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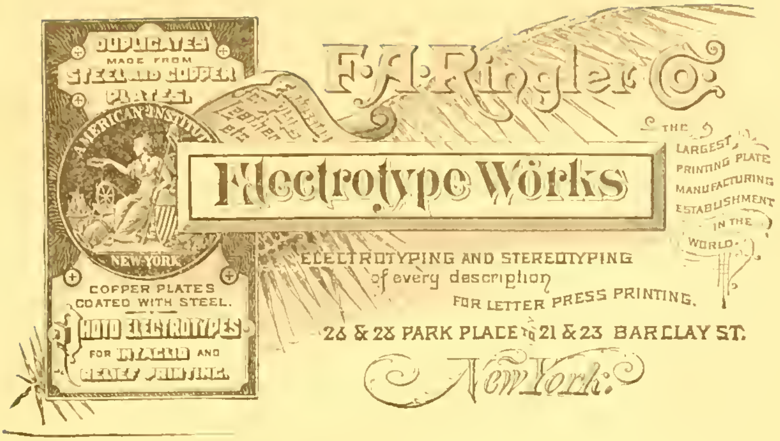
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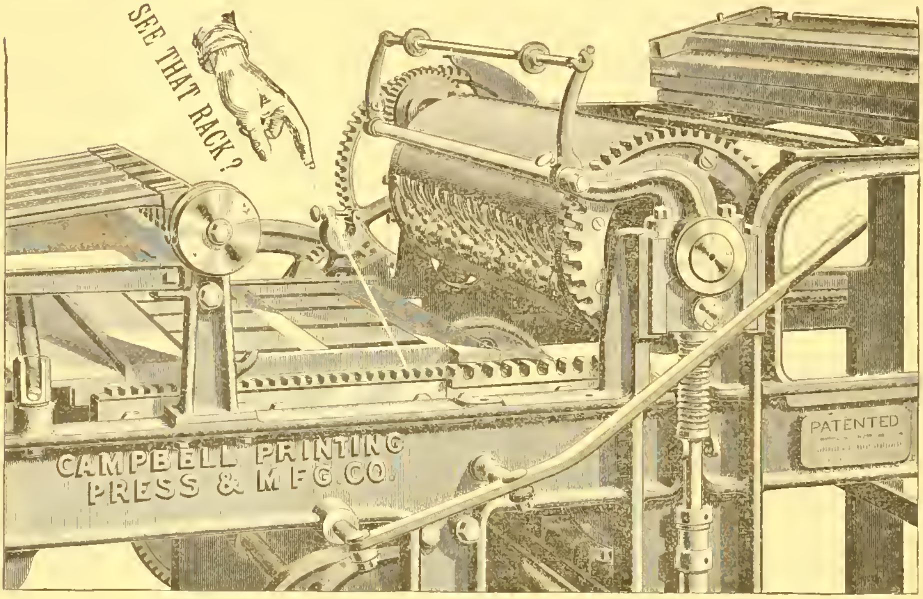
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PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATES

1892

THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT HARRISON.

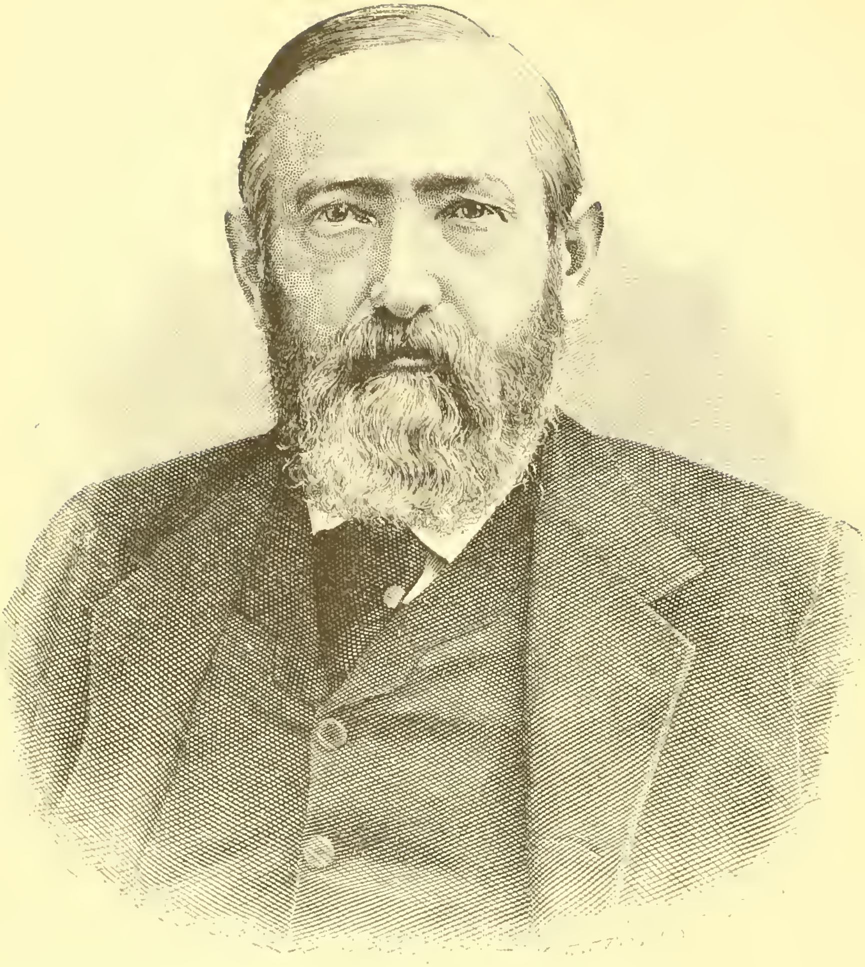
THE administration of Benjamin Harrison has been crowded with incidents and executive accomplishments that will mark it as second in importance to that only of Abraham Lincoln. Almost his first official act was the appointment of his Cabinet which was composed as follows: Sectretary of State, James G. Blaine; Secretary of Treasury, William Windom; Secretary of War, R. F. Proctor; Secretary of Navy, B F. Tracy; Postmaster-General, John Wanamaker; Secretary of Interior, J. W. Noble; Secretary of Agriculture, Jeremiah Rusk. For Attorney-General he selected his life long friend and partner, W. H. H. Miller. To these selections must be added the diplomats sent to foreign countries, which in their entirety formed a most interesting and distinguished corps. The number of deaths occurring to those directly and indirectly connected with Mr. Harrison and his administration is not the least remarkable history of the past four years.

In the American system the President is not so much a deviser of policies as an executor of law. It was not intended by the Constitution that he should govern the people, but simply that he should administer their decrees. So vast, however, were the powers intrusted to Mr. Harrison, and so wide his discretion in the assertion of them, that inevitably he imparted form as well as direction to the Government. When we speak of the policies of the administration, therefore, we speak of something that has real substance and real results, and yet is not inconsistent with the constitutional theory.

President Harrison brought to the discharge of his duties a mind that had been trained in public affairs. As a Senator of the United States he had learned to know the country, its interests, its questions and its people. Eminently a practical man, he gave a practical character to his government. It has been a working government. Under it the departments have moved swiftly and directly in the daily task of administration. They have all been stimulated by the President's requirement that each day's record should tell of actual achievement. He gave constant personal attention to their affairs, shaping their policies and directing their methods. He has been emphatically the head of his administration, while conceding to each of his Cabinet officers that authority and consideration which their position and experience made appropriate.

Foremost among the problems confronting President Harrison as he crossed the threshold of office was the Samoan difficulty with Germany. The dispute concerned Germany's effort to annex the Samoan Islands, one of the small South Pacific groups which are still independent. They lie directly in our path to Australia. They contain a United States coaling station, to secure which the Government had guaranteed the protection of native autonomy.

Mr. Blaine's first work was to dispatch a commission to treat with the German Government on this question, upon the understanding that the United States could not permit the supremacy of any foreign authority in Samoa. This condition was accepted



reluctantly perhaps but promptly, so soon as Germany was made to understand that the United States were really in earnest. Within six months after Mr. Blaine's accession to the State Department, the United States, Germany and England had agreed upon a treaty that secured peace and independence to Samoa, and the perpetuation of our interests there unimpaired.

The Behring Sea question, which was still unsettled at the time of President Harrison's accession, was settled upon a basis which sustains the American position until arbitration shall have determined the right.

In the summer of 1885 the Canadians of British Columbia raided the American seal rookeries in Behring Sea, and began the same destructive methods of slaughter that had almost exterminated the fur seal in other sections of the globe.

Their plan was to hover in Behring Sea around the passes of the Aleutian chain, and, as the seal appeared on their way to the Pribyloff Islands, to fall upon them with guns and spears.

President Harrison took up the controversy, enforcing the American claims in terms that left no doubt of his intention to have them definitely adjusted. He denied the British contention that the freedom of the seas carried with it the license to do whatever anybody pleased thereon regardless of the rights of others. He held that the seas were free for purposes that were innocent, but not for marauding enterprises against another's property. Finally, an arrangement was secured by which the conflicting assertions were submitted to friendly arbitration, each nation agreeing meanwhile to prohibit sealing of all kinds, thereby insuring the safety and increase of the herd. This was a notable victory for justice and peace.

Among the accomplishments which will make the history of the State Department under Harrison's administration memorable is the relation which it has established between this nation and the people of Latin America. When Mr. Blaine was a member of the Garfield Cabinet he conceived the idea of a Pan-American Congress to be held at Washington. He issued invitations to every nation of Central and South America to participate in the conference, and appointed a day when it should assemble.

The breaking out of the Chili-Peruvian war caused the abandonment of his great enterprise. It was revived by Mr. Blaine under President Harrison, and carried out successfully. Twenty-five principles to govern the political and commercial relations of the nations concerned were agreed upon.

Among these were a scheme of arbitration by which it is hoped that international war upon this continent will be rendered forever impossible; the establishment of an international monetary union for the issue of uniform coin; the appointment of international commissioners to consider railway and steamship communications; the establishment of an international American bank, of a uniform system of customs regulations, of a uniform system of extradition treaties, of a uniform plan for the protection of patents and copyrights, and the preparation of a code of commercial and civil law. Much has since been done to carry these agreements into practical effect.

President Harrison has taken a calm, dignified stand for American rights. The position of the administration was thus stated in the President's message to Congress on the Chilian affair:

"In submitting these papers to Congress for that grave and patriotic consideration which the questions involved demand, I desire to say that I am of the opinion that the demands made of Chili by this Government should be adhered to and enforced. If the dignity, as well as the prestige and influence, of the United States are not to be wholly sacrificed, we must protect those who, in foreign parts, display the flag or wear the colors of this Government against insult, brutality and death inflicted in resentment of the acts of their Government, and not for any fault of their own. It has been my desire in every way to cultivate friendly and intimate relations with all the governments of this hemisphere. We do not covet their territory; we desire their peace and prosperity. We look for no advantage in our relations with them, except the increased exchanges of commerce upon a basis of mutual benefit. We regret every civil contest that disturbs their peace and paralyzes their government, and are always ready to give our good offices for the restoration of peace. It must, however, be understood that this Government, while exercising the utmost forbearance towards weaker powers, will extend its strong and adequate protection to its citizens, to its officers, and to its humblest sailors when made the victims of wantonness and cruelty in resentment, not of their personal conduct, but of the official acts of their Government."

Mr. Chauncey M. Depew, in speaking at the Minneapolis convention of what President Harrison's administration had accomplished, said:

"The administration has sedulously guarded all the financial interests of the people by its careful management of the Treasury and its sturdy opposition to the free coinage of silver. It has revised the tariff legislation on the lines of protection, rendering the law symmetrical. The annual expenditures of the Government now approximate $500,000,000, and will increase for a time at least with the growth of the country.

"The present administration has had to deal with the question of enlarged expenditures growing out of the refund of direct taxes, expenses of the eleventh census, French spoliation claims, new naval vessels, repayment to importers for excess of moneys deposited to secure the payment of duties, colleges for agricultural and mechanical arts, additional court expenses, homes for disabled volunteer soldiers, rivers and harbors, public buildings, back pay and bounty to soldiers, the Indian service and Indian war, prepayment of interest on the public debt, together with the meeting of deficits in the previous administration. Added to all this was the revenue cut off when the McKinley bill placed sugar on the free list. It has been able to meet these conditions; to avert a financial panic; to maintain the public credit; to reduce the public debt by a very large amount, and to refund a considerable portion of it at the unprecedentedly low rate of 2 per cent. The vast business interests of the country have greatly prospered, and the people evidently feel that these interests are safe in the hands which for three years have managed them so successfully."

In addition to these splendid performances there must be set down to the credit of President Harrison's administration the successful conduct of the controversy with Italy concerning the New Orleans riot, whereby foreign nations were convinced that bluster toward America was a profitless business. Consular reforms of the widest utility looking to the promotion of American interests abroad have been successfully put into operation. But greater perhaps than all of these in the practical advantages to be derived from them by the merchants and producers of America is the negotiation of the series of reciprocity treaties, which have already resulted in vastly stimulating American sales to Southern countries, and which promise an extension of export trade as quick as it will be varied and large.

President Harrison has achieved a great reputation in a difficult field of oratory. He is a very ready speaker, equal almost to any occasion, and in grace of language, vigor of thought and appropriateness to the occasion, many of his speeches are models. Since he became President he has made frequent and long journeys, and often he has addressed the people who gathered to greet him in words that, although unstudied, were dignified and appropriate. As illustrating his style and setting forth his views on the present campaign, extracts are here given from his letter accepting the renomination as the Republican candidate for President:

"Few subjects have elicited more discussion or excited more general interest than that of a recovery by the United States of its appropriate share of the ocean carrying trade. This subject touches not only our pockets but our National pride. Practically all the freights for transporting to Europe the enormous annual supplies of provisions furnished by this country and for the large return of manufactured products have for many years been paid to foreign ship owners. The great ships—the fastest upon the sea—which are now in peace profiting by our trade, are in secondary sense war ships of their respective Governments, and in time of war would, under existing contracts with those Governments, speedily take on the guns for which their decks are already prepared, and enter with terrible efficiency upon the work of destroying our commerce. The undisputed fact is that the great steamship lines of Europe were built up and are now in part sustained by direct or indirect Government aid, the latter taking the form of liberal pay for carrying the mails or of an annual bonus given in consideration of agreements to construct the ships so as to adapt them for carrying an armament, and to turn them over to the Government on demand, upon specified terms.

"It was plain to every intelligent American that if the United States would have such lines, a similar policy must be entered upon. The Fifty-first Congress enacted such a law, and under its beneficent influence sixteen American steamships, of an aggregate tonnage of 57,400 tons and costing $7,400,000, have been built or contracted to be built in American shipyards. In addition to this, it is now practically certain that we shall soon have, under the American flag, one of the finest steamship lines sailing out of New York for any European port. This contract will result in the construction in American yards of four new passenger steamships of 10,000 tons each, costing about $8,000,000, and will add to our Naval reserve six steamships, the fastest upon the sea.

"Another measure, as furnishing an increased ocean traffic for our ships, and of great and permanent benefit to the farmers and manufacturers as well, is the reciprocity policy declared by Section 3 of the Tariff act of 1890, and now in practical operation with five of the nations of Central and South America, San Domingo, the Spanish and British West India islands, and with Germany and Austria, under special trade arrangements with each. The removal of the duty on sugar and the continuance of coffee and tea upon the free list, while giving great relief to our own people by cheapening articles used increasingly in every household, was also of such enormous advantage to the countries exporting these articles as to suggest that in consideration thereof reciprocal favors should be shown in their tariffs to articles exported by us to their markets. Great credit is due to Mr. Blaine for the vigor with which he pressed this view upon the country. We have only begun to realize the benefit of these trade arrangements. The work of creating new agencies and of adapting our goods to new markets has necessarily taken time; but the results already attained are such, I am sure, as to establish in popular favor the policy of reciprocal trade, based upon the free importation of such articles as do not injuriously compete with the products of our own farms, mines or factories, in exchange for the free or favored introduction of our products into other countries.

"The most convincing evidence of the tremendous commercial strength of our position is found in the fact that Great Britain and Spain have found it necessary to make reciprocal trade agreements with us for their West India colonies, and that Germany and Austria have given us important concessions in exchange for the continued free importation of their sugar.

"And now a few words in regard to the existing tariff law. We are fortunately able to judge of its influence upon production and prices by the market reports. The day of the prophet of calamity has been succeeded by that of the trade reporter. An examination into the effect of the law upon the prices of protected product, and of the cost of such articles as enter into the living of people of small means has been made by a Senate committee, composed of leading Senators of both parties, with the aid of the best statisticians, and the report, signed by all the members of the committee, has been given to the public. No such wide and careful inquiry has ever before been made. These facts appear from the report:

"First—The cost of articles entering into the use of those earnings less than $1,000 per annum has decreased up to May, 1892, 3.4 per cent, while in farm products there has been an increase in prices, owing in part to an increased foreign demand and the opening of new markets. In England during the same period the cost of living increased 1.9 per cent. Tested by their power to purchase articles of necessity, the earnings of our working people have never been as great as they are now.

"Second—There has been an average advance in the rate of wages of .75 of 1 per cent.

"Third—There has been an advance in the price of all farm products of 18.67 per cent, and of all cereals 33.59 per cent.

"The Civil Service system has been extended and the law enforced with vigor and impartiality. There has been no partisan juggling with the law in any of the departments or bureaus as had before happened, but appointments to the classified service have been made impartially from the eligible lists. The system now in force in all the departments has for the first time placed promotions strictly upon the basis of merit, as ascertained by a daily record, and the efficiency of the force thereby greatly increased.

"The general condition of our country is one of great prosperity. The blessing of God has rested upon our fields and upon our people. The annual value of our foreign commerce has increased more than $400,000,000 over the average for the preceding ten years and more than $210,000,000 over 1890, the last year unaffected by the new tariff. Our exports in 1892 exceeded those of 1890 by more than $172,000,000 and the annual average for ten years by $265,000,000. Our exports of breadstuffs increased over those of 1890 more than $144,000,000; of provisions over $4,000,000, and of manufacturers over $8,000,000. The merchandise balance of trade in our favor in 1892 was $202,944,342. No other nation can match the commercial progress which these figures disclose.

