel stands, under the shadow of which he found the Indian village of Stadacona, a name popular with the people to this day.

Nearly a century later, in the year 1608, Samuel de Champlain appeared upon the scene, and Quebec had its real beginning. Champlain also found and named the Richelieu River, after Cardinal Richelieu, the founder of the trading company of "One Hundred Associates," under whose direction he operated. He also found the Ottawa and the American lake that still bears his name. He introduced the order of the Récollet Friars into Canada, and these were followed quickly by the more powerful and enterprising Jesuits, who toiled with heroic ardor among the Indians and settlers, uniting the clerical office with that of the explorer.



WOLFE'S MONUMENT, QUEBEC.

In 1663 the population of Quebec was but 800 souls, and about this time Louis XIV., the reigning monarch, assumed control of the colony of New France, and the trading company lost its prestige. It continued to be the centre of French trade and Roman Catholic missions in North America till 1759, when it fell into the hands of the British by the memorable victory of Wolfe on the Heights of Abraham above the city,—Wolfe, the English commander, whose character, portrayed so vividly in "The Virginians," has charmed the readers of a generation. He came to extend the dominion of the British crown. Wolfe and his veteran Highlanders and Grenadiers scaled the precipitous heights, and fought upon the Plains of Abraham against the soldiers of Montcalm, and the tourist of to-day sees behind the superb Dufferin Terrace a unique monument, probably the only such shaft in the world, in joint memory of the two opposing generals who fell upon that day. Fifteen years later, Arnold, the destined traitor of the Revolutionary cause, coming down the valley of Chaudiere, and Montgomery by Lake Champlain, joined in the siege of the city. Montgomery was killed at the first assault, and Arnold's subsequent efforts were abortive. Quebec remained the chief city of Canada till the British settlements in the west were erected into a separate province, when it became the capital of Canada East, now forming the Province of Quebec.

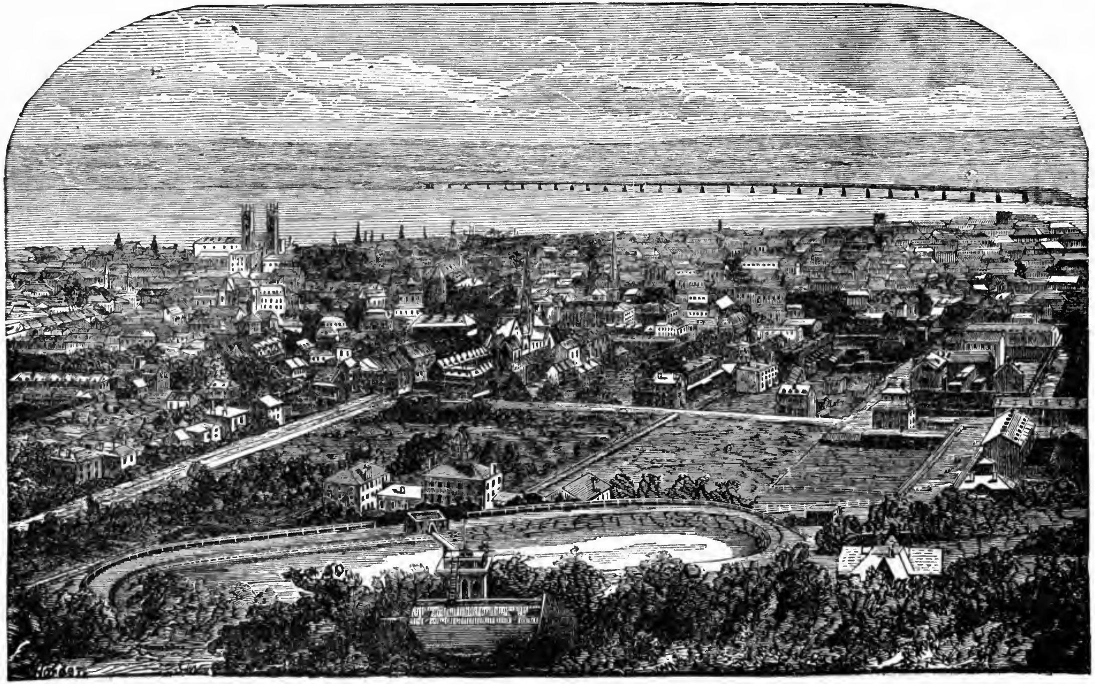

VIEW FROM THE CITADEL, QUEBEC.

Quebec is the Gibraltar of America, and its picturesque old-world battlements, its impracticable streets, its landmarks of history still abundant, and its un-Anglo-Saxon ways attract the attention of the tourist. The walled portion of Quebec is triangular in shape and three miles in extent. The wall is pierced by five gateways; three of these communicate with the lower town. St. Louis Gate, a beautiful Norman structure, leads to the battle-field, while St. John's Gate is the outlet to Beauport and St. Rochs. The gate by which strangers enter the upper town from trains and boats was removed some years ago to facilitate travel. The leading attractions within the walls are the Ursuline Convent, the Seminary, the great Laval University, the English and French cathedrals, and above all, the outlook from the Dufferin Terrace.

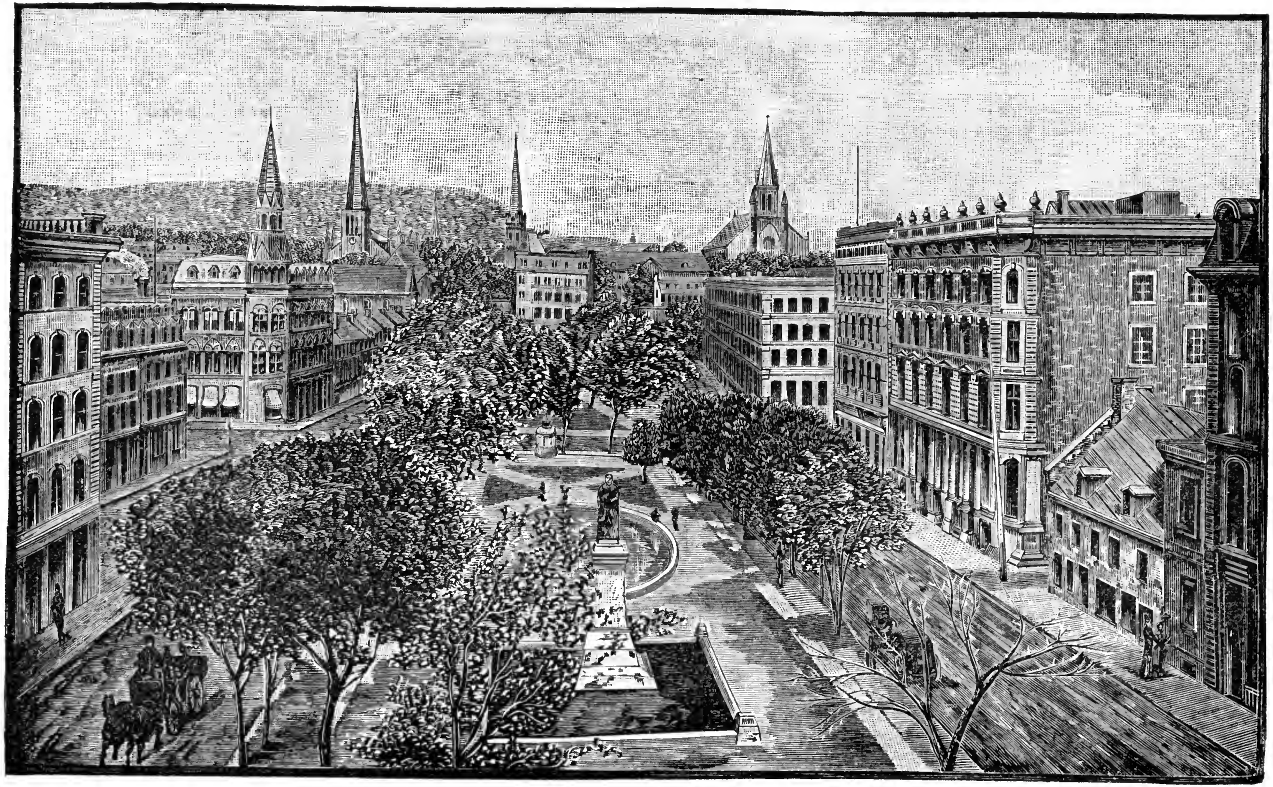
The highest point of the city is Cape Diamond, on which is built the citadel, about 350 feet above the water. From this point it extends or slopes down to the river St. Charles. The upper and lower towns are so named on account of the difference in elevation. Quebec is only second to Montreal in Canada in the importance of its commerce. About 600 vessels enter the port annually from the Atlantic Ocean, and as many pass in front of the city to go to Montreal. It is one of the great lumber and timber markets of North America. The imports amount to $8,000,000, and exports $13,000,000, annually. Ship-building is conducted on an extensive scale. The chief industries are the boot and shoe and the leather manufactures. It has lines of steamers connecting with Liverpool, Glasgow, and London, and numerous lines with the gulf, coast, and river towns. The view from the citadel of Quebec is one of the most magnificent in the world, and the scenery in its neighborhood, amidst which are the Falls of Montmorenci, adds greatly to the attractions of the city. It contains a seminary for the education of Catholic clergy, established in 1636. Quebec is the seat of a Catholic archbishop, who is (1889) Cardinal Taschereau, and an Episcopal bishop. The Church of Scotland and other denominations are also represented. Population in 1871, 59,699; 1886, 75,000; 1889, 78,500.

CITY OF MONTREAL.

MONTREAL is the great commercial metropolis of Canada, and the largest city of British North America. It is in the Province of Quebec, situated on the Island of Montreal. This island is formed by the Ottawa and St. Lawrence rivers, and is separated from the mainland by the Back River, or, as the French prefer to call it, the Riviere des Prairies; it is 180 miles southwest of Quebec and 200 miles northeast of Lake Ontario, 406 miles north of New York, and 310 miles northeast of Toronto, 3,200 from Liverpool, and 600 miles from the mouth of the St. Lawrence. Situated at the head of the ocean navigation of the St. Lawrence, Montreal has naturally become the depot for the exports and imports of all the Canadas. Its harbor admits vessels of 3,500 tons, and is 3 miles in extent. It is lined with wharves for a mile and a quarter, and is, from its inland position (90 miles above the influence of the tides), perfectly safe. At the same time, the obstruction to vessels sailing further up the river, caused by the rapids, has been surmounted by magnificent canals. It is in immediate connection with the vast lumber country adjoining the former river and its tributaries. While navigation is open, an extensive daily traffic is carried on by steamers and sailing



MONTREAL. FROM THE MOUNTAIN.



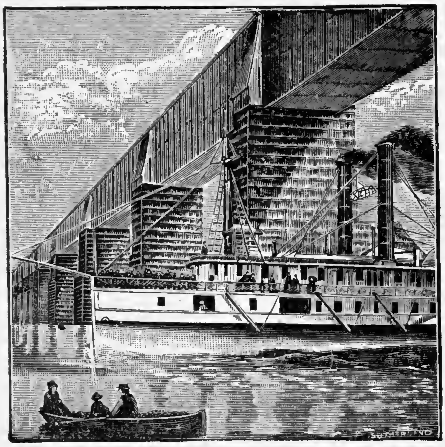
VICTORIA SQUARE, MONTREAL.

vessels of every dscription with Lake Ontario and the Ottawa district, as well as with the lower St. Lawrence; and the ships of several ocean steamship companies keep up a weekly communication with Liverpool, while at the same time the harbor is constantly crowded with vessels from other foreign ports.

After the navigation of the St. Lawrence is closed (December to April), the ocean steamers find a harbor at Portland, Maine, which is connected with Montreal by a railway of 292 miles. This line belongs to the Grand Trunk Railway Company, and crosses the St. Lawrence at Montreal by the celebrated tubular Victoria Bridge, the length of which, including its two abutments and 24 piers, is above a mile and three-quarters. By the lines of the same company, Montreal has railway communication with Upper Canada, the Western States, and Lower Canada, while the Intercolonial Railway opens up communication with Halifax and St. John. Several other lines, including the Canadian Pacific, afford communication with various parts of Canada and the United States. The position, therefore, of Montreal as a centre of commerce is perhaps unequalled, and its rapid advance in consequence has placed it, within the last few years, among the first commercial cities of the American continent.

The most conspicuous building in Montreal, which is also one of the finest churches on the continent of America, is the Roman Catholic Cathedral. Built in the Gothic style of the thirteenth century, it comprises seven chapels and nine aisles. Its bells are famous, one of them being ranked among the five largest in the world. It accommodates 10,000 people. It has numerous turrets and two imposing towers on the main front which are 250 feet in height; and its chief window is 64 feet high and 32 broad. There are several other Roman Catholic churches belonging to the order of St. Sulpice, to whose members chiefly Montreal owes its foundation, and who still hold the seigniory of portions of the island on which the city is built. Adjoining the cathedral is the Seminary of St. Sulpice, to which a large addition has been built recently at a cost of $40,000. The city contains also some of the largest convents in the world. The general wealth, indeed, of the Roman Catholic Church in Montreal has grown enormous, in consequence of the increased value of the propetry given to it during the early settlements. The church of England has a Cathedral erected at an expense of above $100,000, which is very chaste in style. St. Andrew's Church, the most important belonging to the Church of Scotland, is also a very chaste specimen of Gothic architecture, and cost about $50,000. At about the same cost the Methodists have built a handsome church in the florid Gothic style. Besides the Roman Catholic College on Sherbrooke Street, St. Mary's College of the Jesuits, and a Baptist College, Montreal possesses an important university under the name of McGill College: founded by a bequest of the Hon. James McGill in 1811, erected into a university by royal charter in 1821, and reorganized by an amended charter in 1852. It ranks as one of the leading educational institutions of the Dominion. Its fine buildings and extensive grounds are located in the upper portion of the city.

Montreal is supplied with water by magnificent works, which cost about $6,000,000. The water is brought from the St. Lawrence, above the Lachine Rapids, by an aqueduct five miles long. The eastern suburb of Montreal, now incorporated as one of the wards of the city, called Hochelaga, was originally the site of an Indian village of the same name, discovered in September, 1535, by Jacques Cartier; and it is from his admiring exclamation at the view obtained from the neighboring hill that Montreal (corrupted from Mont Royal) derives its name. The most westerly permanent settlement which the French obtained in Canada, it was, under them, merely an outpost of Quebec, and continued to be such, under British rule, till 1832, when it became a separate port. Since then, the rapidity of its progress has been marvellous. The annual imports are about $100,000,000, and the exports $90,000,000; the latter consist of flour, lumber, grain, furs, fish, oil, etc. The principal manufacturing industries consist of flour, type foundries, woolen and cotton goods, steam-engines, various kinds of iron-ware, tools, cordage, rubber goods, paper, furniture, etc. The stranger who wanders along the business streets, if observant, will note the air of solidity imparted to the structures. They are largely built of stone, and look as though they might endure for ages.



VICTORIA BRIDGE, CROSSING THE ST. LAWRENCE RIVER AT MONTREAL.

Montreal has its French quarter, as well defined as that of New Orleans, and its English quarter. The active centre of the French population surges around Bonsecours Market, a huge and stately building fronting upon the river, and up through Jacques Cartier square. Upon Notre Dame street, at Jacques Cartier square, stands the Nelson monument. The splendid mansions on Sherbrooke street are chiefly occupied by English and Scotch merchants. Along the side of the "Mountain" there are magnificent mansions which command a grand view of the surrounding country.

The "Bonaventure" is a "union" depot, and from thence arrive and depart Grand Trunk trains, the Central Vermont, Southeastern, and other lines. The North Shore line has its depot (Quebec route) at the other end of the city, fronting on Notre Dame street. Montreal is a festive city; is very proud of its battalions of volunteers, and takes keen delight in the achievements of its lacrosse and snow-shoe clubs. The mid-winter carnival is now a fixed institution; and it is really a fact, that to see the city under its most favorable conditions, one must visit it in January or February.

The great Allan line of steamships gives dignity to the water-front views, and the vessels of half a dozen lesser lines are clustered along the wharves. In 1840 the population of Montreal was 27,000; in 1850, 53,000; in 1860, 88,000; 1870, 105,000; 1880, 125,000; 1886, 160,000; 1889, 189,215.

PROVINCE OF NOVA SCOTIA.

NOVA SCOTIA, the former colony of New Scotland, and more remotely known as Acadia, or New France, combined with Cape Breton Island, is situated between latitude 43° 26′ and 47° 5′ north, and longitude 59° 40′ and 66° 25′ west. It was ceded by the French to England in 1714 at the peace of Utrecht, and after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748 a settlement of disbanded troops was formed there by Lord Halifax, whose name was subsequently given to the capital of the province. The original colony had an area of 15,677 square miles, but the incorporation of Cape Breton Island with it gave it a total of 20,907.

It is connected with the province of New Brunswick by an isthmus thirteen miles wide, has a coast line of 1,200 miles, and varies in width from fifty to 120 miles. In the interior the surface is undulating and the soil generally fertile; on the coast it is very rugged. About 3,000 square miles of the surface are under water. In every part the lakes and rivers are numerous, leaving few places far from convenient water-carriage, or without eligible sites for flour and saw mills. The shore is lined with numberless inlets, within which small craft sail in smooth water while there is the heaviest sea outside. The chief inlets are Sheet Harbor, eastward from Halifax, and, westward from it, Margaret's Bay, Mahone Bay, and Shelburne Harbor, all of them deep and spacious basins. Halifax Harbor is one of the finest roadsteads in the world, and is the principal British naval station of North America.

The geological formations are granite, gneiss, mica-slate, and metamorphic rock. The trap regions contain gems and neolites; the sandstone, beds of gypsum and rock salt; the coal-measures valuable fields of coal, particularly in the Cumberland and Pictou fields; iron ore occurs in large quantities in connection with coal; specular iron ore is found south of the Cobequid Hills; copper-ore exists in several places, particularly at Cape d'Or; lead ore is frequent in the limestone at Guy's River; excellent mill and grindstones are found near Cape Canso and elsewhere; the finest freestone for building purposes abounds along the northern shore; valuable slate is taken from the central region; and salt-springs of great strength are numerous between the Basin of Mines and Northumberland Strait. The climate is healthy, bracing, and considerably modified by the nearly insular position of the province. The winter season varies in length and severity, but the influence of the Gulf Stream renders the harbors on the Atlantic coast accessible all the year round, while the parts on the northern coast may be frozen up a period of four months. At no time is the cold oppressive, nor is the heat of summer, except for occasional brief periods, excessive.

The census of 1881 gave the entire province a population of 440,572, composed chiefly of English, Scotch, and Irish. The main occupations are farming and fishing. A considerable trade is done in ship-building and distilling. The manufactures include cloths, flannels, bed linen, blankets, carpets, paper, tobacco, leather, agricultural implements, stoves, rope, and chain cables. The exports, which in 1881 amounted to $9,217,295, embraced timber of all sorts, plank, deal, spars, staves, cord-wood, fish, dry and pickled, smoked herring, seal-skins, oil, coal, gypsum, grindstones, butter, potatoes, and other vegetables; and the imports, valued at $8,701,589, British manufactures, wines, spirits, beef, pork, sugar, and tobacco. The yield of coal in that year was 1,365,800 tons; grain products, 5,570,444 bushels; potatoes, 6,961,016 bushels; hay, 414,046 tons; and timber of all kinds and forms, 3,144,323 cubic feet. The fisheries employed 755 vessels and 13,214 boats; many of them of domestic build, and 26,900 men, and yielded 715,781 quintals of cod, haddock, and hake, 301,756 barrels of other fish, 3,841,467 pounds of lobster, and 275,352 gallons of fish oil.

The executive authority is vested in a Lieutenant-Governor and an executive council, aided by an attorney-general, a premier and provincial secretary, and a commissioner of public works and mines; the legislative in a legislative council appointed for life and an assembly of forty-three members; and the judicial in a court of queen's bench, court of equity, and district courts. Halifax is the capital of the province, and Sydney of Cape Breton Island. A system of public school education was established in 1826, and improved every few years up to 1864, when a plan was adopted that has since undergone but slight changes. For several years the annual expenditure for educational purposes has averaged $700,000. Grammar, high, and normal schools are maintained in each district, and there are a number of high grade and collegiate institutions, such as King's College at Windsor, on the plan of Cambridge and Oxford, Dalhousie College at Halifax, on the model of Edinburgh University, Acadia College, Roman Catholic, at Halifax, and the Baptist College at Harton. The dominant form of religion is that of the Church of England, whose bishop and archdeacon are supported by the home government, and the clergy by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. The Presbyterians rank second, and represent the Established Church of Scotland, the Free Church of Scotland, and the United Presbyterian Church of Scotland. The Roman Catholics, Methodists, Baptists, and minor sects follow.

CITY OF HALIFAX.

HALIFAX, a seaport, and the capital of the Province of Nova Scotia, stands on the southeast or outer coast of the peninsula. The harbor is one of the finest in the world. It is entered from the south, extends northwards about 16 miles, terminates in a magnificent sheet of water called Bedford Basin, is spacious enough for the entire navy of England, and offers all the year round easy access and safe anchorage to vessels of any magnitude. Lines of steamers ply between Halifax and London, Liverpool, the continent of Europe, New York, Boston, and the West Indies. It is the great centre of trade for the maritime provinces of Canada.

Halifax with its suburbs extends along the slope of a hill, and is over three miles in length, and averages about a mile in width. There are many beautiful residences on the northwest arm which runs from the harbor three miles inland. The dock-yard, covering fourteen acres, is one of the most extensive of the British Empire. A number of British war-ships are generally moored off this dock-yard. The city is now the stronghold of the Imperial army and navy in North America. All the entrances to the harbor bristle with batteries armed with the heaviest ordnance, and garrisoned with British troops.

The principal edifices are the Custom-house and Post-office, the Province Building, Dalhousie College, Government House, Military and Provincial Hospitals, Admiralty House, Lunatic Asylums, schools for blind and deaf and dumb, and several fine common schools, penitentiary, Court-house, Academy of Music, a new City Hall, etc. There are 25 churches, a Roman Catholic cathedral, and residences for an Episcopal Bishop and a Roman Catholic Archbishop. It has three sugar refineries, a cotton factory, several boot and shoe factories, and a number of minor industries. There are seven banks and a government savings bank. Halifax has railway communication with the whole continent. It is the winter port of the Intercolonial and Canada Pacific Railways. It enjoys unrivalled shipping facilities and has a grain elevator. The parks and public gardens are famed for their beauties. Population, 1889, 46,780.

PROVINCE OF NEW BRUNSWICK.

NEW BRUNSWICK formed a part of Nova Scotia when known as Acadia, was first colonized in 1692, ceded to England in 1713, settled by Scotch immigrants in 1764, and separated from Nova Scotia and given its present name in 1785. It is situated between latitude 44° 35′ and 48° 5′north and longitude 63°47′ and 69° 5′ west, and bounded on the north by the province of Quebec, on the east by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, on the south by the Bay of Fundy, and on the west by the State of Maine. The census of 1881 gave it an area of 27,174 square miles, and a population of 321,233.

The province is divided naturally into three regions. The northern is very hilly and even mountainous, with a table-land 2,000 feet above sea level, and numerous lakes. The central is divided from the northern by a line running from Presque Isle, on the St. John River on the west, to the mouth of the

Little Nipisighet River in the Bay of Chaleurs. The shores of this region are low; nearly all the rivers have sand bars at their mouths; there are but few good harbors; timber-covered hills are numerous; and the eastern portion is quite level and the most fertile part of the province. The southern region comprehends the country along the Bay of Fundy, and from forty to fifty miles inland. In the western section is the greater part of Passamaquoddy Bay, an extensive sheet of water, branching out into several inlets, and forming harbors for vessels of considerable size.

The bay is well known to tourists and sportsmen of the United States. It contains several islands, the largest of which are Campobello, ten miles long and two wide, and Deer, nearly seven miles long and three wide in its broadest part; while just below its entrance into the Bay of Fundy lies the noted Grand Manan, fourteen miles long and six or seven wide. East of St. John River the surface is rocky and sterile, but the region has several fine valleys, in which the rivers flow, mostly to the St. John, and in which there are several lakes of considerable extent. The principal rivers are the St. Croix, which separates the province from the State of Maine; the St. John, which has a flow of 400 miles; the Miramichi, 100 miles long and navigable for forty; the Nipisighet, nearly 100 miles long, with many falls and rapids; and the Ristigouche, which forms the northern boundary of the province.

The natural resources of the province are red marl, gypsum, copper, plumbago, manganese, anthracite and bituminous coal, salt, sulphur, and amethyst, carnelian, and jasper. The climate is remarkably healthy, and the heat greater and cold more intense than under the same latitudes in Europe. Nearly the whole surface of the province is covered with forests, in which pine, fir, spruce, hemlock, birch, beech, maple, ash, and poplar abound. The chief agricultural products are wheat, rye, oats, barley, beans, peas, and buckwheat. Flax, potatoes, turnips, red and white clover, and some small fruits, like apples, plums, and cherries are likewise cultilvated. Numerous wild animals roam the forests, tempting the skill of the hunter and trapper, and the rivers, lakes, and bays abound with salmon, trout, eels, perch, cod, mackeral, and herring. In 1881 there were 849,678 acres in crops, and 392,169 in pasture. The grain products amounted to 5,490,896 bushels, potatoes, 6,961,016 bushels, hay, 414,046 tons, wool, 760,531 pounds; and the farms contained 52,975 horses, 8.812 oxen, 203,748 milch cows and other cattle, 221,163 sheep, and 53,087 swine.

The government of this province is vested similarly to that of the other provinces. No legal preference is shown to any form of religion, but the bishop of the Church of England takes precedence after the Lieutenant-Governor and the commander of the British forces on ceremonial occasions. A system of free public schools was established in 1871, and all the large religious denominations have high grade schools or colleges of a sectarian character. The principal cities and towns are: Frederickton, the capital, St John, the largest and most important city, St. Andrews, Woodstock, Newcastle, Bathhurst, and Dalhousie. In 1881 the province was well equipped with telegraphic and railroad facilities, and had 1,148 miles of the latter in operation.

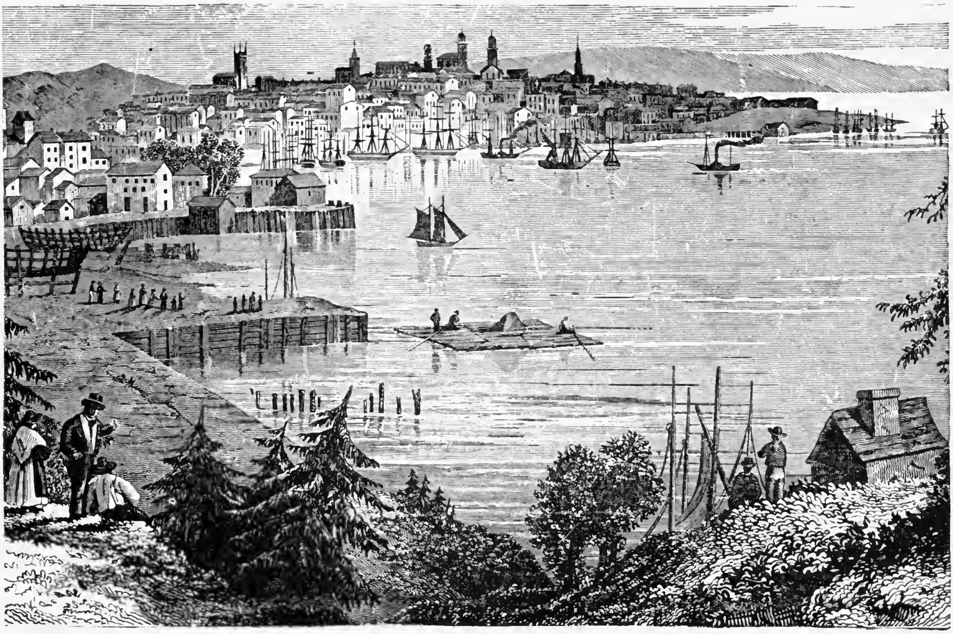
CITY OF FREDERICTON.

FREDERICTON, the capital city of the Province of New Brunswick, is situated on the right bank of St. John River, between eighty-four and eighty-five miles from its mouth and in latitude 45° 55′ north, and longitude 66° 32′ west. It was originally built on a flat, bounded on two sides by the stream, but has since been considerably improved. The streets are laid out with much regularity, and though the greater portion of the buildings are of wood, of tasteful style and ornamentation, there are numerous structures of more substantial material. The public buildings of note are the government house, of stone, the provincial house, of wood, city hall, military barracks, court-house, exhibition building, custom-house, and jail. The educational institutions embrace King's College, a Baptist college, a collegiate school, a number of admirable model and training schools, and several libraries. Among the ecclesiastical buildings are Christ Church Cathedral, belonging to the Anglican or Church of England, and eight other churches.

The city is supplied with gas and good water, enjoys a considerable amount of trade from being a port of entry; but has not had such a rapid growth as St. John, or St. Andrew, the former being the principal business town of the province. Fredericton was founded by Sir Guy Carleton in 1786, shortly after New Brunswick became a province, and was first known as St. Anns. It was designated a port of entry in 1848, and incorporated as a town in the following year. Its population has been almost stationary, notwithstanding the fact that vessels of fifty tons burden can ascend the St. John River to it. The census of 1871 gave it 6,006 inhabitants, and that of 1881, 6,218.

CITY OF ST. JOHN.