"A change in the personnel of a National administration is of comparatively little moment. If those exercising public functions are able, honest, diligent and faithful, others possessing all these qualities may be found to take their places. But changes in the laws and in administrative policies are of great moment. When public affairs have been given a direction and business has adjusted itself to those lines, any sudden change involves a stoppage and new business adjustments. If the change of direction is so radical as to bring the commercial turn-table into use, the business changes involved are not readjustments but reconstructions.

"The policy of the Republican party is distinctively a policy of safe progression and development—of new factories, new markets and new ships. It will subject business to no perilous change, but offers attractive opportunities for expansion upon familiar lines."

WHITELAW REID.

WHITELAW REID, the Republican nominee for the office of Vice-President, was born in Xenia, Ohio, on October 27, 1837. His father, Robert Charlton Reid, had married Marian Whitelaw Rounds, a descendant in direct line from the Clan Roland of the highlands of Scotland. His paternal grandfather, also of Scotch blood, a stern old Covenanter, was one of the earliest pioneers to this country, settling in the township of Xenia. Whitelaw Reid was fitted for college by an uncle, Hugh McMillan, D. D., a Scotch Covenanter, a trustee of Miami University, and principal of the old and time-honored Xenia Academy, then considered the best preparatory school in the State. Under the classical training of his uncle Whitelaw Reid became so well drilled in Latin that at the age of fifteen he entered Miami as a Sophomore, with a rank equal to the older scholars. This was in 1853, and three years later he graduated with scientific honors. Just after graduation he was made principal in the graded schools of South Charleston, Ohio, where he taught French, Latin and the higher mathematics to immediate pupils generally older than himself, paying while here the expenses of his senior year in college. He returned to his home at the age of twenty, and purchased The Xenia News, and during the following two years led the life of a country editor.

Mr. Reid was an original Republican, and early in life identified himself with the then new Republican party, taking the stump for John C. Fremont. He was ever a reader of The New York Tribune, and edited his own paper with such success as to double its circulation. In 1860, notwithstanding his personal admiration of Mr. Chase, he advocated the nomination of Mr. Lincoln, The News being one of the first Western newspapers to do so, and through his influence a Lincoln delegate was elected to the Republican convention from the Xenia district. After meeting Mr. Lincoln in Columbus he entered into the business of the campaign and made some stirring speeches. Too much exertion caused him to withdraw from the political arena. He traveled extensively throughout the Northwest, and the following winter he returned to Columbus as a legislative correspondent for The Cincinnati Times. After a few weeks of his engagement with The Times had elapsed he obtained an offer at a higher figure from The Cleveland Herald, followed by a still larger salary from The Cincinnati Gazette. By means of these three engagements he was put in receipt of some $38 a week, quite a good income for a journalist in those days. The task of writing three daily legislative themes, distinct in tone, severely tried his versatility and courage, but gave to him that thorough journalistic training which rendered his future labors comparatively light and attractive. At the close of that session of the Legislature The Gazette offered him the post of city editor, which he creditably filled until the beginning of the civil war, when Mr. Reid, by order of the Gazette Company, followed McClennan as war correspondent. General Morris had command of the advance, and Mr. Reid, as representative of this foremost journal, was assigned to duty as volunteer aide-de-camp, with the rank of a captain. He began service as a war correspondent over the signature of "Agate," and wrote a series of letters which attracted general attention. After the West Virginia campaign he returned to The Gazette office, and for a time wrote editorial leaders. Serving again during the second West Virginia campaign on the staff of General Rosecrans, he returned after the battles of Carnifix Ferry and Ganley Bridge, resuming his editor-

ial duties, and helped to organize an extra staff of correspondents. Fairly established as a journalst of much promise he made a subsequent career of brilliant service in the West. In 1861–62 he went to Fort Donelson, recorded the Tennessee campaign, arrived at Pittsburgh, landing weeks in advance of the battle fought there, and, leaving a sick bed, was the only correspondent who witnessed the fight from the beginning to the close, and it was his graphic account of this battle in a ten-column story to The Gazette that stamped him as a newspaper correspondent of the first class.

Mr. Reid went to Washington in the spring of 1862 for The Gazette, the proprietors offering him a handsome interest in their establishment at a fair price. His share of the profits for the first year amounted to two-thirds of the cost, and laid the foundation of his fortune. As a correspondent at the National Capital for The Gazette he attracted the notice of Horace Greeley by his executive and literary ability, who from that time became a loyal and unswerving friend. While on a trip through the South in 1865, as the companion of Chief Justice Chase, Mr. Reid gathered his material for his first contribution to literature in the form of a book, entitled "After the War, a Southern Tour." This book was considered a fair reflex of its author's independent and practical experience of men and matters and a good record of Southern affairs during the years immediately following the war. After that he tried cotton planting in partnership with General Francis J. Herron, but after two years, though not a loser, his gain was principally in business experience. In 1868 he finished and published his second work, on which he had been engaged for three years, entitled "Ohio in the War," consisting of two large volumes, with more than a thousand pages in each. It proved to be a comprehensive and complete history of the part that State took in the rebellion, and included sketches of a number of the most prominent generals, and is to-day considered a monument of industry and a model for every State work of this kind.

After the publication of this book Mr. Reid during the same year resumed the duties of leader writer on The Gazette.

On the impeachment of President Johnson he went to Washington and reported carefully that transaction. The invitation made by Mr. Greeley to Mr. Reid several times before of connecting himself with the editorial staff of The Tribune was finally accepted during the summer, and as leading editorial writer, with a salary next in amount to that of Horace Greeley, he wrote many conspicuous leaders during the campaign that ended in the first election of General Grant. Shortly after Mr. Reid was installed in the managing editor's chair, and in this advancement retained the confidence of his chief. By a bold outlay of funds in 1870 Mr. Reid surpassed all rivals at home and abroad in reports of the Franco-Prussian war, and with full power from that time to proceed he gradually reorganized and strengthened the staff of The Tribune. After the nomination of Mr. Greeley for President in 1872, Mr. Reid was made editor-in-chief of The Tribune, which office, though accepted with reluctance, was filled with his customary courage and determination. Much surprise was created both among his friends and foes after the disastrous campaign of 1872, by the amount of resources which Mr. Reid's conduct had gained for him in the shape of capital placed at his disposal, and he was thus enabled to gain entire control of The Tribune.

Mr. Reid's public services as a journalist led his friends repeatedly to urge him to enter other departments of public life. President Hayes and President Garfield offered him the position of American Minister to Germany, but on both occasions he declined the honor. In 1878 he was elected by the Legislature of New York to be a regent for life of the university. Finally in March he was prevailed upon to accept the offer of President Harrison as American Minister to France, which important post he succeeded in filling to the credit of his country and himself. He secured the repeal of the French decree prohibiting the importation of American meats, and negotating reciprocity and extradition treaties. He resigned office and came home in April, 1892, when he was honored with dinners by the Chamber of Commerce, the Ohio Society and the Lotus Society.

Mr. Reid was called upon during the memorable Minneapolis convention of 1892 by his party to fill the high office of Vice-President, and the nomination which was made unanimous on June 10 shows the honor in which the Republican party held him. His name was placed before the convention by Senator Edmund O'Connor, of Binghamton, N. Y., and was seconded by General Porter.

The Convention Hall began filling rapidly early in the evening. President Harrison had been nominated for a second term on June 9, amid one of the most enthusiastic Republican gatherings in the history of the party. And the interest had continued into the next day by the great crowd which collected in the hall to witness the second choice for the party. The galleries were well filled by 8.45 o'clock, and there appeared to be no lessening of the uproar which had characterized the proceedings of June 9, with its strains of the day session and continued bursts of applause. A minute later Chairman McKinley brought his gavel down for order, and the evening session began.

After the hush Chairman McKinley announced that the first business was the presentations of candidates for the Vice-Presidency. The roll of States was called, and the doors opened to the outside crowds, who soon had filled every seat in the great hall. When New York was reached Senator O'Connor rose to present the name of Mr. Whitelaw Reid, of New York, for Vice-President. General Porter then stepped to the platform and seconded the nomination in an eloquent speech, saying that the name he had to present would command the respect of all people, being that of New York's favorite son, a worthy successor to Horace Greeley, the creator of Modern Journalism. He closed his remarks at 9.15, and was heartily cheered. Delegate Settle of Tennessee then presented the name of Thomas B. Reed of Maine, seconded by a Kansas delegate and Mr. Loughthan of Virginia. The Maine delegation then asked that no action should be taken until they had received authority of Mr. Reed, as they thought he would decline the honor, and on behalf of his brethren Delegate Loughthan withdrew Mr. Reed's name. It was understood from the close of the afternoon session that New York State could nominate the candidate for Vice-President. Some talk was made of Vice-President Levi P. Morton's renomination, and efforts were made to secure the consideration of Eliott F. Shephard, but when the caucus of New York's delegates was made early in the evening the selection of Whitelaw Reid was made promptly and unanimously. There was a general feeling from the start that Mr. Reid was the candidate most acceptable to all. General Porter's references in his speech to Mr. Reid's diplomatic career drew forth responsive applause. He reviewed further his services abroad. His duty done he assigned the office which he never sought. When he returned to America all the honors in the land were heaped upon him. He had always believed loyalty to party was next to country. He had always believed in party. It was said that Mr. Reid had difficulties with the typographical unions. This had been settled. In conclusion General Porter said that with Whitelaw Reid they would march to victory. After the adjournment of the convention the committee on notification assembled at the desk of Chairman McKinley and completed its organization.

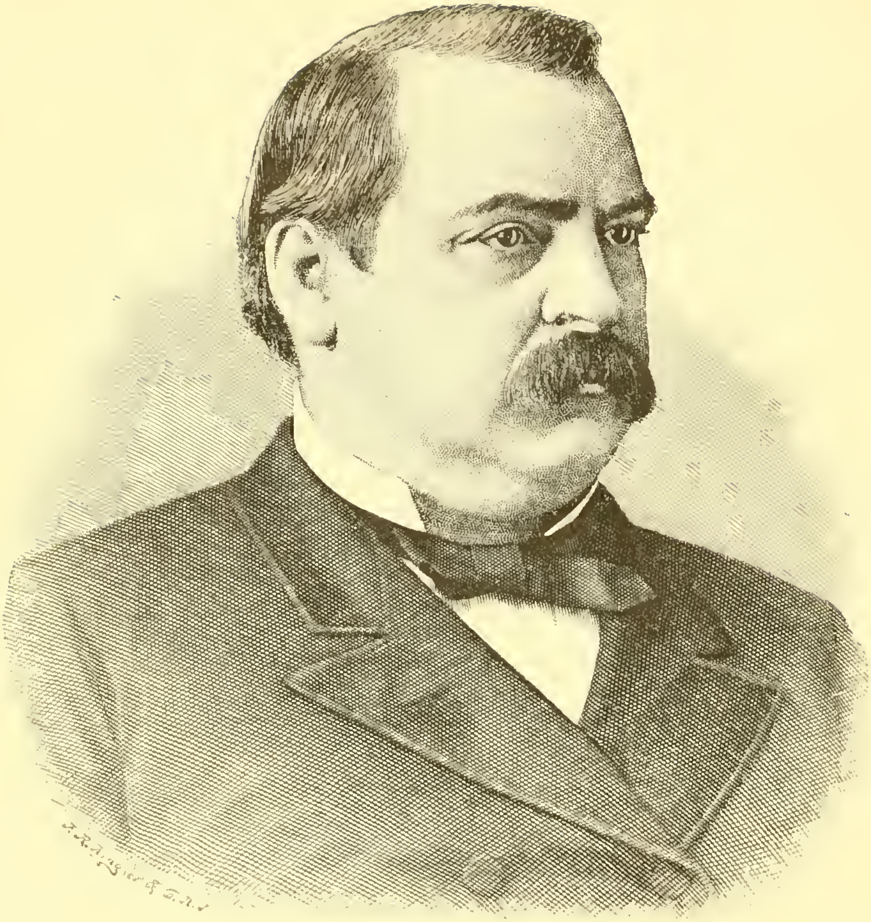
THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT CLEVELAND.

THE inauguration of President Cleveland on March 4, 1885, will be remembered as marked with much pageantry and general rejoicing. The exercises were organized with great elaboration. The regular Army, the Marines, the Navy, the Artillery, the Marine Band and large detachments from the Militia of many States swelled the military procession to more than thirty thousand men. On the day following the inauguration, President Cleveland began the organization of his Executive Department by sending to the Senate the names of the men he had selected as members of his Cabinet. These names were: Thomas F. Bayard, Secretary of State; Daniel Manning, Secretary of Treasury; William C. Endicott, Secretary of War; William C. Whitney, Secretary of Navy; William F. Vilas, Postmaster-General; Lucius Q. C. Lamar, Secretary of Interior, and Augustus H. Garland, Attorney-General. The President selected Daniel S. Lamont as his Private Secretary.

President Cleveland exercised much care in filling the less dignified of the executive offices in his gift. Among his appointments were Charles S. Fairchild as Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, who came to the head of that office upon the retirement of his chief, Mr. Manning.

George A. Jenks was appointed Assistant Secretary of the Interior and later Solicitor-General of the United States; Malcolm Hay was selected as First Assistant Postmaster-General, but was compelled by ill health to give up the office. He was succeeded by Adlai E. Stevenson, now the Democratic candidate for Vice-President; Norman J. Colman became Commissioner of Agriculture, and gave the department such dignity and usefulness that it was raised to the rank of a Cabinet office, with him as its first incumbent. Conrad M. Jordan was made Treasurer of the United States, and impressed his ideas and policy upon the general management of his office. The late Gen. Joseph E. Johnston became Commissioner of Railroads, and Gen. William S. Rosecrans was appointed Register of the Treasury, while Gen. John C. Black became Commissioner of Pensions.

In the diplomatic service President Cleveland used the same care and judgment as in his other appointments. This was shown by the selection of Edward J. Phelps, of Vermont, as Minister to England; Robert M. McLane, of Maryland, to France; George H. Pendleton, of Ohio, to Germany; Samuel S. Cox and Oscar S. Straus, of New York, as successive Ministers to Turkey; J. B. Stallo, of Ohio, to Italy; J. L. M. Curry, of Virginia, to Spain, and Chas. Denby, of Indiana, to China. The minor offices were filled with the same general type of men as those already mentioned. He proceeded in


J.R. Angier & Co. N.Y.

the same way to choose the best men he could find for collectors of the ports and postmasters of the principal cities.

Most of the men in important places were chosen with direct reference to their character and fitness. They were Democrats, of course, and only a single appointment, that of Postmaster of New York, having been made from men who were not avowed members of the President's own party. In this case the late Henry G. Pearson had done so much to improve the postal service, in which he had grown up from boyhood, that he was reappointed by the President, and that, too, in spite of the protest of the more violent of his own partisans.

In reviewing rapidly the history of the four years of Grover Cleveland's administration, it will be impossible to follow at all times the chronological method. A more satisfactory and certainly a more logical plan is to treat the administration topically: that is, to review the distinctive work of the various departments.

It will be conceded by every student of our political history that however able the advisers of a President may be, he will, if he is a man of ability and lofty character, dominate his administration at nearly every point. Everything done cannot be his, but, as a rule, no great thing can be done unless it is the expression of the opinions and the carrying out of the policy of such a man.

The politics of this country are almost free from serious difficulties with foreign governments, so that when complications arise that might be looked upon as trivial in other lands, they produce with us a sense of irritation quite out of proportion to their real importance. During the four years of Mr. Cleveland's administration no serious misunderstanding arose, and yet there was abundant occasion for diplomatic intervention, and for the careful conduct of the matters assigned to the Secretary of State. There was no scandal in the management of the department; no attempt was made to exploit any so-called foreign policy, when nothing in the situation required it.

Intervention was asked by naturalized American citizens of Irish birth, tried under English laws for offenses committed in England. Their cases were carefully considered and representations made to the Government of Her Majesty that their release would be agreeable to the authorities of this country; it appeared, however, that the prisoners did not claim the protection of this Government at the time of arraignment and trial, and that they had been fairly tried under English laws and convicted of serious offenses against person and property. So it became evident that their claim for protection from their adopted country was not well founded.

One distinctive feature of the administiation was the success of Oscar S. Straus, Minister to Turkey, in putting the American missions and the schools connected with them upon a recognized basis. For many years before Mr. Cox and Mr. Straus were sent to Turkey our representatives there had been little more than ridiculous. Mr. Straus went carefully to work to correct any existing wrongs and to put the missions and their schools upon a permanent basis. In this he was eminently successful.

During the earlier part of the administration a comprehensive treaty with China was negotiated by the Secretary of State under the direction of the President. Under the provisions of this treaty the Chinese Government agreed to meet the views of the United States and to prevent further immigration into this country of Chinese laborers. But the Senate inserted in this treaty some insignificant amendments which the Emperor of China refused to ratify or accept. It was this refusal to accept a definite treaty that rendered necessary the drastic legislation of the last year of the Cleveland administration, and which took form in what was known as the "Scott law." If President Cleveland's treaty had been ratified, further immigration of Chinese to this country would have been prevented by agreement quite as effectively as it is now done by force.

A peculiar complication arose with Austria early in 1885. Soon after Mr. Cleveland's accession to office he nominated as Minister to Italy a resident of Virginia, A. M. Kieley. It turned out that in 1870 Mr. Kieley had made a speech at a public meeting in Richmond, in his State, in which he had indulged in violent denunciations of King Victor Emanuel for his treatment of the Pope. This having been developed, the Italian Government, through its representative in Washington, intimated to the Department of State that Mr. Kieley was *persona non grata* to the King. His nomination was withdrawn. Later his name was sent to the Senate to fill the office of Minister to Austria-Hungary. The man himself may not have been the wisest in the world, but he was in no way offensive. He may have lacked somewhat in the diplomatic quality, as was no doubt shown by the utterances already cited ; but at the same time it was a petty affair for a great government to claim as a cause of offense.

Mr. Kieley had married a woman of Jewish birth, and the anti-Semitic agitation was then at its fiercest throughout all the German-speaking countries. For some reason, therefore, the Austrian Government made his withdrawal from Italy an excuse for objecting to his appointment as Minister to Vienna, and no other reason being available, the race of his wife was put forward. The Austrian Minister represented to the Secretary of State and to the President that no Jewess could be received in the social circles in Vienna, and that, as a consequence, her husband would not be an acceptable Minister to the court of that country. This excuse was looked upon by Secretary Bayard as entirely too flimsy, and he wrote a very powerful argument in justification of the appointment. The outcome was that the Vienna mission was left vacant for more than a year.

In 1886 Mr. Phelps, Minister to the Court of St. James, concluded with Lord Rosebury, then Minister of Foreign Affairs under Mr. Gladstone, as the representative of her Majesty's Government, a new treaty providing for the extradition of criminals who should escape from the jurdisdiction of one country into that of another. It added four new extraditable offenses to the seven already recognized by existing treaties.

When the Senate received the treaty from its Committee on Foreign Affairs, it was discovered that offensive words concerning the use of explosives had found a place in the treaty. It was assumed that this was an attempt on the part of England to secure the arrest of certain so-called dynamiters, and as a result the interpolation was at once resented by many classes of citizens.

In February, 1888, a treaty was concluded between the representatives of the United States, Great Britain and Canada, which would have definitely settled the contention, which, since 1818, had gone on between the two English countries on one hand and the United States on the other hand. The negotiations were concluded in Washington, and a treaty, fair to all interests, one under which all difficulties were in a fair way of being disposed of, was agreed to unanimously by the Commissioners from all the countries represented. The Senate, however, raised the old cry of surrender to Canada, and the treaty was rejected by a partisan vote. After its rejection the President sent to Congress a message, in which he announced that unless Canadian exactions upon our fishermen should cease he should be compelled to resort to such measures as were authorized by laws already in existence, under which he would prohibit the transit of goods in bond across and over the territories of the United States to and from Canada.

When Secretary Whitney took charge of the Navy, the United States did not have but one or two war vessels that could have kept the seas for a week, and was at the same time dependent upon English manufacturers for gun forgings, armor and secondary batteries. At the close of the administration the register carried the names of five vessels, first-class not only in name but in reality. They were the Chicago, with 4,500 tons displacement; Baltimore, with 4,400; Philadelphia, with 4,324; the new and the old San Francisco, each of 4,083 tons. Several vessels were nearly completed at the close of Mr. Cleveland's administration, and the present efficient Navy is due almost entirely to the careful and faithful execution of the laws passed by Congress on the part of Mr. Cleveland. In less than a year after the close of his administration the United States had eight or ten vessels of modern type, as creditable to the most progressive nation upon earth as they would be useful to the most warlike.

The Department of Justice was carried on with great efficiency. During a considerable portion of the time covered by the Cleveland Administration the duties of the Attorney-General were filled by his Solicitor General, George A. Jenks, but whether the work was directed by Mr. Garland or Mr. Jenks it was well and faithfully done. The President himself being a lawyer of careful training and recognized position, with a conscientious devotion to his profession, gave a close oversight to all questions of a legal character.

During Mr. Cleveland's term a Chief Justice was chosen to succeed Morrison R. Waite. After careful consideration this great office was conferred upon Melville W. Fuller, one of the leaders of his profession in the West, and the success with which he administered the important trust given him fully justified the confidence of the President. An Associate Justice was appointed in the person of L. Q. C. Lamar, Mr. Cleveland's Secretary of the Interior. He, too, has done his work with general acceptance to the country and his profession. One Circuit Judge and eleven District Judges were also appointed. All of these were men of excellent standing in their several localities; in fact, no President ever gave more careful attention to the choice of judges and all the men who had to do with the machinery of the law than did Mr. Cleveland.

The post-office has grown so rapidly of late years and has become such an immense establishment that it demands the highest administrative talent in order that it may keep itself continually in touch with the rapid development of the country.

In spite of the unexampled growth of the service a very decided saving was made in the transportation of the mails. This was effected by economy in steamboat and railway charges, by the discontinuance of allowances for apartment-car service, by a readjustment of the pay of land-grant railroads and in the reduced cost of mail equipment. While all this was done a marked improvement was made in the number and speed of the fast mail routes. For the first time in the history of the department parcels post contracts were concluded with Mexico and the West Indian and South American countries, and the department itself at Washington was conducted with the greatest efficiency and economy.

The most important policy advocated by Mr. Cleveland during his administration was that of tariff reform.

In his first message in 1885 he had made a brief reference to the condition of our revenue laws, and had insisted, with emphasis, that a revision ought to be made; that the surplus then accumulating in the Treasury was an impending danger. He believed that it could only be met by a proper revision of the laws, and so asserted. It was, however, merely a paragraph in a message, and, being his first official reference to the question, it did not then attract the attention that was afterwards given it, when he put forth his ideas in a much more emphatic way.

In 1886 he devoted still more attention to this question, giving to it a greater proportion of his annual review of the condition of the Government than had been done for many years before. But even this did not attract wide attention to the question.

During the spring and summer of 1887 the condition of the Treasury, by reason of the rapid increase of the surplus, became a menace to the prosperity and the financial stability of the country. The task of providing some way of escape from the difficulties which surrounded the country fell upon President Cleveland. He did this work, and in doing it, was led to consider with much greater care than ever before the necessary ways and means of removing the cause of such a disturbance. As a result he saw no other way than to reduce the taxes which had brought this condition of financial plethora.

His annual message of 1887, devoted entirely to the revenue system of the country, naturally followed. It was prompted by reason and good sense and was the result of honesty. For the first time since the war public attention was attracted to financial questions with a positiveness that could not be escaped.

It would be difficult to overestimate the effect of this message. For one thing it took politics out of the ruts into which it had fallen, and gave the country something real, over which its voters might divide. In spite of the result of the election in 1888, and whatever may be the result of that of 1892 or any other that may follow, the good effects of the message of 1887 cannot be overestimated.

Probably no document of the same length ever had so wide a reading in the same space of time as this message. It did not say anything new, but the man who wrote it had the courage to see the peril into which the country had been drawn by adherence to a dangerous policy, and, seeing this, he was willing to stake his political fortunes upon the correction of these wrongs.

After the movement resulting from this message is carried to its logical conclusions it means that selfishness shall not add the power of Government to the force that it already possesses. Nominally the man who wrote it and brought this moral force into politics was defeated for re-election, but in reality he was the most successful public man known to our history. The seeming defeat of that day was not a defeat at all; it was a victory for moral principles in politics and for a man who was ready to do whatever lay in his power for those principles. It put new life into political discussion and took the country out and far away from the old and sectional questions that should have been dropped long before, and brought to the front new problems of every kind.

Whatever effect it may have had upon his personal fortunes, nothing in the history of the country has had such a good effect upon a political party as did this message upon that of which Mr. Cleveland was and has been for many years the leader.

Mr. Cleveland made speeches on many questions during his term of office. They were on all manner of questions, and related to almost every element in our population. Every one was short, pointed and bright and each showed the highest regard for the dignity of his office, a close and intimate knowledge of the questions discussed, a willingness to aid every good cause and all were thoroughly Democratic in tone and matter. He put himself thereby in close relations with the people, never shirking any physical exertion that was necessary to go through a reception, or to do on such occasions what was deemed best by his friends and countrymen. Perhaps no man ever submitted to such an ordeal with a better grace or more willingness than he.

ADLAI E. STEVENSON.

ADLAI E. STEVENSON, the successful Democratic candidate for the Vice-Presidency of the United States, is a resident of Bloomington, Ill. He was born in Christianson county, Kentucky, on October 23, 1835, and received his preliminary education in the common schools of his native county. Later he entered Center College at Danville, and when he was sixteen years old removed with his father's family to Bloomington, Ill., where he studied law and was admitted to the bar One of his ancestors was a signer of the Mecklenburgh Declaration of Independence. He graduated from college on his twentieth year. In 1859 he settled at Matamora, Woodford county, Ill., and engaged in the practice of his profession. Here he remained for ten years, during which time he was a Master in Chancery of the Circuit Court for four years and District Attorney for a like period. The conspicuous ability with which he discharged the duties of these responsible offices attracted the favorable attention of the people of the judicial district, and in 1864 he was named as the Presidential elector for the district. In the interest of General McClellan as the nominee of his party for the Presidency, he canvassed the entire State, speaking in every county. At the expiration of his term of office as District Attorney for Woodford county, in 1869, he returned to Bloomington and formed a law partnership with J. S. Ewing, which still exists. The firm has an extensive practice in the State and Federal Courts, and is considered the leading law firm in the central portion of the State.

Mr. Stevenson was nominated for Congress by the Democrats of the Bloomington district in 1874. The district had been safely Republican by an almost invariable majority of 3000. His opponent was General McNulta, one of the first debaters in the State. The canvass was a remarkable one, the excitement at times resulting in intense personal antagonisms between the friends of the candidates. Mr. Stevenson was successful. His majority in the district exceeded 1200. He was in Congress during the exciting scenes incident to the Tilden-Hayes contest in 1876. His party renominated him for Congress a second time. In this contest he was defeated, but in 1878, having been nominated for the third time, he was again elected, increasing his majority in the district to 2000.

At the expiration of his second Congressional term he resumed the practice of law in Bloomington. He was a delegate to the Democratic National Convention of 1884 in Chicago, and after the election of Cleveland as President of the United States, was appointed First Assistant Postmaster-General, the duties of which are very exacting. During his incumbency of this office he made the official and personal acquaintance of many of the men who helped secure him the nomination to the Vice-Presidency of the United States. His democratic habits and manners, his affability and invariable courtesy created a host of friends for him.

Mr. Stevenson married a daughter of the Reverend Lewis Green, President of Center College in Danville, Ky., in December, 1866. He has three children, one son and two daughters, all of whom are living.

Mr. Stevenson has been always popular with the Democracy of Illinois. His popularity extends to the Republican party, and he has many warm and close friends there,

as was demonstrated by his election twice in a strong Republican district. Not only is he popular in his own district but also in Washington. It is not too much to say that Mr. Stevenson has very many warm friends in Washington. He was while in Washington equally popular with both political parties and possessed the confidence and friendship of President Cleveland and every member of his cabinet, and had the regard and esteem of Democrats and Republicans in Congress alike. In the post-office department many of the employees expressed their gratification in many ways that this great honor had been bestowed upon a man of such splendid character and disposition.

Mr. Stevenson's administration of post-office affairs was able and thorough, and he gained for himself an enviable record for efficiency and executive ability. The Democrats of Washington consider him an exceptionally strong candidate.

He is rated among the very best lawyers of his State, and is a forcible and convincing speaker, his oratory being of the persuasive character. Although taking an active part in politics in the interests of his party, he has never been rated as a politician in the general acceptance of the word.

After retiring from the office of the First Assistant Postmaster-General at the expiration of Mr. Cleveland's term, Mr. Stevenson returned to Bloomington, where he still lives and carries on the practice of law. Mr. Hayes in 1877 appointed Mr. Stevenson a member of the Board to inspect the Military Academy at West Point. The recent Illinois State Convention elected Mr. Stevenson one of the delegates at large to the National Democratic Convention which took place but a short time ago. He was serving in that capacity when nominated for the Vice-Presidency of the United States.

The Democracy of Adlai E. Stevenson has never been questioned; it is of the old school type, like that of the Roman Thurman.

Many prominent men of to-day were among his former classmates, including Governors, Congressmen, Senators and Statesmen, some of whom are now mentioned: Senator Blackburn, Senator Davidson of Florida; Ex-Governor McCreary, Honorable David Davis and many other men prominent in this country's affairs, who have risen to fame through the competent discharge of their duties.

Mr. Stevenson is thought by his party to possess all the necessary qualifications of a Vice-President. Whether he has or not will be seen if the Democratic party proves victorious this fall.

At the Convention Mr. Worthington of Illinois took the platform to nominate A. E. Stevenson. He kept silent a moment for the noise of a passing railway train and then began a competition with the rain that beat on the roof. He addressed the assembled thousands as follows:

GENTLEMEN.—(Applause)—Illinois has presented no Presidential candidate to this convention. It has within its border more than one favored son whom it would have delighted to honor, who are worthy of all the political honors that could be conferred upon them. But here in this great city—Chicago—in this great commonwealth of Illinois, in the centre of this great Republic, the Democracy, catching the vibration of the ground swell that came from the South to the East and the West, put aside its favorite son and for the time parted with its State pride, echoing back to Texas, Connecticut and California the name of Grover Cleveland (applause). But for the Vice-Presidency, for the second highest place in the Government, it has a candidate so fully equipped by nature and education it feels it would be a political fault to fail to urge his name for the nomination before you. I stand here to nominate as a candidate a man known by every woman and child and voter who ever licked a postage stamp in the land—a big, big-hearted, big-brained man, whose courtesy was rarely equaled, and never excelled, who has been the beau ideal of an honest and efficient public office holder. He believes that a public office is a public trust, but he believes also that the Democrats are the best trustees (Applause).

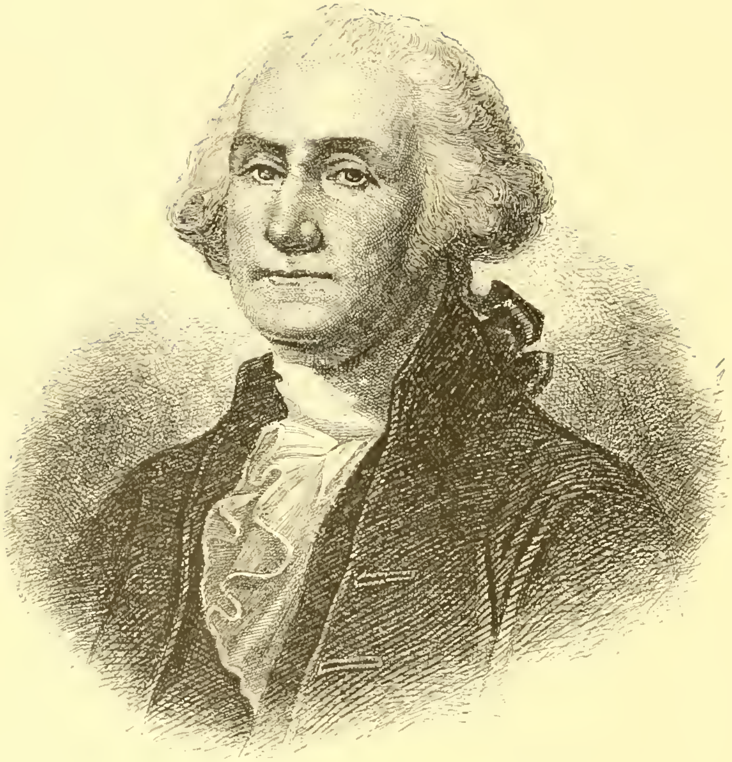
In conclusion he presented as a candidate the Honorable Adlai E. Stevenson of Illinois.

The following authentic table of votes shows in what light Stevenson stood at the Democratic Convention recently held in Chicago :

Louisiana went solid for Stevenson. Maine voted, for Stevenson, 7 ; for Gray, 4. Maryland, for Gray, 12 ; for Stevenson, 4. Massachusetts, Stevenson, 20 ; Gray, 4. Mississippi, Stevenson, 7 ; Gray, 9. Missouri said the State was instructed to vote as a unit, but was unable to agree, so her vote was cast as follows : Missouri, Stevenson, 16 ; Gray, 10. Nebraska, Stevenson, 6 ; Gray, 5. New Hampshire was solid for Stevenson. New Jersey, Stevenson, 1 ; Gray, 19. New York was called amid great excitement, and went solid for Stevenson, casting 72 votes for him amid tumultuous cheers. This put Stevenson 43 votes ahead. North Carolina also went solid for Stevenson, giving him 22 votes. Ohio voted 38 votes to Stevenson and 4 to Gray, thus increasing his lead to 93 amid cheers. Pennsylvania, Stevenson, 17 ; Gray, 64. This left Gray only 21 behind. South Carolina, Stevenson solid, 18 votes. South Dakota, Stevenson, 4 ; Gray, 2. Tennessee, Stevenson, 8 ; Gray, 14. Texas, Stevenson, 26, Gray, 4 ; increasing Stevenson's lead once more to 49. Vermont, Stevenson, 1 ; Gray, 7. Virginia went solid for Stevenson with 24 votes, bringing him up to 67. West Virginia, Stevenson, 4 ; Gray, 4. Arizona, Stevenson, 5 ; Gray, 1. New Mexico, Stevenson, 1 ; Gray, 5. Oklahoma went solid for Stevenson with 2 votes. Total, Stevenson, 403 ; Gray, 343. Iowa withdrew her 26 for Watterson and cast them for Stevenson. Montana changed her votes to Stevenson. Nebraska changed 5 votes from Mitchell to Stevenson and 5 from Gray to Stevenson. Nevada changed 5 votes to Stevenson, making his total 445. Ohio directly afterward changed her solid 46 to Stevenson. Oregon changed 8 from Gray to Stevenson. Missouri made her vote 34 solid for Stevenson. Kentucky made her 26 solid for Stevenson. Georgia followed with her 26. Tennessee changed her 24 to Stevenson. Texas joined the Stevenson procession, and those 30 votes nominated him. Minnesota cast her solid vote for Stevenson. Mr. Cole of Ohio, at this stage, Stevenson having received more than a two-thirds vote, moved that the nomination of Stevenson be made unanimous. Mr. Hensel seconded this, and it was carried amid cheers from the throats of those assembled under the big canvas canopy.

OUR PRESIDENTS

1788 TO 1892.



G. Washington.

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, who more than any other man of ancient or modern renown may claim to be called the Father of his Country, was born in the heart of a wilderness, in the depth of midwinter—in Westmoreland county, Va., on February 22, 1732, in a house situated near Pope's creek, a small tributary of the Potomac, in a parish called by the family name. His mother, Mary Ball, was the second wife of his father, Augustine Washington, and was decidedly a woman of great energy of character and of a masculine will. During his boyhood the house in which he was born was destroyed by fire, after which his father removed to another home, on the Rappahannock, a short distance below Fredericksburgh, near the Principio Iron Works, of which Augustine Washington was himself the agent. In 1743, when he was in his twelfth year, his father died, leaving a large landed property to his widow and five children, and an estate on the Potomac to his eldest son, Lawrence, which place was afterward known as Mount Vernon.