ST. JOHN, the capital of St. John County, is the commercial metropolis and largest city of the Province of New Brunswick. It is situated at the mouth of the river of its own name, 190 miles northwest of Halifax. The harbor, which is protected by batteries, is good, and accessible to the largest vessels at all seasons of the year. The entrance of the river into the harbor is through a rocky gorge, about a mile above the city, spanned by a fine suspension bridge, 640 feet long and 90 feet above the water; also by a cantilever railway bridge completed since 1885, by which a direct line of travel is established, as formerly all passengers and baggage had to be transferred from the Intercolonial Railway to the New Brunswick Railroad by ferry. The streets are wide, and meet at right angles. Some of them are cut 30 or 40 feet deep through solid rock, the city being built on a rocky peninsula, slanting down to the water. Since the great fire of June, 1877, which destroyed the greater part of the town and caused a loss of about



ST. JOHN, NEW BRUNSWICK.

$12,000,000, the buildings have been constructed chiefly of brick or stone. The principal public buildings are the Court-house, the Insane Asylum, Post-office, City Hospital, City Hall, Opera-house, Academy of Music, Roman Catholic Cathedral, the barracks, the mechanics' institute, and the penitentiary. The city has a fire department, a police force, a system of water-works, gas, horse-cars, a fire-alarm telegraph, about 40 churches, several schools, banks, academies, orphan asylums, newspapers, good hotels, a natural history society, a historical society, etc.

The city is governed by a mayor, and eighteen aldermen. It is connected with the New England states by the New Brunswick Railroad, and with Nova Scotia by the Intercolonial Railroad. The principal industries are shipbuilding, fisheries, and the lumber trade. The manufacture of machinery, boots and shoes, cotton and woolen goods, leather, carriages, edge-tools, paper, iron castings, steam-engines, etc., is carried on to a considerable extent. The exports, which average annually $4,000,000, are principally lumber shipped to Europe, the West Indies, and the United States. The imports are about $8,000,000 annually. Population, 1889, 28,000; including Portland at mouth of St. John's River, 45,000.

PROVINCE OF MANITOBA.

MANITOBA was formerly known as Prince Rupert's Land, and later as the Red River Settlement, because the first considerable settlement was made in the region of what is called in the United States the Red River of the North. It is situated between latitude 49° and 50° 30′ north and longitude 96° and 99° west, and is bounded on the north, east, and west by the Northwest Territories, and south by the State of Minnesota and the Territory of Dakota. It was formerly a part of the enormous possessions of the Hudson Bay Company, who sold it to the Dominion government in 1869.

When its first Lieutenant-Governor undertook to exercise his authority the colonists deposed him and made a declaration of independence. This act led to the invasion of the new province by an expedition composed of regular British troops and Canadian militia in the summer of 1870; but a compromise was arranged with the disaffected colonists, and they were given full representation in the parliament. In 1881 it had an area of 123,200 square miles, and a population of 65,954, which was increased to 125,000 in 1883. The surface is almost entirely a level prairie, bisected by the Red River, which empties into Lake Winnipeg, and with the richest wheat soil in the world. The valley of the river which has made Dakota and Minnesota famous the world over for their great wheat farms, carries its remarkable fertility into the province and well up toward its mouth.

The province is without mineral resources, and wood of any considerable growth is exceedingly scarce; it is purely and wholly an agricultural and grazing section, and as such the richest in the entire dominion. Its settlement has been accelerated by the wonderful narratives of the farming wealth and possibilities on this side the border. Of the entire domain, 2,384,337 acres were occupied in 1881, 230,264 were in crops, and 250,416 were improved; 16,739 horses were employed on the farms, 12,269 oxen, and 48,012 milch cows and other cattle; and the products were: wheat, 1,033,673 bushels; oats, 1,270,268; barley, 253,604; butter, 957,152 pounds, and cheese, 19,613. Wild game, fowl, and fish abound: wild fruits are plentiful; elk, badgers, and squirrels are the only wild animals of note. The climate is healthy, but subject to extreme changes, the severity of which is considerably modified by the pure, dry atmosphere.

The government is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, aided by an executive council of five members, and a legislative assembly of twenty-four. There were 88 churches in 1881, and the population was divided denominationally as follows: Presbyterians, 14,292; adherents of the Church of England, whose head, the Lord Bishop of Rupert's Land, had his seat at Winnipeg, 12,297; Roman Catholics, who had an archbishop at St. Boniface, 12,246; Methodists, 9,470; Baptists, 9,449; the remainder were of minor sects or of no acknowledged creed. There were four colleges and five boarding schools; and the newly established system of public education had several elementary institutions in operation. A great hinderance to the development of the province for several years was the lack of adequate means of communication; but this drawback was materially relieved by the extension through it of the Canadian Pacific Railway, which had 670 miles of road in operation within its limits in 1881. And even with this great iron artery leading directly to its choicest sections, many immigrants thereto have since found it advantageous in cost or speed to seek their destination through the United States.

CITY OF WINNIPEG.

WINNIPEG, the capital city of the Province of Manitoba, is situated on the west bank of the Red River of the North at the mouth of the Assinniboin, thirty miles southeast of the headwaters of Lake Manitoba, forty miles south of Lake Winnipeg, and sixty-seven miles north of St. Vincent, on the boundary line of the United States and British possessions.

The rapidity of its growth is equalled only by that of some of the Colorado mining cities, and is a standing marvel in British eyes. This growth is due to two causes: the extreme fertility of its location, and the extension through it of the great Canadian Pacific Railroad. The site now occupied by the city will be more readily recalled by the elder generation by its former name, Fort Garry, and the fact that from its establishment in 1820 till the purchase of the section by the Dominion government, it was the chief trading station of the powerful Hudson Bay Company. Its name was derived from the fort, erected as a protection against Indian incursions, curious remains of which are still preserved. It has a warm but not oppressive climate in summer, which, while it lasts, provides beautiful clear skies and bracing air. Vegetation is luxuriant in the rich, loamy soil, and its growth surprisingly rapid. The winters are severe, but the atmosphere is dry, clear, and invigorating.

In 1868 Winnipeg was virtually a wilderness. Two years later it had a permanent settlement of 215 persons. From that time it gained in population from 500 to 1,000 per annum, till 1881, when it had 14,700 inhabitants, street extensions of over 100 miles, nearly 3,000 dwelling-houses, and a property valuation of $6,585,067. Formerly the Hudson Bay Company enjoyed a monopoly of the fur trade; then it was scattered among the wholesale houses that had grown up under its shadow. In 1882 new buildings to the value of $6,000,000 were erected. In 1886, fifteen years after it was made the capital city of the new province, it had four grist mills, which yielded a product of flour with a market value of $1,062,500, and 129 manufacturing establishments, employing a capital of $2,050,766, and turning out products worth $3,229,724.

The joint cause of religion and education kept pace with the material prosperity of the city; churches of all the denominations common to Canada sprang up and profited by the vigor and enterprise of the citizens; and after adequate provision had been made for the elementary educations of the children, efforts were put forth to establish a higher grade system, with the result that in 1886 the city possessed St. John's College, under the control of the Anglican Church; Manitoba College, founded by the Presbyterian Church; the College of St. Boniface, established by the Roman Catholic Church on the opposite side of the river; the University of Manitoba, and St. Mary's Academy. In the five years, 1880-86, the population more than doubled, being in the first year 10,000, and in the latter 20,238, or, nearly one-fifth the entire population of the province (108,640), according to a special census taken July 31, 1886.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

THIS province, which was named in honor of Queen Victoria's father, lies in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, east of the province of New Brunswick, and north of Nova Scotia, is 140 miles long and from 4 to 34 broad, and between latitude 45° 58′ and 47° 7′ north and longitude 62° and 64° 27′ west. It has an area of 2,131 square miles, and had a population in 1881 of 108,891.

It was discovered by Cabot, June 24, 1497, and included in the territory of New France and called St. John's; was granted as a feudal tenure to Sieur Doublet, a French naval officer, in 1663; was taken by the English in 1745, restored to France at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle; retaken by the English 1758, and at the peace of 1763 confirmed, with Cape Breton, to England; was erected into a separate colony 1768; and was given its present name 1798. The surface is generally flat, with a soil adapted to agriculture and timber-growing. It is destitute of minerals, but has valuable beds of peat and considerable wealth in timber, which supports a large ship-building interest. The climate is salubrious and much milder than that of the adjoining continent. Of its 1,365,400 acres, 1,126,653 were occupied in 1881, 596,731 were improved, and 467,211 were under cultivation. The various farm animals aggregated 328,734. The agricultural products were: grain, 4,301,110 bushels, potatoes, 6,042,191, turnips, 1,198,407; dairy products: butter, 1,688,690 pounds, cheese, 196,273; timber, 910,200 cubic feet; fisheries products: cod, 18,736 quintals, herring, 21,501 barrels, mackerel, 91,792, canned lobster, 3,275,316 pounds, oysters, 175,408 barrels, and fish oil, 8,139 gallons.

This province is governed in the same manner as the others of the Dominion, and is divided into three counties, King's, Queen's, and Prince's, each of which has four representatives in the legislative council and ten in the assembly. The land tenure has been a source of agitation in the province for many years. At the close of the last century the whole island was divided into sixty-six lots and distributed among various persons. As late as 1865, 450,000 acres were held by occupiers in fee simple; 244,779 belonged to the government; 669,600 were owned by descendants of the fortunate sixty-six, of which 209,702 were held by tenants under lease; and 459,898 were unsettled. For a number of years the government has made a practice of buying up the interests of these proprietors whenever an opportunity was offered, and reselling the estates to the tenants on payments extending over several years.

Education is provided for by grants from the public revenue, and in 1863 the experiment was tried of supplementing the government grant by fees from the scholars and appropriations from the different districts, but it failed, and since 1867 the teachers' salaries have been wholly paid by the government. In the schools the Bible is read every school day without comment or remark, and children whose parents or guardians object to it, are exempted from attendance during the reading. The school population numbered 22,711 in 1881, when there were 355 district schools, fifteen grammar schools, forty-six high schools, and three colleges, a Roman Catholic, an Anglican, and a Wesleyan, all at Charlottetown, the capital. Of the total population in that year, 108,891, 47,115 were of the Roman Catholic faith, 61,662 were Protestants of different denominations, and the remainder were of other faiths than the Christian. The total number of churches was 231. There were 200 miles of railroad in operation that year.

CITY OF CHARLOTTETOWN.

CHARLOTTETOWN, the capital city of the Province of Prince Edward Island, is situated at the junction of the Hillsborough River with the York, on an angular piece of ground which rises gradually from the southern coast to the northwest, in latitude 46° 15′ north, and longitude 63° 7′ west. The two rivers, together with the Elliott, form the inner harbor, which is a well-sheltered basin about three miles wide, whence the three streams discharge their waters through a single channel about half a mile wide into Hillsborough Bay, which is locally known as the outer harbor, and is capacious and safe for vessels of any tonnage.

The town is regularly built, with broad streets intersecting each other at right angles. The public buildings include the provincial house, a handsome stone edifice with ample accommodations for the legislature, public officers, and supreme courts of law and chancery, the old court-house, a post-office, and an asylum for lunatics and indigent persons. The chief educational institutions are Prince of Wales, St. Dunstan, and Methodist Colleges, the two former receiving a part of their support from the government, a normal school, and a convent. There are nine churches, divided among the Anglican, Roman Catholic, Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist, and other denominations. The city has a valuable export trade in timber, deals, and dried and pickled fish, and imports chiefly British and American manufactures, and various articles of consumption. Population in 1881, 11,485.

PROVINCE OF BRITISH COLUMBIA.

BRITISH COLUMBIA, composed (1889) of the old colony of British Columbia and Vancouver's, Queen Charlotte's, and several other adjacent islands which were incorporated with it in 1866, is in the northwest part of North America, extends from the United States boundary line to the Arctic Ocean, has Alaska on the west of its northern extremity, and is separated from the rest of the British possessions on the east by the Rocky Mountains. Its geographical position is between latitude 48° 19′ and 60° north and longitude 113° and 136° west. The census of 1881 credited it with an area of 341,305 square miles, all the islands included, and a population of 49,459, which embraced 25,661 Indians and 4,350 Chinese.

The mainland is traversed by the Cascade as well as the Rocky Mountains, and its surface is generally mountainous, though there are large sections of arable land and much that is well adapted to grazing. Within its limits the Rocky Mountains present two noted peaks, Mt. Browne which has an elevation of 16,000 feet, and Mt. Hooker only 300 feet less. West of the Cascade range the country is heavily wooded with dense fir and spruce forests, but eastward of it the surface presents an open tract till Caribou, the head of the mining region, is reached, and then heavily timbered land alternates with fertile prairies. The country is watered by the Columbia and Frazer rivers, and at the delta formed by the latter, Burrard's Inlet, and Mud Bay lies an agricultural region of the richest soil, which only needs drainage and a good sea-wall to reclaim the whole, as was done at Matsqui, where the land is under cultivation, and potatoes, turnips, beets, and wheat of phenomenal size are raised. Gold and silver mining, coal mining, stock-raising, lumbering, and great manufactures offer extensive fields of industry to capital and energy.

The coal supply is of marvelous extent, and beside the great veins which underlie Vancouver's Island, an excellent quality of the bituminous grade has been laid bare east of the Cascades on the Nicola River and in the vicinity of Marble Cañon. Large veins of marble and a great variety of choice building stone abound, and likewise the precious minerals. The vast bed of the Columbia River is full of gold, and large placer deposits are frequently met with along the banks of the Frazer, while there are known to be vast quartz veins throughout the province, still undeveloped from lack of capital to work them advantageously.

There is a great abundance of wild game, including several species of deer, notably the beautiful caribou, foxes, martins, puma, grizzly, cinnamon, big black, and small black bears, wolves, cayotes, pin-tailed and willow grouse, ducks, geese, and the finest trout in the world. The supply of salmon is extensive and practically inexhaustible, and several companies are carrying on large fisheries and canneries on the Naas, Frazer, and Skeener rivers. The climate is as mild as that of England, and the air is very dry. Vancouver's Island is separated from the mainland by a channel, variously known as Queen Charlotte's Sound, Johnston's Strait, and the Gulf of Georgia. The greater part of its area is mountain and barren rock; the remainder exhibits the forest and prairie characteristics of the mainland. It was supposed to form a part of the mainland till 1789. Capt. George Vancouver discovered its isolation on his voyage to Nootka Sound, under orders from the British government to receive a formal cession of the territory from Spain, in 1792. In 1848 it was made over to the Hudson Bay Company on the condition that they should colonize it; in 1856 gold was discovered there, and in 1866 it was incorporated with British Columbia. Its area is estimated at 13,000 square miles.

In 1881 the land occupied in the province amounted to 441,225 acres, and improved 184,885. The grain product was 559,220 bushels, and potatoes

556,193. Farm animals numbered 151,202; butter product was 343,387 pounds, cheese, 33,252; value of fur product $153,442; amount of timber product, 2,427,882 cubic feet; number of fisheries, 406; and value of gold product, 1871–82, $20,000,000. The province is governed similarly to the others. The chief cities are Victoria, the capital, on Vancouver's Island, and Westminster, the seat of an Anglican bishop.

CITY OF VICTORIA.

VICTORIA, the capital city of the Province of British Columbia, is situated at the southern extremity of Vancouver's Island, in latitude 48° 27′ north, and longitude 123° 25′ west. The city stretches about three-quarters of a mile around the harbor, is lighted by gas, and since 1864 has been provided with water brought from excellent springs by service pipes. The streets are regularly laid out, crossing each other at right angles, most of them sixty feet wide, with macadamized roads, and, generally, wooden sidewalks. The harbor accommodates vessels drawing sixteen feet of water; vessels of deeper draft find ample anchorage in the neighboring and more important harbor of Esquimalt, which is on the south coast of the island, about forty miles inside the entrance to the Straits of St. Juan de Fuca, which separate the island on the south from the mainland. This harbor is four miles from Victoria by land and three by water, and connected with it by a broad and substantial road. A British naval station and an imperial dock-yard have been established at the harbor, and elaborate fortifications have been projected for the protection of the capital and the harbor, which is large enough to hold all the men-of-war that usually comprise the British American-Pacific squadron.

Victoria contains numerous government buildings both of stone, brick, and wood, a theatre, public library and reading room, hospital, police and military barracks, breweries, foundries, a tannery, magnificent hotels, and many large brick and stone warehouses and stores. The educational and religious institutions embrace Church of England, Roman Catholic, Congregational, Presbyterian, Methodist, and Jewish churches, with elementary, grammar, and higher grade schools under their control. The climate is moist, cool, and generally delightful. Large quantities of gold, from the

Fraser River mines, coal, timber, dried fish, and furs, are annually exported, and much of the imports, chiefly manufactured goods, machinery, agricultural and household implements, are received by way of Portland, Or., and San Francisco. When Vancouver's Island united with British Columbia, Victoria and New Westminster were rival aspirants for the capital seat, and the former was chosen by popular vote at the suggestion of Queen Victoria. Population, 1881, 5,925.

THE NORTHWEST TERRITORIES.

THE largest province in the Dominion comprises the vast region stretching north from the provinces already described to the Arctic Ocean, extends a length of about 2,500 miles, with a breadth of 1,500, and was estimated in 1881 to have an area of 2,934,000 square miles, and a population of only 56,446, mostly Indians. It is larger than the whole of Europe, excepting Russia, and the greater part of the whole region is barren waste.

What is called "the fertile belt" stretches 960 miles from east to west, with an average breadth of 250 miles, and comprising, therefore, 240,000 square miles. At least one-fourth of this land has been ascertained to possess a very rich and deep soil, capable of growing an abundance of wheat, barley, potatoes, and all roots and green crops produced by the English agriculturist, while it is equally adapted to stock raising. In 1881 the land occupied amounted to 314,107 acres, and improved, 28,833. The timber product was 109,873 cubic feet, and the value of the fur trade $428,177. The region was purchased by the Dominion government from the Hudson Bay Company in 1870.

In 1875 an act was passed vesting the government in a Lieutenant-governor and a council of five, of which the stipendary magistrates should be ex-officio members, and in 1882 a portion was divided into four districts, Assiniboia, with 95,000 square miles; Saskatchewan, the "fertile belt," 114,000; Alberta, 100,000; and Athabasca, 122,000. The law of 1875 provided that as soon as districts of 1,000 square miles should contain a population of 1,000, exclusive of aliens and Indians, they were to be constituted electoral districts, and return a member to the council. Forty-four churches and a school population of 578 were reported in 1881. Capital Regina.

ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

ALTHOUGH this island was independent of the Dominion government and constituted a province of Great Britain, in 1888 a movement was officially inaugurated by its authorities to secure a political union with the Dominion in the summer of that year; and, as at the time of writing all indications gave assurance of the consummation of the proposed act, the country is here treated as if it were at the time a sister province of the Dominion. It is situated in the Atlantic Ocean, at the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is separated from Labrador by the Straits of Belle Isle, and lies between latitude 46° 38′ and 51° 37′ north, and longitude 52° 44′ and 59° 30′ west. It has an extreme length of 370 miles, width 290, circumference of about 1,000, and area of 42,000 square miles, and had an estimated population of 185,000 in 1885.

The entire Atlantic coast of Labrador, 1,100 miles in extent, is attached to Newfoundland and under its jurisdiction. The island has what is known geologically as an "iron-bound" coast, rising frequently in bold, lofty precipices, vertically, or nearly so from the sea. The outer exterior is mountainous, but the interior is a vast elevated and undulating plateau, with ranges of minor hills alternating with shallow valleys. One range of extremely rugged and desolate hills, reaching at many parts an elevation of upward of 2,500 feet, extends diagonally across the island.

The coast is deeply indented with large bays and inlets, the most prominent of which are Placentia Bay, having a width at its mouth of fifty-five miles and extending ninety miles inland; Fortune Bay, twenty-five miles wide and seventy miles extension; St. George Bay, forty miles wide; Notre Dame Bay, fifty miles wide and with arms reaching inland in some places a distance of eighty miles; and Trinity Bay, with inland extension of seventy miles. The largest river is the Exploits, which, after a course of 200 miles, falls into Exploits and Notre Dame bays, and drains an area of over 3,000 square miles. Its upper waters, in two minor branches, flow into Red Indian Lake, which has an area of sixty-nine square miles, and is 468 feet above the sea level. The second river in importance is the Humber, which drains an area of 2,000 square miles, and falls into the Bay of Islands. This river expands in several places into lakes of considerable size, notably the Grand

Pond, which has a surface area of 192 square miles and includes an island of fifty-six square miles. The third river in size is the Gander, which drains 2,600 square miles, flows through a lake of the same name, possessing a surface area of forty-four square miles, and falls into Gander Bay.

Nearly one-third the entire surface of the island is occupied by its lakes, which, in general are well stocked with trout. But very little of the soil is productive agriculturally. The fisheries always have been and doubtless always will be the chief industry of the inhabitants. The known mineral wealth embraces gold, silver, copper, lead, marble, limestone, coal, and gypsum. Of these, the copper deposits are the most industriously and profitably worked. The first mine was opened in 1864 at Tilt Cove, on the shore of Notre Dame Bay; a second was discovered at Betts Cove, in the same district, in 1875; and the third at Little Bay in 1878. The total export of metal from these mines up to 1879 amounted in value to $4,629,889. In 1880 gold was discovered in quartz veins in the region of Brigus, Conception Bay. Sir Alexander Murray, the official geologist, made a thorough examination of the locality, and pronounced the indications favorable for systematic mining, whereupon New York and Boston capitalists invested nearly $2,000,000 in the auriferous fields. The climate is healthy, but variable. Dense fogs prevail in the vicinity of the island, which, with violent gales, frequently render the coast very dangerous to navigation.

Newfoundland and its vicinity constitute the greatest cod-fishing region of the world. The Grand Banks, which form the greatest submarine island on the globe, having a length of from 600 to 700 miles and a width of 200, at a depth of from ten to 150 fathoms, seem to have been the original home of this fish. The value of the annual catch of this fish alone averages $6,250,000, and the exports reach 1,250,000 quintals of 112 pounds each. Next to this the most important fishery is the seal, of which anywhere from 300,000 to 550,000 will be taken in a single season, representing an average of $1,026,896 in market value. The herring fisheries will average $581,543 in value per annum, the salmon $114,505, and the lobster $104,000.

The government is vested in a governor appointed by the British sovereign, an executive council of seven members chosen by the dominant party in the legislature, a legislative council of fifteen members holding office for life, and a house of assembly comprising thirty-three members elected for a period of four years. There are also the usual judicial officers and courts. The right of suffrage is extended to all male subjects over twenty-one years of age who have occupied domiciles for two years. Politically the island is divided into seventeen electoral districts. The public debt amounted to $1,351,000 in 1883; the revenue of that year was $1,369,909; the value of imports, chiefly provisions and manufactures, $6,863,708; and of exports, mainly fish, $8,200,00. No official discrimination is made between the various religious denominations; the Roman Catholic has the largest membership, and is followed by the Church of England, Wesleyan, Presbyterian, and Congregational churches. Education, being fostered by the government, is brought within the reach of all classes. It is arranged on the denominational system, and the government makes an annual division of about $100,000 among all denominations, according to their respective members. Besides many private and strictly denominational schools, there were in 1885, 416 public elementary schools, with 24,292 pupils, four academies, with 674 students, and two high-grade grammar schools. The population was estimated that year at 185,000, of whom 30,000 were engaged in fishing and 24,000 more in other branches of that industry. The capital is St. John's.

CITY OF ST. JOHN'S.

ST. JOHN'S is a city and the capital of the Island of Newfoundland, situated on the east coast of the island. The city is 2,000 miles from Liverpool, 540 from Halifax, and 900 from Quebec. It has an excellent harbor, which is well fortified. Being the nearest port in America to Galway, Ireland (distance, 1,650 miles), St. John's has acquired importance in the commercial and political world in connection with steam navigation between the two continents. It has suffered severely from repeated conflagrations; in 1846 it was more than half destroyed.

At the entrance to the harbor are the Narrows; on the north side of the Narrows is a cliff over 300 feet high; back and above it is Signal Hill, 520 feet above the sea level. On the other side of the Narrows is a hill, 650 feet above the sea, on which is a lighthouse. The Narrows will admit only one vessel at a time. The latter ridge of hills extends into the interior for miles. The city is built of brick, and is well situated on sloping ground on both sides of the harbor. Bridges and causeways connect the north and south sides. Over 1,200 vessels, having a tonnage of 250,000, enter the harbor annually.

There are a dry-dock and marine railway. The business portion of the city is solid and substantial. It has several banks, 12 churches, a number of convents, 20 insurance companies, various societies, benevolent organizations, academies, colleges, theological institutions, a medical society, an athenæum, two libraries, 13 newspapers, and two fine cathedrals (one each, Roman Catholic and Episcopal). Among the public buildings of note are the Government-house, the residence of the Governor, which cost $250,000, the Assembly building, the Court-house, the Public Hospital, and Market-house. The Allan line of European steamers has extensive wharves at this city. The manufactures consist chiefly of ship-bread, furniture, boots and shoes, iron-ware, and nets. The city has large storehouses, distilleries, tanneries, breweries, refineries, block factories, and steam seal-oil works. A large trade is done in exporting oil, seal, and cod. Its principal business is connected with the fisheries. It receives the large imports of the colony. Population in 1874, 25,000; 1889, 42,320.

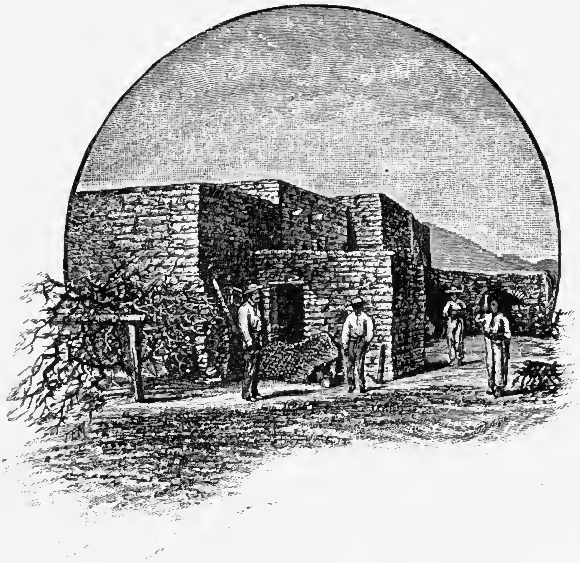
MEXICO;

The Republic, the Capital and Seaport; with other Places of Interest, Picturesque and Historic.

MEXICO as a country presents a more interesting and fascinating study than any other on the American continent. It has extreme age for the antiquarian; remains of long extinct dynasties, forms of government and peoples for the archæologist; a progression through incalculable bloodshed from the picturesque empire of the Aztecs to the republic, exhibiting in some parts the civilization, culture and spirit of advancement of the nineteenth century, and in others much of the turbulence of revolutionary days, for the historian and political economist; a volume of heroic suffering, persecution, ceremonial grandeur, spoliation, and ultimate toleration for the ecclesiastic; a grand record of martial daring and achievement for the military critic; all followed by an era of remarkable prosperity—a fitting sequel to its centuries of unrest—for the student of contemporary progress. In all the multiplicity of historical associations, both the country and city possess an enduring interest to all, and especially to citizens of the United States, once their masters by the stern arbitrament of war, now their friends by close political, social, and material ties.

THE REPUBLIC.

Mexico is bounded on the north by the United States, on the east by the Gulf of Mexico, on the south by Central America and the Pacific Ocean, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. It has a northern frontier line of 1,400 miles, a southern of 345, and a seacoast of 6,086; an area of 748,144 square miles; and a population officially computed in 1886 at 10,460,636, of which 1,985,117 were white natives, European and American residents, 3,970,000 pure Indians, and the remainder half-breeds. In 1889 its political divisions embraced twenty-seven states, two territories, and one federal district. The chief cities with their population were: Mexico, the capital, 300,000; Guadalajara, 80,000; Pueblo, 75,000; Guanajuato, 52,000; Merida, 40,000; San Louis Potosi, 35,000; Queretaro and Zacatecas, each 30.000: Oajaca, 28,000; Colima, 26,251; Saltillo, 26,000; Vera Cruz and Morelia, each 24,000; and Aguascalientes, 22,000. In the same year the federal army consisted of 18,894 men and 1,741 officers. The navy was limited to four gun-boats. The national debt, foreign and domestic, in 1886 amounted to $162,737,650; the revenues of that year aggregated $30,625,000, of which $20,000,000 were from customs duties; and the expenditures were $26,390,324, one-third of which went to the support of the army. Recent operations in developing the long-needed railroad system of the country had, in 1889, given to thirty-eight lines a total length of 3,703 miles, and the telegraph, including government, railroad, and private lines, exerted its magic influence over 19,027 miles. The commercial relations with the United States for the four years prior to 1887 show a very large volume of business. The exports from the United States to Mexico were valued at $14,370,902 (1883); $11,089,603 (1884); $7,370,599 (1885); and $6,586,077 (1886); while the imports into the United States from Mexico were $8,177,128 (1883); $9,016,486 (1884); $9,267,021 (1885); and $10,087,972 (1886)


MEXICAN ADOBE HOUSE.