The family to which George Washington belonged has not yet been satisfactorily traced in England. The genealogies accepted by his biographers, Sparks and Irving, and others who have written about him, have recently been proved to be inaccurate. His great-grandfather, John Washington, emigrated to Virginia about 1657, with his brother Lawrence.

Of education, Washington had but the simplest, the primitive branches of reading, writing and arithmetic—with the addition, in his case, which must have been somewhat exceptional, of book-keeping and surveying—being all that the local schools of the neighborhood afforded in the way of learning. After the army of Count de Rochambeau arrived in the country he gave some attention to the study of French, but never attempted afterward to speak or to write it. His orthography was rather defective, a very common fault a century ago. He was to have gone away as a midshipman when he was fourteen years old, but through his mother's opposition the idea was abandoned. He eventually made surveying his profession, and found an opportunity to practice it in the employ of Lord Fairfax, an English nobleman who had made his home in Virginia. When he was nineteen Washington received from the Colonial Assembly of Virginia the appointment of Adjutant, with the rank of Major, for his district, military preparations having commenced then in anticipation of an Indian war and a probable rupture with France. Immediately after this, however, he accompanied his brother Lawrence to the West Indies, where the latter had been ordered for his health. They sailed on September 15, 1751, for the island of Barbadoes, upon reaching which, after he had scarcely been a fortnight on shore, George was atacked by small-pox, being slightly marked for life as the result. Lawrence obtaining no relief, he returned to Virginia in the summer of 1752, and died there shortly after, at the age of thirty-four, leaving a large fortune to an infant daughter, who did not long survive him, the property then reverting by a provision of his will to his brother George, who added to it materially by subsequent purchases.

Washington had five years of military experience during the French and Indian War, the reward for such distinguished service as he had rendered being a good-natured rebuke from George III. and a sneer from Horace Walpole. Finding, thus, that he was to receive no promotion in the royal army, he tendered his resignation. In 1753 he had, as a special messenger from Governor Dinwiddie to the French post, some five or six hundred miles distant from Williamsburgh, given evidence of pluck and endurance, making the journey, without military escort, through a wilderness and over a territory occupied by Indian tribes, and returning, after having successfully accomplished his mission, with a journal of his perilous expedition, which, on being sent to London and published there, was regarded as a document of no little importance for the light which it shed on the designs of the French Government. His defeat of Jumonville's party at Great Meadows—afterwards called Fort Necessity—and his remarkable escape on the occasion of the event of July 9, 1755, known as "Braddock's defeat," when, as a volunteer aide under General Braddock, he was almost the only officer of distinction who escaped from the calamities of the day with life and honor; his establishment with a force of 2000 men at Winchester, and his chief command in 1758 of the Virginia contingent in the ill-conducted and all but abortive campaign under General Forbes against Fort Duquesne, form about the principal features of his active life during the French and Indian War.

In the winter of 1759 he married Mrs. Martha Custis, the wealthy widow of John Parke Custis, and then retired to Mount Vernon, where he enlarged the mansion, embellished the grounds and added to the estate.

On April 19, 1775, the appeal to arms was made at Lexington and Concord, and on June 15 following, Washington was made Commander-in-Chief of the armies of the revolution. He took command of the forces besieging Boston July 3, 1775. The evacuation of Boston on March 17, 1776, was the glorious reward of the perseverance and skill of the commanding general. Then followed in rapid succession the disasters of Long Island, Fort Washington, and of the calamitous retreat through the Jerseys. The brilliant *coup de main* of Trenton, and the substantial success of Princeton, restored the drooping courage of the people; but they were followed by the reverse at Brandywine, the unsuccessful blow at Germantown, and the terrible winter at Valley Forge. The courage and skill of Washington in the summer of 1778, turned a disgraceful commencement of the day at Monmouth into a substantial victory, but from that time forward no brilliant success attended the forces under his immediate command till the final blow was struck, with the overwhelming numbers of the combined American and French forces at Yorktown. After this great success the war still dragged out a lingering existence. More than two years elapsed from the capitulation of Yorktown (October, 1781) to the evacuation of New York (November 25, 1783). On December 23, 1783, Washington, in a parting address of surpassing beauty, resigned his commission as Commander-in-Chief of the Army to the Continental Congress sitting at Annapolis. He retired immediately to Mount Vernon and resumed his occupation as a farmer and a planter. He was inaugurated as President of the United States April 30, 1789, re-elected for a second term in the autumn of 1792, issued a farewell address to the country September 17, 1796, and died very suddenly, after but two days' illness, of acute laryngitis, contracted through exposure to severe winter weather, on Saturday, December 14, 1799, in the sixty-ninth of his age. He was buried at Mount Vernon.

Washington was six feet two inches high, his person in youth spare, but well-proportioned, and never too stout for prompt and easy movement. His hair was brown, his eyes blue and far apart, his hands large, his arms uncommonly strong, and the muscular development of his frame perfect. He was a bold and graceful horseman, and followed the hounds with eagerness and spirit. He was scrupulously attentive to the proprieties of dress and personal appearance. Prudence, firmness, sagacity, moderation, an over-ruling judgment, an immovable justice, courage that never faltered, patience that never wearied, truth that disdained all artifice, magnanimity without alloy—such was his character, possessing fewer inequalities and a rarer union of virtues, than perhaps ever fell to the lot of one man.

JOHN ADAMS.

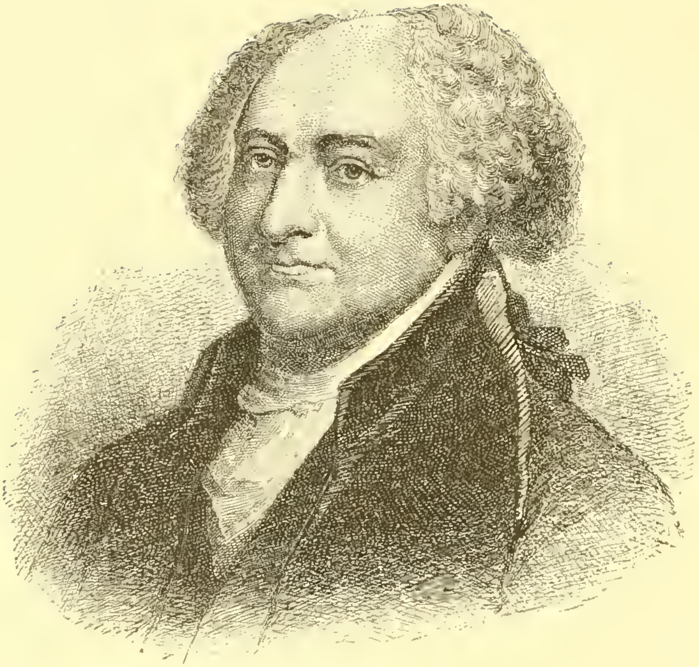
JOHN ADAMS, second President of the United States, was born October 19, 1735 (O. S.), in Braintree, Mass. He was a great-grandson of Henry Adams, who emigrated from England about 1640. His father was a man of limited means, uniting the occupations of shoemaking and farming. John Adams, however, received a classical education from his father, and graduated at Harvard College in 1755. Immediately afterward he assumed charge of the grammar school in Worcester, and while there studied law under the only lawyer the town possessed. In 1758 he was settled in Suffolk county, of which Boston was the shire town, and gradually introduced himself into practice. In 1764 he married a daughter of the minister of the neighboring town of Weymouth, Miss Abigail Smith, the social position of whose family was superior to that of his own. Soon after his marriage he entered the field of politics. When the Congress of 1774 was formed he was chosen one of the five delegates from Massachusetts, and his visit to Philadelphia on this business was the first occasion of his going beyond the limits of New England.

In 1768 he removed to Boston. In 1770 he was chosen a representative to the General Court. In 1775 he was appointed again a member of the Continental Congress at Philadelphia, having already greatly distinguished himself in the discussions in the former Congress of 1774, and by his writings during the year just past, his compositions being remarkable for their bold tone of investigation, their resort to first principles, and their pointed style. The Congress of 1774 was a mere consulting convention. This one of 1775 speedily assumed, or rather had thrust upon it by the unanimous consent of the patriots, the exercise of a comprehensive authority, in which supreme executive, legislative and, in some cases, judicial functions were united. In this busy scene the active and untiring Adams, one of whose distinguishing characteristics was his capacity and fondness for business, found ample employment, while his bold and pugnacious spirit was not a little excited by the hazards and dignity of the great game in which he had come to hold so deep a stake.

After the assumption by Congress of the expense and control of the military operations which New England had begun by laying siege to Boston, Adams proposed Washington for the chief command, a concession intended to secure the good will and firm co-operation of Virginia and the Southern Colonies.

The committee which chiefly engaged Mr. Adams' attention upon his return after an interval of absence, in which, while he was at home, he sat as a member of the Massachusetts Council, was a committee on fitting out cruisers and on naval affairs generally. This committee laid the first foundation of an American navy, the body of rules and regulations for which—the basis of our existing naval code—was drawn up by Mr. Adams. He was afterwards offered the post of Chief Justice of Massachusetts, accepted it, but resigned in 1777, his duties as a delegate in Congress and his general connection with the active life of the revolution compelling it.

The Declaration of Independence was drawn up by Jefferson, but on Adams devolved the task of battling it through Congress in a three days' debate. For eighteen months he held the office of Chairman, or President of the War Department, a position of great labor and responsibility. The business of preparing articles of war for the government of the army was deputed to a committee composed of Adams and Jefferson, but Jefferson, according to Adams' account, threw upon him the whole burden, not only of drawing up the articles, but of arguing them through Congress, which was



John Adams

no small task. Besides his presidency of the board of war, Mr. Adams was also chairman of the committee upon which devolved the decision of appeals in admiralty cases from the State courts.

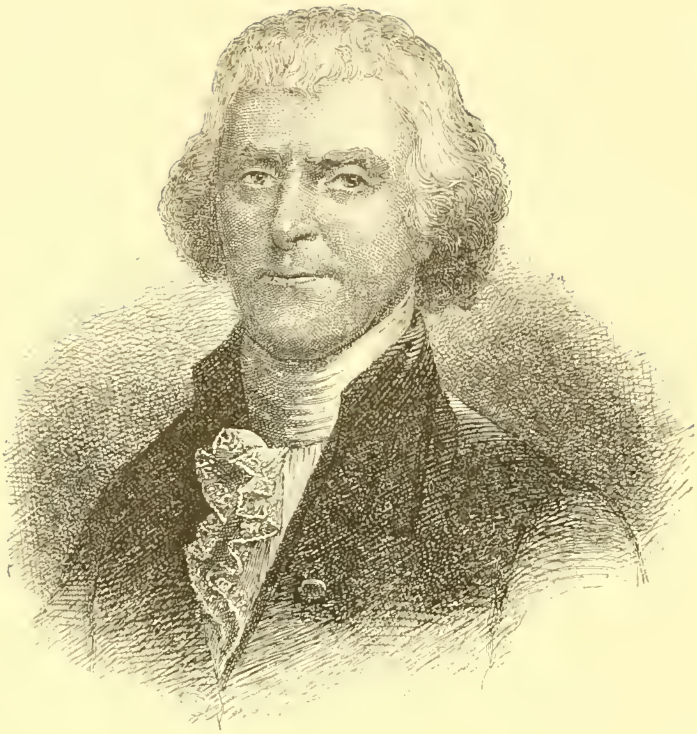
Having thus occupied for nearly two years a position which gained him the reputation among at least a portion of his colleagues of having "the clearest head and firmest heart of any man in Congress," he was appointed, near the end of the year 1777, a Commissioner to France to supersede Deane, whom Congress had determined to recall. He left Boston on February 12, 1778, and arrived at Paris April 8, but the alliance with France having already been completed, his stay was not long, though sufficiently so to effect an arrangement by which Franklin was appointed sole ambassador to France, the very great antagonism of views and feeling between the three original commissioners—Franklin, Deane and Arthur Lee—demanding this wise provision, Deane's recall not having reconciled the other two. On returning home Mr Adams was soon after made Minister by Congress to treat with Great Britain for peace and commerce, sailing again for France in 1779.

In 1780 we find him in Holland with the object of borrowing money there for his government, but, owing to a sudden breach between England and Holland, his labors in this direction were interrupted. He was soon after appointed Minister to Holland, but before he could effect much in that capacity he was recalled in July, 1781, to Paris, by a notice that he was needed there in his character of Minister to treat of peace.

In 1785, after many admirable services rendered in his ministerial capacity while on the continent, he was made Minister to the Court of St. James, where he arrived in May. In 1788, upon his soliciting a recall, it was sent out to him accompanied by a resolution of Congress conveying the thanks of that body for "the patriotism, perseverance, integrity and diligence" which he had displayed in his ten years' service abroad. When the new government came to be organized, he was nominated and elected Vice-President, as all were agreed upon Washington for President. At the second presidential election in 1792 he was re-elected by a decided vote over George Clinton. The wise policy of neutrality adopted by Washington received the hearty concurrence of Adams. While Jefferson left the cabinet to become in nominal retirement the leader of the opposition, Adams continued as Vice-President to give Washington's administration the benefit of his casting vote.

Mr. Adams was nominated for President in the autumn of 1796, and only secured his election over Jefferson, his opponent, by two stray votes cast for him, one in Virginia and the other in North Carolina, tributes of revolutionary reminiscences and personal esteem. He succeeded to office at a very dangerous and exciting crisis of affairs, held it for one term only, and immediately on the expiration of his term left Washington, and sank suddenly—at a time, too, when his powers of action and inclination for it seemed wholly unimpaired—from a leading position in the affairs of his country, to one of absolute political insignificance, the only acknowledgment for his twenty-five years' services to the nation which he carried with him into his unwelcome and mortifying retirement, being that of receiving his letters free of postage for the remainder of his life. He died on the fiftieth anniversary of that Declaration of Independence in which he had taken so active a part. By a singular coincidence Thomas Jefferson, the framer of that document, expired on the same day, but a few hours in advance of his old friend John Adams.

John Adams was of a stout, well-knit figure, scarcely above the middle height, with a large, round head, a wide forehead and expanded brows. His eye was mild and benignant, at times even humorous ; his presence grave and imposing on serious occasions, but not unbending. His nature was kind, trustful and sympathetic.



Th Jefferson

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

THOMAS JEFFERSON was born at Shadwells, Albemarle county, Va., April 2, 1743. He was the son of Col. Peter Jefferson, a planter of high social position, and great decision of character, and of Jane Randolph, daughter of Isham Randolph, of Dungeoness in Goochland. He received a classical education, fitting him to enter the College of William and Mary at Williamsburg at the age of seventeen. He remained in college two years, then studied law with George Wythe, and began practice at the bar of the general court in 1767. He was also in attendance in the county courts of his district. On January 1, 1772, he was married to Mrs. Martha Skelton, widow of Bathurst Skelton, and daughter of John Wayles, a lawyer of influence in Charles City. Jefferson's wife was not only beautiful, and possessed of graceful manners, but an heiress as well, as she had inherited 135 slaves and 40,000 acres of land, the value of the whole being about equal to Jefferson's own patrimony. Jefferson's practice adding greatly to his income, the young couple were very well to do.

Jefferson secured the reputation quite early in his career of having a "masterly pen." Having been appointed in the spring of 1773, by the House of Burgesses, as a member of the "Committee of Correspondence and Inquiry for the Dissemination of Intelligence between the Colonies," and having drawn up a paper to serve for instruction to the delegates to the General Congress of 1774, which the Committee of Correspondence had been directed to propose to all the colonies, he placed himself before the public as a courageous and uncompromising advocate of constitutional freedom and, above all, as a writer of unusual eloquence and accomplishment. His paper of instructions was printed and published by the burgesses under the title of "A Summary View of the Rights of British America." It was a bold, elaborate and eloquent exposition of the right of the colonies to resist taxation, and contained the germ of the subsequent Declaration of Independence.

In the second convention of 1775, having been placed upon a committee to report a plan of defense, he drew up a plan, and the convention then proceeding to elect delegates to Congress, Jefferson was chosen as the alternate of Peyton Randolph, who might be retained by his office of President of the House in Virginia. Early in June of 1776, having been unanimously pressed to undertake the draft of the Declaration of Independence, by his associates of the committee of which he was chairman, this committee having been especially appointed by Congress for the purpose, he complied, Franklin and Adams only making two or three verbal alterations in it. It was laid before Congress on June 28, and after a hot debate, and a powerful opposition greeting it on the part of some members, it was finally agreed to on July 4, with amendments. This paper has since secured a renown more extended than that of any other State paper in existence.

When Jefferson drew up the epitaph to be inscribed upon his tomb, he added to the words, "author of the Declaration of Independence," those others, "and of the statute of Virginia for religious freedom." This mention of the statute of Virginia refers directly to the work of the committee of revision on the Constitution of Virginia, of which he was the head. For more than two years was he employed on this work with his confreres, and it was undoubtedly an extremely arduous task when all its features are considered. To Jefferson was allotted the common law and statutes to the 4th of James I.; and he applied himself with characteristic zeal to the required revision. To the more important bills which he brought in there was a strong and determined opposition. In his own words : "I considered four of these bills as forming a system by which every fibre would be eradicated of ancient or future aristocracy. The repeal of the laws of entail would prevent the accumulation and perpetuation of wealth in select families. The abolition of primogeniture, and equal partition of inheritances, removed the feudal and unnatural distinctions which made one member of every family rich, and all the rest poor. The restoration of the rights of conscience relieved the people from taxation for the support of a religion not theirs ; for the establishment was truly the religion of the rich." The latter reference is to the bill "for establishing religious freedom."

Anyone who will recall the condition of Virginian society at this period, essentially aristocratic as it was, and with all those prejudices in favor of the laws of entail and primogeniture which obtained in the mother country, can imagine the storm that was raised by the advocacy of such radical changes in the social and religious structure of the Commonwealth. The fight lasted for years, but the bills eventually passed and Jefferson triumphed.

The reorganization was complete.

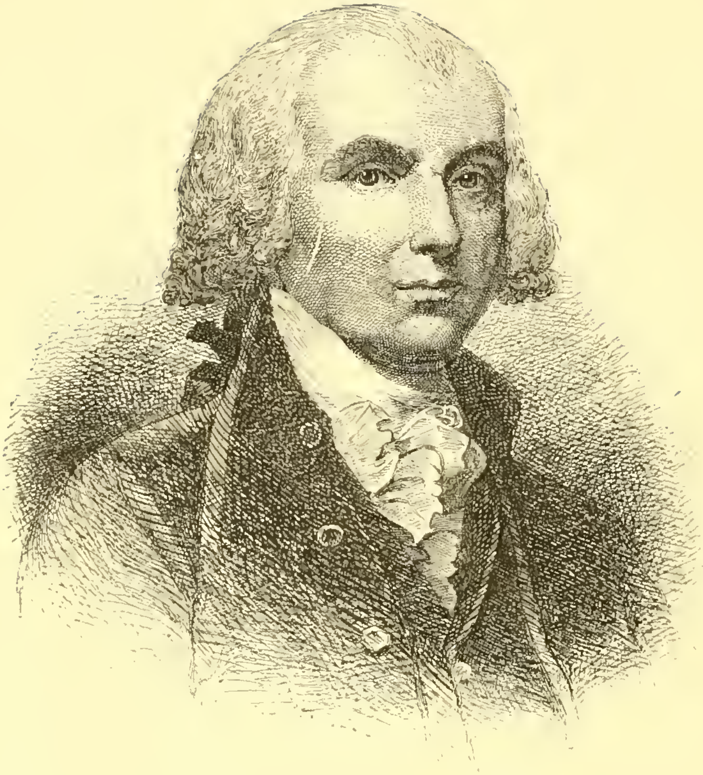
Jefferson was also the author of measures for the establishment of courts of law, and of a complete system of elementary and collegiate education. In 1777, while a member of the House, he strongly opposed the alleged scheme for making Patrick Henry dictator, and in 1778 he proposed and procured the passage of a bill forbidding the future importation of slaves. In the spring of 1779 he was busily employed in ameliorating the condition of the British prisoners at Charlottesville, and on June 1 of that year he was elected Governor of Virginia. Taking his seat in Congress in the winter session of 1783, he, in the following session, proposed and secured the adoption of the present system of United States coinage, doing away with the old *£ s. d.*, and substituting the dollar and its subdivisions down to the hundredth part, to which, in order to describe its value, he gave the name of cent.

In May, 1784, he was made Minister to England. In 1785 he was appointed Minister to France. In 1789 he was made Secretary of State in Washington's Cabinet. On December 31, 1793, he resigned. He became Vice-President under John Adams in 1797, and consequently took the chair as President of the Senate.

Jefferson took his seat as President of the United States March 4, 1801, at Washington, to which the Capitol had been removed but a few months before, and Aaron Burr was made Vice-President. Jefferson was re-elected with George Clinton as Vice-President for the term beginning March 4, 1805. In 1819 he superintended the erection of the University of Virginia, and in the same year was chosen its rector. He died on July 4, 1826, a few hours before John Adams, a little past midday on the same day, and nearly at the same hour when, just half a century before, these two men had attached their signatures to the Declaration of Independence. As midnight approached on July 3 he was evidently dying, but retained his memory and muttered : "This is the Fourth of July." While at college he is described as having been ardent and impulsive in demeanor, with a tall, thin and angular person, ruddy complexion, red hair and bright gray eyes flecked with hazel. He was radically a Democrat, and held as a doctrine that no man is better than another.

JAMES MADISON.

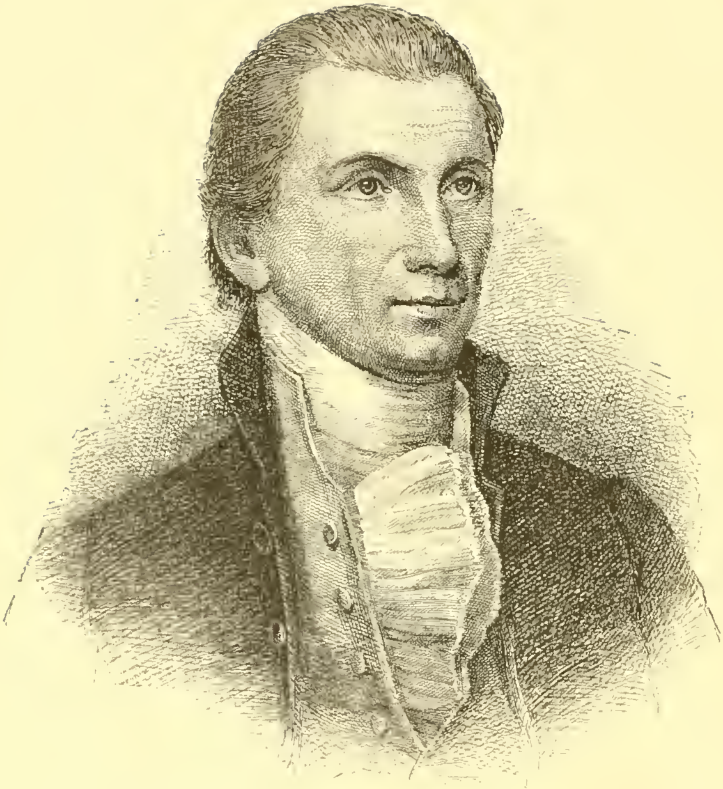
JAMES MADISON, the fourth President of the United States, was born at King George, Va., March 16, 1751. His father was James Madison, of Orange, a planter of ample means and high standing, who was descended from John Madison, an Englishman, who settled in Virginia about the year 1653. His mother's maiden name was Eleanor Conway. Mr. Madison graduated at Princeton College, New Jersey, in 1771, but remained there until the spring of 1772, pursuing a course of reading under Dr. Witherspoon, the president. His habits of application were so close at this period, that his health became seriously affected, and seems never to have been fully restored. In 1772 he returned to Virginia, and commenced a course of legal study, with which he mingled a large amount of miscellaneous reading, and study in theology, philosophy and belles-lettres. His attention was particularly directed to the first, and he thoroughly explored all the evidences of the Christian religion. From these pursuits he was soon diverted by public affairs. In the local contest for religious toleration, Mr. Madison distinguished himself by his zeal and activity in defense of the Baptists particularly, who, with other non-conformists, had been subjected to violent persecutions. In the spring of 1776 he was elected a member of the Virginia convention from the county of Orange, and procured the passage of the substance of an amendment to the declaration of rights by George Mason, which struck out the old term toleration, and inserted a broader exposition of religious rights. In the same year he was made a member of the General Assembly, but lost his election in 1777, by his refusal to treat the voters, and from the general want of confidence in his powers of oratory. His extreme modesty had prevented his venturing himself in debate before his removal to the Council of State in 1777, to which the Legislature elected him in November of that year, but the subsequent training he received in Congress, then consisting of a few members, and to which he was elected in the winter of 1779, taking his seat in March, 1780, gave him, in the language of Jefferson, "a habit of self-possession which placed at ready command the rich resources of his luminous and discriminating mind, and of his extensive information, and rendered him the first of every assembly afterward of which he became a member. Never wandering from his subject into vain declamation, but pursuing it closely in language pure, classical, copious, soothing always the feelings of his adversaries by civilities and softness of expression, he rose to the eminent station he afterward held in the great National Convention of 1787; and in that of Virginia which followed, he sustained the new Constitution in all its parts, bearing off the palm against the logic of George Mason, and the fervid declamation of Mr. Henry. With these consummate powers was united a pure and spotless virtue, which no calumny ever attempted to sully." From his earliest years Mr. Madison was a hard student. His memory was singularly tenacious, and what he once clearly discerned became assimilated, and was ever after retained. He thus laid up that great store of learning which, in the conventions of 1787 and 1788 especially, proved so effective. After Washington no public man of his time was more widely respected and beloved. The public confidence in and respect for his honesty and singleness of aim toward the good of the country, ripened into an affectionate attachment. His bearing and address were characterized by simplicity and modesty. He resembled a quiet student, rather than the head of a great nation. He was somewhat taciturn in public, but when he conversed his tone



James Madison

was weighty and impressive. It was often naked, abstract reasoning, mild, simple and lucid, but summing up long trains of thought.

In 1783, he zealously advocated the measures proposed to establish a system of general revenue to pay the expenses of the war, and as chairman of the committee to which the subject was referred, prepared an able address to the State in support of the plan, which was adopted by Congress, and received the warm approval of Washington. A striking proof of the value which the people of Virginia attached to his services is exhibited by the fact that the law rendering him ineligible after three years' service in Congress was repealed, in order that he might sit during a fourth. On his return to Virginia, he was elected to the Legislature, and took his seat in 1784. In this body he inaugurated the measures relating to a thorough revision of the old statutes, and supported the bills introduced by the revisers, Jefferson, Wythe and Pendleton, on the subject of entails, primogeniture and religious freedom. His greatest service at this time was the preparation, after the adjournment of the Assembly, of a " Memorial and Remonstrance " against the project of a general assessment for the support of religion, which caused the complete defeat of the measure against which it was directed. At a convention of delegates from all the States, held at Philadelphia in May, 1787, Madison represented Virginia. The result of this convention was the abrogation of the old system of commercial regulations, and the formation of the Constitution of the United States. Madison was prominent in advocating the Constitution, and took a leading part in the debates, of which he kept private notes, since published by order of Congress. He took his seat as a Representative in Congress in April, 1789. Alexander Hamilton was at the head of the Treasury Department, and Madison was obliged either to support the great series of financial measures initiated by the Secretary, or distinctly abandon his former associate, and range himself on the side of the Republican opposition. He adopted the latter course. He accordingly opposed the funding bill, the national bank, and Hamilton's system of finance generally. His affection for Washington, and long friendship for Hamilton, rendered such a step peculiarly disagreeable to a man of his amiable and kindly disposition. But the tone of his opposition did not alienate his friends. He always retained the cordial regard of Washington. He became thoroughly identified with the Republicans in Congress, and in 1792 was their avowed leader. The most famous of Mr. Madison's political writings, which were very voluminous, was his " Report " in defense of his resolutions of 1798–99, in which the determination of the Virginia Assembly to defend the Constitutions of the United States, and of the States, was declared, and in which the purpose of the Assembly to resist all attempts to enlarge the authority of the Federal compact by forced constructions of general clauses, as tending to consolidation, the destruction of the liberties of the States, and finally to a monarchy, was also made known. Madison was Secretary of State during Jefferson's entire administration, and his opinions upon public affairs closely agreed with those of the President. He took his seat as President of the United States on March 4, 1809. On March 4, 1813, Mr. Madison entered upon his second term of administration. On March 4, 1817, his long official connection with the affairs of the nation terminated, and he retired to his farm at Montpelier in Virginia, where he died on June 28, 1836.



James Monroe

JAMES MONROE.

JAMES MONROE, fifth President of the United States, was born in Westmoreland county, Virginia, April 28, 1758. His father was Spence Monroe, a planter, descended from Captain Monroe, an officer in the army of Charles I., who emigrated with other cavaliers to Virginia in 1652. James Monroe was educated at William and Mary College, which he left in 1776 to enter the army as a cadet. Soon afterward he was commissioned lieutenant, and took an active part in the campaign on the Hudson. In the attack on Trenton, at the head of a small detachment, he captured one of the British batteries. On this occasion he received a ball in the shoulder, and was promoted to a captaincy. As aide-de-camp to Lord Stirling, with the rank of Major, he served in the campaigns of 1777 and 1778, and distinguished himself in the battles of Brandywine, Germantown and Monmouth. By accepting the place of aide to Lord Stirling, he lost his rank in the regular line. Failing in his efforts to re-enter the army as a commissioned officer, he returned to Virginia and began to study law, under the direction of Thomas Jefferson, then Governor of the State. In 1782 he was elected to the Assembly of Virginia, from the county of King George, and was appointed by that body, although but twenty-three years of age, a member of the executive council. In 1783 he was chosen a delegate to Congress for three years, and took his seat on December 13. In 1785 he married a daughter of Lawrence Kortwright, of New York, a lady celebrated for her beauty and accomplishments. Having served out his term, and being ineligible for the next three years, Monroe settled in Fredericksburg, Virginia. In 1787 he was re-elected to the General Assembly, and in 1788 was chosen a delegate to the Virginia convention to decide upon the adoption of the Federal Constitution. He was one of the minority who opposed the instrument as submitted, being apprehensive that, without amendment, it would confer too much power upon the general government. In 1790 he was chosen United States Senator. In the Senate he became a prominent representative of the Anti-Federal party, and acted with it until his term expired in 1794. In May of that year, he was made Minister to France, where he was received with enthusiastic demonstrations of respect; but owing to his marked exhibition of sympathy with the French Republic (which displeased the administration at home through the apparent tendency of his course, in its estimation, to throw serious obstacles in the way of a proposed treaty with England), he was recalled in August, 1796. On his return to America, his publication of his "View of the Conduct of the Executive in the Foreign Affairs of the United States," served but to widen the breach between himself and the administration, though with both Washington and Jay he remained on good terms. He became the hero of the Anti-Federalists, and was at once elected Governor of Virginia, which office he held from 1799 to 1802. At the close of his term, Jefferson then being President, he was appointed Envoy Extraordinary to the French government, to negotiate, in conjunction with the Minister Resident, Mr. Livingston, for the purchase of Louisiana, or a right of depot for the United States on the Mississippi. By the joint efforts of Messrs. Monroe and Livingston, a treaty was signed in 1803, by which France gave up to the United States, for a pecuniary consideration, the vast region then known as Louisiana.

Monroe went from Paris to London, where he was accredited to the Court of St. James, and subsequently went to Spain, in order to negotiate for the cession of Florida to the United States. In this he failed, and in 1806 he was recalled to England to act with Mr. Pinckney in further negotiation for the protection of neutral rights.

Jefferson, however, was so dissatisfied with this treaty, owing to the absence of any provision against the impressment of American seamen, and the failure to secure, by its articles, any indemnity for loss that the Americans had incurred in the seizure of their goods and vessels, that he would not send it to the Senate. Monroe returned home in 1807, and at once drew up an elaborate defense of his political conduct.

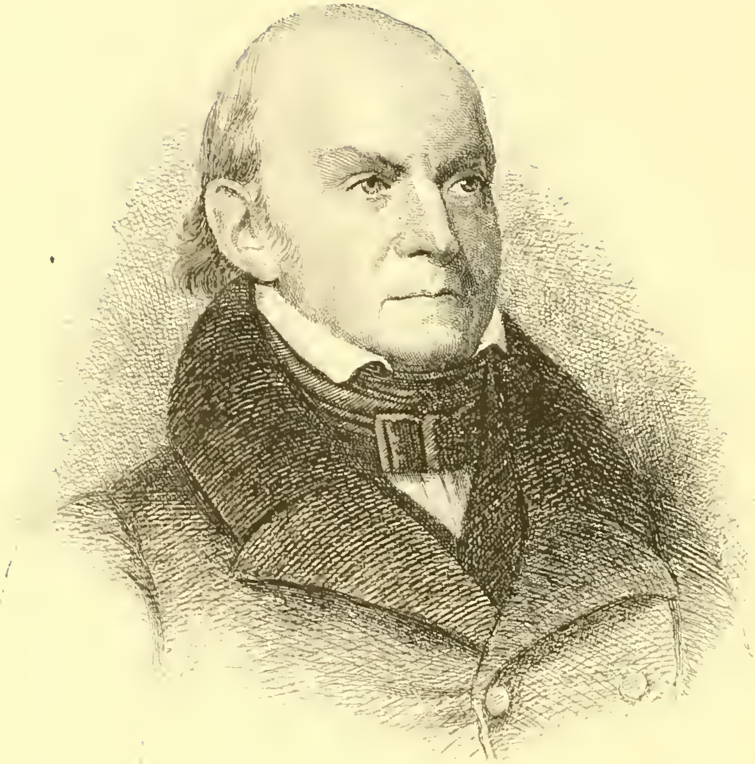
Again did Mr. Monroe receive a token of popular approbation when, in 1811, he was chosen for the second time Governor of Virginia, in which position he remained till called by Madison a short time afterward to accept the portfolio of Secretary of State, which he held for the next six years, from 1811 to 1817. In 1814 to 1815, he also acted as Secretary of War. While he was a member of the Cabinet of Madison, hostilities were begun between the United States and England. The public buildings in Washington were burned, and it was only by the most strenuous measures that the progress of the British was interrupted. Mr. Monroe gained much popularity by the measures that he took for the protection of the Capital, and for the enthusiasm with which he prosecuted the war measures of the government.