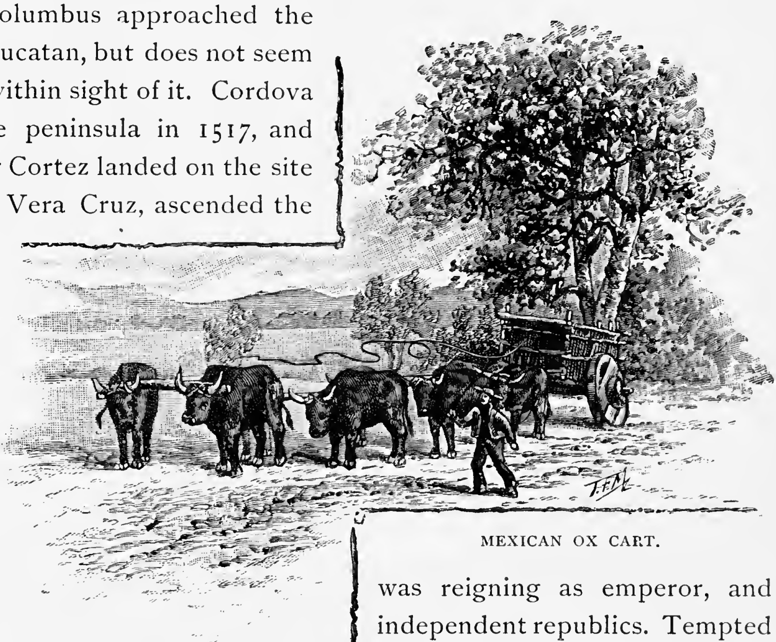
The government of the republic is founded on a constitution similar in the main to that of the United States, but which, however, has been laid aside and modified and amended frequently. The executive authority is vested in a president chosen by electoral colleges every four years; the legislative in a congress consisting of a senate, whose members are elected every six years, and a house whose deputies serve two years; and the judicial by a variety of judges, those of the supreme court being elected in the same manner as the president but for terms of six years, while those of inferior courts are appointed by the president and governors of states or chosen by local elections. By virtue of his office the chief justice of the supreme court is vice-president of the republic *ex officio*. The state and territorial governments are created and conducted for the most part like those in the United States, though as a rule the governors are military men and in sympathy with the policy of the chief executive. Since the restoration of the republic, after Maximilian's short and sad reign of imperialism, the government has extended liberal aid to the cause of education. As a result there were in 1886, 8,905 public schools and colleges, with an attendance of over 500,900 pupils, besides innumerable private ones. The former include special schools of law, medicine, music, agriculture, engineering, mines, fine arts, the sciences, literature, and military tactics, supported by the general government in place of the famous University of Mexico, founded in the sixteenth century and conducted by religious teachers, which it abolished in 1856. The different states also maintain excellent common schools throughout their jurisdiction, and high schools in their capitals. The deaf, the dumb, and the blind are likewise adequately provided for, and there are many noble charitable and reformatory institutions.

In the exercise of religious worship the people of Mexico are now permitted to follow their choice of form without molestation of any kind. In this respect the changes of the last half century have been very marked. Formerly the Roman Catholic faith was the only one tolerated in the country, and was the religion of the state, even in early republican days. At one time the Catholic Church, which sprang from the missions of the early Spanish fathers, owned nearly one-third the entire soil with all its wealth of minerals. During the period of 1856 and 1859 what are known as the "laws of reform" were enacted. These virtually confiscated to the government all the landed property of the bishops and priests, closed the convents and schools, and led to the sale and conversion to public use of all ecclesiastical buildings which the authorities then considered superfluous. The constitution adopted in 1857 recognized the equal right of all denominations to hold religious services in their individual forms, and put an end to all sectarian distinctions. Between 1869 and 1881 Protestant missionary work resulted in the establishment in the capital city of fifty-six churches with 10,000 communicants, seventeen Sunday schools with 963 scholars, twelve day schools with 465 students, a girls' normal college, and a theological seminary. The dominant religion, however, is still the Roman Catholic, and it had in 1889 three archbishoprics and twelve bishoprics. The "Church of Jesus," an organization modeled somewhat upon the general plan of the American Protestant Episcopal Church, but professing to be undenominational in its tenets and operations, was founded by the Rev. Henry Chauncey Riley, D.D., in 1868. To aid him in his work the government placed at his disposal the magnificent sequestrated Church of St. Joseph, and the chapel of the famous Church of San Francisco, both in the City of Mexico; and by 1884 he had established forty-nine churches, nine day schools, and two orphanages. He was consecrated Bishop of the Mexican Church of Jesus at Pittsburg, Penn., in June, 1879, by seven bishops of the Protestant Episcopal Church.

Mexico is exceedingly rich in natural resources, the chief of which are silver and gold, the former being distinctively the staple production. There are eleven notable mines in the country, the oldest of which—opened in 1538—is in Mexico City. Careful records of the annual production of the precious metals have been preserved since 1537, and show that between that year and 1880 the gold and silver mines alone yielded a supply valued at $3,110,000,000. Near the close of the eighteenth century Humboldt estimated that a single mine, that of Veta Madre, in Guanajuato, produced one-fifth of the silver then current in the world. A mine in Zacatecas yielded $3,000,000 per annum for many years successively, and those of San Louis Potosi the enormous sum of $150,000,000 in a period of seventy-seven years. And still the supply of silver seems to be practically illimitable. Others of the precious metals abound in corresponding prodigality. The Cerro del Mercado is a solid mountain of magnetic iron ore; copper associated with gold and lead with silver are found in considerable quantities in many states; and numerous mines of the red sulphuret of mercury or cinnabar are now being operated more freely than before, on account of the great demand for and high price of quicksilver. Among other material resources of value are granite, marble, alabaster, gypsum, sulphur, and rock salt. Pearls are plentiful in the Gulf of California, and the richest amber is found on the coasts of Yucatan.

Mexico has also a large agricultural wealth, susceptible of development far beyond its present state. Cotton is produced in the states of Coahuila, Durango, and Sinaloa; tobacco in southern Vera Cruz and Tabasco; cocoa in Tabasco, Oaxaca, and Soconusco; coffee in Michoacan and Colima; and the most nutritious grasses, which feed innumerable herds of cattle, droves of horses, and flocks of sheep, are spread over nearly all the northern states. Indian corn, the staple food from aboriginal days, wheat, barley, rice, sugar-cane, oranges, lemons, bananas, pineapples, and grapes grow almost without cultivation, so rich is the soil of the table-lands, plateaus, and central valleys. The employment of American methods and machinery has wrought wonderful changes in the agricultural development of the country, and given an earnest of what might be accomplished in a few years by a judicious and liberal application of forces, now only beginning to be understood and appreciated.

The history of Mexico as a country is so unusually complex and voluminous that but little more than a mere chronology can here be given. On his last voyage Columbus approached the peninsula of Yucatan, but does not seem to have come within sight of it. Cordova discovered the peninsula in 1517, and two years later Cortez landed on the site of the present Vera Cruz, ascended the table-lands and was surprised to find the interior numerously inhabited by Aztecs, over whom Montezuma, a powerful chief, was reigning as emperor, and also several independent republics. Tempted to conquest by Cordova's accounts of the richness of the country, Cortez kept up a continuous warfare for two years, and then succeeded in overturning the Aztec empire. From that time till 1820 Mexico constituted a colony of Spain, though it was subject to frequent revolutions, and at one time, 1813, a national assembly was formed and the independence of the country declared. Early in 1820 Spain became distracted with her own internal affairs, and while endeavoring to effect a union between the royalists and constitutionalists, Don Augustin de Iturbide, on the pretense of desiring to establish the independence of the country and yet preserve a union with Spain, gained possession of the capital, summoned a congress, and had himself proclaimed Emperor of Mexico under the title



MEXICAN OX CART.

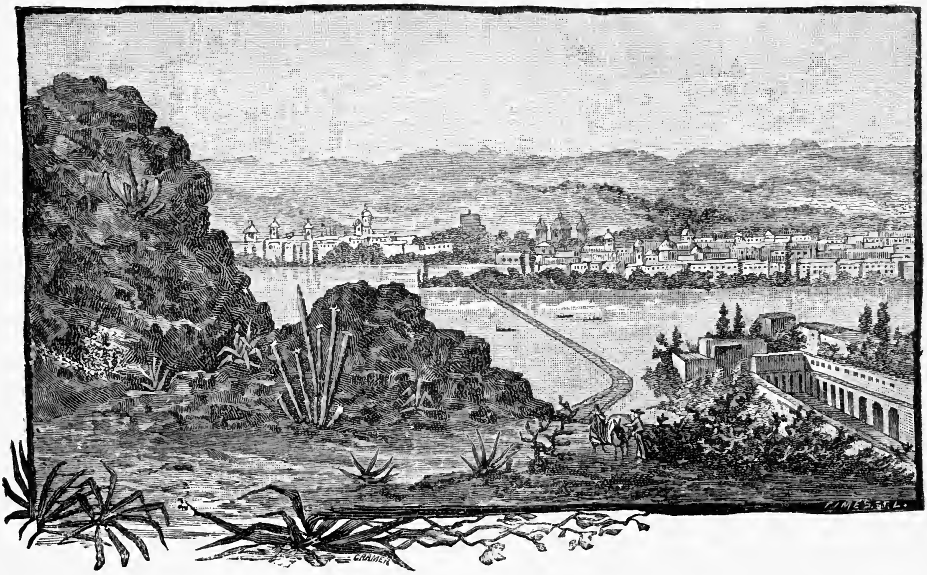
of Augustin I. His sovereignty lasted from May 18, 1822, till March, 1823, when the army rose against him, and he abdicated and fled to Europe. Shortly afterward the country was declared a republic, and a constitution substantially like that of the United States adopted. Iturbide attempted to regain his throne by an uprising in 1824, but was captured and shot. The republic was "proclaimed" by Gen. Santa Anna at Vera Cruz in December, 1822, and under the title of constitutional president he became virtually dictator. From thence till the overthrow of his fifth dictatorship, August, 1855, the country was rended by revolutions, had an expensive war with the United States, and possessed no stable or even respectable government.

The "plan of Ayutla" was adopted 1855, a constituent convention was held 1856, and it promulgated a constitution, February 3, 1857, which with subsequent amendments, forms the present general law. The war of reform, already alluded to, ensued, a struggle between the adherents of the National, or Roman Catholic, Church, the army, and the aristocracy. The country had scarcely recovered from its surprise over the suppression and confiscation of the ecclesiastical property and buildings, when the period of French intervention opened, and was followed by the brief and luckless reign of the Austrian Archduke Maximilian as sovereign of the Empire of Mexico. During this period, 1861–67, Benito Juarez, an Indian, as constitutional president, directed the successful resistance to imperialism. His service as president was extended from December, 1857, till his death in July, 1872, and much of the present prosperity of the country is due to his firmness, liberal ideas, sound statesmanship, and prescience. He was succeeded by Lerdo de Tejada, and he in turn by Porfirio Diaz, an accomplished and successful general of the army, who, after a highly creditable service as president, was honored with a second re-election in July, 1888.

CITY OF MEXICO.

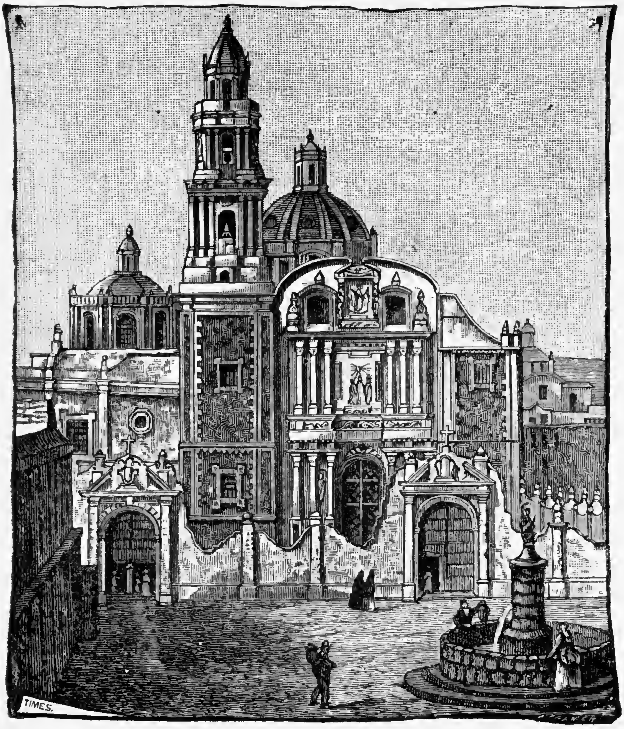
MEXICO City comprises what is known politically as the Federal District. It is situated in latitude 19° 25′ 45″ north, and longitude 99° 7′ 8″ west from Greenwich, built upon the ruins of the ancient Aztec capital and at an elevation of about 7,500 feet above sea level. It is divided into eight sections, having in 1889 an aggregate of

304 streets with an average width of forty feet each, and containing 7,979 buildings, exclusive of government, public, church, and charitable structures, valued at $114,738,000, as well as 7,047 buildings in which its commercial and industrial interests were carried on, and ninety public squares. The Presidential Mansion, formerly the palace of the viceroys, is an enormous building, three stories high, 500 feet long and 350 feet wide, and is built on the site of the palace of Montezuma. It accommodates nearly all the public offices, including those of the heads of the different departments, and the senatorial branch of the congress. The most notable and conspicuous building within the city walls is the famous Roman Catholic Cathedral, begun in 1593 and completed sufficiently to be dedicated in 1677, at a cost of $1,757,000. Subsequent improvements and ornamentation brought the total cost up to $2,500,000. Its decorations, grand altars, priceless carvings, gold and silver enrichments, and its paintings and statuary, render it without exception the most gorgeous ecclesiastical structure in the world. Among the other buildings which, from their architectural design, historical association, or contents, challenge the admiration of all tourists, are those of the Mexican Inquisition, founded in 1571, and now used as a national medical school; the custom house; the convent of Santo Domingo; the National Museum, which contains a unique collection illustrative of the



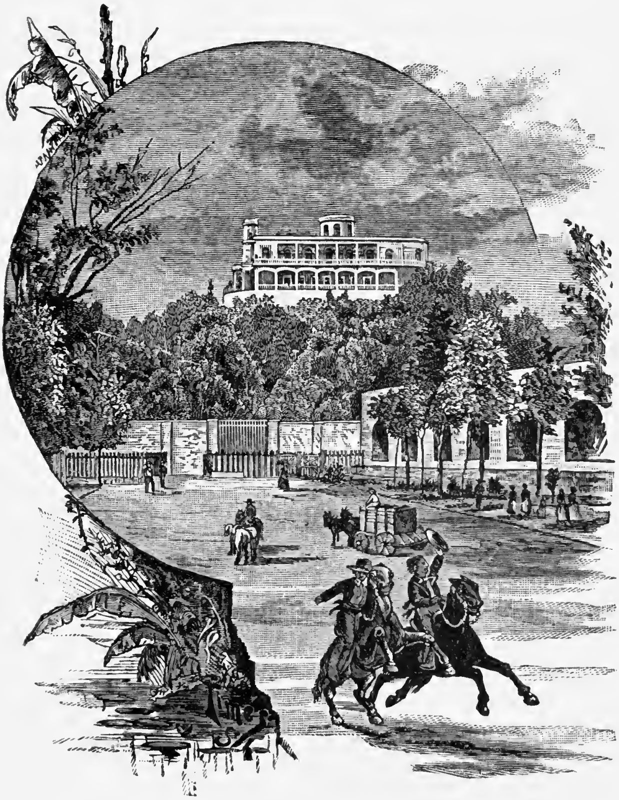
CITY OF MEXICO.

earliest history of the country, embracing an original sacrificial stone of the Aztecs, the world-famous Calendar Stone, and a statue of Huitzilopochtli of huge proportions; the Academy of San Carlos, established by King Charles III., of Spain, and filled with the largest and most costly collection of paintings on the continent; and the National Library, housed in the ancient church of San Augustin, which has been remodeled by the government at a heavy expense, containing upward of 150,000 volumes.



CHURCH OF SAN DOMINGO, CITY OF MEXICO.

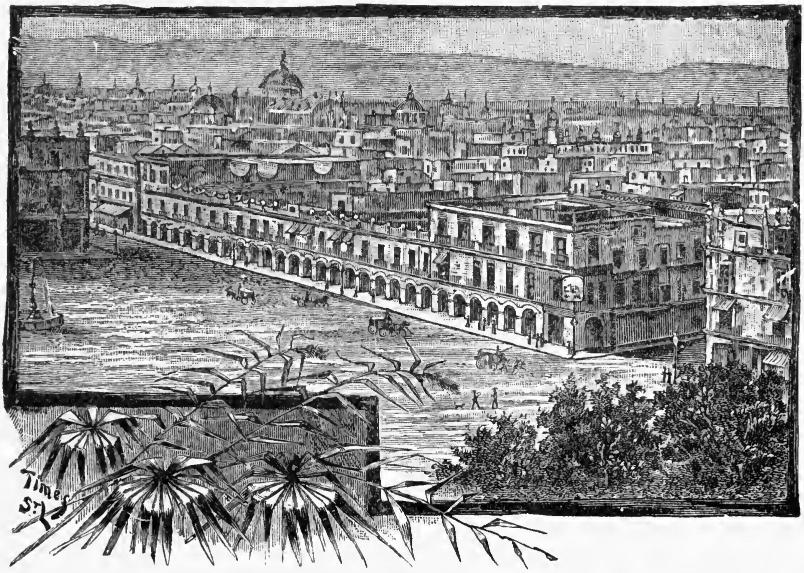
Of the ninety public squares the largest and most beautiful is the Plaza de Armas, which is 800 feet long by 600 feet wide. There are numerous pleasure resorts in the city, of which the Passeo de Bucareli, or public drive, is to Mexico City what Hyde Park is to London, the Bois de Boulogne to Paris, and Central Park to New York. It is the afternoon resort of the wealth and fashion of the city. Hundreds of coaches in all shapes and forms, as well as hundreds of gentlemen on horseback frequent it daily; but on Sundays and holidays the drive is in its glory. Mounted policemen are stationed every hundred yards to maintain order and guard against accidents. The carriages form a long line, going up on one side and down the other. The sidewalks for pedestrians are wide, well paved, and provided with carved stone benches at easy intervals. An additional attraction is given them by two rows of trees composed of the eucalyptus, or fever tree, and the ash, planted alternately. The drive is macadamized its entire length, and the centre is reserved for equestrians. The promenade extends from the bronze equestrian statue of Charles IV. to the castle of Chapultepec, a distance of 3,750 yards; the width, including walks, is 170 feet. It contains six circular spaces 400 feet in diameter for monuments to eminent men. In the first is a magnificent bronze and marble statue of Columbus, and in the second a monument to Guatimozin, the last Indian emperor. This grand drive was laid out by the Emperor Maximilian, first, to secure the shortest possible route to Chapultepec for military purposes, and, second, to provide one of the most beautiful drives in the world. The Alameda and the Passeo de la Viga likewise are tempting resorts, but of less fashionable popularity.



CASTLE OF CHAPULTEPEC, CITY OF MEXICO.

There are very few small houses in the city, nearly all being very commodious though not tall, and as a rule each one is occupied by more than one family. In the principal streets the houses are usually two and three stories high. The wealthiest families rarely occupy more than one floor—the upper one—and often not the whole of that. The best three-story buildings generally contain from two to four habitations; each consists of a whole or a half of a floor, and the front ground floor is almost invariably used by commercial, banking, or other business establishments. There is not a house of any pretentions whatever in the city without a court, on the ground floor of which are located the servants' quarters, coach houses, and stables. There is but one door on the lower floor, and none at all on the outside of the upper story. The door is very strongly built, and the opening high enough for a coach to pass through. It opens into the court, through which inmates pass to the stairway leading to the upper story. The tenement houses occupy large areas, and are built on much the same plan, with but one door leading into a court, and from which each occupant has entrance to his own apartment on the ground floor or the gallery above, which runs all around the building. In the central districts these houses generally have two stories, but as a rule one only when built at a distance from the business centre, and they sometimes contain as many as forty distinct habitations.

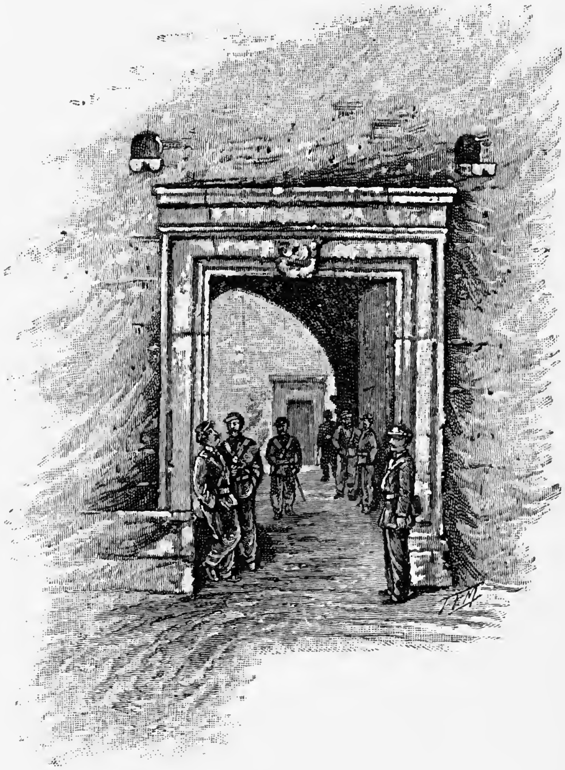
In 1886, the business establishments of the city included 1,072 cigar and tobacco stores, 889 grocery stores, 670 pulque stands, 514 liquor saloons, 390 restaurants, 275 butcher shops, 190 bakeries, 144 grain stores, 130 barber shops, 118 tailoring establishments, 171 carpenter shops, 174 shoe stores, 88 blacksmith shops, 79 drug stores, 68 hardware stores, 56 printing offices, 55 bath houses, 72 dry-goods stores, 48 chartered and private banks, and 46 cafés. There were also nine cotton, seven paper, and three woolen factories in the city and its immediate vicinity. The government has established a National Monte de Piedad, or pawn shop, and in addition to this there were 73 others, private, with a joint capital of $483,872. During the latter half of 1885, these pawnshops loaned the sum of $1,333,796 on various kinds of pledges, on which an average interest charge of 12½ per cent. per month was paid.



MERCHANTS' BAZAAR, CITY OF MEXICO.

The Municipal Government has liberally seconded the efforts of the Federal to provide facilities for educating all its youth without reference to color or condition in life. The most notable institutions are the Academy of Fine Arts, the Mining, Engineering, and Medical schools, and the Military, Law, Commercial, and Agricultural colleges. In 1886 the various schools and colleges within the city numbered 316, with 712 male and 469 female teachers, and an average daily attendance of 12,775 boys and 10,385 girls, or 23,160 pupils in all. About one-half of these institutions are supported by the Federal and Municipal Governments at an annual expense of $816,840, and the remainder are private enterprises.

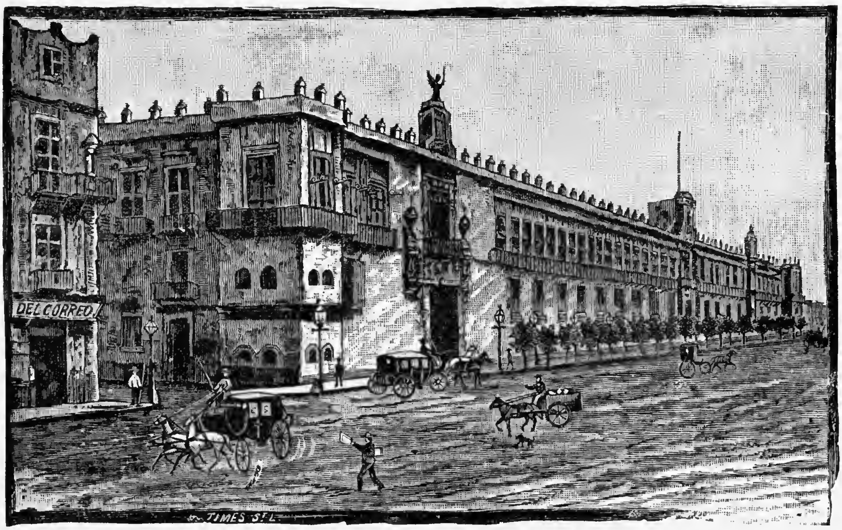
In the line of local transit the city had, in 1886, thirty-two lines of street railroads, beside eleven others which connected with the outlying towns, and five trunk railroads entered it from different directions.



ENTRANCE TO PALACE, CITY OF MEXICO.

In its historical phase the city is more interesting than the country, because of its greater antiquity. It stands near the northwestern part of the valley of Mexico, about four miles from the mountains in the direction of the town of Guadaloupe. The appearance of the valley is that of an oval basin surrounded by mountains of every degree of elevation, from the Piñolos, or little rugged promontories, to Popocatepetl, the highest peak in Mexico, covered with perpetual snow. The site of the city was chosen by a barbarian chieftain, who found a lake (Texcoco), in the midst of which was a slight elevation of land or island, large enough to encamp his tribe upon. There he built a town which was preserved through all the wars that ensued with neighboring nations because it was so easily defended. The date of the founding of the town is given as 1325, and it was named Tenochtitlan. At the time of the discovery of the country by the

Spaniards, it was a rich, flourishing, populous, and active city, the seat of government and of religion. As previously narrated Cortez landed 1519. For two years he sought the conquest of the city. The Aztecs defended it stubbornly. Cortez besieged it for a period of seventy-five days, but the hosts of Montezuma held out till the invaders had almost entirely destroyed the city. As building after building was razed the fury of the Spaniards increased, and it was only after they had completed one of the most terrible slaughters on record that they gained absolute possession of the once beautiful capital. The building of the present city was begun about 1522, and it was named Mexico from *Mexitli*, the tutelary divinity of the Aztecs.

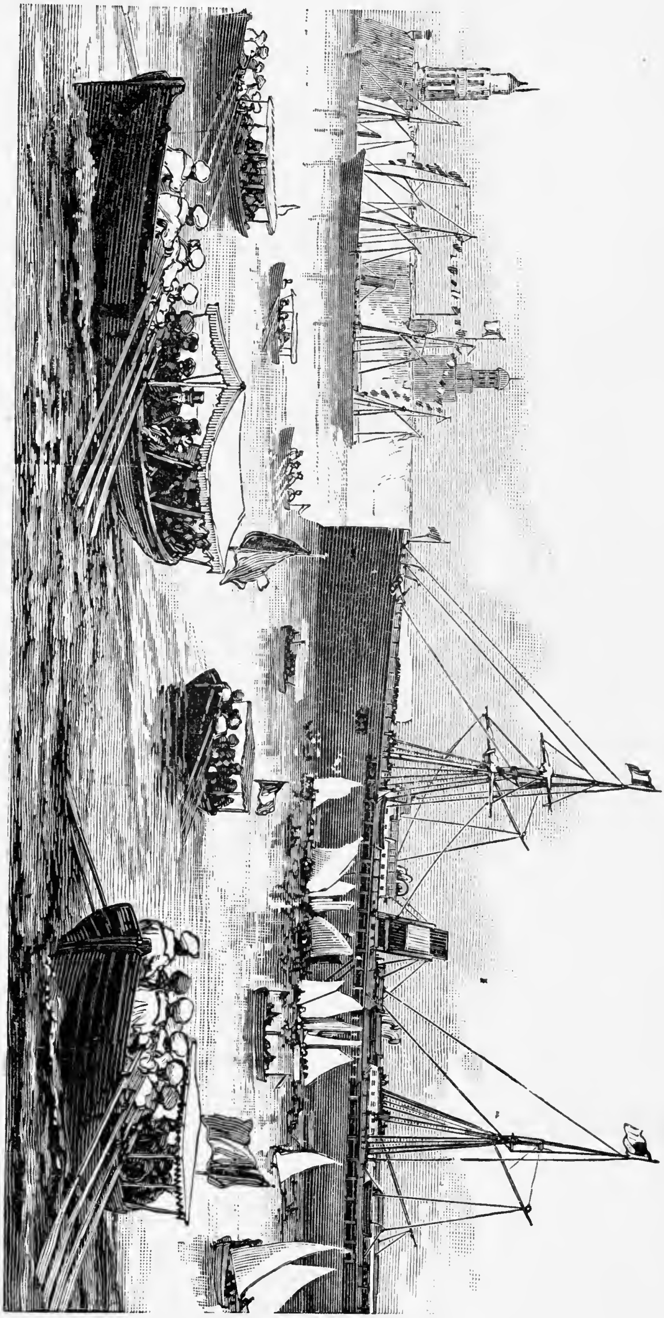


PALACE, CITY OF MEXICO.

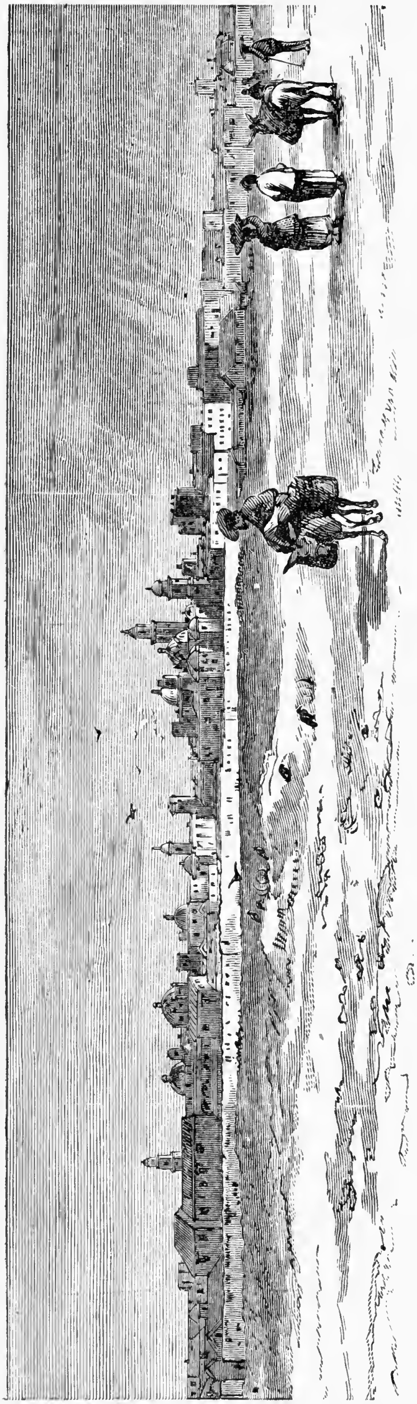
The general knowledge of the early condition of the city is derived in large part from native pictures that survived the destruction of Cortez. They contained chronological histories, which had been prepared and preserved with the greatest care. The most celebrated one of all was lost, but Humboldt has given an account of a copy of it. From this table it appears that the Toltecs migrated from a country north of the present city in A. D. 544; that their monarchy was destroyed; that the Aztecs arrived there from Aztlan in 1178; and that they founded Tenochtitlan, the predecessor of the City of Mexico, in 1325. From 1522 onward the history of the city and country has been so interwoven and so essentially identical that the outline of the country, already given, will suffice for a more detailed historical account of the capital. Population, 1889, 300,000.