Monroe had held almost every important station except that of President, to which a politician could aspire. With the tradition of those days, which regarded experience in political affairs a qualification for an exalted station, it was most natural that Monroe should become a candidate for the presidency. Eight years previously his fitness for the office had been discussed. Now, in 1816, at the age of fifty-nine years, almost exactly the age at which Jefferson and Madison attained the same position, he was elected President of the United States, continuing in office till 1825, his second election in 1821 being made with almost complete unanimity, but one electoral vote being given against him. John Quincy Adams, John C. Calhoun, William H. Crawford and William Wirt were members of his Cabinet during his entire administration. The principal subjects that engaged the attention of the President were the defenses of the Atlantic seaboard, the promotion of internal improvements, the conduct of the Seminole War, the acquisition of Florida, the Missouri compromise, and the resistance to foreign interference in American affairs, formulated in a declaration that is called the "Monroe doctrine." Two social events marked the beginning and the end of his administration: First, his ceremonious tour through the principal cities of the North and South; and second, the national reception of the Marquis de Lafayette, who came to this country as the nation's guest. At the close of Monroe's second term as President, he retired to private life, and during the seven years that remained to him, resided part of the time at Oak Hill, Loudon county, Va, and part of the time in the city of New York. He accepted the office of regent of the University of Virginia in 1826, with Jefferson and Madison, and was asked to serve on the electoral ticket of Virginia in 1828, but declined on the ground that an ex-President should not be a party leader, but consented to act as a local magistrate however, and to become a member of the Virginia Constitutional Convention. One idea is consistently represented by Monroe from the beginning to the end of his public life—the idea that America is for Americans, that the territory of the United States is to be protected and enlarged, and that foreign intervention will never be permitted. In his early youth Monroe enlisted for the defense of American independence. He was one of the first to perceive the importance of free navigation upon the Mississippi; he negotiated with France and Spain for the acquisition of Louisiana and Florida; he gave a vigorous impulse to the second war with Great Britain in defense of our maritime rights, when the rights of a neutral power were endangered; and he enunciated a dictum against foreign interference, which has now the force of international law. In person he was tall and well formed, with a light complexion and blue eyes. He died in New York, July 4, 1831.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, sixth President of the United States, the eldest son of President John Adams, was born in Braintree, Mass., July 11, 1767. He was named after his great-grandfather, John Quincy. In his eleventh year he accompanied his father to France. He returned in about a year and a half, teaching, on his homeward voyage, the principles of the English language to his fellow passengers, De la Luzerne, the French Ambassador to the United States, and his secretary, M. Marbois, who were in raptures with his knowledge and general accomplishments. "Your son," said M. Marbois, to the boy's distinguished father, "teaches us more than you ; he has *point de grace, point d' éloges.* He shows us no mercy, and makes us no compliments. We must have Mr. John." Character is very early developed, and John Quincy Adams retained much of this same style of teaching to the end of his life. After remaining at home three months and a half, he sailed for France, accompanying his father on his second diplomatic mission to Europe. He was placed at school in Paris, after his arrival there in February, 1780, but left for Holland with his father in August. After some months' tuition at a school in Amsterdam, he was sent, about the end of the year, to the University of Leyden. His father's private secretary of legation, Francis Dana (afterwards Chief Justice of Massachusetts), having been appointed Minister to Russia, he took with him the boy, John Quincy Adams, then in his fifteenth year. Having discharged the duties of this position for fourteen months to Mr. Dana's entire satisfaction, the latter not having succeeded in getting recognized as Minister, young Adams left St. Petersburgh, and traveling back alone, returned leisurely through Sweden and Denmark, and by Hamburg and Bremen, to the Hague, where he resumed his studies. In October, 1783, the treaty of peace having been signed, he attended his father on his first visit to England. Returning with him, he spent the year 1784 in Paris, where the whole family was now collected. His father having been appointed Minister to England, he went with the family to London, but soon after, with a view to complete his education, he returned home to Massachusetts. He entered the junior class at Harvard College in 1786, and graduating in 1788, immediately entered the office of Theophilus Parsons, who was subsequently Chief Justice of Massachusetts. He remained there three years. In 1791 he was admitted to the bar, when he opened a law office in Boston. In the course of four years, he gradually obtained practice enough to pay his expenses. He did not, however, confine himself entirely to the law. He published three series of articles in the "Boston Sentinel"—one, a reply to some portions of Tom Paine's "Rights of Man ;" the second, a defense of Washington's policy of neutrality; the third, a review of the conduct of Genet, the French Ambassador, in relation to the same subject. These writings drew attention to him, and in May, 1794, Washington appointed him Minister to the Hague. Everything was in such confusion there, owing to the French invasion, that he would fain have returned after a few months' stay, had it not been for the remonstrances of Washington, who predicted for him a distinguished diplomatic career.

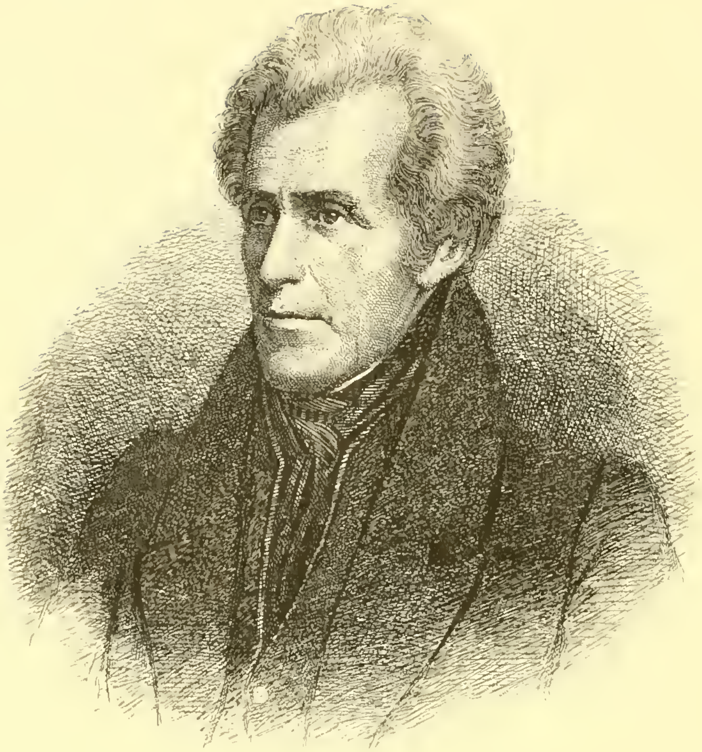
Upon a visit to London in 1795, he met a young lady whom he afterward married on July 27, 1797. She was the daughter of Mr. Joshua Johnson, the American Consul at London, who was himself a brother of Thomas Johnson, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and a judge of the United States Supreme Court. The Adamses had made, in 1779, the acquaintance of the Johnsons at Nantes, where Mr. Johnson was, at the time, a merchant in business there. Previous to his marriage, and shortly before the close of Washington's administration, John Quincy Adams had been



J, Q. Adams

made Minister to Portugal; but his father, on becoming President, changed his destination to Berlin. In thus promoting his own son, John Adams acted by the written advice of Washington, who expressed his decided opinion that young Adams was the ablest person then in the American diplomatic service, and that merited promotion ought not to be withheld from him merely on account of his being the President's son. He arrived in Berlin shortly after his marriage, in the autumn of 1797. In 1798 he received an additional commission to negotiate a treaty of commerce with Sweden. On the accession of Mr. Jefferson he was recalled, but not until he had succeeded in negotiating a treaty of commerce with Prussia. Upon his return he again opened a law office in Boston. In 1802 he was elected to the Massachusetts Senate, and the next year was chosen a Senator in Congress from Massachusetts. He owed this position to the Federal party of Massachusetts, and for four years he continued to sustain their views; but on the question of the embargo recommended by Jefferson he separated from them. A warm controversy waged with political opponents on this question of the embargo resulted in his retirement to private life for a time.

Immediately after Madison's accession to the presidency, Mr. Adams was nominated Minister to Russia. The Senate at first refused to confirm the nomination, being not yet satisfied of the expediency of opening diplomatic relations in that quarter. A few months after, however, the nomination being renewed, it was confirmed. The disputes and collisions between Great Britain and the United States, which finally terminated in the war of 1812, afforded Mr. Adams an opportunity to induce the Emperor of Russia to act as mediator; but Great Britain refused to consider Russia's offer, proposing instead an independent negotiation at London or Gothenburg, for which Ghent was afterwards substituted. Peace being established December 24, 1814, Mr. Adams was soon after resident American Minister at London, having, on his way through Paris, witnessed the return of Napoleon from Elba, and the brief empire of the hundred days. Upon the accession of Mr. Monroe to the presidency, Mr. Adams was offered the post of Secretary of State, and returned to accept it after an absence of eight years. The treaty with regard to the boundaries of Florida and Louisiana, and the claims of America on Spain for commercial depredations, was his principal achievement while Secretary. Mr. Adams entered upon the presidency March 4, 1825, with Calhoun as Vice-President and Clay as Secretary of State. Upon the conclusion of his term he retired to Quincy, where he remained until he entered Congress again, December, 1831, where he represented his district for seventeen years. During this long Congressional career he made himself eminent in many ways—as the champion and guardian of the right of petition; as the representative of the great party of Northern ideas and sentiments; and as the superior in acquired knowledge, whether by looks or personal enperience, of his fellow members, as he was also their superior in capacity for application and powers of endurance. Compared with his father, John Quincy Adams had more learning perhaps, but John Adams had much more genius. John Quincy Adams wrote with great fluency, but he lacked altogether that idiomatic elegance, force and simplicity so conspicuous in his father. His style is swelling, verbose, inflated, rhetorical. He lacked also, though not without powers of sarcasm, the wit and fancy which sparkled in his father's writings, and still more, that spirit of philosophical generalization into which John Adams constantly fell, but which was totally foreign to the intellectual constitution and habits of the son. In energy, spirit, firmness and indomitable courage John Quincy Adams was his father's equal; in self-command, in political prudence, and even perhaps in capacity for hard work, his superior. The brilliant period of his career was toward its close. The longer he lived the higher he rose, and he died as such men prefer to die, still an admired and trusted champion, with harness on his back and spear in hand.



Andrew Jackson

ANDREW JACKSON.

ANDREW JACKSON, seventh President of the United States, was born in the Waxhaw Settlement, N. C., March 15, 1767. His parents were Scotch-Irish, and emigrated from Carrickfergus, Ireland, in 1765, and settled on Twelve-mile Creek, a branch of the Catawba river. They had been very poor at home. Little is known of Jackson's childhood. During the trying year of 1780–81 he lost both his only brother and his mother, and found himself perfectly destitute, being obliged to labor hard for a subsistence. He worked in a saddler's shop, and taught school, and before he had completed his eighteenth year he began the study of law at Salisbury, N. C. He was licensed to practice before he was twenty. In 1788 he was appointed solicitor, or public prosecutor of the Western District of North Carolina, embracing what is now the State of Tennessee. He arrived at Nashville in the autumn, and immediately entered upon an active career. His practice was large, he had to travel much, and made twenty-two journeys in seven years between Nashville and Jonesborough, 280 miles, always at the risk of his life, owing to the numbers and hostility of the Indians. In the summer of 1791 he married Mrs. Rachel Robards, a daughter of Colonel John Donelson of Virginia, one of the founders of Tennessee.

Jackson became a District Attorney of Tennessee when that country was made a federal territory; and when the territory became a State, in 1796, he was a man of some wealth, owning some land. He was chosen one of the five members from Davidson county of the convention which met at Knoxville, January 11, 1796, to make a constitution for the new State, and he was appointed on the committee which drafted that instrument.

In the autumn of 1796 he was elected to represent the State in the popular branch of Congress. He entered the House December 5, 1796, when Washington was on the eve of retirement. Jackson belonged to the Republican (afterward Democratic) party, then forming under the lead of Thomas Jefferson, who had just been elected Vice-President. He was made a member of the Senate in 1797, owing to the great popularity he attained with his constituents by his radically democratic attitude towards the various questions which came up for disposition during the session he was in the House of Representatives; but nothing is known of his senatorial career, so far as it appears, Jackson never making a remark, or casting a vote as a Senator. In April, 1798, after having returned to Tennessee on leave, he resigned his seat. He was elected a Justice of the Supreme Court of Tennessee by the Legislature, at a salary of $600 a year, and held courts in various parts of the State, but none of his decisions remain.

In 1801 he was elected a Major General of militia. In 1812, when war was declared against England, General Jackson promptly tendered his services and those of 2500 men of his division of Tennessee militia to the national government, and the offer was as promptly accepted; but it was not until October 21 that the government requested Governor Blount to send 1500 men to New Orleans. Jackson appointed December 10 for the meeting of the troops at Nashville. A force of infantry and cavalry, 2070 strong, was organized, and on January 7, 1813, the infantry embarked, while the cavalry marched across the country. On February 15 the little army assembled at Natchez, where it remained by direction of General Wilkinson. At the close of March Jackson received an order from the Secretary of War to dismiss his corps, but he conducted his force back to Tennessee before disbanding it. It was on this march that the soldiers gave him the name of "Hickory," because of his toughness, and in time this was changed to "Old Hickory." Jackson greatly distinguished himself during the Creek war, 1813–14, and through his efforts finally put an end to the power of the Indian race in North America. Jackson's victories settled forever the long quarrel between the white man and the red man. Having thus established for himself a national reputation, he secured his reward in being made a Major General in the United States army, and became the acknowledged military leader in the southwestern part of the Union, various circumstances having placed him in a position to which six other generals had claims. The brilliant successes subsequently of Jackson's Louisiana campaign made him still a greater favorite throughout the country. The English preparations for a grand attack on the Southwest caused Jackson to leave for Mobile, the objective point towards which their first blow was aimed. Florida was then, in 1814, a Spanish province, but the British used it as if it were their own; and from Pensacola, the best harbor on the gulf, they organized expeditions against the United States, and aided the Indians. It was the rendezvous of their forces, and the Spaniards had neither the power nor the disposition to prevent this abuse of neutral territory. Jackson's seizure of Pensacola and his record at New Orleans—in fact, his entire management of the campaign—won the plaudits of even the enemy, who admitted his merits in the strongest language. He was appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Southern Division of the United States in April, 1815, and received the thanks of Congress.

The Seminole war, which broke out towards the close of 1817, afforded Jackson an opportunity for another success.

In 1819 he made a visit to the North, going as far as New York, and being everywhere well received. The government of New York city employed Vanderlyn to paint his portrait. When Spain ceded Florida to the United States, Jackson was appointed Governor of that territory, March 10, 1821; he took possession of it July 18, but held office only a few months, owing to some complications arising with a portion of Congress, from a dispute he had with Colonel Callava, late Spanish Governor of Florida. Afterwards President Monroe offered Jackson the post of Minister to Mexico, which he refused. In 1823 the Tennessee Legislature elected him a United States Senator, and nominated him for the Presidency. In the ensuing presidential election of 1824, Jackson received ninety-nine electoral votes, eighty-four being cast for John Quincy Adams, forty-one for Wm. H. Crawford, and thirty-seven for Henry Clay. No candidate having received a majority, the choice devolved upon the House of Representatives, and Adams was elected; but the entire opposition to the administration of Adams supported him for the Presidency in 1828, and he was this time victorious, receiving 178 electoral votes, while only eighty-three were cast for Adams. The contest which thus resulted was one of the most bitter in American history.

Jackson was re-elected in 1832. Both of Jackson's terms were stormy ones, the "bank war," which had raged with such unusual vigor during the four years of his first term, being renewed with all its old-time fervor throughout his last term of office. His foreign diplomacy was, however, very successful. Useful commercial treaties were made with several countries, and were renewed with others. Indemnities for spoliations on American commerce were obtained from France, Spain, Naples and Portugal, and the most amicable relations were sustained with England. During his second term the national debt was extinguished, the Cherokees were removed from Georgia, and the Creeks from Florida, the original number of States was doubled after the admission of Arkansas and Michigan into the Union, and the gold currency was greatly increased. He died at his residence, "The Hermitage," near Nashville, Tennessee, June 8, 1845. His chief intellectual gifts were energy and intuitive judgment.

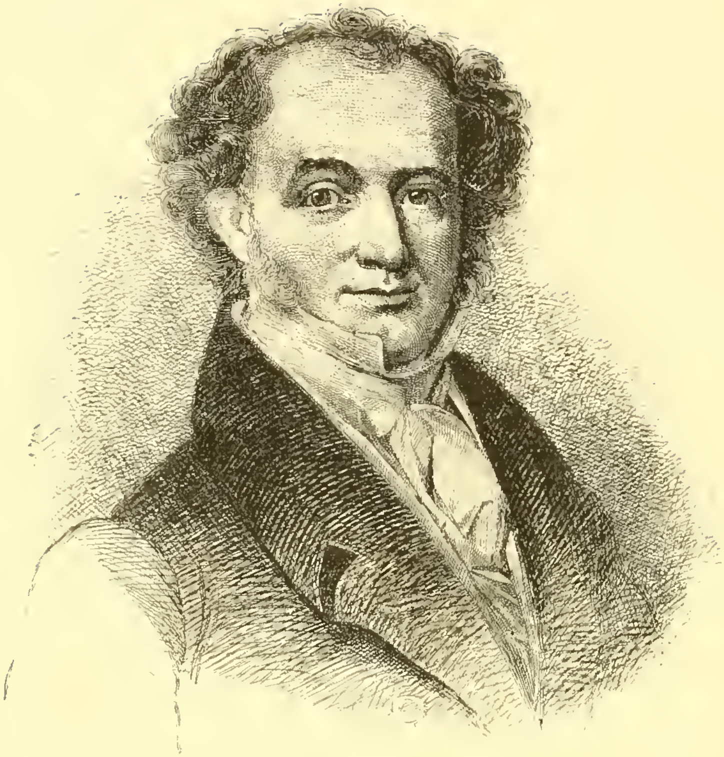
MARTIN VAN BUREN.

MARTIN VAN BUREN, the eighth President of the United States, was born at Kinderhook, Columbia county, N. Y., December 5, 1782. His father was a farmer, and Martin's early education was acquired at the academy of his native village. He began the study of law at the age of fourteen, was admitted to the bar in 1803, when he was twenty-one, the last year of his studies having been passed in the office of W. P. Van Ness, in the city of New York. He had served at the age of eighteen as a delegate in a nominating convention of the Republicans, or, as it was later called, the Democratic party.

In 1808 he was appointed by the Governor Surrogate of Columbia county. In 1812 he was elected to the Senate of the State, and in that body voted for electors pledged to support De Witt Clinton for President of the United States. He was an earnest advocate of the war of 1812–13. In 1815 he became Attorney-General of the State, and in 1816 he was again a member of the Senate, the two offices being held together. In 1818, having long since become estranged from De Witt Clinton, Mr. Van Buren set on foot a new organization of the Democratic party in the State. He became the ruling spirit of a coterie of able politicians, among whom were B. F. Butler, W. L. Marcy and Edwin Croswell, all of whom were afterward prominent, and by whom the political control of the State was uninterruptedly exercised for more than twenty years. In 1819 he was removed from the office of Attorney-General by the Clintonian council of appointment. In 1820 he advocated the re-election of Rufus King to the U. S. Senate, and concurred in the legislative resolution instructing the Senators and Representatives of the State in Congress, to resist the admission of Missouri as a Slave State. In February, 1821, defeating both Clintonians and Federalists in the Legislature, he was chosen to the United States Senate, and a few months later was elected to represent the county of Otsego, in the convention to revise the State constitution. In 1824 he advocated the election of Mr. Crawford to the presidency, and became a leader in the opposition to Mr. John Quincy Adams, the successful candidate. In 1827 he was re-elected to the United States Senate, but resigned that office on being chosen Governor of New York to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Mr. Clinton in 1828. As Governor he proposed the safety fund banking system.

In March, 1829, he became Secretary of State in the administration of President Jackson, but resigned on April 7, 1831, for the reason that circumstances beyond his control had placed him before the country as a candidate for the presidency, a position, in his judgment, incompatible with the proper discharge of the duties of a cabinet minister. Appointed Minister to England, he arrived in that country in September; but his nomination to the office, submitted to the Senate in December, was rejected by that body after an animated debate, in which Messrs. Clay and Webster, Whig leaders, were seconded by the friends of Mr. Calhoun, then Vice-President.

The grounds of the objection were stated to be, that while Secretary of State, Mr. Van Buren had instructed Mr. McLane, United States Minister to England, to beg from that country, as a favor, certain concessions in regard to trade with her colonies in the West Indies, which he should have demanded as a right; that, in fact, he had taken the side of England in that matter against the United States; and, finally, that he had carried our domestic party contests, and their results, into diplomatic



M Van Buren

negotiations with foreign countries. This event occasioned much excitement, especially among the members of the Democratic party, who regarded it as a mere political persecution.

It was followed on May 22, 1832, by the nomination of Mr. Van Buren for the vice-presidency by the same Democratic National Convention which nominated General Jackson for re-election to the presidency, and in the subsequent election Mr. Van Buren received the electoral votes of all the States which voted for General Jackson, with the exception of Pennsylvania, whose electors cast their suffrages for William Wilkins. Mr. Van Buren thus became President of the Senate, which a few months before had condemned him ; and when he left that office all parties agreed that he had discharged its functions with dignity, courtesy and impartiality.

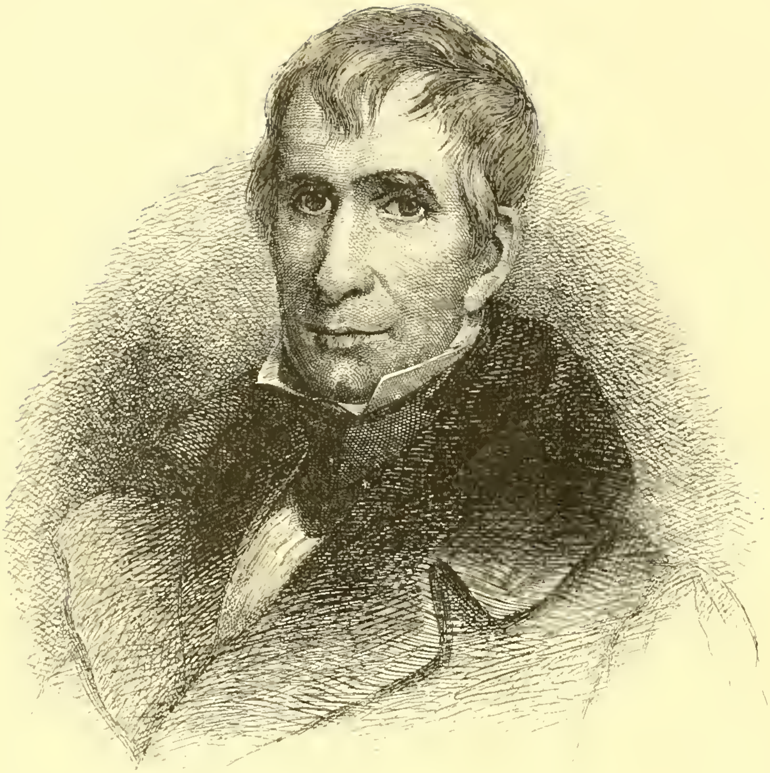
It had long been known that he was the favorite candidate of his party for the station which President Jackson was to vacate in March, 1836. The National Convention which met at Baltimore on May 20, 1835, unanimously nominated him for the presidency, and in the ensuing election he received from fifteen States 170 electoral votes, while his principal antagonist, General Harrison, received 73, Mr. Hugh L. White 26, and Mr. Webster 14.

The divorce of the government from the banks, and the exclusive " receipt and payment of gold and silver in all public transactions"—that is to say, for the independent treasury—was the measure by which his administration is especially distinguished, and being finally passed by both Houses of Congress, became a law on June 30, 1840.

The canvass preliminary to the presidential election of 1840, was begun uncommonly early, and with unwonted energy, by the opposition. Indeed, the public meetings held in the large cities during the spring and summer of 1839, where, under the lead of prominent Whig statesmen, the policy of the President and his party was denounced as the source of the prevailing commercial troubles, were but the beginning of a vast movement to transfer the executive government into the hands of the Whigs. Never in the political history of the United States was a canvass conducted amid such absorbing public excitement. The result was the discomfiture of the Democrats in every State, except Alabama, Arkansas, Illinois, Missouri, New Hampshire, Virginia and South Carolina. Mr. Van Buren received only 60 electoral votes, while General Harrison had 234.

From the White House Mr. Van Buren withdrew to his estate at Kinderhook, to appear a month afterwards as an assistant at the funeral honors paid to General Harrison by the city of New York. Mr. Van Buren died at Kinderhook, July 24, 1862.

In appearance he has been described as of abont the medium size. His hair and eyes were light, his features animated and expressive, especially the eye, which was indicative of quick apprehension and close observation ; while his forehead, in its depth and expansion, exhibited the marks of great intellectual power.



W. H. Harrison

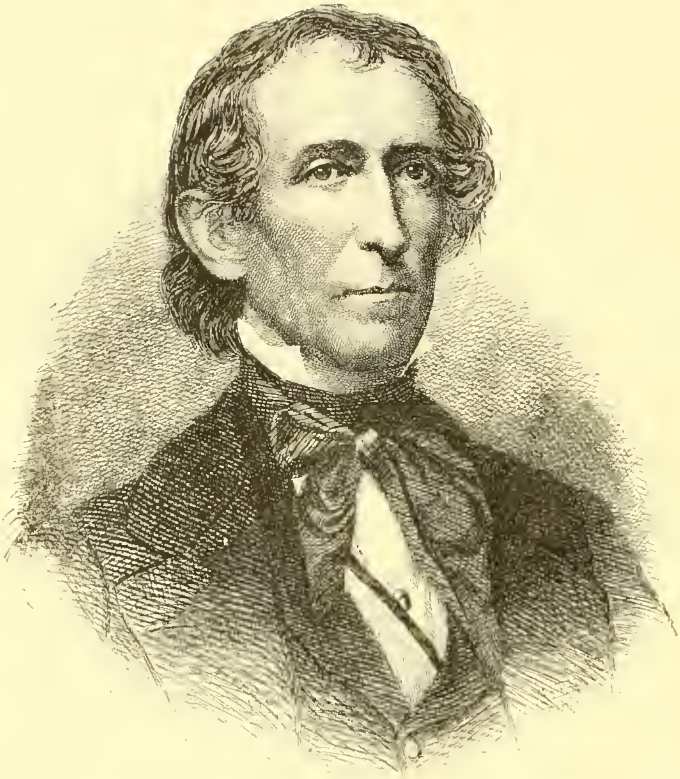
WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON, ninth President of the United States, was born in Berkeley, Charles City county, Va., February 9, 1773. He was the third and youngest son of Governor Benjamin Harrison, who was a delegate to the Continental Congress in 1774–5–6, and when a candidate for the presidency of the Congress, urged upon his fellow members, with noble generosity and modesty, that they should elect his rival, John Hancock. With the ready good humor characteristic of him, he seized Mr. Hancock in his athletic arms and, as he placed him in the presidental chair, exclaimed to the members: "We will show Mother Britain how little we care for her, by making a Massachusetts man whom she has excluded from pardon our President by public proclamation." Though his father was not very well off, William Henry Harrison received a good education at Hampden Sydney College, and afterwards applied himself to the study of medicine. He was about to graduate as a physician when reports of horrible Indian butcheries in the frontier settlements, and the daring deeds of his countrymen in the Western wilds, roused in him the desire to join the frontier army and to share its perils and hardships. The army then serving in the West under General St. Clair had been raised for the purpose of preventing the repeated outrages and barbarities of the Indians. This little band the young student resolved to join. His design being approved by Washington, who had also been a warm friend of his father, he received from the Commander-in-Chief an ensign's commission in the first regiment of United States Artillery, then stationed at Fort Washington, where Cincinnati now stands. Frequent defeats under St. Clair rendering it necessary that the army should be placed under the command of a military chief of well-earned reputation, Washington selected General Anthony Wayne, who at once received orders to take command of the Western army. Young Harrison reached Fort Washington immediately after the last defeat of St. Clair. Soon after his arival it became necessary to dispatch a train of pack horses to Fort Hamilton, about thirty miles distant upon the Great Miami. This train, in charge of a body of soldiers, was placed under the command of Harrison. While the distance was short, the thousands of lurking savages in the forest made it an extremely perilous trip. After the performance of this service, which was accomplished with much credit to his bravery and fidelity to orders, Harrison's progress in the confidence of his commanding officers was such as to gain him promotion to the rank of lieutenant, in 1792. At the close of the campaign, Lieutenant Harrison was made captain and placed in command of Fort Washington, laid out on grounds owned by John Cleves Symmes, whose daughter Captain Harrison married. In 1797 he resigned his commission, and was appointed Secretary of the territory northwest of the Ohio, from which, in 1799 he was chosen a delegate to Congress. The Northwestern Territory having been divided, Harrison was appointed, in 1801, Governor of the new territory of Indiana, embracing the present States of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin Almost the whole of it was then in possession of the Indians, with whom, as Superintendent, he made several important treaties, in which large cessions of territory were obtained. The agitation among the Indians caused by Tecumseh and his brother, the Prophet, having resulted in hostilities, Harrison, in the autumn of 1811, advanced against the Prophet's town at the head of 800 men, partly regulars and partly volunteers. His camp at Tippecanoe was unsuccessfully attacked on the night of November 7. The defeated Indians were at first inclined to treat, but the breaking out of the war with Great Britain made them again hostile. After Hull's surrender, Harrison was appointed, in September, 1812, to the command of the Northwest frontier, with a commission as Brigadier-General. It was not until the next year, by which time he was promoted to the rank of Major-General, that he was able to commence active operations. Several mishaps grew out of the inexperience of his subordinate officers, but the victory of Perry on Lake Erie enabled him to recover from the British the American territory which they had occupied, and to pursue them into Canada, where, on October 5, they were totally routed in the battle of the Thames. A peace with the Northwestern Indians soon followed. Not long after, in consequence of misunderstandings with Armstrong, the Secretary of War, Harrison resigned his commission in the army. In 1816 he was elected from the Cincinnati district a member of Congress, in which body he sat for three years. In 1819 he was elected a member of the State Senate of Ohio, and in 1824 he was made United States Senator. He was appointed Chairman of the Military Committee, in place of General Jackson, who had just resigned his seat in the Senate. In 1828 he was appointed by President John Q. Adams Minister Plenipotentiary to Columbia, but was recalled immediately on Jackson's accession to the Presidency in 1829. For several years after his return he took no active part in political affairs, but lived retired on his farm at North Bend, on the Ohio, a few miles below Cincinnati, and was for twelve years clerk of the County Court. In 1836, as the close of Jackson's second term of office drew near, the opposition were somewhat at a loss for a candidate for the Presidency. The success of General Jackson gave rise to the idea of adopting a candidate who had a military reputation. Harrison, while in command of the Northwest department during the war of 1812, had enjoyed a high popularity in the West, and was now brought forward as a Presidential candidate. The financial crisis which followed the election of Mr. Van Buren greatly strengthened the opposition. The prospect of defeating his re-election was very strong, if the opposition could unite upon a candidate. Mr. Clay was again brought forward and strongly urged. General Scott was also proposed. In the National Convention, which met at Harrisburg, December 4, 1839, General Harrison received the nomination. A very ardent and exciting canvass followed. On the part of the supporters of Harrison, every means was employed to arouse the popular enthusiasm. Mass meetings and political processions were now first brought into general use, and this canvass marks an era in the style of conducting elections. The slur which had been cast upon Harrison, that he lived in a "log cabin," with nothing to drink but "hard cider," was seized upon as an electioneering appeal. Log cabins became a regular feature in political processions, and "hard cider" one of the watchwords of the party. Harrison received 234 electoral votes to 60 for Van Buren. He was inaugurated March 4, 1841. His Cabinet was judiciously composed, and great expectations were formed of his administration; but within a month, and before any distinctive line of policy could be established, he died, after an illness of eight days, brought on, it was supposed, by fatigue and excitement incident to his inauguration.

JOHN TYLER.

JOHN TYLER, tenth President of the United States, was born in Charles City county, Virginia, March 29, 1790. He was the second son of John Tyler, a prominent revolutionary patriot, Governor of the State from 1808 to 1811, a Judge of the Federal Court of Admiralty, and who died in 1813. John Tyler, the future President, was graduated at William and Mary College in 1807, and in 1809 was admitted to the bar. Two years later he was elected a member of the Legislature, and then re-elected for five successive years. In 1816 he was elected to Congress to fill a vacancy, and was twice re-elected. He voted for the resolutions of censure on General Jackson's conduct during the Seminole War, and opposed internal improvements by the Government, the United States Bank, the protective policy, and all restrictions on slavery. Ill health compelled him to resign before the expiration of his term. In 1823 and the two following years he was a leading member of the State Legislature. In December, 1825, he was chosen Governor by the Legislature, and at the next session was re-elected by a unanimous vote. He succeeded John Randolph as United States Senator in March, 1827, and was re-elected in 1823. In the presidential election of 1824 he had supported Mr. Crawford, who received the vote of Virginia. He, however, approved the choice of Mr. Adams in preference to General Jackson by the House of Representatives; but seeing in Adams' first message "an almost total disregard of the Federative principle," he sided in the Senate with the opposition to him, consisting of the combined followers of Jackson, Crawford and Calhoun. He voted against the Tariff Bill of 1828, and against all projects of internal improvement. During the debate on Mr. Clay's tariff resolutions in 1831–2, he made a three days' speech against a tariff for direct protection; but advocated one for revenue with incidental protection to home industry. In 1832 he avowed his sympathy with the nullification movement in South Carolina, and made a speech against the force bill, which passed the Senate with no vote but his in the negative. But he voted for Mr. Clay's compromise bill. In the session of 1833–4 he supported Mr. Clay's resolutions of censure upon President Jackson's removal of the deposits, which he regarded as an unwarrantable assumption of power, although he considered the bank unconstitutional. The Legislature of Virginia having in February, 1836, adopted resolutions instructing the Senators from that State to vote for expunging those resolutions from the Journal of the Senate, Mr. Tyler resigned and returned to his home, which about this time he had removed to Williamsburgh. In 1836, as a Whig candidate for Vice-President, he obtained the votes of Maryland, Georgia, South Carolina and Tennessee.

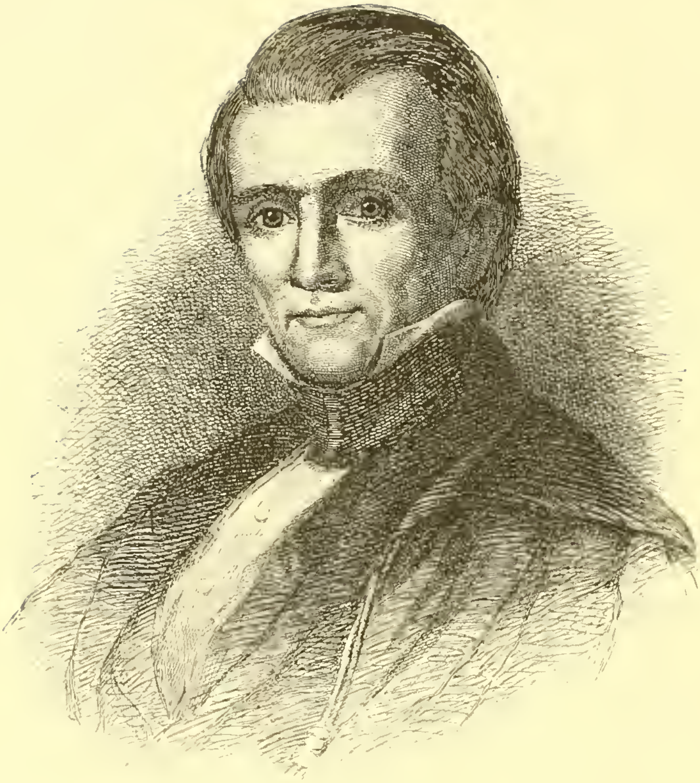
In 1838 he was elected to the Legislature by the Whigs of James City county, and during the subsequent session of that body he acted entirely with the Whig party. He was a delegate from Virginia to the Whig national presidential convention which met at Harrisburg, December 4, 1839, and was nominated for Vice-President with General Harrison as President, and elected in November, 1840. President Harrison died just one month after his inauguration, and the administration devolved upon the Vice-President. Mr. Tyler requested the members of the Cabinet to remain in the places they held under President Harrison. Three days later he published an inaugural address which, in its indications of political principles, was satisfactory to the Whigs. He at once began to remove from office the Democrats appointed by previous administrations, and to fill their offices with Whigs. In his message to the Congress which convened in extra session, May 31, 1841, he discussed at considerable length the ques-



John Tyler

tion of a national bank, at that period a leading feature of the Whig policy, and he intimated to several members his desire that Congress should request a plan for a bank from the Secretary of the Treasury. Resolutions for this purpose were adopted by both Houses, and Mr. Ewing sent in a bill for the incorporation of the "Fiscal Bank of the United States," the essential features of which were framed in accordance with the President's suggestions, and in deference to his peculiar views of the institution. The bill was finally passed by Congress on August 6, with a clause concerning branch banks differing from Mr. Ewing's, and sent to the President, who returned it with a veto message, in which he declared that act unconstitutional in several particulars. This veto created great excitement and anger among the Whigs throughout the country. The Whig leaders in Congress, however, made yet another effort to conciliate the President and to secure his consent to their favorite measure. A bill was prepared embracing certain features supposed to be acceptable to the President, and was privately submitted to and approved by him and his Cabinet, and finally, without any alteration, passed by the House, August 23, and by the Senate two weeks later; but the President, who, by some communications, was made to believe that the bill was framed with the object of entrapping him into an act of inconsistency, vetoed it. Very soon after the promulgation of the veto, the Cabinet, with the exception of Mr. Webster, the Secretary of State, sent in their resignations and published statements of their reasons for this step, reflecting severely on the conduct of President Tyler. The President filled their places by appointing other officers—all of them Whigs—or at least opponents of the Democratic party. Before the adjournment of Congress, September 13, the Whig members published a manifesto proclaiming that all political relations between them and the President were at an end.