CITY OF VERA CRUZ.

VERA CRUZ, the chief seaport and commercial city in Mexico, is situated on the coast of the Gulf in latitude 19° 11′ 56″ north, and longitude 96° 8′ 36″ west, and is 190 miles south by southeast of the City of Mexico; population 1889, 24,000. It is built on a level and arid shore, consisting in the main of sand, and is inclosed by strong walls provided with heavy redoubts. Its harbor is little more than a roadstead, formed by several shoals which inclose, in a semicircular form, a tract of sea which in many parts offers excellent anchorage. The most secure portion of the harbor is the strait which separates the



SCENE IN THE BAY OF VERA CRUZ, MEXICO.



THE OLD WALL AND CITY OF VERA CRUZ, MEXICO.

island of San Juan de Ulloa, on which the celebrated fortress of the same name is built, from the city, and this is less than 700 yards wide and about 1,000 yards long.

The streets are straight, wide and well-paved, and the buildings are constructed chiefly of a porous white coral, which composes the cliffs on the coast. The roofs are flat, covered with cement, and shed rain-water into algibes or tanks, whence it is taken for drinking and general domestic purposes. In 1887 there were sixteen churches, a custom house, several hospitals, a municipal palace, a library, a theatre, modern water-works — though the supply of water is considered less healthy than the collected rain-water—and street railroads. The city is lighted by gas, and has improved railroad connection with the City of Mexico by one line, and with Jalapa, the former capital of the state of Vera Cruz, by another.

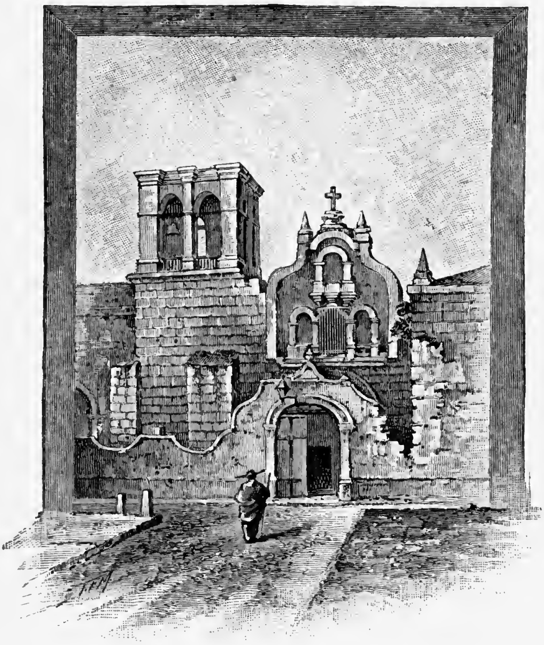
The progress of Vera Cruz has been most seriously retarded by the prevalence during the summer months of the vomito prieto, a kind of yellow fever, which proves very fatal to foreigners, and drives even the acclimatized business men into the interior during its continuance. The strong winds, which from October to April fill the air with sand and lash the roadstead waters into mid-ocean fury, are also a great hindrance to the development of the city on account of the danger to shipping which they produce. They yield some compensation, however, in driving the dreaded fever away. With these drawbacks a vast amount of business is transacted there. Upward of 4,000 vessels from all parts of the world, enter and clear the harbor annually. The imports and exports average about $25,000,000 each in value per annum, of which $2,000,000 are with the United States.

The island on which the castle of San Juan de Ulloa is built was visited for the first time by Europeans under the command of Juan de Grijalva in 1518, and in the following year Cortez landed at the place where the city now stands; but the town founded by him, and called Villa Rica de Vera Cruz, was some miles further north. Three year later that place was abandoned, and another town was built at Antigua, which in turn proved inconvenient. The present city was then established in 1590, but was not incorporated till 1615. The castle and city were held by the Spaniards till 1825; the French took them in 1838; and the Americans, under General Scott, in March, 1847.

Other Places of Interest, Picturesque and Historic.

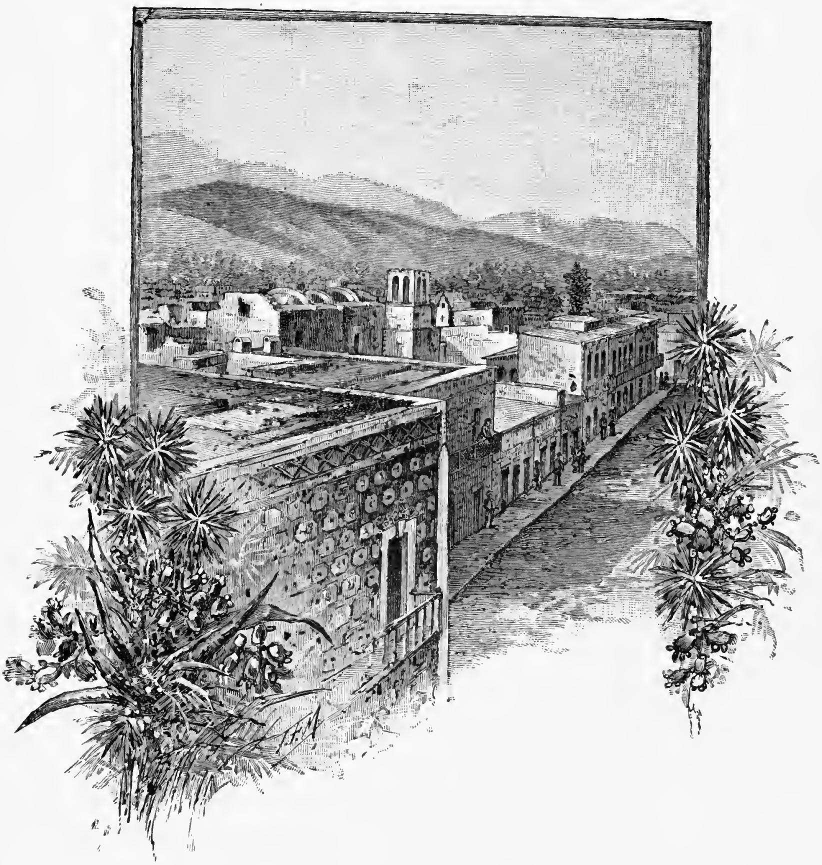
MONTEREY, the capital of the State of Nuevo Leon, is 450 miles north-northwest of Mexico City, 1,626 feet above sea level, built principally of stone, and is the oldest and most important city in northern Mexico. It is inclosed within the northern cordillera of the Sierra Madre Mountains, and has a climate generally mild, but very changeable. It has a beautiful public square, ornamented by a marble fountain fashioned by native workmen and artistically executed, numbers among its noteworthy public structures a venerable cathedral, two churches—one of which has the reputation of being the handsomest in all Mexico—a government palace, municipal palace, a noble hospital, and a prison, military barracks, and abattoir, and contains a seminary, two colleges, and about fifty public and private schools, all of a high standard and liberally sustained. The manufactures, which constitute the chief pride and wealth of the city, embrace nails, bricks, carriages, morocco, candles, soap, sugar, beer, brandy, cotton, paper, flour, and lumber. A large proportion of its trade, export and import, is with the United States.

Monterey was founded in 1596, on the site of a former city known as Ciudad de Leon, and was erected into a Roman Catholic bishopric in 1777. It was the scene of some of the earliest and most decisive actions in the war between the United States and Mexico, being a strong strategic point, correspondingly fortified, and defended by 10,000 regular troops under General Ampudia. The American General Taylor attacked it with 6,600 men on Sept. 19, 1846; first bombarding it, then sending a brigade under General Quitman against the lower part of the town for the purpose of carrying it by assault, General W. O. Butler forcing an entrance at another point, and General Worth driving the Mexicans from the heights south of the river and the Saltillo road. On the following morning the height overlooking the bishop's palace was stormed, and its guns were turned upon the retreating Mexicans. From the beginning the contest was a most determined one on both sides. Even after the Americans had entered the city their progress was contested step by step, the Mexicans finding a mute ally for resistance in the solidly-built houses that lined the principal streets. By the 23d the Americans had fought their way to the plaza, or public square, and on the following day General Ampudia surrendered. The American losses in the various movements amounted to 120 killed and 368 wounded but the Mexican loss was not reported. Since the close of that war, the progress of the city has been rapid for Mexico and substantial. Population, 1869, 13,534; 1885, 37,000.

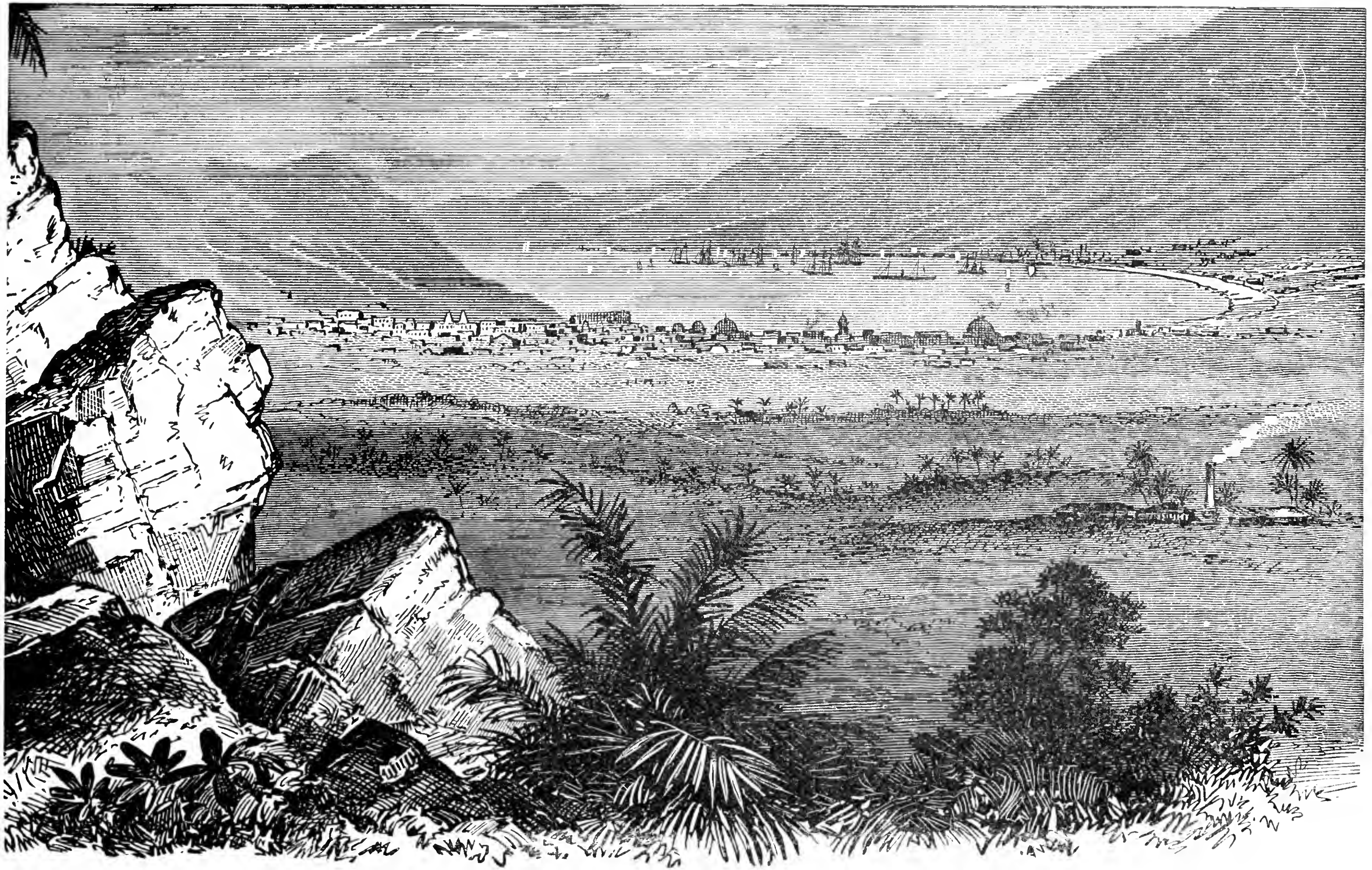

PORTAL OF THE CATHEDRAL, MONTEREY, MEXICO.

The State of Mexico contains three very picturesque and exceedingly fertile valleys, formed by the two great mountain chains which traverse it and their branches, the valleys of Mexico, Tlaxcala, and Toluca. The chief river is the Lerma, which connects the lake of its own name with Lake Chapala. Lake Lerma is in the valley of Toluca. The valley of Mexico contains Lakes

Tezcuco, area 99 square miles; Chalco, 54; Xochimilco and Xaltocan, each 27; Zumpango, 9; and San Cristobel, 6. Some of these overflow their banks during the rainy season, endangering the capital, which has often narrowly escaped destruction by the floods. Lakes Tezcuco, Xochimlico, and Chalco are connected with each other by a canal that was constructed by the ancient Aztecs. The former is navigable by small steamers, and receives the sewage of the capital city. Lake Chapala is also navigable by steam vessels. The distance between Mexico City and Vera Cruz is a little over 260 miles, and is traversed by a railroad that represents one of the most wonderful engineering enterprises in the world. It was begun in 1852, required twenty years of constant toil for its completion, cost $27,000,000, and was opened for traffic



A GLIMPSE OF MONTEREY, MEXICO.

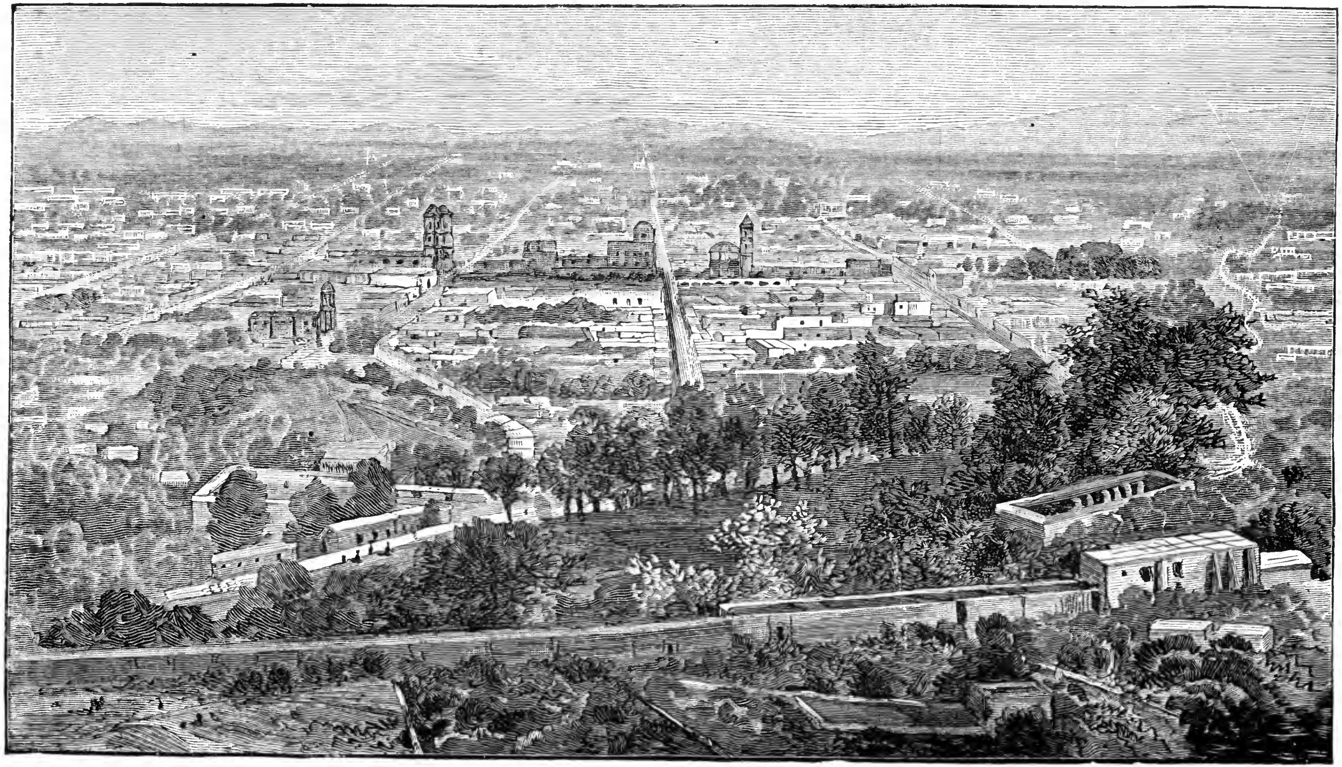


SCENE IN THE VALLEY OF MEXICO.

amid national rejoicings on Jan. 17, 1873. A stretch of sixty miles extends over the mountain region between the great table-land and the coast, at an elevation in some places of nearly 8,000 feet above sea level, and on a grade of 133 feet to the mile. It winds along the rugged sides of mountains, passes through tunnels cut in the hardest rock, and bowls over bridges above deep ravines, and displays on every side some of the grandest scenery on the continent. In September, 1888, the road was considerably injured at the barranca of Metlac, in the State of Vera Cruz, where it crosses on an iron bridge ninety-six feet high and over 500 feet long. Over 150 feet of the bridge were wrecked by the great mass of forest trees and the huge boulders of rock that were dislodged by the heavy rains and washed down the mountain sides.

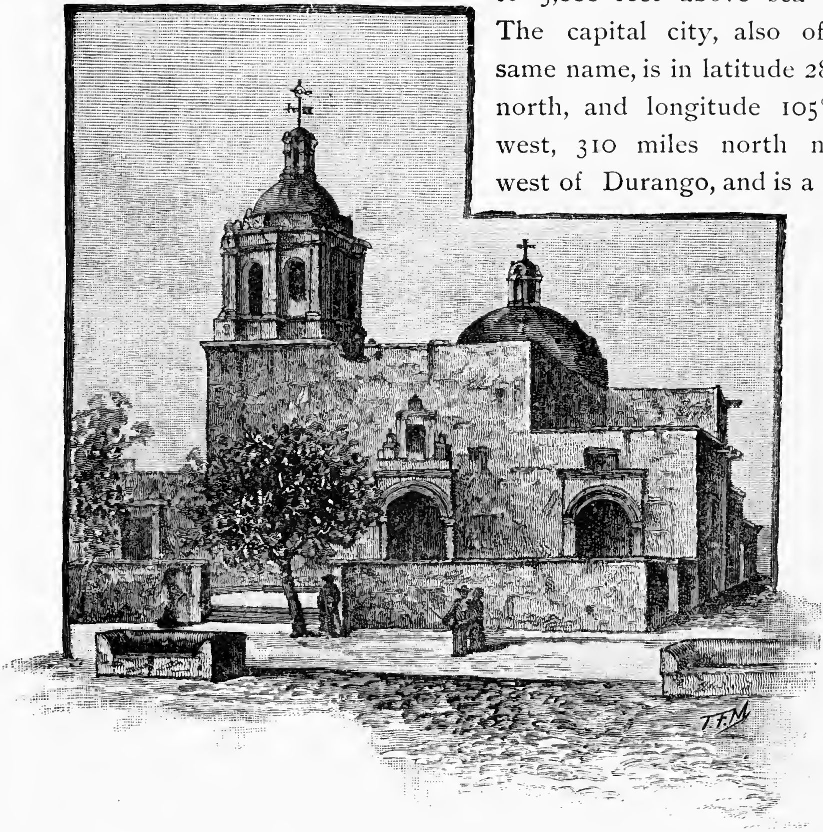
The State of Durango is bounded on the north by Chihuahua, on the east by Coahuila, on the southeast by Zacatecas, on the south by Jalisco, and on the west by Sinaloa. It is between latitude 22° 51′ and 29° 28′ north, and longitude 102° 50′ and 106° 55′ west; contains an area of 66,582 square miles; and had a population in 1880 of 190,846. It is divided into thirteen districts; the climate is cold in the Sierra Madre region, warm on the western slope, and temperate in the rest of the state. There are large tracts of exceedingly fertile soil in the state, an abundance of water, an inexhaustible supply of excellent iron ore in Carmen Mountain near the capital, and numerous deposits of silver of great value. The greater part of the surface is covered by rugged mountains of considerable height. The capital city, of the same name, is built on an elevation of 7,000 feet above sea level, in latitude 24° 2′ north, and longitude 103° 34′ west, and 150 miles west of Zacatecas. It is a well-built and prosperous city, the seat of a Roman Catholic bishop, and has an imposing cathedral, several convents, a college, mint, theatre, and manufactories of tobacco and iron. Population, 1880, 27,000.

The State of Chihuahua is bounded on the north by New Mexico and Texas, on the east by Coahuila, on the south by Durango, and on the west by Sonara; is situated between latitude 26° 9′ and 31° 47′ north, and longitude 103° 8′ and 118° 41′ west; has an area of 105,300 square miles; and had a population in 1880 of 180,758. It is divided politically into eighteen districts. The state is very mountainous, containing a portion of the Sierra Madre range, a branch locally known as the Tarahumara, and the mountains of Carcay, Jesus Maria y Tabacotes, Nido, Batopilas, Urique, Guazapares,



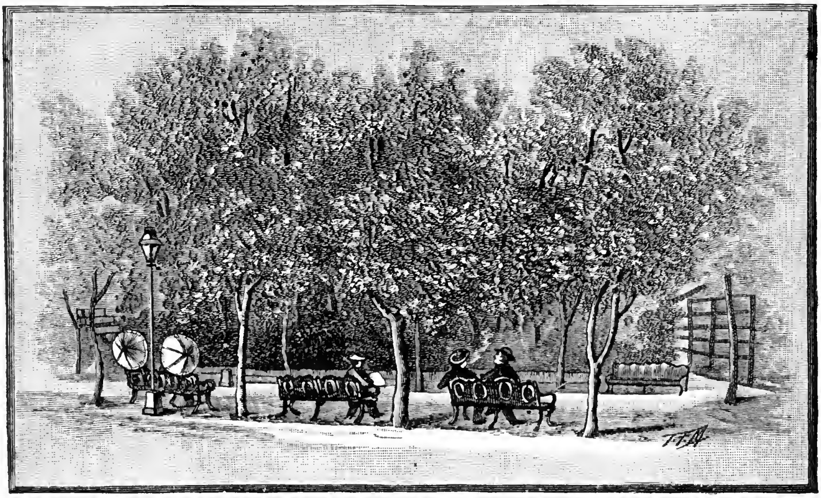
VIEW OF THE CITY OF DURANGO, MEXICO.

Guadaloup y Calvo, Campana, El Chicalate, Mesteñas, Almagres, and several others. The Conchas is the largest river in the state, and next to it are the Chihuahua, Satevo, Florido, Casas Grande, Santa Maria, and Carmen. There are three lakes of note, the Guzman, Santa Maria, and Patos. The plains on the eastern spur of the Tarahumara Mountain have an elevation of from 4,000 to 5,000 feet above sea level. The capital city, also of the same name, is in latitude 28° 50′ north, and longitude 105° 33′ west, 310 miles north north-west of Durango, and is a place of large manufacturing and commercial importance. The state is noted the world over for its numerous silver mines of fabulous extent and wealth, and the capital is the chief point of supply for the whole mining region. It possesses a mint which coins on an average $2,000,000 in silver annually; manufactories of wines and liquors, many large flour mills, and cotton factories; and its inhabitants are chiefly engaged in mining, cattle-raising, general agriculture, and the cultivation of the vine, which thrives wonderfully in El Paso and Hidalgo. Among the points of interest in the

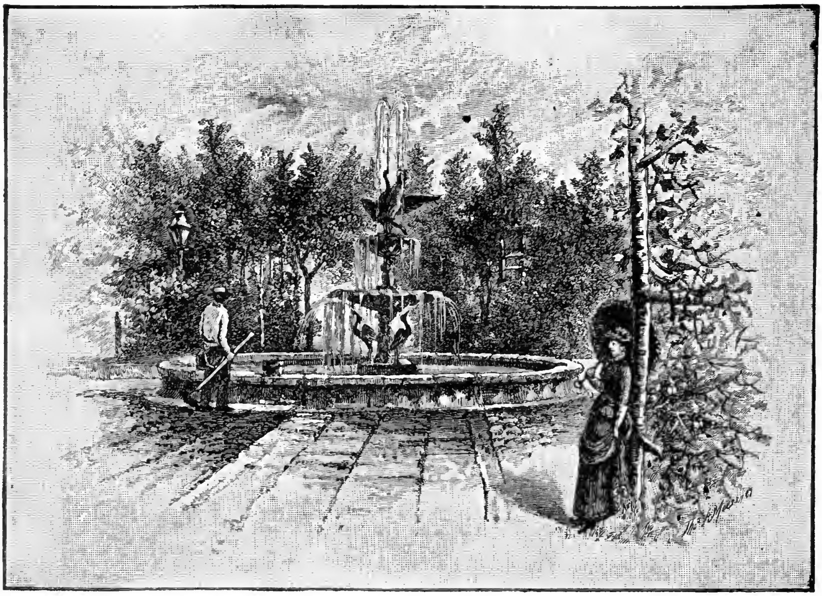


THE CATHEDRAL IN CHIHUAHUA, MEXICO.

capital are the Roman Catholic cathedral, built of stone, and costing with its furniture, altars, and decorations, $800,000; state prison; state-house; and mint. The city is supplied with drinking water from mountain sources by means of a stone aqueduct three miles long, and carries on a large export and import trade with San Antonio, Tex. Population, 1880, 12,116.



THE PLAZA IN CHIHUAHUA, MEXICO.



A PUBLIC FOUNTAIN IN CHIHUAHUA, MEXICO.

CUBA,

THE "GEM OF THE ANTILLES," AND ITS CAPITAL CITY.

CUBA, the most important colony of Spain, the largest of the West India islands, and poetically spoken of as the "Gem" or "Pearl" of the Antilles, lies between the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea, with its east and north extremities about the same distance—130 miles—from the coasts of Yucatan and Florida. The island measures 760 miles in its greatest length and from 20 to 135 miles in width, has a coast line of 2,220 miles, and a total area of 47,278 square miles. A large number of small islands and rocks skirt the entire coast, rendering the approach of an unskilled mariner exceedingly dangerous; yet there are over 200 ports along the coast, the majority of which may be entered safely by vessels of considerable size, as the sea in many places remains deep to the very shore.

The soil is exceedingly fertile, particularly in the western part, where the chief agricultural industries of the island are carried on, sugar, tobacco, and molasses. The mineralogy of the island is represented by gold, silver, iron, copper, quicksilver, lead, antimony, arsenic, copperas; none, however, in quantities that would justify the expense of systematic mining. There are many large areas of dense forest, containing a very valuable growth of lignum-vitæ, ebony, rosewood, and mahogany. The cocoanut, African palm, sour orange, lemon, pine-apple, banana, and sweet potato are indigenous; there are 300 kinds of butterflies, 200 species of native birds exclusive of domestic fowls, and 600 species of fish; turtles, alligators, insects—including the tarantula, the scorpion, and the sand-fly—and an ant that preys upon vegetables, abound; but there are very few wild animals or snakes on the island. A mountain range runs almost the entire length of the island near its centre, forming a watershed from which numerous small rivers flow either into the Gulf or the sea; the highest elevation is 8,000 feet above sea-level. Tobacco, one of the three great staples of Cuba, is grown on the southern coast of the extreme western end, a strip of irregular shape about eighty miles long and twenty wide, known as Vuelto Abajo. Cotton is cultivated to a considerable extent, and the mulberry tree, which there attains its highest perfection, is much esteemed in connection with the breeding of silk-worms.

The Roman Catholic is the established religion of the island, and although the government assumed a direct supervision of educational matters in 1842, and declared the Royal and Pontifical University in Havana a national institution, it is essentially under the control of that church. This famous seat of learning was established by virtue of a bull issued in 1722 by Pope Innocent XIII. and approved by the Spanish government, 1729. There are two quite celebrated seminaries for the instruction of young men expecting to become clergymen, the college of San Carlos in Havana, and that of San Basilio in Santiago de Cuba. The expenses of education in the higher branches are paid from the public revenues, while the various cities and towns support schools for the primary branches. In ecclesiastical government, Cuba is divided into two parts since 1788, the metropolitans of which are established at Havana and Santiago de Cuba. In political government there are three divisions, known as the Western, Central, and Southeastern Provinces, and the supreme authority and direct representative of the Sovereign of Spain is the Captain-general, usually an army officer of distinction in the mother-country. The subordinate officials in the fourteen cities, twelve towns, and 324 villages and hamlets are also military men, who receive the appointments by way of political rewards.

The population of Cuba is variously estimated. A census was taken in 1862 which showed 1,359,438 inhabitants, of whom a large portion were slaves. A law was passed by the Spanish Cortes or congress on June 23, 1870, declaring all slaves free; but through the opposition of a powerful faction in Havana the government has never been able to make its declaration an accomplished fact. In 1880 the population was estimated at 1,521,684, of whom 764,160 were put down as whites, Spaniards and Spanish creoles, 344,400 as free people of color, 227,900 as slaves, and 58,400 as Chinese. The most populous cities were Havana, 250,000; Santiago de Cuba, 60,000; Matanzas, 36,000; and Puerto Principe, 30,000. Although its manufacturing industries are limited to a few commodities, their individual extent gives Cuba its chief importance. In 1880 there were exported from the port of Havana alone, 12,464,936 pounds of tobacco, 153,141,000 cigars, 90,523 boxes, 219,323 sacks, and 190,083 barrels of sugar, 12,433 barrels of molasses, and 9,873 pipes of rum of 125 gallons each. The more recent volume of business with the United States, the chief consumer of Cuban products and manufactures, is shown by the following: Imports from Cuba into the United States; (1883) $65,544,534; (1884) $57,181,497; (1885) $42,306,093; (1886) $51,110,780; (1887)

$49,515,434. Exports from the United States into Cuba: (1883) $14,567,918; (1884) $10,562,880; (1885) $8,719,195; (1886) $10,020,879; (1887) $10,138,930. A further view of the transactions with the United States is afforded by the clearance reports of the Havana custom-house for 1882, the latest at hand. During that year 1,424 vessels entered and cleared that port alone, representing an aggregate tonnage of 1,258,181. Of this number 570 vessels of 496,736 tons were American; 528 of 489,903 tons were Spanish; 219 of 186,403 tons were English; 27 of 43,980 were French; 5 of 3,906 tons were German; 54 of 26,326 were Norwegian; and 21 of 10,927 belonged to other nations.

The history of Cuba forms a long narrative of revolutions, insurrections and warfare in various degrees. The island was discovered by Columbus, Oct. 24, 1492; colonized by Spaniards under Diego Velasquez, 1511; a French pirate burned Havana, 1538; the native Indians, harshly treated by the Spanish governor, Hernando, became extinct, 1553; Drake, returning victorious from Carthagena, blockaded the chief ports, 1588; a Dutch squadron menaced them, 1638; filibusters overran the island from 1650 to 1700; Puerto Principe was plundered and destroyed by them, 1688; the tobacco monopoly was established by the Spanish crown, 1717 and remained in force till 1816; and Havana was captured by the British, 1762, and restored in the following year on Spain ceding to England the territory of Florida and all her possessions east and southeast of the Mississippi River. After the restitution of Havana the home government began granting concessions of commercial privileges; and while the island entered upon an era of prosperity, it was through the agency of an element destined to become the source of long and bitter trouble. The necessity for a large force of field laborers gave a great impetus to the African slave-trade; and it has been estimated that between 1789 and 1845, over 550,000 slaves were placed on Cuban plantations. These, in time, broke out in stubborn insurrections, the uprisings in 1844 and 1848 being particularly notable by reason of the large numbers who were killed, the victims in the latter year alone amounting to 10,000.

During 1849–51 the island was again disturbed by a series of outbreaks fomented and led by American adventurers. And again in 1868, when the mother-country was shaken in every province by a determined revolution, the island was seized by a convulsion which lasted twelve years. The most heroic attempts were made by the Cubans to achieve independence, and they were encouraged in their course by the people of the United States as openly as international law would permit. They established a congress, elected a president, commissioned army and naval officers, and confined their operations chiefly to the eastern part of the island. The Spanish authorities fought the revolutionists with extreme vigor, and came near involving the home government in war with the United States by acts of almost savage cruelty. It was estimated that during the struggle 80,000 soldiers were sent to the island from Spain, of whom not more than 12,000 survived; 13,600 Cubans were killed in battle; 43,500 were taken prisoner and put to death; and Spain spent $70,339,658 in the defence.

The revolution gradually subsided between 1878 and 1880 upon promises of leniency and local reforms by Spain; and since the latter year the island has enjoyed tranquillity.

CITY OF HAVANA.

HAVANA, the capital of the island and the most important city in the West Indies, is situated on an inlet of the Gulf of Mexico, in latitude 23° 8′ north, and longitude 82° 22′ west; and had a population in 1887 of 230,000. It has a channel three-eighths of a mile long, opening into a large basin; is defended by Morro and Punta castles and La Cabaña, a strong citadel, besides other heavy fortifications, all below the inner harbor; and is divided into the old or walled town and the new one beyond. The most attractive part of the city is in the vicinity of the great public square, the Plaza de Armas, which has four beautiful gardens, spacious walks bordered by stately palms and other magnificent trees, and a statue of Ferdinand VII. in the centre. On the west side is the Governor's Palace, a two-story building with a handsome colonnade in front, painted yellow, in which the governmental offices are located. Opposite the Palace is the beautiful chapel, El Templete, erected on the spot where the first mass was celebrated after the removal of the city to its present site. The cathedral, erected in 1724 and used as a college by the Jesuits till 1789, stands foremost among the public buildings. Its dimensions and architecture are imposing, but not remarkably so for an old Roman Catholic community. What made it particularly interesting to travellers and especially to Americans, was the fact that it contained the ashes of Christopher Columbus, which were transferred thither from the cathedral at San Domingo, Jan. 15, 1796. After reposing there nearly one hundred years, they were removed July 2, 1887, placed reverently on board an Italian man-of-war, conveyed to Genoa, and entombed with great public and ecclesiastical ceremonies. There are fifteen other churches, nine of which are attached to monastic orders; two, San Catalina and San Juan de Dias, date from the sixteenth century; one, San Augustin, from the beginning of the seventeenth; and all are noted for the richness and splendor of their decorations.

The strangest contrasts are seen in Havana within comparatively a few feet. Within the walled part, the business part still and the residence of many wealthy Cubans, the tourist will look in vain for a tree, plant, or something green to refresh the eye; a very small square in front of the little temple reared in memory of the landing of Columbus on the spot, being the only exception. Beyond the walls where the modern part of the city begins, the prospect immediately changes. Beside the Plaza de Armas and the buildings already mentioned, there are the Calle del Prado, extending to the Costa del Norte, the Parque de Isabela Catolica, with its statue of her majesty, the Campo del Marte, and numerous other parks and boulevards, teeming with life and beauty. Here are located the architectural adornments of the capital, the principal hotels, the Tacon and La Paz theatres, the Louvre, and the celebrated Casino club house, the pride of the city.

The architecture of the residences and business houses is identical with that of the south of Spain, and is of a decidedly Moorish tone. The houses are built for the most part of stone, with very thick walls and tessellated floors, and seldom exceed two stories in height. The roofs are invariably flat and covered with variegated tiling, or, in the case of a very pretentious building, with masonry; and in evenings the families and their guests betake themselves thither to enjoy the refreshing sea breezes. The doors are large, ponderous, and strengthened with heavy iron bands and bolts; the knockers are usually brass, in the shape of a hand. The windows have no glass, and are simply large openings for air and light, with iron bars running up and down their length about six inches apart. Heavy latticed shutters on the outside stand open in evenings to admit the breeze and are closed in the day time to exclude the sun. The houses are painted pink, blue, yellow, and other bright colors; the floors and stairs of costly residences are generally marble, the apartments open upon a covered veranda, and the outer door or doors—for many of them are double—open into a *patio*, corresponding with the Mexican court-yard, in which there is usually a fountain and a profusion of plants and flowers. A staircase leads from the patio to the upper apartments. Since the close of the revolution, many wealthy planters have erected very costly residences, and changed the native to the modern foreign style both in construction and embellishment.

The first railroad in Cuba was opened in Havana in 1837; the first telegraph line was built therefrom in 1852; the submarine cable to Florida was laid in 1867–8; and that to Jamaica in 1870. In 1889 Havana had steamship communications with Spain, France, England, and the United States weekly; and railroad connections with Cardenas, Matanzas, Santiago, and other important places on the island.

THE BAHAMA ISLANDS.

THIS possession of Great Britain embraces a group of 600 islands in the Atlantic Ocean, stretching in a north-westerly direction from the north side of San Domingo to the east coast of Florida, between latitude 20° 55′ and 27° 40′ north, and longitude 68° 40′ and 79° 20′ west, and having an aggregate area of 3,021 square miles. Less than twenty of the islands are inhabited, and these had a population in 1887 of 43,521. The principal islands are situated on the remarkable flats called the Bahama Banks, of which the Great Bank lying at the western extremity of the archipelago occupies an extent of 300 miles in length, northwest and southeast, and eighty miles in breadth. The deepest water on any part of this bank is thirty feet, but the patches of coral rock and dry sand are innumerable. These banks rise almost perpendicularly from an unfathomable depth of water, and are formed of coral, with an accumulation of shells and calcareous sand. The islands are generally long and narrow, low, and covered with a light sandy soil, their figure and surface throughout being nearly uniform in character. Those islands not situated on the bank have a reef of rocks extending a short distance from the shore, forming the boundary of soundings, immediately outside which the sea is often unfathomable.

The principal islands are Abaco, eighty miles long and twenty broad; Eleuthera, eighty miles long and ten broad; New Providence, eighty miles long and from eight to ten broad; Andros, 100 miles long and fifteen broad; Guanahani, or Cat Island, forty miles long and five broad; Watling, twenty miles long and four broad; Exuma, thirty miles long and four broad; Long

Island, seventy-five miles long and five broad; Crooked Islands, a group of four small ones, whose inhabitants are chiefly engaged in salt-raking; and Inagua, the most southern of the group, containing 675 square miles of surface, and remarkable for its great salt-pond of 1,600 acres, from a single acre of which 8,000 bushels of salt have been frequently raked in one season. Caicos and Turk's Islands were formerly included in the Bahama group for administrative purposes, but since 1848 they have been under the jurisdiction of the Governor of Jamaica.

The climate is healthy and temperate; from May to October the thermometer ranges from 82° to 88°F., from November to April it averages 70°; thunderstorms are violent and frequent, and earthquakes are sometimes felt. The rainfall in 1887 was 79.41 inches, of which 20.07 fell in August and only 0.51 in February. This was the largest rainfall registered in the Bahamas for twenty years, and was distributed throughout the year thus: first quarter, 2.84 inches; second, 28.18; third, 37.07; and fourth, 11.32. The products of the islands comprise fruit in abundance, oranges, pine-apples, limes, lemons, yams, sweet potatoes, maize, and cotton; the leading articles of export are salt, sponge, pineapples, oranges, limes, lemons, cabinet woods, cascarilla bark, arrowroot, and pimento; and the chief imports are provisions, lumber, shingles, and other materials for ship and house building from the United States, and sugar, coffee, and other tropical productions from Cuba, Porto Rico, and the British West Indies. In 1887 the exports amounted to $627,320, and there was a marked falling off in cotton and pine-apples and an improvement in the sponge trade. The imports aggregated $947,280, of which $148,345 came from Great Britain, and the remainder almost wholly from the United States, where nearly the whole of the fruit grown on the islands is sold. The public revenue in that year was $229,345, an increase of $9,745 over the previous year; the expenditure was $219,775; and the debt, $415,630.

The government of the islands is vested in a colonial governor appointed by the British sovereign, an executive council, a legislative council, and an assembly of thirty members chosen by popular vote. All forms of religious worship are tolerated, but the Church of England is naturally the largest in membership. It carries on a considerable work on the islands, which constitute fifteen parishes, and has numerous churches, chapels, mission stations, and day and Sunday schools. A colonial board of education was established in 1848 on the system of the British and Foreign School Society, and in 1887 there were thirty-six schools with an average daily attendance of 4,550 scholars. The lack of means to procure a higher grade of teachers was much deplored. New Providence is the most important island in the group, and Nassau, its chief and only town, is the seat of government of the colony.

The submarine gardens of the Bahamas form one of the most interesting scenes imaginable, and more than fulfil any ideas the fancy may create about them. They are really fairy gardens, for, far down in the clear green water wave brilliant sea grass, sea fans, plumes, flowers, and vines; while many species of fish, varying in hue and size from the green and golden minnow, not two ounces in weight perhaps, to the ponderous jow fish, clad in a coat of silver mail and weighing over 500 pounds, dash through the shrubbery or placidly float in a coral grotto. Conches, in which pinkish pearls are concealed, may also be found there, and with them nearly every species of shell-fish indigenous to tropical seas.

Harbor Island, in the northern end of the group, is very interesting, as it boasts the second largest city in the Bahamas, Dunmore Town, and the famous "Glass Windows," which are nothing more than a massive arch of limestone rocks, about eighty feet in height, which command some noble views of land and water. One of the most curious spots in the entire region is Spanish Wells, situated on an island of the same name. Its houses, which are huddled together in the utmost confusion, are erected on high posts to protect the inmates from the incursions of the wandering crabs, which live among the rocks and move over the island at night in such vast numbers that they destroy every edible thing they can find. Eleuthera Island, readily reached by small boats from New Providence, grows about two-thirds of the entire pine-apple crop of the Bahamas, and its inhabitants have been shipping almost wholly to the United States since 1820. Guanahani, or Cat Island, was the first land met with by Columbus on his first voyage of discovery, his landing taking place in October, 1492. He piously made the sign of the cross on a large rock, named the place San Salvador, and carried to Mexico the few natives he encountered.

The islands remained uninhabited till 1629, when New Providence was settled by the English, who held it till 1641. A body of Spaniards seized the island in that year, destroyed the colony, and expelled the settlers, but made no permanent occupation. The English again colonized it in 1666, and the settlers enjoyed a peaceable existence till 1703, when a combined force of French and Spaniards destroyed Nassau and put its inhabitants to flight.

After this the island became a rendezvous for pirates, whose depredations on the adjacent seas became so notorious that the British government determined to suppress them and re-establish the colony. This it did by means of a naval squadron in 1718. Nassau was fortified, and settlements were made on other large islands. In 1776 New Providence was seized by the Americans, but they abandoned it shortly afterward; in 1781 all the islands were seized by the Spaniards; and 1783 they were again restored to Great Britain by treaty, and she has since remained in undisturbed possession of them.

CITY OF NASSAU.

NASSAU, the port of entry and capital of the Colony of the Bahamas, is built on the northern coast of the island of New Providence, and extends along the water front for a distance of three miles and back to the crest of the slope, on which stands the government house, the Royal Victoria hotel, erected by the British government in 1860 for the accommodation of foreign invalids, and many of the finest private residences. The ground here has an elevation of ninety feet above the sea level of the harbor, thus insuring admirable drainage. The streets are regularly laid out, cross each other at right angles, and are macadamized; and the houses are, for the most part, built of stone, in the midst of grounds beautifully arranged in flower and shrub. The city contains a museum and library established in 1847, numerous churches and charitable institutions, and elegant drives leading to the suburbs, rich in inland and seaward scenery. It was founded in 1629, declared a free port in 1787, suffered severely from a tornado on March 30, 1850, was made an Anglican bishop's see in 1861, and its harbor was used as a rendezvous for blockade-runners during the American civil war.

Though a considerable foreign trade is carried on in the city, it enjoys its highest distinction as an unusually popular winter resort for invalids and pleasure seekers. Its proximity to the American coast and ease of access by steamship from a number of Atlantic ports, combined with the equability and wonderful salubrity of its climate, attract a large number of American families annually who wish to escape the rigors of a northern season. The heat is tempered by an ocean breeze of a softness and purity not excelled elsewhere; fish abound in the neighboring waters; and northern fowl seek the region of the lakes close by, at the beginning of the American winter and the Nassau fashionable seasons.

Nassau has been very aptly called a lazy man's paradise; and while air, surroundings, and associations are conducive to quiescence, there is an abundance of material for the most active sight-seeing. Beside the ordinary tropical trees found in the West Indies, the tourist will be pleased to meet the banyan tree, the royal African palm, the silk-cotton tree, the life plant—that mysterious growth of which a leaf, if broken off and pinned to the wall, will not only thrive without water but will send forth shoots that in turn produce others and so rapidly, that the product of a single leaf will soon cover the side of a large room—and many other marvels of plant, flower, and shrub. One of the most charming spots on the island is Lake Killarney, whose greenish transparent water gleams amid orange and cocoanut groves, and whose emerald hue contrasts strongly with the scarlet of the pine-apple plantations that surround it. The Caves, which are composed of a series of caverns, are much frequented by American tourists. Two of these are of fair size, but the largest is a mile in the interior. The vestibule is divided into two parts which run at right angles to each other, and one of them bears a resemblance to a cathedral, with its altar, chancel, and columns, while the roots of a banyan tree, which have pierced its roof, are not unlike supports for chandeliers. The inner chamber which is entered through a narrow hole about half a mile long, is wrapped in such gloom that the torches used by visitors only make its blackness seem deeper. Those who have a taste for archæology would enjoy a visit to Forts Fincastle, which, viewed from the front, resembles a side-wheel steamship built of stone, and Charlotte at the western end of the town, with their gloomy vaults and dungeons, massive walls and inky passages of stone, which seem to breathe of past cruelty and slaughter. Fort Fincastle is now used as a station for signalling the approach of vessels. Fort Charlotte was built by the Earl of Dunmore more than 100 years ago, has gloomy passages of massive rock, numerous dungeons, and a curious deep well with circular stairs leading to the bottom, from which an almost hair-raising passage enables one to reach a chamber known as "The Governor's Room."

There is so much to see, learn, enjoy, and be benefited by in this delightful winter resort, that one season will hardly suffice to yield the amount of satisfaction that is possible.

THE
COUNTRIES OF SOUTH AMERICA:
Their Capitals and Seaports.

BRAZIL.

BRAZIL, until the peaceful revolution of 1889, was a constitutional monarchy. The treatment of its history must necessarily be confined to the period prior to that event, as the time to write accurately and impartially of the recent change in government has not yet arrived.

The country occupies one-half the entire territory of South America, and has an area nearly equal to that of the whole of Europe. It extends from latitude 4° 30′ north to 33° 45′ south, and from longitude 34° 40′ to 72° 30′ west, and has an extreme length of 2,600 English miles, a breadth of 2,500 miles, and a sea-board of 4,000 miles. The area is variously estimated at from 3,218,166 to 3,288,963 square miles, and the population was computed in 1885 at 12,922,375, of whom 1,149,723 were slaves. Beyond this enumeration there was a nomadic aboriginal population estimated at 1,000,000.

The country has an unusually large and constant water supply from its remarkable river system, which—if it did not include that grand monarch of rivers—the Amazon—would still be a natural phenomenon. The Amazon is reputed the largest river in the world, and though it is claimed that both the Mississippi and Nile rivers are longer, they are unquestionably inferior in volume. It rises in the mountains of western Peru near the Pacific Ocean, and, after flowing a distance of nearly 3,000 miles, empties into the Atlantic through a main mouth fifty miles wide. If it be admitted, as is strongly asserted, that the Para River also is an outlet, the delta of the Amazon will measure 180 miles in width. The Amazon itself drains 800,000 square miles of territory within the country, and with its numerous tributaries about one-third the whole of South America.

The surface of the country is divided into the higher region of plateaus, ridges, broad, open valleys, and the vast lowland plain of the Amazon. The mountains are rich in minerals and precious stones; mines of diamonds are both numerous and exceedingly productive; and, according to Prof. Agassiz, no country in the world approaches Brazil in the variety and wealth of its forest productions. From a single piece of land not half a mile square he cut 117 different kinds of valuable woods, and noted particularly a single variety of the palm from which the natives obtained food, drink, clothing, bedding, cordage, fishing tackle, medicine, and the material they manufactured into dwellings, weapons, harpoons, and musical instruments. The most important trees are the Brazil wood, rosewood, laurel, soap, and the entire family of palms. The cocoa tree, which grows in great quantities, supplies chocolate, one of the most important items of internal commerce, and the gum of the caoutchouc tree, which is tapped daily in the dry season, when held in the smoke made by burning the nuts of the tucuma becomes the india rubber of commerce. The fruit of the Brazil-nut tree ranks third in importance among the exports of the Amazon valley, the first two being rubber and cocoa.

The soil in general is very rich; the valley of the Amazon is so fertile that nearly all its vegetation is spontaneous, and agriculture is carried on rudely and without tilling. The eastern and coast provinces are the chief agricultural regions, where coffee, sugar, cotton, cassava flour, tobacco, rice, maize, fruits, and spices are grown in enormous quantities. The flora and fauna are the most luxuriant and beautiful in the world; the birds are unapproachable in brilliancy of plumage; animal life is displayed in its wildest forms; and the domestic animals of importance are limited to the horse, cattle, and sheep. Cattle are bred in the central and southern provinces, but sheep do not thrive as well. As may be imagined from the great extent of the country, the climate shows considerable variations. In the Amazon basin the temperature averages between 75° and 90° F.; in the latitude of Rio de Janeiro the summer or January temperature averages about 75° near the sea level, and that of July about 65°. Snow and ice form on the high table-lands and mountain ranges. At the mouth of the Amazon the climate in general is similar to that of New York city in August.

Under the empire the state treatment of religious affairs was liberal. The established form was Roman Catholic, but there was no persecution in any way for religious acts or motives. The empire maintained the Roman Catholic clergy and also aided materially in the building of churches and support of clergy and institutions of other denominations. The educational system was thorough and likewise liberal, but unfortunately has not been fully appreciated. Public education is primary, secondary, or preparatory, and scientific or superior. In all cases it is gratuitous.

In 1886 there were 4,379 miles of railroad in operation and 1,410 under construction, and 6,440 miles of telegraph, beside a submarine cable to Europe. The same year the total imports amounted to $103,691,240, and the exports, which were chiefly coffee, sugar, and hides, $115,143,260. In 1887 the public revenue was $100,364,124, one half of which was from customs duties, and the expenditures $115,133,240; and the public debt of all kinds aggregated $565,035,000. The recent trade with the United States was as follows: imports: 1885, $7,258,035; 1886, $6,480,738; 1887, $8,071,653; exports: 1885, $45,263,660; 1886, $41,907,532; 1887, $52,953,176. In the latter year there were sixty-two cotton spinning and weaving factories, with 5,084 horse-power and 5,712 looms, and fifty-two central sugar houses, for thirty-three of which the government guaranteed the interest on the capital invested, $10,000,000.

Under the empire the government of the country was a constitutional monarchy. Four powers were established by the constitution: the legislative, vested in a national assembly comprising a senate of fifty-eight life members and a congress of 122 representatives elected for four years; the executive, vested in the emperor, assisted by a cabinet of ministers and a council of state; the judicial; and the moderating, or royal prerogative. For administrative purposes the country was divided into twenty provinces, comprising 642 municipalities. Each provincial government consisted of a provincial chamber and a general council or legislative assembly; the members of the former were elected directly by the voters for terms of two years, and of the latter by the same electors as the members of the house of representatives. The chief cities are Rio de Janeiro, the capital, population in 1887, 274,972; Bahia, 128,929; Pernambuco, 116,671; Para, 35,000; Maranham, 31.604; Sao Paulo, 25,000; and Parahiba, 15,000. The language of the country is Portuguese.

Brazil was discovered in 1500 by V. Y. Pinzon, an associate of Columbus. Pedro A. Cabral subsequently took possession of it, and amid the persistent opposition of several countries the Portuguese made a number of settlements. In 1807, Napoleon declared war against Portugal, and in the following year, King John VI. fled with the royal family to Brazil, then a Portuguese colony. In 1815 the colony was declared a kingdom; in 1820 the royal family returned to Portugal, the king leaving his son, Dom Pedro I. as regent; in 1821 a national congress chose him Perpetual Protector; and in 1822 he declared Brazil free and independent, assumed the title of Constitutional Emperor and Protector, and was recognized by Portugal in 1825. Dom Pedro I. abdicated in favor of his son, Dom Pedro II., in 1831, and the country remained under a regency till 1841, when the new emperor was crowned. In 1865–70 the country was at war with Paraguay; 1866 all the important rivers were opened to foreign commerce; 1871 and 1885 provisions were made for the gradual liberation of the slaves, and in 1888 the emancipation measures were consummated. In November, 1889, the empire was overthrown by a peaceful revolution. The royal family was pensioned and retired to Portugal, and measures were taken for the organization of a republican government.

CITY OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

RIO DE JANEIRO, the city of the "River of January," the capital of Brazil and much the largest city in South America, is situated on the western shore of a bay of the same name, in latitude 22° 54′ south, and longitude 43° 10′ west. The bay is twenty-four miles in length from north to south, from four to fifteen miles wide, and being inclosed by hills over 1,000 feet high, forms the finest, safest, and most capacious harbor in the world. Its entrance, which is protected on both sides by heavy fortifications, is 1,700 yards wide with an average depth of fourteen fathoms of water. Near the entrance, and where the bay is only from four to eight miles wide, the city stretches a distance of six miles. A fine pier of stone projects a short distance into the bay, and is ascended by a flight of steps. It leads directly to the Praça de San José, two sides of which square are occupied by the imperial palace. The streets are paved; the houses, generally built of stone and two-stories high, are white-washed or rough cast, with red-tiled roofs, and projecting eaves; the lower story is usually a coach-house or stable, the windows of the second reach the floor and open upon iron verandas, guarded by trellis-work shutters.

In 1887 there were sixty churches, of which the cathedral and the churches of San Francisco de Paula and De Candelaria were the most distinguished buildings in the city. The church of San Francisco is very large, has extensive catacombs beneath it, and, like all the older structures of the kind, has a plain exterior, but is richly decorated within. The chapels of the emperor and empress near the palace are splendid churches. The public buildings of note include the government building, the post-office, the marine hospital, the opera-house, the military barracks, the offices of the ministers of war and of commerce, the senate building and the National Museum, which contains fine collections of minerals and precious stones, American ornithology, and native Indian curiosities, beside many foreign curiosities, specimens of natural history, and a number of sarcophagi. The six last buildings are on the Campo de Santa Anna, the largest public square in the city. Among other buildings the mint, Academy of Fine Arts, observatory, imperial library, and the palace of San Christovao are prominent. The charitable institutions include a number of hospitals for natives, Portuguese, English, French, and Spaniards. The city has a grand array of educational institutions, comprising a national college, military and engineering school, naval academy, school of medicine and surgery, a commercial school, a geographical and historical institute, a polytechnic and agricultural college, several night schools for adults, and numerous public, parochial, and private schools. The imperial library is noteworthy, beyond its treasures, because it was at one time the royal library of Portugal, and was removed from Lisbon to Rio de Janeiro on the flight of King John in 1808.

The city is supplied with good water by means of what is probably the greatest curiosity in that entire section. The source of the supply is the Corcovado Mountain, 2,307 feet above sea level, and on the summit of which is the observatory and a watch tower. Rushing down the mountain, the water is collected into the Casa de Agua, or reservoir, about four miles from the city. From this it is conveyed by an aqueduct of huge blocks of granite, twelve miles long, begun in the middle of the seventeenth and finished in the middle of the eighteenth century, and crossing a valley over 200 yards wide supported on two rows of arches one above another, and reaching a height of ninety feet, to the city where it is distributed into numerous fountains for general use.

The harbor is entered annually by about 4,500 vessels of 2,500,000 tons burden from foreign ports, and about 6,500 vessels of over 1,,000,000 tons from domestic ones. During the ten years preceding 1889, the average value of imports was $37,000,000, and of exports $54,000,000. The chief item of export is coffee, and about one-half of the entire product is shipped to the United States. The population of Rio de Janeiro in 1885 was 274,972. The first settlements on the bay were made by Portuguese in 1531. They soon withdrew, and a colony of French Huguenots followed them in 1555. The Portuguese, however, returned, drove the French away, and made a permanent settlement in 1567. The city became the capital of the Portuguese viceroyalty in 1763, and of the Brazilian empire in 1822.

Pernambuco, with a population of 116,671, has a decidedly metropolitan air, with long lines of street cars, substantial iron bridges over the rivers that divide the city into three sections, streets closely built with stucco-front houses three and four stories high, and an extensive market built of stone and iron. The city is built on perfectly level ground, presents a long front to the water, exhibits much neatness and commercial thrift, and imports large quantities of sugar, molasses, and rum.

Para, with a population of 35,000, is, after Quito, the only considerable city in the world on the equatorial line. The river in front of the city is twenty miles wide, but the expanse is broken by numerous islands. Ships of any size will float within 150 yards of the shore. The city is regularly laid out, has a number of handsome public squares, wide and attractive avenues, six large churches including the cathedral, a post office, a custom house of considerable magnitude, and a most ornate presidential mansion, with a staircase of marvellously sculptured marble. The commerce of the city is carried on almost exclusively by Portuguese and other foreigners; and the chief exports are rubber, cacao, coffee, sugar, cotton, sarsaparilla, vanilla, copaiba, tobacco, rum, hides, parrots, and mokeys.

THE REPUBLIC OF CHILI.

CHILI occupies the long narrow strip of territory between the Pacific Ocean and the Andes Mountains, and the nineteenth and fifty-sixth degree of south latitude. Including Antofagasta, which was ceded to it by Bolivia in 1885, Tarapaca, which Peru surrendered in 1883, and Tacua, which by the treaty of peace is to remain in the possession of Chili till 1893, when the question whether it shall revert to Peru or remain a part of Chili is to be settled by a popular vote, the republic contained in 1885 an area of 293,310 square miles, and had a population of 2,520,442. Its surface is mountainous, with a mean elevation of 14,000 feet above sea-level; the average height of the Andes there is 11,830 feet, and their highest peak, Aconcagua, is 22,420 feet above the sea. The upper half of the country is generally barren and sterile, the richest and most fertile portions being the central and southern parts. Above 82 per cent. of the whole surface is desert, mountain pasture, and forest, and the remaining 18 per cent. arable land: Agriculture is pursued with much industry, and owing to local necessities, with the most improved implements and on advanced scientific plans. The country is destitute of rivers or lakes of any magnitude, but numerous small streams fed by the melted mountain snow are skilfully utilized for irrigation purposes. The staple products are the usual kind of European cereals, potatoes which are indigenous, hemp, fruits of all kinds, the vine, and the olive. In mineral resources the country is richest in copper, though it has considerable mines of gold and silver, and all are worked with modern appliances. The climate embraces the extremes of intense heat and intense cold, is on the whole healthful and as enjoyable as any on the globe, and averages in temperature at Santiago 53° F. The rainy season is June, July, and August; spring begins in September, and winter in June.

Politically the republic is divided into eighteen provinces and four territories. The capital is Santiago, usually spoken of as Santiago de Chili to distinguish it from other cities and towns of the same name; Talcahuana has the best harbor, and Coquimbo the second, but that of Valparaiso is the most important, as that city is the seaport of the capital. The president is elected for a term of five years; the legislative authority is vested in a senate of thirty-seven members elected for six years and a chamber of deputies of 109 members elected for three; and the executives of the provinces are appointed by the president. All citizens able to read and write, and who pay a small annual tax, are allowed to vote in all elections. The constitution guarantees personal and religious freedom, but makes the Roman Catholic the religion of the state. Through all the changes of administration the government has liberally fostered the cause of education, and the remarkable statement can be made with absolute truth that in the total population one person out of every seven can read, one out of every eight can read and write, and one out of every twenty-four attends school regularly. Nearly two-thirds the educational institutions are supported by the government. In 1885 there were 1,421 miles of railroads, and 7,625 of telegraph lines in operation; in 1886 the revenue, one-half of which was derived from customs and monopolies, amounted to $35,064,350, and the expenditures were $50,073,183; and on

Jan. 1,1887, the total debt was $120,428,825. The exports of 1886 included products of the mines worth $40,264,340, of agriculture $9,710,747, of manufactures $172,900, and of specie and bullion $644,416. Recent trade with the United States is shown as follows: exports; (1883) $435,584, (1884) $537,936, (1885) $604,525, (1886), $1,182,845, (1887) $2,863,233; imports: (1883) $2,837,-551, (1884), $3,236,945, (1885) $2,192,672, (1886) $1,973,548, (1887) $2,062,507.

When Francisco Pizarro had overthrown the empire of the Inca of Peru, he sent Almagro to subjugate Chili. The latter invaded the country 1535, and with great loss of men passed over the Andes and through the desert of Atacama, and entered the northern provinces, previously dependencies of Peru, without material resistance. But when he started southward he encountered many war-like tribes, by whom he was held in check till his death. He was succeeded by Valdivia, who advanced to the Biobio, completed the conquest, and founded the town of Santiago in 1541. For more than 200 years the Spaniards endeavored to establish and maintain their authority in the southern provinces, but without permanent results; and in 1771 they were compelled to abandon all that country except Valdivia, Osorno, and a few fortresses on the Biobio. In 1810 the Chilians revolted against the Spanish dominion, and on Sept. 18 declared themselves independent. This action led to a war that ended in 1814 with the defeat of the Chilians by the Spaniards at Rancagua. Three years later the country was entered from La Plata by San Martin, who by the battles of Chacabuco, Feb. 12, 1817, and Maypu, April 5, 1818, effected the liberation of the country, though the Spaniards held possession of the island of Chiloe till January, 1826. The constitution was adopted 1824, subsequently remodelled, and proclaimed 1830. Spain recognized the republic in April, 1844. In 1865 Chili, Peru, Bolivia, and Ecuador were engaged in a war with Spain, during which Spanish vessels bombarded Valparaiso and destroyed $15,000,000 worth of property. The European powers compelled Spain to raise the blockade of the port, and through the mediation of the United States a treaty of peace between Chili and Spain was signed in 1869. After the war of 1879–81 with Peru and Bolivia, Chili extended its northern frontier from latitude 24° to 19° south, and ceded all of Patagonia east of the crest of the Andes to the Argentine Republic.

CITY OF SANTIAGO.

SANTIAGO, the capital of the republic, is in the plain of the same name, on the Mapocho, a branch of the Maypu River, at an elevation of 1,690 feet above the sea-level, and in latitude 33° 25′ south, and longitude 70° 38′ west. The city is laid out in rectangular and equal squares, called quadras; the principal streets are about forty-five feet wide; and the houses are generally but one story high, large and containing many rooms, arranged round three quadrangular squares, called patios. The Plaza Mayor, or great public square, occupies the space of a whole quadra in the centre of the city, and has a handsome bronze fountain, with a large hewn-stone basin, in the centre, and beautiful parterres of grass and flowers. The president's palace, the penitentiary, and the chamber of justice stand on the north-west side, and the massive stone cathedral and the archbishop's palace, a striking building in the Moorish style of architecture, on the south-west. Other public buildings of note are the mint, national museum, treasury, legislative hall, the handsomest theatre in South America, and many churches and convents—especially those of San Domingo, San Francisco, and San Augustin; the University, the military academy, the academy of sciences, two national colleges, a number of primary schools, and the large public library. There are also two large and well-endowed hospitals, that of San Juan de Dios for males, and that of San Francisco de Borjas for females. A beautiful paseo, combining the features of a public park, promenade, and drive, extends along the banks of the river a distance of two miles, and contains statues of many of Chili's most celebrated men, besides one of Abraham Lincoln. The city is defended by two fortresses on the crown of the hill of Santa Lucia, which are much visited by tourists on account of the excellent view of the Andes they afford. Near the hill on the north is the tajamar, or breakwater, raised to protect the city from the overflow of the Mapocho during the melting of the mountain snows. The road from Santiago to Valparaiso, a distance of ninety miles, is the best artificial road in South America, and practicable for carriages though it crosses three ranges of steep hills. A terrible disaster occurred in Santiago on Dec. 8, 1863. A church belonging to the Jesuits had been dedicated in 1857 to the Immaculate Conception, and a confraternity had been founded with which nearly all the best families in the city were affiliated. In each year from November 8 to December 8, a celebration was held every evening, terminating on the day of the Conception. On the last evening some of the muslin drapery of the image of the Virgin caught fire, and in fifteen minutes 2,500 corpses were all that remained of the congregation. A grand Martyrs' Monument has since been erected to the memory of those who perished. In 1875 an international exhibition was held in the city. The population of Santiago was estimated in 1880 at 193,517.

CITY OF VALPARAISO.

VALPARAISO, the principal port of the republic, is situated in latitude 33° 1′ south, and longitude 71° 45′ west, on a bay opening directly into the Pacific Ocean, having three well-sheltered sides and the fourth exposed to the winds from the north. It consisted previous to 1854 of a long, narrow street, built under a cliff and following the contour of the shore close to the sea-side. Painted piazzas are substituted for balconies almost at every house, and their different colors give the city a bright and gay appearance. Above the heights a handsome suburb has been laid out chiefly by American, English, and French merchants. The harbor is defended by three forts and a powerful water battery, is easy of entrance, and has nine fathoms of water close in shore. It is by far the best along the American coast of the South Pacific, and is annually entered by over 1,500 vessels. The custom-house, government ware-houses, ship-building yards, the English, French, and United States hospitals under charge of resident physicians, the Protestant cemetery, and several of the churches are the chief local attractions. The population in 1886 numbered 100,926, of whom 75,000 were natives, 6,500 British, 3,750 French, and 1,500 Italians. The city was almost entirely destroyed by an earthquake in 1822, suffered severely from a fire in 1858, and was bombarded by the Spaniards in 1866. These calamities permitted a vast improvement in the rebuilding of the city; and several public works, such as laying out the government square on which the Exchange is located, and Victoria square which has a theatre, the construction of a mole for the loading and discharge of vessels in the harbor, and the opening of coal mines in the south and quicksilver mines in the hills back of the city, have since been carried out. The city is lighted with gas, possesses street railroads, banks, foundries, and various manufactories, and is connected with the capital by railroad and telegraph.

THE REPUBLIC OF PERU.

PERU, the traditional home of the Incas, the land of extreme antiquity and of fabulous silver wealth, and one of the chief maritime nations of South America, lies on the west coast of the continent, is bounded on the north by Ecuador, on the east by Brazil and Bolivia, on the south by Chili, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. Previous to the disastrous war with Chili, 1879–81, its territory lay between latitude 3° 20′ and 22° 20′ south, and longitude 67°and 81° 26′ west, and embraced an area of 504,000 square miles. It had a width varying from 60 to 750 miles, a total length of 1,250 miles, excepting the coast line which was 1,300 miles, and a population of 3,400,000. In 1886 its area was estimated at somewhat less than 500,000 square miles, and its population at 2,600,000. Chili took from it the littoral province of Tarapaca by the treaty of peace, leaving it divided politically into seventeen departments and one littoral province, Callao.

The entire length of country is traversed by two parallel ranges of the Andes, dividing the surface into the coast, the sierra, and the montana regions. The first is a sandy waste, from twenty to sixty miles in width; the second is about 100 miles wide, covers 150,000 square miles, or one-third the entire territory of the country, contains nine-tenths of the cultivated area, and four-fifths of the population; and the third is a comparatively little known tract, supposed to be quite fertile, containing vast navigable rivers, and inhabited chiefly by Indians still uncivilized. The climate is dry and hot on the coast, cold in the central or elevated portion, and hot again in the extreme east. The mountains are rich in minerals, and the valleys very fertile. Agriculture is carried on in the interior in a primitive manner, but in other localities modern appliances are used. Near the coast there are many large plantations of cotton and sugar, on which the greater part of the work is done by steam. The forests abound in cedar, ebony, walnut, and mahogany, as well as the cinchona tree from which quinine is made, rubber, bread-fruit tree, and a variety of spices. The wild animals are the puma, jaguar, bear, deer, boar, armadillo, fox, and several species of the monkey family. Alligators swarm the rivers, and seals and tortoises disport along the coast, while the rivers and lakes supply numerous edible fish, including the princely salmon.

Though its sources of mineral wealth are many and exceedingly valuable, and the productions of its soil correspondingly rich both for domestic consumption and export, its entire yield of natural, cultivated, and manufactured articles is inferior in aggregate value to that of the millions of tons of guano that have been deposited by birds along the seacoast and on the neighboring islands, extending in some places to a depth of eighty feet. Next in value are the deposits of nitrate of soda in the province of Tarapaca. The handling of these articles constituted a government monopoly for many years; but Chili took possession of both industries after the war of 1879-81. There are about 15,000 mines of all kinds in the country, about 600 of which are regularly worked, and a single one of silver has an annual yield of 1,500,000 ounces. In 1878 there were exported 450,000 tons of guano, 250,000 tons of saltpetre, and 200,000 tons of sugar. Recent trade of all kinds with the United States has been, exports: (1884) $2,077,645, (1885) $1,764,890, (1886) $963,480, (1887) $461,726; imports: (1884) $1,043,902, (1885) $735,979, (1886) $798,577, (1887) $717,968. The total national indebtedness amounted to $373,456,940 on July 1, 1886, and the budget for 1887-8 estimated the revenues at $16,183,674, and the expenditures at $13,632,386.

The government is modelled after that of the United States. The executive authority is vested in a president for a term of four years, and the legislative in a senate of forty-four members and a house of 110 representatives. The established church is the Roman Catholic, and none others are tolerated. Education is compulsory and gratuitous, and is well cared for by the government and large cities. The country is full of antiquarian remains, especially in the line of various structures, temples, aqueducts, walls, and monuments, composed of enormous blocks of stone.

Peru was an old country when the Spaniards discovered it early in the sixteenth century, for they found it inhabited by the Quichuas and Aymaras, two powerful races in subjection to the Inca dynasty. It became and remained a viceroyalty of Spain till 1821, when the Argentine general, José de San Martin, after a successful invasion, proclaimed its independence. He held the protectorship a short time, and was succeeded by General Bolivar, who defeated the Spaniards in 1824, and drove them from their last stronghold, Callao, two years later. A republican form of government was established in 1825; the Peru-Bolivian confederation was formed 1836, and overturned 1839; slavery was abolished 1855; Bolivia, Chili, and Ecuador became allies of Peru in a war with Spain 1866; and a war was waged between Peru and Chili 1879-1881, which resulted, after brilliant exploits on sea and land by both countries, in the conquest of the southern provinces of Peru, the loss of its sea-coast territory and the occupation of its beautiful capital, Lima.

CITY OF LIMA.

LIMA—Ciudad de los Reyes—"The City of the Kings," as it was first called, founded Jan. 6, 1535 (O. S.), by Pizarro, is the most interesting, historically, of all the capitals reared by the Spaniards, and was for 300 years the seat of "the haughtiest and perhaps the most luxurious and profligate of the Viceregal Courts." Its viceroys were invested with royal power, and ruled in the height of Peruvian glory. No city had such convents and such churches, none were endowed with such a prodigality of wealth. In Lima was the College of San Marcos, the oldest university in America, founded fifty-six years before the English landed in Virginia, and sixty-nine before the Mayflower pilgrims set foot on Plymouth Rock. There, too, according to the Hon. E. George Squier, the Viceroy La Palata rode through the streets of his capital in 1681 on a horse whose mane was strung with pearls, and whose shoes were of gold, over a pavement of solid ingots of silver.

The city, which is the capital of the republic and of the department and province of the same name, is situated on the Rimac River, six miles from Callao, its seaport on the Pacific, and had a population in 1881 of about 125,000. The city stands on high ground in a spacious and fertile valley, is about two miles in extent, is surrounded by two walls, and from its numerous domes and spires has an imposing and picturesque appearance at a distance. It is regularly laid out in square blocks of houses about 400 feet each way, the houses are built low on account of frequent earthquakes, and there are thirty-three public squares, the most spacious being the Plaza Mayor, which embraces an area of nine acres in the centre of the city, and is connected with a grand bridge across the Rimac by a magnificent boulevard. On the north side of this square is the government palace, a large but gloomy-looking edifice, formerly occupied by the viceroys, and, under the republic, by the courts. On the east side are the cathedral, a handsome building of considerable extent, built of stone, with two towers 133 feet high, and most lavishly and artistically ornamented and furnished within, and the archiepiscopal palace, now in part used by the congress. On the west side are the town hall and the city prison, and on the south are private residences, well built and richly furnished. All the above public buildings were erected by Francisco Pizarro, whose ashes repose beneath the grand altar in the cathedral. There are fifty-six other ecclesiastical edifices, one of the most splendid of which is the immense church of San Pedro, founded in 1598, which has seventeen altars, and contains the national library. A fountain stands in each of the four corners of the Plaza Mayor, and one in the centre surrounded by a gorgeous circular garden. In the centre of the Plaza de la Independencia is an equestrian statue of General Bolivar. In 1873 a portion of the ancient wall in the southwestern part of the city was pulled down, and a beautiful boulevard was laid out, and named in honor of Henry Meiggs, the American engineer and builder of Peru's great railroad over and through the mountains. The famous marble statue of Columbus was then erected between the boulevard and the exhibition building. There are eight national colleges in the city, an ecclesiastical seminary, a medical college, a normal school, a military and naval institute, an industrial municipal school, a botanic garden, a national museum, the largest circus for bull-fighting in the world, two theatres, and numerous public baths. The exports and imports of the city together average over $25,000,000 per annum. Lima suffered severely from earthquakes in 1630, 1687, 1746, 1806, and 1828.

CITY OF CALLAO.

CALLAO, the port of Lima and principal seaport of Peru, is a fortified city on the Pacific Ocean, six miles by railroad from the capital. It is in latitude 12° 4′ south, and longtitude 77° 13′ west, has an admirable harbor and roadstead sheltered by two islands, and further improved by harbor walls, floating and wet docks, and a costly mole. It is defended by the fortress of San Felipe, from whose turrets the flag of Castile and Leon floated for the last time on the American continent as the emblem of Spanish authority. The city has gas works, sugar refineries, machine shops, and steam cranes for loading and unloading vessels. The chief exports are guano, gold, silver, saltpetre, cinchona, sugar, hides, raw cotton, copper, and Indian wool. Its population in 1886 was 33,502. Callao was destroyed by an earthquake in 1746, and sustained great damage and loss of life by a tidal wave in January, 1878. The blockade of the port by the Chilians in the war of 1880–1 was a very serious matter for the Peruvians, as it was the rendezvous of all the lines of foreign steamships, and the point at which the commercial mails of all nations engaged in South Pacific trade were made up. The harbor was full of vessels from all parts of the world when the blockade was established; but as no foreign power has a right to interfere in a war between the South American republics, their presence could do Peru no good.

THE UNITED STATES OF COLOMBIA.

THE United States of Colombia is a republic in the north-western part of South America, includes the Isthmus of Panama, which connects the two continents, was formerly known as New Granada, has an area of 586,000 square miles, and had a population in 1886 of 3,500,000. It is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea, on the northeast and east by Venezuela, on the southeast and south by Brazil and Ecuador, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. The republic is composed of nine states, Antioquia, Bolivar, Boyacá, Caucà, Cundinamarca, Magdalena, Panama, Santander, and Tolima; the chief cities are Bogata, Cartagena, Santa Marta, Sabanilla or Baranquilla, Rio Hicha, Buenaventura, Panama, and Lumaco; and the capital is Bogota, on the San Francisco River. The Andes Mountains here have three great ranges, the eastern, central, and western, between which are the large valleys of Cauca and Magdalena. The eastern branches have a series of table-lands from 8,000 to 14,000 feet above the sea level, and in the southern part are the table-lands of Pasto and Luquerres, with a mean elevation of 14,000 feet. The climate on the highlands is mild and healthful; but on the lowlands and along the coast it is intensely hot.

The republic is exceedingly rich in natural resources. There is scarcely a state which does not possess in its soil more or less gold; and even though rudely operated by a few laborers they produced annually between 1870 and 1880 from $10,000,000 to $12,000,000 worth of that metal. The district of Choco has produced nearly all the platinum, and that of Muzo the emeralds that have abounded in foreign markets for several years; and in various parts of the country are mines of silver, copper, lead, iron, quicksilver, coal, amethysts, and other varieties of valuable stones and minerals. Wheat, potatoes, the breadfruit, Peruvian bark, cedar, balsam, lignum vitæ, mahogany, rubber, and vanilla thrive with little cultivation. Among the peculiar varieties of tree-growth are three which have extraordinary virtues: one as a specific against inflammation, the second for stanching effusion of the blood, and the third for instantaneously stopping bleeding at the nose.

In 1886 the army consisted of 3,000 men. The law makes one per cent. of the male population liable to be called to arms in case of war. The funded debt of the republic on Dec. 31, 1884, amounted to $26,000,000, of which $11,000,000 were on foreign account. The commercial dealings with the United States showed exports (1885) $2,342,077; (1886) $3,008,921; and imports (1885) $5,397,412; (1886) $5,294,798. The transit trade through the ports of Panama and Aspinwall is of far greater importance than the direct commerce, its value being estimated at not less than $85,000,000 per annum.

Since the early history of this continent the cutting of a passage through the Isthmus, which would unite the two great oceans, has been the object of constant solicitude and speculation on the part of commercial nations, enterprising engineers, and far-seeing publicists; and since the beginning of the sixteenth century innumerable surveys have been made for a connecting canal through Tehuantepec, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama. In the early part of 1888 the great project seemed in a fair way toward accomplishment, M. de Lesseps being then well advanced on his Panama ship-canal, and work on a second, through Nicaragua, in which the United States was more particularly interested, being actively opened. But in the latter part of 1888 the French scheme became seriously impaired by the bankruptcy of the company, and in May, 1889, on the failure of the French people to respond with sufficient contributions, and the government to vote a subsidy or sanction a public lottery in its interest, the scheme was abandoned, and all the work done reverted to the possession of the Colombian government. This failure of the French project gave renewed encouragement to the advocates of the "American plan" for Nicaragua. The United States Congress passed a bill creating a corporation for prosecuting the work, the secretary of the navy granted a distinguished officer a year's leave of absence to enable him to become constructing engineer, and in May, 1889, the first shipment of men and machinery was made from New York by the corporation. It is proposed to improve the capacious and long neglected harbor of Greytown—designed for one termini—by dredging out the accumulated silt, and building a long breakwater. Estimated cost, $2,000,000.

New Granada was discovered by Alonzo de Ojeda in 1499; the first settlement was made at Santa Maria la Antigua in 1510; but the interior of the country was only conquered toward the middle of the sixteenth century by

Benalcazar and Ximenes de Quesneda, who founded Santa Fé de Bogata in 1545. The Spaniards remained in possession of the country till 1811, when New Granada proclaimed its independence, and the war that ensued lasted till 1821. New Granada, Venezuela, Ecuador, and Panama formed a union in 1823. This was dissolved 1831, and the territory was divided between Venezuela, New Granada, and Ecuador. A confederation was formed 1857, and a new constitution proclaimed the following year. The present form of government was established 1861, and the present constitution adopted 1863. Like all South American countries, this has been kept in turmoil and deluged with blood through the machinations of ambitious men, and has had comparatively few years of peaceful government.

CITY OF BOGOTA.

BOGOTA, the chief city and capital of the republic, is situated in latitude 4° 36′ north, and longitude 74° 13′ 59″ west, and at the junction of the San Francisco River with the Rio de Bogata, is on a wide plateau 8,800 feet above sea level, and has a climate somewhat similar to that of autumn in the middle portion of the United States. The city is well-built, with houses averaging two stories in height; but the streets are exceedingly narrow, and few will admit of the passage of ordinary vehicles. The residences are constructed of adobe in the form of a hollow square, are roofed with tiles, and inclose pretty court-yards and flower gardens. The streets are paved with cobble-stones and are mainly used for laundry purposes, having drainage ditches in the centre supplied with water from pipes at the houses on the corners, and in these ditches the people wash their clothing. There is a grand plaza in the centre of the city, with the cathedral on one side and the president's palace and the government houses on the other; and in the centre is a bronze statue of Simon Bolivar on a pedestal of stones contributed by the different states in the republic. The cathedral is 300 feet long and 100 wide, and contains a large number of magnificent paintings and decorations placed there by the Spaniards. There are thirty-six other churches, two of which are on the mountains, 1,500 feet above the city, and a number of monasteries and convents. Other prominent buildings are the market, where one can buy the fruits and vegetables of the torrid and temperate zones, the University of Bogata, which has an astronomical observatory ranking next after the National Observatory at Washington, D.C., three Jesuit colleges, the national academy, the public library, the mint, the hospital of San Juan de Dios, the opera house, and the theatre. There are mines of silver, gold, and precious stones in its immediate vicinity. One of the greatest attractions to the tourist is the grand cataract of Tequendama, a few miles below the city, where the Bogota River has a perpendicular fall of 650 feet.

The prevailing religion is the Roman Catholic, but there are no restrictions against other forms. Education is highly appreciated and liberally advanced. The city has suffered severely several times from earthquakes, and the massive cathedral was greatly damaged by one in 1827. It is on account of the prevalence of earthquakes that nearly all the buildings are but one and two stories in height. The chief exports of Bogota are gold, silver, copper, tobacco, coffee, cocoanuts, and rubber. The population in 1886 was 40,883.

THE REPUBLIC OF VENEZUELA.

THE republic of Venezuela is in the extreme north of South America, between latitude 1° 8′ and 12° 16′ north, and longitude 60° and 73° 17′ west, and is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean and British Guiana, on the south by Brazil, and on the west by the United States of Colombia. According to a census taken in 1884, it had an area of 632,695 square miles and a population of 2,121,988. Politically it is divided into eight states, one federal district, eight territories, and two national settlements. The country is traversed by two distinct mountain systems north and south of the Orinoco River, with an average height of from 5,000 to 6,500 feet; but in the Sierra Nevadas there are two peaks which reach an altitude of 15,000 feet. Venezuela is watered by the Orinoco with its 400 navigable tributaries, a large number of streams which empty into the Caribbean Sea, and numerous lagoons and lakes.

The soil is exceedingly fertile, and the climate is divided into hot, temperate, and cold according to location. In mineral resources the country possesses gold mines in the Yuruari district, which are among the richest in the world and to which England laid semi-official claim in the early part of 1888. There are also considerable veins of silver, platinum, copper, iron, tin, zinc, and quicksilver, as well as mines of diamonds and other precious stones. But though the total mineral yield of 1884 reached the value of $4,452,050, of which $3,243,380 represented the output of gold, the mining industry has never been adequately developed; and for many years the country has been distinguished among its sister republics as a stock-raising and agricultural section. In 1873 the chief occupation of the people was cattle-raising, and the country possessed 1,389,800 head of cattle, 1,128,273 sheep and goats, 362,579 swine, 93,800 horses, and 47,200 mules. In eleven years this stock had much more than doubled, the reports for 1884 showing 2,926,733 cattle, 3,490,563 sheep and goats, 976,500 swine, 291,603 horses, and 906,467 mules. The agricultural industry was represented that year by 852,500 acres under cultivation, and a yield of coffee, the chief product, worth $11,255,000, of sugar $7,686,000, of corn $6,000,000, and of cocoa $2,998,000. The principal articles of export are coffee, cattle, sugar, hides, gold, cocoa, tallow, horses, skins, and cabinet woods; and of import, cotton, linen, silk, flour, provisions, hardware, and wines. The custom-house reports show the recent trade with the United States as follows: exports: (1880) $6,039,092, (1886) $5,791,621, (1887) $8,261,271; imports: (1880) $2,330,745, (1886) $2,695,588, (1887) $2,827,010.

The constitution of Venezuela is a close imitation of that of the United States, and guarantees personal and religious freedom to every citizen. Like all South American countries the prevailing form of religion is the Roman Catholic, but all its clergy are subordinate to the civil authorities, and there are no restrictions upon the observance of other forms. Its educational system is comprehensive, progressive, and handsomely supported. There are two large universities, six federal schools of the first class and fourteen of the second, four influential normal schools, twenty-four high grade private schools, nine national colleges for girls, a polytechnic institute, a school of arts and trades, a naval institute, and a school of telegraphy. Elementary education has been compulsory and gratuitous since 1870. A generous effort has been made to establish libraries throughout the country also. In 1874 all the public collections of books and documents, and those taken from the suppressed convents, were consolidated in the library of the University of Caracas, and there placed at the convenience of the public; and the government has since aided in the establishment of public libraries in each of the capitals of the eight states, besides founding a national museum in Caracas, which has valuable collections in the departments of national and natural history, ethnography, zoology, and geology. The chief cities are

Caracas, the capital, population (1887) 70,509, Valencia, 36,145, and Barquesimeto, 28,918. La Guayra is the seaport of the capital.

Columbus discovered the island of Margarita in 1498, and in the following year Vespucci examined the coast as far as the present Gulf of Maracaibo. A lacustrine Indian village was found, from which the Spaniards named the place Venezuela, or "Little Venice." In 1520 the first permanent settlement was made at Cumona; in 1522 Barquesimeto was founded; in 1555 Valencia; and 1557 Caracas. During a revolution in 1810–11 the people declared their independence of Spain, but were speedily subjected. In 1819 Venezuela, New Granada, and Ecuador united in forming the republic of Colombia, which was recognized by Spain in 1823. Six years afterward this republic was divided into three independent states, Venezuela adopting a federal constitution in 1830. The country has been more free from revolutions than most of the other South American republics, though it has had its share.

CITY OF CARACAS.

CARACAS, the capital of the republic as well as of the federal district, is in latitude 10° 30′ 50″ north, and longitude 67° 5′ west, at the eastern end of the valley of the same name, and nearly 3,000 feet above sea-level. Its streets and avenues cross one another at right angles, forming blocks of houses in almost exact squares. The city is well drained and abundantly supplied with wholesome water by several streams, and is kept remarkably clean by a host of carrion vultures that sweep through the streets and devour all manner of garbage and pestiferous refuse. Four beautiful avenues divide the city into equal parts, in each of which are numerous plazas or public squares, handsome gardens, churches, and public buildings. In the centre is the Plaza Bolivar, and from it extend the North, East, South, and West avenues in a straight line far out into the country. The streets running parallel to Avenues North and South, to the west of those thoroughfares, are designated by even numbers, and those to the east of the avenues by odd numbers; and the streets crossing these at right angles are given odd numbers if they lie to the north of Avenues East and West, and even if to the South. Caracas comprises five parishes, Alta Gracia in the northwest, Cadelaria in the northeast, Santa Rosalia in the southeast, Santa Teresa in the south, and San Juan in the southwest. In each of these there is a parish church, and in addition to them there are eight other churches in the federal district, which includes the actual extent of the city proper and its immediate suburbs. The cathedral and the church of Alta Gracia are the most notable buildings, though the University of Caracas, the National Museum close by, and several hospitals possess much national and local importance. The city is the seat of a Roman Catholic archbishop, is esteemed very healthful, and has been visited by several earthquakes, one of which, in 1812, caused the loss of over 12,000 lives. According to the last census there were 9,224 residences in the federal district, sheltering over 70,000 persons.

La Guayra, the seaport, is in latitude 10° 36′ north, and 66° 57′ west, has a deep bay and a good anchorage, but is wholly unprotected against the furious east winds. It is the most extensively frequented port on the coast, is defended by the fort of Cerro Colorado and numerous coast batteries, has a healthful climate and a temperature ranging from 100° to 110° F., and enjoys an extensive foreign and coasting trade. It has but two streets. The population was estimated at 8,000 in 1887.

THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

THE Argentine Republic, an independent state on the southeast coast of South America, previously known as the Provinces of the Rio de la Plata and afterward as the Argentine Confederation, is situated between latitude 22° and 56° south, and longitude 53° 30′ and 70° west, and since 1881 includes a large portion of Patagonia as well as of Terra del Fuego. It is bounded on the north by Bolivia and Paraguay, on the east by Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by Chili, the Andes Mountains separating the two republics. Previous to the treaty with Chili in 1881, its area was estimated at 841,000 square miles, and its population at 1,768,681 in 1869, and 2,400,000, exclusive of 93,291 Indians, in 1876. After the cession of portions of Patagonia and Terra del Fuego, the area became enlarged to over 1,200,000 square miles, and the population to 2,942,000, which was officially divided as follows: natives, 2,121,000; Italians, 154,000; Spaniards, 73,200; French, 69,400; English and Irish, 23,000; and natives of other South American countries the remainder.

Over three-quarters of the country is a plain whose soil has been highly enriched by decayed vegetation, and is well watered by the Parana and its numerous tributaries. Excepting the extreme western border and a few isolated hills in the southeast, the country is exceedingly level and well adapted to agriculture, which is by no means pursued as extensively or systematically as the natural conditions would justify. The climate is in general healthy, though the atmosphere is very dry. In the south it resembles that of Norway, near Buenos Ayres that of England, and in the north that of France. The central portion is subject to warm north winds freighted with heavy vapor, heavy thunder-storms are frequent; the pampero, a strong southwest wind, brings dryness from the Andes, and the zonda, a lasting north wind, brings intense heat. Physical compensation, however, is found in invariably cool nights.

The natural resources are considerable and valuable, though lacking much of the means and spirit of development seen in the United States. There are large mines of gold, silver, iron—though the country imports from Europe almost all it needs—salt, gypsum, alum, sulphur, coal, copper, and pumice-stone. Along the Andes and on the banks of the Paraguay River are dense forests of important woods, while palms and other tropical trees abound in the north. Animal life embraces the llama of the plains; jaguars, pumas, capibara, and ounce in the forests; tapir in the north; deer in the pampas or grassy plains; the condor, Caracara vulture, parrots, and humming birds of exquisite plumage and enchanting song; seals, sea lions, and sea elephants are taken on the coast, and the rivers abound with a variety of fish, lamprey, trout, skate, and other table favorites.

The chief industries are the cultivation of wheat, corn, oats, sugar cane, tobacco, cotton, flax, and peanuts, the breeding of cattle, goats, and sheep, mining and smelting of gold, silver, and copper, and the manufacture of guano, furs, ostrich feathers, and Liebig's extract of beef. The Pampa horse roams in herds of 8,000 to 10,000, and yields for export annually 250,000 hides, while cattle, which seem to swarm the plains in millions, furnish an average of 3,000,000 hides per annum for export. In 1881, 3,397 vessels of 413,419 tons entered, and 2,489 vessels of 321,168 tons cleared the various ports; and in 1882 the exports—about one-half hides and three-eighths wool—aggregated $58,441,000 and the imports $59,270,000. In the latter year there were 8,466 miles of telegraph and 1,617 miles of railroad in operation.

The republic is composed of fourteen provinces, of which those of Buenos

Ayres, Mendoza, Cordova, Corrientes, Salta, and Entre Rios are the most populous, each having over 48,000 inhabitants. The country is governed according to a constitution adopted in 1853 and since frequently revised, which invested the executive authority in a president elected by representatives of the provinces for a term of six years, the legislative in a congress composed of a house of representatives of fifty-four members and a senate of two members from each province, and the judiciary in a supreme court and a number of subordinate ones. The prevailing form of religion is the Roman Catholic, though all others are tolerated. Buenos Ayres has an archbishop, and the Littoral, Cordova, Cuyo, and Salta a bishop each. Prior to 1882 but little attention was paid the cause of education by the government, but since then universities have been erected in Buenos Ayres and Cordova, and colleges in those cities and in Concepcion.

The history of the Argentine Republic dates back to the year 1516, when Juan Diaz de Solis discovered the Plata River; but more immediately from the year 1535, when Don Pedro de Mendoza founded the city of Buenos Ayres, the present capital. For many years the settlements were subject to attacks by native Indians, and were controlled politically by the viceroy of Peru till 1778. The first confederation embraced the provinces of the Rio de la Plata, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Bolivia, which were formed into a separate viceroyalty of Peru, with Buenos Ayres as its capital, in 1778. In 1810 the viceroy was expelled, and in 1813 the Spanish authority was thrown off, and a republic was established by a constituent assembly. Three years later the united provinces declared their independence and elected a dictator of the republic; but it was not till 1821 that they succeeded in terminating the Spanish domination by force of arms in several brilliant engagements. Then followed a long period of revolutions, secessions, and bitter warfare. A peace was concluded 1840, but soon afterward complications arose which led to the intervention of France and England. Paraguay and Uruguay became independent republics. The province of Buenos Ayres seceded 1852, but re-entered the confederation 1859. The constitution was adopted May 11th, 1853, and was revised in 1860 and 1862, but the country was distracted by revolutions, incited mainly by aspirants to the presidency, to as late a period as 1880.

CITY OF BUENOS AYRES.

BUENOS AYRES, the capital of the republic and of the province of the same name, is the largest city, and an important seaport. It is in latitude 34° 36′ south, and longitude 58° 22′ west, on the right bank of the Rio de la Plata, 100 miles from Montevideo, and 150 miles from the ocean. The streets, which are straight and cross each other at right angles, remind a tourist of Moorish and Spanish street scenes. A plaza or park extends along the entire water front, and is beautified with majestic palms and vines, parterres of flowers, numerous fountains, and some excellent statuary. The buildings are mostly of soft brick plastered over, and generally of a quiet buff color, and the streets are too narrow to permit tree-planting in them. There is a pretty park at Palermo, a few miles from the city, with superb avenues of palms, and a collection of the wild animals of the country in cages, including jaguars, pumas, and others. The public buildings include a Roman Catholic cathedral, the government building, a number of old and handsomely decorated churches, and an educational institution combining a college, a normal school, an observatory, and a valuable library. The city bears a particularly picturesque appearance by night as well as by day, and the promenade effects are greatly heightened by the rich costumes of the ladies. Everybody smokes cigarettes, and it is no exception to see the dainty fingertips of a belle stained brown with nicotine. The population of the city in 1882 was 295,000, and in 1886, 398,498.

THE REPUBLIC OF BOLIVIA.

BOLIVIA, the most central republic of South America, is bounded on the north and east by Brazil, on the south by the Argentine Republic and Chili, and on the west by Peru and Chili, and previous to the war with Chili in 1879–81 lay between latitude 9° and 23° 15′ south, and longitude 57° 20′ and 69° 30′ west, and had an area of 842,000 square miles. A result of Chili's victory in that memorable tripartite struggle was the cession to it of all Bolivia's coast territory, and since then no definite statement has been made either of its area or population. The greater part of the country is mountainous and distinguished by numerous enormous peaks, many being living volcanoes. The plateau of Potosi has an elevation of 13,000 feet above sea level; Mount Sajama is 22,760 feet high, Mount Illampu 23,000, and Mount Illimani 21,155. Three tributaries of the Madeira and three of the Parana rivers drain the country. Owing to its extreme elevation, Bolivia has five distinct grades of climate; the very cold, on elevations of 13,000 feet and over; the cold between 13,000 and 11,000; the high valleys, between 11,000 and 9,000; the medium, between 9,000 and 6,000: and the purely tropical.

The natural resources are gold, silver, copper, tin, lead, quicksilver, iron, coal, nitre, and salt; of forest growths there are excellent qualities of rubber, cinchona, and various medicinal roots and barks; and there are large and valuable deposits of guano. The wild animals embrace the llama, vicuna, alpaca, guanaco, several species of monkeys, wild-cat, bear, and wild boar. The agricultural productions include potatoes, oca, quinoa, barley, wheat, corn, cacao, coca, bananas, coffee, cotton, tobacco, and sugar-cane. There is no direct commercial intercourse between Bolivia and the rest of the world, owing to the very poor facilities for transportation; but a considerable trade is carried on with the adjoining countries, and to foreign ones through Brazil, Chili, and Peru, as Bolivia has now no sea coast nor port. The exports include silver, of which there is an annual production valued at $2,250,000, cinchona, coffee, yellow and white cotton, guano, copper, tin, and nitre; and the imports cotton and woollen goods, iron, hardware, silks, furniture, and jewelry. In 1879 the total value of exports was about $5,000,000, while the imports amounted to nearly $5,750,000.

Up to 1880 there were but three railroads in the country, and though money had been appropriated two years previously to extend existing lines and open new ones, it was subsequently diverted to war purposes. A line of telegraph extends from Chililago, on Lake Titicaca, which is the largest inland body of water in South America, having an area of 4,000 square miles, to La Paz and Orura, a distance of 180 miles. In 1880 the public debt amounted to $30,000,000, and the last reported revenue was $2,930,000, and expenditure $4,505,000. Since the war and the reduction of the army to a peace footing, that branch of the public service has cost two-thirds of the revenue, and consisted of 2,421 men, with eight generals and sufficient other officers to provide one officer for every two men. While all creeds are tolerated, the Roman Catholic has been the prevailing form of religion since

1538, when the Spaniards conquered the country; and the four universities and half-dozen colleges and schools that have constituted the educational system in late years, owe their existence and influence almost wholly to the clergy of that church.

The chief cities and towns are La Paz, Cochabamba, Sucre or Chuquisaca, Potosi, Santa Cruz, Oruro, Tarija, and Trinidad. La Paz and Oruro have both been the capital of the republic in past years, and Chuquisaca, or Sucre as it is more generally called, is now (1889) the seat of executive authority. The constitution that Simon Bolivar, after whom the country is named, gave the republic in 1826 has since been amended and altered entirely out of its original form. The original four years' term of the president has been changed to six years, then to a life tenure, and then back again to four years; but the internal revolutions have been so numerous that it would be difficult to mention a single president who has lived or been permitted to serve through any of these terms.

When Bolivia formed a part of the Inca empire of Cuzco (1018–1524), it enjoyed a high degree of civilization. The Spanish dominion was firmly established in 1780, and for some years the country formed a part of the vice-royalty of La Plata. A congress assembled in 1825, after many years of revolution and bloodshed, and declared the country an independent republic. In the following year a constitution was adopted, and General Sucre was elected president. In 1828 he was forced to leave the country; in 1835 the Bolivians invaded Peru and annexed a portion of their territory; 1839 the Bolivians were defeated by Chili; 1866 Bolivia joined the alliance of Peru, Ecuador, and Chili against Spain; 1868 a new constitution was adopted and in the following year was overthrown and restored within three months; and 1879–81 a war undertaken by Peru with Bolivia as an ally against Chili resulted in Bolivia losing a fourth-part of its territory and a half of its accumulated wealth, and in Peru having the flower of its citizenship killed in battle on land and sea, and its fairest city bombarded and occupied by the Chilians. Between the foregoing events ambitious generals were elected and proclaimed president, deposed, expelled from the country, and assassinated with considerable regularity; and it may be said truthfully that in the hundred years ending with 1880, Bolivia was not free from revolution nor war for a consecutive period of five years.

CITY OF SUCRE.

SUCRE, the capital of the republic, is in latitude 19° 40′ south, and longitude 65° 35′ north, on a small plateau above the Rio de la Plata, and at an elevation of 9,343 feet above the sea level. It is a well-built city, with clean and spacious streets, and its houses, generally two stories in height, are provided with small paved courts with water running through them. The city has a grand square on which stands a notable fountain, and several buildings of considerable repute, among which are the magnificent cathedral, built in the Moorish style of architecture, with lofty towers and an immense dome; the churches of San Francisco and San Miguel; the president's palace; the seminary of St. Christopher, College of Junin; the "Colegio de las Educandas," a large female orphan asylum; several monasteries; and a theatre. Sucre is the see of a Roman Catholic archbishop, has valuable silver mines in its immediate vicinity, and a population composed mainly of Indians, who speak the Chichua language. The whole population was estimated in 1880 at 23,979.

THE REPUBLIC OF ECUADOR.

ECUADOR is a republic on the west coast of South America, between Peru and the United States of Colombia, and lies directly beneath the equator, from which fact it derives its name. Its geographical location is between latitude 1° 50′ north and 4° 50′ south, and longitude 70° and 81° west; area, including the Tortoise Islands, 251,322 square miles; population, according to the census of 1885, 1,004,651, of whom about 200,000 were uncivilized Indians. The territory is unequally divided into three districts by the Andes and Cordilleras Mountains, between which is a fertile table-land from 8,000 to 9,500 feet above sea level. This section is a fine agricultural region, capable of producing all the cereals and vegetation known to the temperate zone; but agriculture is there little understood as a science, in fact, cocoa is the only article cultivated with any degree of thoroughness, and it forms the principal wealth of the country.

The mountain ranges in Ecuador are distinguished by the presence of sixteen active volcanoes, the most noted of which is Cotopaxi, with an elevation of 19,498 feet; Chimborazo is 21,414 feet high, Cayambe 19,386, and Antisana 19,140. The country is believed to possess large wealth in precious metals; gold and silver, iron, coal, and salt are known to exist in paying quantities; but with the exception of salt, which forms a government monopoly, the mines are undeveloped. The chief rocks are granite, syenite, trachyte, and porphyry. The forests contain valuable hard woods, and a profusion of the cinchona tree, palm, Brazil nut, vegetable ivory, vanilla, rubber, tolu balsam, and the *croton tiglium* from which croton oil is obtained. There is but one railroad in the country (1889), connecting Quito, the capital, with Guayaquil, the chief port, and there are no telegraph lines. The state religion is the Roman Catholic, and no other forms are tolerated; and the whole educational system is under the control of the priests. There is an archbishop at the capital, and a bishop in each of the provinces, which are subdivided into parishes, each of which has a public school, and in them little more than the primary branches is taught. It is estimated that fully one-half the population are unable to read or write. The total number of schools in all the provinces in 1885 was 522, with 45,533 pupils and 836 teachers, and the whole cost of education that year was only $152,080.

Ecuador is divided politically into three departments, Quito, Guayaquil, and Azuay, and these into seven provinces, Carchi, Imbabura, Pichincha, Leon, Tungurahua, Chimborazo, and Quito. The constitution represents the democratic system of government as illustrated in the United States, and the legal as exemplified in the laws of Spain. The president holds office four years, and the congress sits every two years. The provinces have territorial forms of government, and their chief executives are governors appointed by the president. In addition to the usual forms of courts, to which the judges also are appointed by the president, there are commercial courts to which judges are elected by the merchants of the city or parish in which each of such courts has jurisdiction. The president and the vice-president are nominated by a body of 900 chosen electors, and none but believers in the Roman Catholic church are allowed to exercise the right of suffrage.

The total exports in 1885 amounted in value to $6,680,815; the export to the United States was $1,131,169, and the import from the United States $1,049,392. The amount of cocoa, the chief product, exported that year was 23,227,048 pounds, worth $5,080,918. In 1886 the custom house at Guayaquil reported a total revenue of $1,940,536, which was $845,335 in excess of that of the previous year. The ordinary income of the republic is $4,000,000, and expenditure $3,360,000. The material and industrial progress of the country are retarded by the laws prohibiting freedom of conscience, the tax of 10 per cent imposed on all agricultural products, and the lack of proper roads. The Hon. Alexander McLean, formerly U. S. Consul at Guayaquil, thus sums up some of the disadvantages of a region teeming with undeveloped riches: "The crops reach a market in canoes. The implements sparingly used are similar to those of the ancient Egyptians. Oats are threshed by driving cattle over them, and corn is gathered and sold by the individual ear. The crops raised for export are cocoa, coffee, rice, sugar, cotton, and tobacco. Rubber and cinchona are not properly crops. They are obtained in a barbarous manner by killing the trees, in the case of rubber for the sap and in that of cinchona for the bark."

Ecuador was discovered by Pizarro in 1526, and passed into the hands of the Spaniards on the downfall of the empire of the Incas. It remained a Spanish possession till 1812, when the inhabitants rose in rebellion. In 1821 New Granada and Venezuela united and formed the republic of Colombia, in 1823 the Spaniards were driven from that part of South America, in 1831 New Granada and Venezuela separated, and Ecuador, or the ancient kingdom of Quito seceded from the former, declared itself an independent republic, and adopted a constitution. For many years the boundaries between Ecuador and Peru and Venezuela were a subject of much contention. In 1859 there was an unsuccessful revolution at Guayaquil, and a successful one at Quito, which nearly resulted in the country becoming subject to Peru. In 1866 Ecuador joined in alliance with Chili and Peru to resist the attacks of Spain upon those republics. Revolutions and assassinations have been frequent, but the country has not been engaged in a war of any magnitude since 1823. It was visited by severe earthquakes on August 13th, 1868, and June 29th, 1887.

CITY OF QUITO.

QUITO, the capital of the republic, is built on a side of the extinct volcano of Pichincha, in latitude 0° 13′ south, and longitude 78° 43′ west, and at an elevation of over 9,000 feet above sea level. Notwithstanding its close proximity to the equator, it enjoys a healthy and equable climate, the temperature ranging from 45° to 75° F., and averaging 60°. Eight summits of the Andes covered with perpetual snow can be seen from its heights, and, in remarkable contrast, the beautiful cultivated valley of Chillo. The houses are solidly built and mostly one story in height, to reduce the dangers of earthquakes. The public buildings embrace the palaces of the president and archbishop, the cathedral, and municipal hall, all built to face the Plaza Mayor, a university, four colleges, eleven schools of a higher grade than those previously mentioned, several seminaries, nearly 300 parish schools, a mint, a public library, a polytechnic school established 1872, and numerous churches, many of them with convents attached. In its neighborhood are the ruins of many ancient palaces of the Incas, beside traces of the great road which in the days of the Incas led from the city to the southern extremity of the valley of Titicaca. South of Quito is Tacunga, or Lactacungo, which, between 1698 and 1797, was four times destroyed by earthquakes. The modern city of Quito was founded by Benalcazar in 1534, and had in 1885 a population variously estimated at from 75,000 to 80,000. GUAYAQUIL, the chief port of the republic, is on a river of the same name, in latitude 2° 12′ south, and longitude 79° 39′ west, had a population, 1885, of 25,000, and has long been noted for its manufactures of Panama hats.

THE REPUBLIC OF PARAGUAY.

NO portion of South America has sustained such extreme vicissitudes through the terrible ordeal of war, as the republic of Paraguay. At one time its territory included the enormous region lying between latitude 16° south and the Straits of Magellan, and between Chili and Peru on the west, and Brazil on the east. By the war with Brazil and the Argentine Republic in 1865–70, the country lost much of its best territory, beside the lives of nine-tenths of its entire population. Since 1870 the republic has been confined to the tract between latitude 22° and 25° south and longitude 53° and 59° west, and been bounded on the north by Bolivia, on the west by Venezuela, on the south by the Argentine territory of the Missions, and on the east by Brazil.

Its area was estimated in 1879 at 91,980 square miles, and its population, exclusive of 130,000 Indians, at 346,048—not as much as that of some thrifty cities in the United States. The country is well watered by the numerous tributaries of the Parana River on the south and east, and of the Paraguay on the west. It also has several large lakes, one covering an area of 100 square miles. There are no mountains within its limits, and no land exceeding 3,500 feet in elevation. The highest portion, in the north, is quite fertile, but the greater southern portion is almost wholly covered with swamps and jungles. The animal kingdom is similar to that of Brazil, and is without distinctive species. It has a vast growth of forest, with some valuable woods; not more than half of its most fertile districts are under cultivation; and it stands alone among the countries of South America in having no mineral resources of commercial consequence.

It is governed, under a constitution, by a president elected for six years, who has a cabinet of five ministers. Its dominant religion is the Roman Catholic, its language a patois in which the Spanish is combined with that of the Guarini Indians, and its educational interests have received but little attention till within the last few years. The exports are chiefly yerba maté, or Paraguay tea, tobacco, dry hides, tanned hides, tanning bark, oranges, lumber, tallow, wax, and wool; and the imports, silks, woollens, linens, cottons, hardware, wines, and general provisions. There is no direct trade with the United States worthy of the name. Paraguay has a standing army of only 2,000 men, and a public debt growing out of the war aggregating $200,000,000. It is in no wise prosperous, and there are no indications that it will be for many years to come.

Prior to 1810 it was a colony of Spain. In that year it declared its independence, and in 1812 elected Dr. Francia consul, soon afterward making him dictator. Under his government, which lasted till his death in 1840, the country enjoyed its greatest prosperity, though its development was seriously checked by the rigorous policy he purused of excluding all foreigners from the country. In 1846 the elder Lopez was elected president for life. He died in 1862, and was succeeded by his son, Solano Lopez, the most merciless tyrant of modern times. Though a Roman Catholic country, but little respect was shown toward the Holy See, either by father or son; the bishops possessed no immunities by reason of their sacerdotal character, and under the son nearly all of the most intelligent priests were arrested, tortured, and put to death. The younger Lopez was killed in the disastrous war he precipitated with Brazil and the Argentine Republic. Since its termination the country has been practically a dependency of Brazil. It was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1526. The first bishop for it was appointed 1554, and took with him laws for the protection of the natives, who had been reduced to slavery and divided among the conquerors. Jesuit missionaries settled there in 1556, and conferred great civilizing benefits upon the country, till their expulsion by the Spaniards in 1767.

CITY OF ASSUMPTION.

ASSUMPTION, the capital of the republic, founded in 1536, is on the Paraguay River, in latitude 25° 18′ south, and longitude 57° 30′ west. Owing to its advantageous location, it became a city of considerable importance under its Spanish settlers. The majority of its houses are of brick, one story high, and roofed with tiles. It is a bishop's see, and contains a cathedral, government palace, custom-house, military hospital, college, and public library. During the war of 1865–70, it was bombarded and nearly destroyed by a Brazilian fleet. In 1885 the population was estimated at 19,463, of whom less than 300 were foreigners.

THE REPUBLIC OF URUGUAY.

THE republic of Uruguay, long known as the Banda Oriental del Uruguay, lies between latitude 30° and 35° south, and longitude 53° and 58° 30′ west, and is bounded by Brazil on the north, northeast, and east, the Atlantic Ocean on the southeast and south, and by the Rio de la Plata and the Uruguay rivers on the southwest and west, the latter separating it from the Argentine Republic. It has an area of 73,538 square miles, and its population was estimated in 1884 at 593,248, of whom 60,000 were Italians, 30,000 Spaniards, 30,000 French, 30,000 Basques, and 20,000 Brazilians. More than half the entire population was of foreign extraction. It has a coast line accessible to shipping of 625 miles: 200 on the Atlantic Ocean, 155 on the Plata, and 270 on the Uruguay, and a land frontier of 450 miles.

The general character of the country is that of a vast rolling plain, abounding in natural pastures, and presenting here and there low, well-wooded ridges, from which numerous streams descend in all directions. Its chief watercourses are the Rio Negro, formed by the union of several small streams that rise in the Grand Cochilha near the Brazilian border, and divides the country into two nearly equal parts from northeast to southwest; the Rio de la Plata, the left bank of which now belongs wholly to Uruguay; and the Uruguay, which receives the Rio Negro just before entering the Rio de la Plata, contains a number of falls, and is navigable for over 1,000 miles. The country enjoys a temperate climate, somewhat changeable, and resembling that of Spain and Italy, and the air is pure and healthy. A large portion of it is fertile land, and a vast extent profitable pasturage. As a result the rearing of cattle and sheep forms the chief industry of the people, though in agriculture there are large products of wheat and Indian corn. Hemp and different qualities of flax, nearly all kinds of vegetables, cotton, sugar-cane, the vine, and the fruit trees common to the south of Europe thrive abundantly. An enumeration in 1882 showed that there were 6,711,778 cattle, 20,000,000 high-grade sheep, and 1,500,000 horses in the country, and that 35,000,000 acres were in pasture.

For many years previous to 1884 the country was divided for administrative purposes into thirteen provinces or departments, but in that year a reorganization of the territory was made and eighteen departments were established. Uruguay is a republic with an elective president, and a national legislature of one senator and three representatives for each department, but the actual power is generally centred in the president, who, as in most South American countries, is usually a successful military officer. In 1882 the exports were valued at $21,962,930, and the imports at $18,174,800; 1883 the exports were $26,831,555, and imports $21,634,475; and 1885 exports $25,-253,600, and imports $25,275,349; of the exports of the latter year $6,000,000 were on account of hides alone. The public debt amounted to $62,330,491 in 1886, and in the following year the revenue was $8,181,815—three-fourths of which were derived from custom duties—and the expenditures were $7,414,815. Over 500 miles of railroad and over 2,000 miles of telegraph lines were then in operation. The prevailing religion of the country is the Roman Catholic; but while the constitution of 1864 declared that to be the religion of the state, it guaranteed freedom to all other forms. In the admirable educational system of the country, in which a number of American ladies and gentlemen are employed, there is no apparent denominational bias.

The first settlement in the Banda Oriental del Uruguay was made by Jesuit priests in 1622, though Brazil, of which it was a province many years, was discovered by Pedro Alvarez Cabral, a Portuguese navigator, in 1500. The Brazilians shook off their allegiance to Portugal and declared in favor of an independent kingdom in 1815. The present republic of Uruguay as well as the country called the Seven Missions was comprehended in that portion of the vice-royalty of Buenos Ayres situated to the east of the Uruguay River. When Brazil declared its independence, the republic of Buenos Ayres was plunged into civil war, and Brazil took advantage of the circumstance and occupied the Banda Oriental. Buenos Ayres protested against the action, and as no settlement could be effected the two countries went to war with each other in 1825. Through the intervention of Great Britain a treaty of peace was concluded in 1828, the Seven Missions territory being ceded therein to Brazil, and the southern district declared an independent republic under the title of Republica del Uruguay Oriental. The constitution was adopted in 1831, and the young republic started on its career with a war with Buenos Ayres, precipitated by the failure of an aspirant for the presidency of Uruguay. Brazil interfered in behalf of Uruguay, and asking the co-operation of England and France, each of those countries blockaded Montevideo by turns till 1849, when treaties were signed which secured the recognition of Uruguay by the neighboring republics and nominally closed the strife; but peace was not established till 1851. Brazil blockaded Montevideo in 1864, and forced the country to aid her in the war with Paraguay, and at the close of that struggle the country was rent with revolutions accompanied by assassinations, and it was not till 1870 that it began to enjoy the semblance of peace.

CITY OF MONTEVIDEO.

MONTEVIDEO, the capital and commercial metropolis of the republic, is built on the north shore of the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, at its entrance into the Atlantic Ocean, and is in latitude 34° 53′ south, and longitude 56° 16′ west. It is on a small promontory which forms the eastern shore of its harbor, the western consisting of another projecting point connected with a hill 463 feet high, from which the city has derived its name. Opposite the city the river is seventy miles wide; the harbor is over four miles long and over two wide. The city is well built, with wide, straight, paved streets that intersect each other, and tasteful houses with flat roofs and picturesque parapets. It has a cathedral, dedicated to the apostles San Felipe and San Jago, and noted for its grand façade, which displays a great portal composed of three round arches and flanked by two cupola-crowned towers. The government buildings, president's palace, three other Roman Catholic churches, a Protestant church connected with the British consulate and built in 1846, and a Methodist mission chapel, are prominent among the public buildings. During the sway of General Rosas in Buenos Ayres it suffered greatly in its commerce and otherwise by the long irregular siege it sustained, and which terminated only on the downfall of that agitator. Its commerce has rapidly increased since 1870, and during the years 1877-81 its exports amounted in value to $11,515,305, and its imports to $17,339,985. The chief articles of export are cattle, hides, tallow, and dried and preserved meats. The city was founded in 1717, and had a population in 1884 of 104,472.

GUIANA.

THIS extensive territory, divided politically between Brazil, Venezuela, Great Britain, France, and the Netherlands, is situated in the northeastern part of South America, between latitude 8° 40′ north and 3° 30′ south, and longitude 50° and 68° west, and is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean and the Amazon and Orinoco rivers. Its extreme length from east to west is about 1,200 miles, its greatest breadth 800, and its estimated area 600,000 square miles. The first two divisions, comprising about five-sixths of the entire territory, are provinces of Brazil and Venezuela respectively; the others are colonies known as British, Dutch, and French Guiana.

The discovery of the territory has been claimed both for Vasco Nuñez, who is said to have landed on the coast in 1504, and for Diego de Ordas, who subsequently accompanied Cortez in the conquest of Mexico. Some Dutch people are said to have made settlements near the river Pomeroon as early as 1580; Sir Walter Raleigh sailed up the Orinoco in search of the coveted El Dorado in 1595; the Dutch possession was contested by the Spaniards; New Zealanders, English and French made settlements on the Essequibo and Surinam rivers between 1600 and 1650: and in 1669 the Dutch possessions covered all the region now belonging to British, Dutch, and French Guiana. The present division of this section was subsequently arranged between the three interested powers by treaty. The territory is watered by the Amazon, Orinoco, Essequibo, Demerara, Berbice, Corentin, Maroni, and Oyapok rivers and their affluents. The soil is fertile, the climate in general hot and moist, and the temperature averages 81° F. The chief products are sugar, rum, and molasses. The whole territory forms a forest-clad peninsula, on which grows a great variety and an enormous quantity of valuable woods. The most notable tree is the *mira*, which attains a height of 150 feet, and yields timber equal to that of the teak. The three eastern divisions of Guiana are the most important commercially as well as the best known.

BRITISH GUIANA.

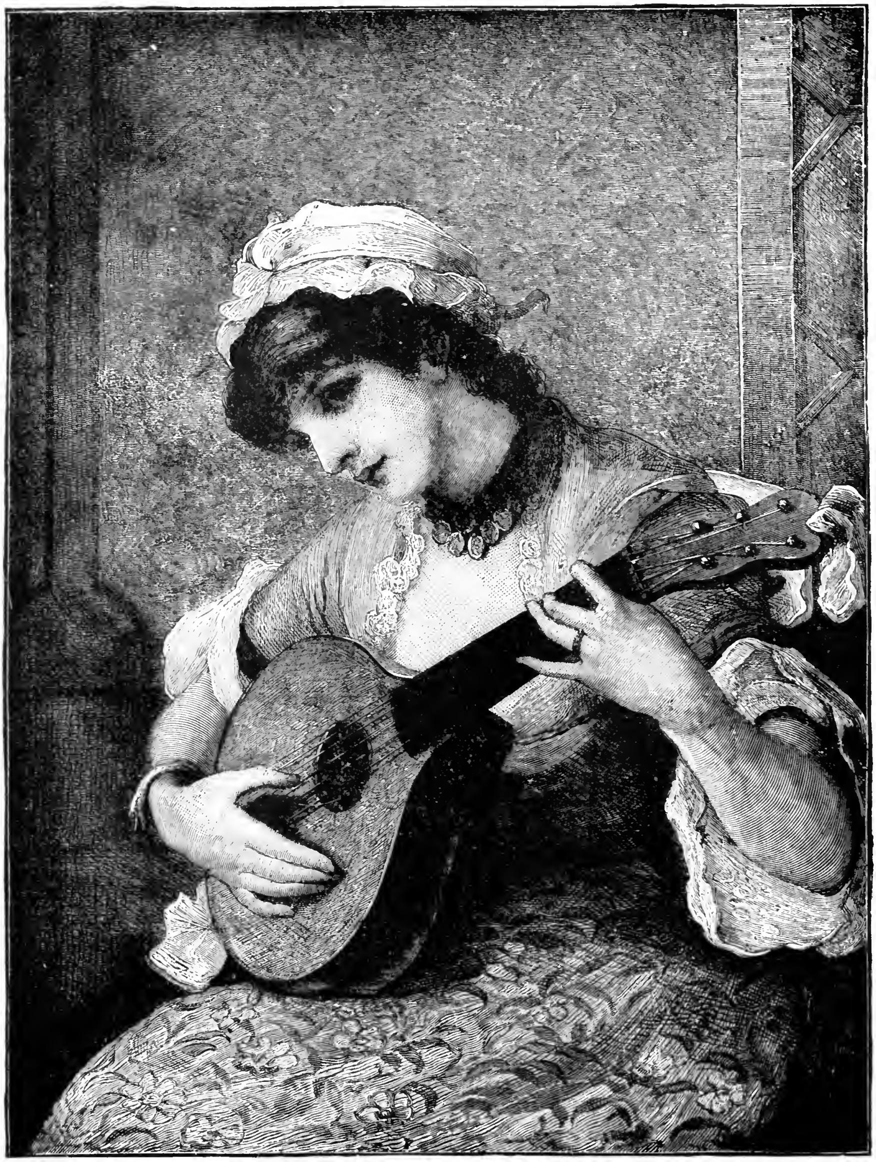
THIS division occupies the western part of the territory between Venezuela and Dutch Guiana, from which it is separated by the Corentin River, and is intersected in its length by the Essequibo. It has an area of 86,000 square miles, and in 1884 had a population of 264,473. The colony is subdivided into three departments, Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice, is under the executive authority of a governor appointed by the British crown, and has two important towns, Georgetown, the capital, with a population of 49,211, and New Amsterdam. The chief exports are sugar, rum, molasses, timber, shingles, and cotton; and imports, cotton goods, casks, machinery, beer and ale, iron, butter, and rice; these in 1885 were valued at: exports, $8,610,160, imports, $7,970,240. The Church of England diocese of Guiana was established in 1842, and in 1880 had sixty-nine churches and chapels, with 90,000 communicants. The Church of Scotland had ten ministers, the Wesleyan Methodist fourteen, and the Roman Catholics, Moravians, and Congregational Dissenters had several churches and mission stations each. The Church of England receives an annual grant from the public revenue of $50,000, the Church of Scotland, $25,000 and the Roman Catholic Church $12,500. The system of education is denominational, and supported by public revenue.

DUTCH GUIANA.

THIS division, sometimes called Surinam from its main river, is the central one, and lies between the Corentin and Maroni rivers. Its area has been variously estimated at from 45,000 to 58,530 square miles, the greater portion of which has never been explored. The population was estimated at 69,329 in 1875, of whom between 6,000 and 7,000 were whites, 17,000 Maroons, and 40,000 negroes. Paramaribo, ten miles from the mouth of the Surinam River, and with a population of 22,000, is the capital. The colony is divided into nine districts, and governed by a governor-general and a council of native freeholders as executives of an assembly partly appointed by the home government, and partly elected by citizens, who obtain the right of voting by the payment of a special tax. The imports are worth annually $1,600,000, and the exports, sugar, rum, molasses, coffee, and cotton, $1,200,000.

FRENCH GUIANA.

THE extreme eastern colony is the smallest of the three, and is also known as Cayenne, the name of an important island, the capital, and the port. The area is estimated at from 48,000 to 53,000 square miles, and the population in 1877 at 36,760; greatest length of colony 280 miles, greatest breadth 220. Owing to the prevailing trade winds, the heat is here less intense than in the British and Dutch portions. Hurricanes are unknown, but slight earthquakes have occurred in 1821, 1843, and 1877. Since 1870 gold washing has become the chief industry. The exports in the order of value are gold, coffee, sugar, rum, pepper, cabinet-woods, cotton, skins, india-rubber, vanilla, cloves, cinnamon, and nutmegs. The government is vested in a governor and military commandant, an *ordonnateur*, a director of the interior, a procurator-general, a privy council, and a director of the penitentiary service, the island of Cayenne constituting a French penal establishment. There is a court of appeal and a tribunal of first instance, and justices of the peace are appointed for each of the cantons into which the colony is subdivided. Cayenne is administrated by a municipal council, and religious affairs, which are wholly of Roman Catholic connection, are under the authority of an apostolic prefect. The French first settled in the colony in 1604. In 1763 the government sent out 12,000 volunteer immigrants, and within two years all but 918 perished. Large numbers of political prisoners were transported thither during the French Revolution; the colony was invaded by the British and Portuguese in 1809, and restored to France by treaty of 1814; and it was made a convict establishment in 1851.



A CREOLE BEAUTY.

THE
Countries of Central America:
THEIR CAPITALS AND SEAPORTS.

THIS division of the American continent extends from Mexico to the Isthmus of Panama, and from the Caribbean Sea on the east to the Pacific Ocean on the west. Its exact geographical location is between latitude 7° and 18° north, and longitude 81° and 93° west. Formerly it embraced Yucatan, now incorporated with Mexico, and Panama, now a part of the United States of Colombia, in South America. The country was conquered by Don Pedro de Alvarado, an associate of Cortez, in 1525, and it remained a possession of Spain from that time till 1821, when the people secured their independence, and organized separate States. The union of these in 1823 formed the Republic of the United States of Central America, which was dissolved in 1839, after a period of civil war, and since then each State has been independent, and recognized as a separate republic, though a movement was inaugurated in 1887 looking to the re-establishment of a federal government for all of them.

The entire region is exceedingly mountainous. The plateau of Veragua has an elevation of 8,000 feet above the sea level in its highest part, those of Costa Rica and Castago are from 2,200 to 4,000 feet, the table-land of Honduras is 4,000 feet, and that of Guatemala 5,000; while here and there are peaks rising to a height of 10,000 feet and over. Of the numerous rivers, the Usamasinta and the San Juan are the largest. The latter is the outlet of Lake Nicaragua, a body of water covering an area of 3,400 square miles. On the east coast is the Gulf of Honduras, and on the Pacific are the Gulfs of Dulce, Nicoya, Fonseca, and Coronada Bay. A large portion of Central America consists of land of remarkable fertility; agriculture is extensively pursued but in rather a primitive manner; and almost all kinds of crops could be cultivated profitably with improved seed and modern implements. There are numerous mines of gold, silver, copper, zinc, and other valuable minerals; but, like agriculture, they are still awaiting the spirit of enterprise that shall develop them as they deserve. Under the disadvantages of inappreciation and lack of facilities, the productive wealth of the entire section is practically limited to cabinet-woods, cotton, coffee, sugar, cochineal, indigo, cocoa, sarsaparilla, and tobacco. The prevailing form of religion is the Roman Catholic, which was introduced when the whole territory was one state under the Spanish crown, and known as the kingdom of Guatemala. Protestantism, however, has been permitted to achieve considerable progress. Each state maintains a small standing army, is terribly in debt, and has experienced the ill effects of earthquakes, revolutions, and serious political disturbances. In 1886 the entire area was estimated at 189,689 square miles, and the population at 2,793,723. The republics were five in number, Guatemala, San Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica.

THE REPUBLIC OF GUATEMALA.

THIS is the most northerly of the Central American states, and the most populous. Under the Spanish occupation it embraced the whole of the Central American territory; it was a part of the confederation for eighteen years; established itself as an independent republic in 1839; adopted its constitution in 1859; and revised it in 1879. Its area in 1886 was 44,800 square miles, and its population 1,322,544. The capital was New Guatemala. The executive authority was vested in a president elected for six years; the legislative in a national assembly whose members are elected for the same period. The president was assisted by a cabinet of four ministers, and the "Sociedad Economica," a Spanish institution dating from 1795. The republic has an admirable educational system, which receives the zealous care and liberal support of the administration. In 1880 there were 666 public schools, with 32,786 attendants, beside a number of night schools maintained by the government and the several municipal authorities, and many private institutions for all classes. The government and municipal aid in that year amounted to $216,783. Among the institutions of note are several high and normal schools, engineering, medical, and pharmaceutical colleges, legal, commercial, agricultural, musical, and telegraphic schools, art and mechanical academies, and an asylum for the education of the deaf and dumb. The National Institute of Technology, established at Quezaltenango in 1871, has already achieved a grand success and influence, and the Belen Female College, opened in the capital city in 1876, bids fair to become the Central American Vassar. The railroad and telegraphic service of Guatemala is far ahead of that of the other republics, and is being extended rapidly in order to facilitate the development of mineral and agricultural resources. Rich mines of gold, silver, and iron have been discovered, that will justify a judicious expenditure to render them accessible. In 1885 the public revenues amounted to $8,518,947, one-third of which was from duties on imports, and the expenditures to $8,397,550; the public debt aggregated $10,705,581; the imports were valued at $3,788,134, and the exports, chiefly coffee, $5,520,330. There were 112 miles of railroad, and 1,801 miles of telegraph lines in operation.

CITY OF NEW GUATEMALA.

NEW GUATEMALA, the first capital of the republic, now known as Old Guatemala, was founded by Alvarado in 1524, constituted a Roman Catholic bishop's see in 1533, destroyed by a deluge of water from the volcano de Agua in 1541, and almost wholly destroyed by an earthquake in 1773. It subsequently suffered severely from eruptions of the volcanoes of Agua and Fuego, and in 1799 the rebuilding of the city was begun. In its day it was a very important and interesting place, and contained many buildings of great solidity, extent, and architectural beauty. The ruins of the old cathedral show a length of 300 feet, a width of 120, and a height of 70, and the remains of fifty large windows. The old city had a population in 1885 of 20,000. The new capital city was built thirty miles east of its unfortunate predecessor, at an elevation of nearly 5,000 feet above the sea level, and between the two volcanoes just mentioned. It was laid out in streets forty feet wide, and provided with numerous public squares, drinking fountains, and statues of noted men. Around the main square, which is 625 feet long and 535 wide, are grouped the cathedral, built in 1780, the archbishop's palace, the government palaces, the ministerial offices, the mint, the city hall, and a row of business houses. Beside the buildings already mentioned there are twenty-four other churches, a hospital, and a penitentiary, spacious military barracks, a theatre that cost $200,000, a fine post-office, a large hotel conducted on the American plan, and many imposing and elegantly furnished private residences. The city is the see of a Roman Catholic archbishop, and had a population in 1886 of 58,456. San José de Guatemala is the principal port of the Republic with regard to importations; and Champerico, the most northern of the coffee-shipping ports of Central America and the largest, is the chief exporting station.

THE REPUBLIC OF SAN SALVADOR.

THIS is the smallest of the republics in point of area, and the second largest in point of population. It is bounded on the north by Honduras, on the east by the Bay of Fonseca, on the south by the Pacific Ocean, and on the west by Guatemala. Its area was estimated in 1886 at 7,226 square miles, and its population at 634,120. The country is traversed through its whole extent by a range of volcanic mountains, which have two peaks, San Vicente and San Salvador, with an elevation of over 9,000 feet. Within the boundaries of the republic, this range presents sixteen peaks which are still of an active volcanic character. Although generally mountainous, the country has a number of table-lands and plateaus of fertile soil on which agriculture is largely and quite successfully pursued. Beside the cereals needed for domestic consumption the chief product for export is indigo.

There are vast tracts of dense forest which yield excellent commercial timber, a greatly appreciated quality of cedar, and a quantity of Peruvian balsam, averaging 20,000 pounds per annum. The executive authority is vested by the constitution in a president elected for four years, who has a cabinet of five ministers; and the legislative in a congress comprising a senate of twelve members and a chamber of deputies of twenty-four, elected for two years. The people are more inclined to modern pursuits than those of neighboring states; and beside agriculture are largely engaged in various branches of manufactures. Within the last ten years they have also made considerable progress in developing a number of rich iron mines. All forms of religion are permitted by the constitution, though the Roman Catholic has the largest number of adherents. Education is highly esteemed, and is promoted by the government to the extent of its ability. The public revenue of the republic in 1887 was \$4,315,145, the national expenditures were \$4,291,850, the aggregate debt was \$4,750,000, the exports (1884) were valued at \$6,065,-

799, and the imports $2,646,628. The finances of the country, therefore, were in a much better condition than those of its larger neighbors territorially. Upon the dissolution of the Central American federation, Salvador maintained a union with Honduras and Nicaragua till 1853, when it established itself as an independent State.

CITY OF NUEVA SAN SALVADOR.

NUEVA SAN SALVADOR, the capital, is built in a beautiful valley at an elevation of nearly 3,000 feet above the sea level, and is five miles from La Libertad, its port. It rests at the base of the volcano of the same name, and, though entirely destroyed by an earthquake on April 15th, 1854, was rebuilt on the same site. It has the usual complement of public, ecclesiastical, educational, and charitable buildings; its edifices are well built, and, as in all countries liable to earthquakes, are seldom over two stories in height; and the population was estimated in 1886 at 16,000. In colloquial usage the "San," in the name of the republic and the capital, is generally omitted.

THE REPUBLIC OF HONDURAS.

THE third republic in point of population is situated between latitude 13° 10′ and 16° 5′ north and is bounded on the north and east by the Caribbean Sea, on the south by Nicaragua, and on the west by San Salvador and Guatemala. It has a coast line of fifty miles on the Pacific Ocean, and of over 400 on the Caribbean Sea. Its area in 1887 was estimated at 39,600 square miles, and its population at 331,917. Honduras is the most mountainous region of all Central America. The Andes cross the entire territory from northwest to southeast, leaving a belt between them and the Pacific Ocean from fifty to sixty miles wide, and throwing out long branches north, east, and south. These include the Sierra de Copan, the Merenden, the Esperito Santo, the Omoa, the Selaque the Montecillos, the Misoco, the Lepaterique; the Comajagua, the San Mareos, and the Macuelizo. The table-lands formed by these ranges and branches are among the highest known; the Tegucigalpa being 3,500 feet above sea level, Santa Rosa and Santa Cruz each 3,200, Siguatepegre 6,000, Olancho 9,000, Yutibuca 9,500, and

Juticalpa 10,000. The chief rivers are the Chamelecon, Ulua, Aguau, Black, Patuca, Segovia, Guayape, Choluteca, and Goascaran. The most remarkable inland lake is Yojoa, in a beautiful valley, surrounded by high mountains and having a length of forty-two and a width of twelve miles. Nearly all these watercourses are navigable by boats of light draught, and many of them flow over gold-bearing sand.

For administrative purposes the republic is divided into the following departments: Comayagua, Tegucigalpa, Choluteca, Santa Barbara, Gracias, Copan, Yoro, El Parais, Olancho, Bay Islands, and Mosquitia. The principal ports on the Caribbean Sea are Omoa, Trujillo, and Puerto Cortes, all of which have commodious and safe harbors, and the best harbor on the Pacific is that of Amapala, on the Bay of Fonseca. The republic is governed by a president with a cabinet of six ministers, and an assembly of forty-two representatives. Honduras chiefly exports gold bullion, indigo, cattle, timber, hides, and tobacco, of an average annual value of $1,300,000, and its leading imports are cotton and silk fabrics from England and cutlery and machinery from the United States. The public revenue in 1886 was $1,420,860, one-third derived from customs duties and another third from government monopolies; the expenditures were about the same; the national debt was $31,000,000; and the total value of exports was $1,605,000. There were sixty-nine miles of railroad, and 1,338 miles of telegraph lines in operation. Recent trade with the United States is thus shown: exports (1886) $730,559; (1887) $857,919; (1888) $957,331; imports (1886) $428,104; (1887) $425,741; (1888) $672,796. Honduras was discovered by Columbus August 14th, 1502, and conquered by Cortes. Under Spanish rule it grew rapidly, and many thrifty cities were founded. In 1823 it declared its independence of Spain, became a member of the federation of Central America, and for a while after the dissolution in 1839 formed a union with San Salvador and Nicaragua. The country is rich in archæological treasures and Toltec history.

CITY OF TEGUCIGALPA.

TEGUCIGALPA, the capital, in the department of the same name, is one of the most important centres of population, richness, and production in the republic. It is situated on a plain 3,000 feet above the sea level, and is watered by the picturesque Choluteca River. In this department are found the renowned mines of Yuscaran, San Antonia, Santa Lucia, and San Juan de Cantarranas. Mount Agalteca in the northwestern part of the department is a huge mass of pure iron metal. The capital city is on the right bank of the river, surrounded by steep mountains; its streets are regularly laid out, and neatly paved; and its houses are built almost wholly of stone, and with considerable architectural taste. It has six churches, including a substantial and handsomely decorated cathedral, a university founded in 1847, a mint, the official residence of the president, government buildings, the palace of the Roman Catholic bishop of the department diocese and the National Academy of Science and Art, opened 1888. The city is connected with the town of Comayaguela, on the opposite side of the river, by a stone bridge with ten arches. Its business is transacted through the ports of Omoa and Trujillo, on the Caribbean coast, and through Amalpa, on the Pacific. The population in 1887 was estimated at 15,000, and was rapidly increasing for Central America.

THE REPUBLIC OF NICARAGUA.

THE second state of Central America in point of area, though generally accounted the first, embraces the territory between latitude 10° 45′ and 14° 55′ north, and longitude 83° 15′ and 87° 38′ west, and is bounded on the north by Honduras, on the east by the Caribbean Sea, on the south by Costa Rica, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. Its area was estimated in 1886 at 58,000 square miles—168 less than that of Honduras, the largest state, and its population at 300,000. In public circles it is the best known and most studied of Central American states, because its natural water courses almost bisect the American continent, and indicate an admirable location for a ship-canal connecting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, which has been the dream of navigators for nearly a century.

In 1850 the governments of the United States and Great Britain concluded a treaty by which they agreed to co-operate in the establishment of a secure and neutral line of communication between the two seas by way of the San Juan River and Lake Nicaragua, to be open on equal terms to all nations, with a free port at each end of the line. An American company was formed for constructing a canal and operating a line of steamships. Concessions were freely granted by the various administrations of Nicaragua; survey after survey was made by parties who became interested in the general scheme;

the United States government had the whole region between the two oceans examined many times by its best naval engineers; but up to the beginning of 1888 the actual construction of the much-desired canal was still a work of the future.

Previous to 1850 communication had been maintained between the Atlantic and the towns of Grenada and Nicaragua by means of flat-bottomed boats. The passage was made from Grenada to San Juan, or Greytown, in about eight days, while the return passage, being against the stream, occupied from twelve to fifteen. Subsequently the Nicaragua Transit Company operated a route which involved but twelve miles of land carriage, and that over a good macadamized road. During the early part of 1888 the corps of United States engineers, which had for some time been making most detailed surveys and observations to fix the axial location of the purposed interoceanic canal, consolidated their reports and presented to the public in July what may be considered the most thorough and scientific plan for solving the great problem. The reports favored the upper location, and according to them the canal would extend from the roadstead of Brito on the Pacific, to the harbor of Greytown on the Atlantic, in all a distance of 169.8 miles. Of this 139.9 would be slack-water navigation through the basins of the rivers Deseado, San Francisco, San Juan, Lajas, Rio Grande, and Lake Nicaragua, leaving only 29.9 miles of actual excavation to be made. The canal would be eighty feet wide at the bottom in deep cuts, and 120 feet in terminal ones and other enlarged sections. At the surface of the water the width would be eighty feet in deep rock cuts, and from 180 to 340 feet at other points. The estimated time of transit from ocean to ocean, on the basis of a speed of five miles per hour in the canal proper, eight to ten miles per hour in the river and lake, and forty-five minutes detention at each of the five locks, would be twenty-eight hours. The total cost was estimated at $50,000,000. Preliminary work on the restoration and improvement of Greytown harbor was in progress, and work on the construction of the canal proper was begun in the summer of 1889.

The principal rivers of Nicaragua are the Segovia and the San Juan; the former forms the northern boundary, and the latter the southern. The San Juan is the only channel by which Lake Nicaragua discharges its waters into the Atlantic. The lake is 100 miles long and about forty miles broad, and is the reservoir of a great extent of mountainous country. It contains several islands, among which Omotepec is remarkable for a high volcano and for its fertility, and was long the abode of an industrious tribe of Indians. Lake Managua empties into Lake Nicaragua through the river Tipi Tapi; the rivers Malacatoya, Rio de Punta Tule, Gil Gonzales, Las Lajas, and Ocho Mogo, empty into Lake Nicaragua; and the Sabalo, San Carlos, and Serapaqui, rising in Costa Rica, empty into the San Juan. Upper Nicaragua, where the lakes are situated, has a regular rainy and dry season, and lower or eastern Nicaragua, which includes Greytown and nearly all the San Juan region, has the climate of the Caribbean Sea, where it rains every month in the year. The departments of Segovia, Matagalpa, Chotales, and Mosquito, in eastern Nicaragua, are munificently endowed by nature. Forests of logwood, morau, mahogany, and various cabinet woods abound: large deposits of caoutchouc gum are a source of considerable wealth; the mountains of Chontales contain gold, both placer, mining, and quartz; and those of Segovia extensive veins of silver. The soil of the republic is in general very fertile; the chief agricultural industries are the cultivation of coffee, cocoa, indigo, cotton, maize, and fruits. Cattle are among the principal sources of wealth, very large numbers of them being kept on the plains along the eastern sides of the lakes. The manufactures are almost wholly confined to articles required for home use, and are chiefly coarse cotton and woollen cloths, the former being dyed a purple color, by means of a shell fish caught in the vicinity of San Juan del Sur.

The republic is politically divided into five departments, Segovia comprising the northeastern part, Leon the north and northwestern, Managua the district south of Leon, Granada that south of Managua, and Nicaragua the most southern part bordering on Costa Rica. The capitals bear the department names. Segovia is in a healthy and fertile region, and has a large amount of undeveloped mineral wealth; Leon, the former capital of the republic, is on the road which leads from the best cultivated district of the republic to the harbor of Realejo, contains a cathedral, several churches, a university and a college, and has suffered greatly from political disturbances; Monagua is on the south bank of the lake of that name, is surrounded by rich coffee plantations, has a number of manufactories, and in 1889 was the capital of the republic, with an estimated population of 12,000; Granada, on the northwestern bank of Lake Nicaragua, has a considerable trade through the river and harbor of the San Juan, and contains several churches and convents; and Nicaragua is about two miles from the west bank of Lake Nicaragua, and is surrounded by a district noted for its fertility, especially in cacao and grapes. The modern Greytown, the Atlantic terminus of the proposed inter-oceanic canal, has been known as San Juan del Nicaragua, and was the chief trading town of the former Mosquito kingdom, on the Caribbean coast, of which Blewfields was the capital. Greytown was almost entirely destroyed by United States war vessels on July 12th, 1854, but it was subsequently rebuilt and improved. It has a natural harbor of considerable extent and large commercial importance.

Nicaragua is governed by a president elected for four years, who has a cabinet of four ministers. The legislative authority is vested in a congress comprising a senate of ten members and an assembly of eleven representatives. The chief exports are gold and silver bullion, coffee, hides, and cabinet woods. The public revenue in 1887 was $3,393,295, and the expenditures were larger; the exports were valued at $5,781,850 and the imports $3,982,640.

The territory along the Caribbean Sea constituted the Indian kingdom of Mosquito or Mosquitia; the first settlement of Englishmen on the coast was made in 1730, when families settled at Cape Gracias a Dios on Black River and at the mouth of Blewfields River. In 1813, when Central America secured its independence from Spain, Nicaragua claimed the Mosquito territory, the king appealed to Great Britain, who rejected the claims and guaranteed the sovereignty of the coast to the king. The United States protested against the English protectorate and refused to acknowledge it. In 1850, in the treaty between the United States and Great Britain, already mentioned, the latter abandoned the protectorate, the king of Mosquito was thrown upon his own resources, and before long his territory was merged with that of Nicaragua. The republic was the scene of the chief operations of William Walker, the American filibuster, in 1854, '55, '56, '57, and '60.

THE REPUBLIC OF COSTA RICÀ

THE most southerly state in Central America extends entirely across the isthmus, lies between latitude 8° and 11° 30′ north, and longitude 83° and 85° 40′ west; is bounded on the north by Nicaragua, on the east by the Mosquito Gulf, on the south by the Isthmus of Panama and the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by the Atlantic; and had an estimated area in 1886 of 21,495 square miles and a population of 213,-

785. The surface of the country comprises for the most part a table-land, with an elevation of over 2,000 feet above sea level. From the range of the Cabeçares Mountains in Veragua, east of the plain of Chiriqui, there stretches a considerable number of mountain peaks, many of them of considerable height, and a large part of them volcanic. Some of them attain an elevation of 10,000 feet, and one, the volcano of Cartago, is said to be 11,480 feet high. Toward the Gulf the descent is very abrupt, but on the Pacific side it is quite gradual. The only important river is the San Juan, common to it and Nicaragua; the Pacific portion has the Estrella, Arena, and Baranca, all with a short course. The climate is more regular and healthy than in other parts of Central America, the thermometer seldom rising above 85° nor falling below 65° F.

The soil is of varied quality, but in many parts highly productive. On the more elevated districts there are few forests, but on the lower declivities and particularly along the eastern coast they are very abundant, and yield a large quantity of Brazil wood, mahogany, and cedar for export. Coffee is the staple product, though considerable quantities of wheat, maize, sugar, tobacco, and indigo are raised and find a ready sale. Fruits and vegetables are largely cultivated for home consumption, and cattle, horses, mules, sheep, swine, and poultry are raised in great numbers. Costa Rica has three considerable gulfs, that of Chiriqui on the Pacific side and those of Nicoya and Dulce on the Atlantic. Large gold mines exist near the Gulf of Nicoya, and valuable veins of silver, copper, and coal elsewhere.

The republic is divided politically into six provinces, San José, Cartago, Heredia, Alajuela, Guanaceute, and Punta de Arenas. The executive authority is vested in a president, formerly elected for six years, but now for four, two vice-presidents, and a cabinet of four ministers; the legislative in a congress of deputies also chosen for four years. The public revenue for 1886 amounted to $2,387,290, one-third of which was from the government monopoly on tobacco and brandy, and the rest from custom duties and a variety of taxes; and the expenditures to $3,088,944; the debt was $11,942,076; the imports $3,661,000, and the exports $3,297,000. The Roman Catholic is the established religion, but other forms of worship are permitted. The church is presided over by the Bishop of San José, and the chief court of justice is the Tribunal of San José, over which seven judges preside. The white inhabitants of the republic are relatively more numerous in Costa Rica than in the other republics of Central America; the eastern side of the country is mainly occupied by Indians, while on the western side of the table-land are large numbers of ladinos or mulattoes. The country formed a part of the kingdom of Guatemala during the Spanish occupation, and for two years after the declaration of independence was united to the Mexican kingdom of Iturbide; but in 1823 it joined the federation of Central America. On the dissolution of that union it established itself as an independent State. In 1882 the towns of Alajuela, San Ramon, Grecia, and Heredia were nearly destroyed by an earthquake, which caused a loss of several thousand lives. In 1886 there were 170 miles of railroad and 451 of telegraph lines in operation in the country.

CITY OF SAN JOSÉ.

SAN JOSÉ, the capital of the republic, is on a table-land, 4,500 feet above sea level, in latitude 10° 56′ north, and longitude 83° 45′ west. It is about fifteen miles northwest of Cartago, the former capital, and is connected with Punta Arenas, its seaport, by a carriage road. It is a modern city, having been built since the separation from Spain, and contains the government buildings, legislative halls, courts of justice, palace of the Roman Catholic bishop, and a population (1886) of 26,000. Prior to the great earthquake, Alajuela was the second place of importance in the republic, with a population of nearly 8,000. It was at the terminus of the railroad that started from Cartago, near the centre of the country, ran northwest for twenty miles to San José, then nearly west for ten miles to Heredia, and then southwest ten miles to its other terminus. The town was well built, all the houses being one story in height and made of adobe, most of them having tile roofs. It was surrounded by rich coffee plantations that extended as far as Heredia, which had a population of 6,000. Alajuela stood nearly midway between San José and Punta de Arenas. Cartago is at the base of the volcano of the same name, and was formerly not only the capital of the republic but a place of much commercial importance. In 1841 it was almost entirely destroyed by an earthquake, which ruined seven of its eight churches and nearly 3,000 houses.

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