The course taken by Mr. Webster, though condemned by some of the Whigs, was justified by the greater portion of the people on the ground of the critical condition of our relations with Great Britain on the subject of the Northeastern boundary, in regard to which he was at the time engaged in negotiations with the British Ministry. After a satisfactory treaty was arranged and ratified (August, 1842), Mr. Webster resigned, and was succeeded by Mr. Legarre, who died soon after. After the appointment of Mr. Calhoun, of South Carolina, as Secretary of State, a treaty under his management was concluded between the United States and Texas, April 12, 1844, which was rejected by the Senate. But the scheme of annexation was vigorously prosecuted by the President, and at the very close of his administration brought to a successful issue by the passage of joint resolutions by Congress, approved March 1, 1845. The other most important measures of his administration were the act establishing a uniform system of proceedings in bankruptcy, passed in August, 1841, and the protective tariff of 1842. Toward the close of Mr. Tyler's term it became evident that he had lost the confidence of the Whigs without having secured that of the Democrats. In May, 1844, a convention, composed chiefly of officeholders, assembled at Baltimore, and tendered him a nomination for the Presidency, which he accepted; but in August, perceiving that he had really no popular support, he withdrew from the canvass. In 1861 he was a member of the Peace Convention, composed of delegates from the "Border States," which met at Washington to endeavor to arrange terms of compromise between the seceded States of the South and the Federal Government. Of this convention he was elected president, but nothing resulted from its deliberations. He died in Richmond, Va., January 17, 1862.



James K. Polk

JAMES K. POLK.

JAMES KNOX POLK, the eleventh President of the United States, was born in Mecklenburg county, North Carolina, November 2, 1795. His ancestors, whose name was originally Pollock, emigrated from Ireland early in the eighteenth century. His father was a farmer, who in 1806 removed to the valley of Duck river, in Tennessee. The son received at first a scanty education, but finally entered the University of North Carolina, and graduated in 1818.

Returning to Tennessee, with health considerably impaired by excessive application, Mr Polk, in the beginning of the year 1819, commenced the study of the law in the office of Senator Grundy, and late in 1820 was admitted to the bar. He began his professional career in the county of Maury, with great advantages, derived from the connection of his family with its early settlement. His thorough academical preparation, his accurate knowledge of the law, his readiness and resources in debate, his unwearied application to business, secured him at once full employment.

In 1825 he was elected to Congress, and soon became a conspicuous opponent of the administration of John Quincy Adams, and was afterwards one of the most efficient supporters of Jackson. He was, upon entering Congress, with one or two exceptions, the junior member of that body. He was nominated for Speaker by the Democratic party near the close of the session of 1834, but was defeated by a coalition between the Whigs and a portion of the Democrats in favor of John Bell. In 1835 Mr. Polk was elected Speaker, and was re-elected to that position in 1837.

In 1839, having served for fourteen years in Congress, he declined a re-election, and was chosen Governor of Tennessee. In 1840 he received the nomination of the Legislature of Tennessee and several other States for Vice-President, with Mr. Van Buren, but at the election received only one electoral vote, Richard M. Johnson being the regular Democratic candidate. In 1841, being renominated for Governor, he was defeated by a majority of 3224 votes.

The Democratic National Convention, which met at Baltimore May 27, 1844, nominated him for President on the ninth ballot, George M. Dallas of Pennsylvania being nominated for Vice-President. Henry Clay and Theodore Frelinghuysen were the candidates of the Whig party. Mr. Polk was elected by a popular vote of 1.337,243 to 1,299,062 for Clay, and 62,300 for James G. Birney, the Anti-Slavery candidate. The annexation of Texas, the most exciting question in the canvass, was effected by Mr. Polk's inauguration His Cabinet consisted of James Buchanan of Pennsylvania, Secretary of State; Robert J. Walker of Mississippi, Secretary of the Treasury; William L. Marcy of New York, Secretary of War; George Bancroft of Massachusetts, Secretary of the Navy till September 9, 1846, afterward John Y. Mason of Virginia; Cave Johnson of Tennessee, Postmaster-General; John Y. Mason, Nathan Clifford of Maine and Isaac Toucey of Connecticut, successively Attorney-Generals.

Two important questions presented themselves to Polk's administration for settlement, the troubles with Mexico growing out of the annexation of Texas, and the arrangement of the Northwestern boundary of the United States. The question of the Northwestern boundary had been left unsettled by the treaty of Washington in 1842. Great Britain was anxious to arrange the matter, and late in the year 1842 Mr. Fox, the British Minister at Washington, proposed to Mr. Webster, then Secretary of State, to open negotiations. The British proposition was accepted, but nothing further was done until February, 1844, when Sir Richard Packenham, then British

Minister at Washington, proposed to take up the question of the Oregon boundary and settle it. Mr. Upshur, the Secretary of State, accepted the offer, but was killed a few days later by an accident—an explosion on board the "Princeton." Six months later Sir Richard Packenham renewed the proposal to Mr. Calhoun, who had become Secretary of State, and negotiations were entered upon in earnest. In 1818 the United States and Great Britain had agreed upon the forty-ninth degree of north latitude as the boundary between the United States and British America from the Lake of the Woods to the summit of the Rocky Mountains. Mr. Calhoun opened the negotiations to continue this line to the Pacific. The British Minister refusing to consent to this, and proposing to extend the forty-ninth parallel from the mountains to the north branch of the Columbia, and then to make the boundary follow that stream from this point of intersection to the sea, the subject was postponed until Packenham could receive additional instructions from his government. President Polk caused the Secretary of State to reopen the negotiations by proposing to Great Britain the forty-ninth parallel of latitude as a boundary. The British Minister declining this proposition the matter was dropped. The British ministry decided at length to reopen negotiations, and Sir Richard Packenham shortly after communicated to Mr. Buchanan the willingness of his government to accept the forty-ninth parallel as a boundary. The time at which the joint occupation would terminate was rapidly drawing to a close and the President was anxious to settle the matter, but at the same time was not willing to assume the responsibility of accepting a boundary which fell so far short of the popular expectations. At the suggestion of Senator Benton of Missouri, he asked the advice of the Senate as to the propriety of accepting the British offer, and pledging himself to be guided by its decision. The Senate advised him to accept it, and when the treaty was sent to it, ratified it after a warm debate extending over two days. Thus the matter was brought to a close. By the treaty, which was concluded in 1846, the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude was made the boundary between the United States and the British possessions, from the summit of the Rocky Mountains to the middle of the channel between Vancouver's Island and the mainland, and thence southerly through the middle of the Straits of San Juan de Fuca to the Pacific. The navigation of the Columbia river and its main southern branch was made free to both parties.

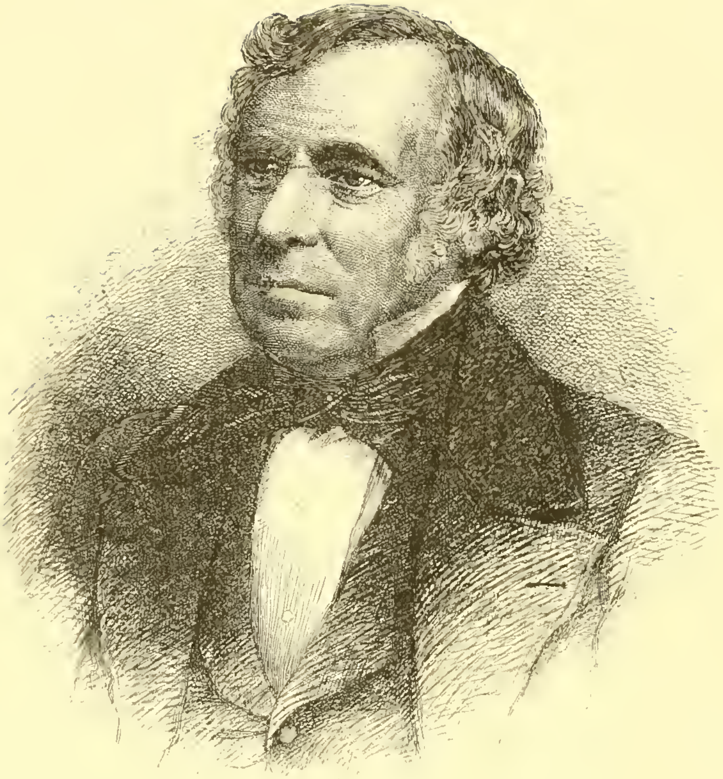
In the meantime the Mexican difficulty had been found much harder of settlement. Mexico had never acknowledged the independence of Texas, and since the defeat at San Jacinto had repeatedly threatened to restore her authority over the Texans by force of arms. The President sent General Taylor with a small force to occupy the country between the Nueces and the Rio Grande, the United States claiming the latter river as their boundary, while the Mexicans maintained that Texas had never extended beyond the Nueces.

In April, 1846, hostilities broke out on the Rio Grande between General Taylor's army and that of the Mexican commander, General Arista. The President sent a message to Congress that "war existed by the act of Mexico," and asking for men and money to carry it on. Congress responded May 11 by an appropriation of $10,000,000 and giving authority to call out 50,000 volunteers. The war was prosecuted with energy, and resulted in the conquest of Mexico and upper California, and the Rio Grande was accepted from its mouth to El Paso as the southern boundary of Texas. In the election of 1848 Mr. Polk was not a candidate, having in 1844 pledged himself not to seek a renomination, and his administration terminated March 4, 1849. Three months after his retirement Mr. Polk was seized with illness, and in a few days died. He was of middle stature, with a full, angular brow, and quick, penetrating eyes. He was grave, but unostentatious and amiable, and his character was pure and upright.

ZACHARY TAYLOR.

ZACHARY TAYLOR, twelfth President of the United States, was born in Orange county, Virginia, September 24, 1784. His father, Colonel Richard Taylor, served throughout the Revolutionary war, and removed in 1785 from Virginia to Kentucky, where he had an extensive plantation in the neighborhood of Louisville. Zachary was engaged on the plantation till his twenty-fourth year. His brother Hancock, a Lieutenant in the United States army, died in 1808, and the vacant position was then assigned to Zachary. He was made a Captain in November, 1810, and after the declaration of war against Great Britain, was placed in command of Fort Harrison, a blockhouse and stockade on the Wabash river, about fifty miles above Vincennes. This was the first object of attack by the Indians, a large force of whom invested it in September, 1812, and after professions of peace made a furious night assault and set fire to the lower buildings of the fort. Taylor had but fifty men, of whom two-thirds were ill; but after a sharp conflict of several hours, he extinguished the flames and repulsed the assailants with severe loss. For his conduct on this occasion he received from President Madison the rank of Major by brevet, the first instance in the service of this species of promotion. A few months later he took part in a successful expedition led by General Hopkins against the Indian villages; and in 1814, with the full rank of Major, commanded an expedition against the British and Indians on Rock river. On the restoration of peace in 1815, Congress reduced the army and annulled many of the promotions made during the war; Taylor was reduced to the rank of Captain, and in consequence resigned his commission and retired to his plantation near Louisville. Being soon reinstated as Major, he was employed several years alternately on the Northwest frontier and in the South, where, in 1822, he built Fort Jesup. In 1819 he became Lieutenant-Colonel, and in 1822 Colonel. In the latter year he was engaged in the Black Hawk War, and was then ordered to Prairie du Chien, where he took command of Fort Crawford, which had been erected under his superintendence. In 1836-40 he served in Florida. On December 25, 1837, he defeated the Indians in the desperate and decisive battle of Okeechobee, and was promoted to the rank of Brigadier-General by brevet; and in April, 1838, he was made Commander-in-Chief in Florida.

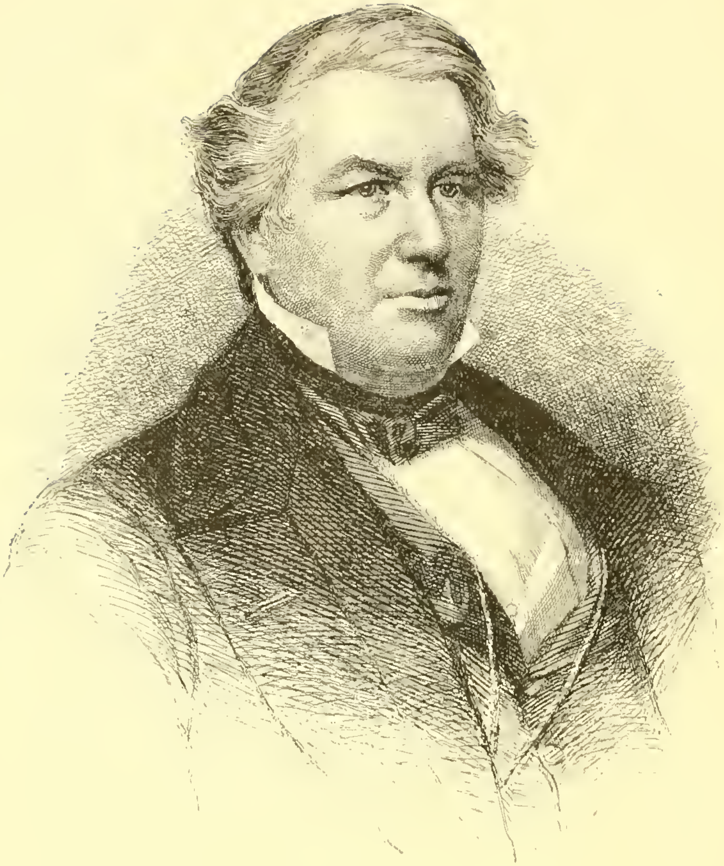
In 1840 he was appointed to the command of the first department of the army in the Southwest. He purchased at this time an estate at Baton Rouge, to which he removed his family. Congress having in March, 1845, passed the joint resolution annexing Texas, General Taylor was directed to defend it against invasion from Mexico. In July he embarked at New Orleans with 1500 troops, and in the beginning of August encamped with them at Corpus Christi, Texas, where he was reinforced, so that in November his forces amounted to about 4000 men. The administration desired to bring the Mexican question to a crisis without, if possible, incurring the responsibility of beginning a war. Indirectly, therefore, it endeavored to induce General Taylor to advance his forces into the disputed territory; but he disregarded all hints to that effect, and would not move until explicitly ordered by the President. Positive instructions were at length sent, and on March 8, 1846, the army began its advance toward the Rio Grande, and on the 28th reached the banks of that river opposite Matamoras, where the Mexicans were also throwing up batteries and redoubts. On April 12 General Ampudia, the Mexican commander, addressed a note to General Taylor, requiring him within twenty-four hours to break up his camp and retire beyond tho Nueces, " while our governments are regulating the pending question in relation to Texas," and



Zachary Taylor

informing him that his non-compliance would be regarded by the Mexicans as equivalent to a declaration of war. General Taylor replied that he was acting under instructions which did not permit him to return to the Nueces, and that if the Mexicans saw fit to begin hostilities, he should not avoid the conflict. Taylor, promoted to the rank of Major-General, took possession of Matamoras on May 18, without opposition, and remained there till September, when he marched against Monterey, which he reached on September 9 with a force of 6625 men, mostly volunteers. After several days desperate fighting, General Ampudia capitulated on the 24th. At Buena Vista he defeated Santa Anna. During the rest of the war the valley of the Rio Grande remained in quiet possession of the Americans. On his return home in November, 1847, "Old Rough and Ready," as his soldiers familiarly called him, was greeted everywhere by the warmest demonstrations of popular applause ; and as the time for the presidential election was approaching, his name was at once brought forward for the presidency. He announced himself "a Whig, but not an ultra Whig," and in several letters intimated his willingness to accept the nomination, provided he could be left untrammelled by partisan pledges, at the same time expressing his distrust of his fitness for the office. In June, 1848, he was nominated by the Whig National Convention at Philadelphia, the other candidates for the nomination being Mr. Clay, Mr. Webster and General Scott. Millard Fillmore of New York was nominated for the vice-presidency. Henry Wilson of Massachusetts and a few other delegates, on this result being announced, withdrew from the convention and subsequently formed the Free Soil party on the basis of opposition to the extension of slavery. The Democratic National Convention had already nominated Lewis Cass for the presidency ; but a powerful section of the New York Democracy, familiarly known as the Barn Burners, refused their support to Mr. Cass, partly because of his pro-slavery position. General Taylor was inaugurated President on Monday, March 5, 1849, and on the following day appointed his Cabinet.

The Democratic party had elected a plurality of the members of Congress, and a few Free Soil members held the balance of power between the Whigs and Democrats. A vehement struggle began with regard to the organization of the new Territories, the admission of California as a State and the question of the boundary between Texas and New Mexico, all of these subjects being connected with the question of the extension of slavery. President Taylor in his message to Congress recommended that California should be admitted, and that the other Territories should form State constitutions to themselves, and should be admitted into the Union with or without slavery as their constitutions might prescribe. These recommendations were not acceptable to the slave-holding leaders, many of whom made open threats of secession. Henry Clay in the Senate introduced the compromise measures known by his name, including the recommendations of the President's message. His propositions were still the subject in one form or another of exciting debates in Congress and of earnest discussion among the people, when, on the 4th of July, 1850, President Taylor was seized with bilious fever, dying of it on the 9th, at the Presidential Mansion.



Millard Fillmore

MILLARD FILLMORE.

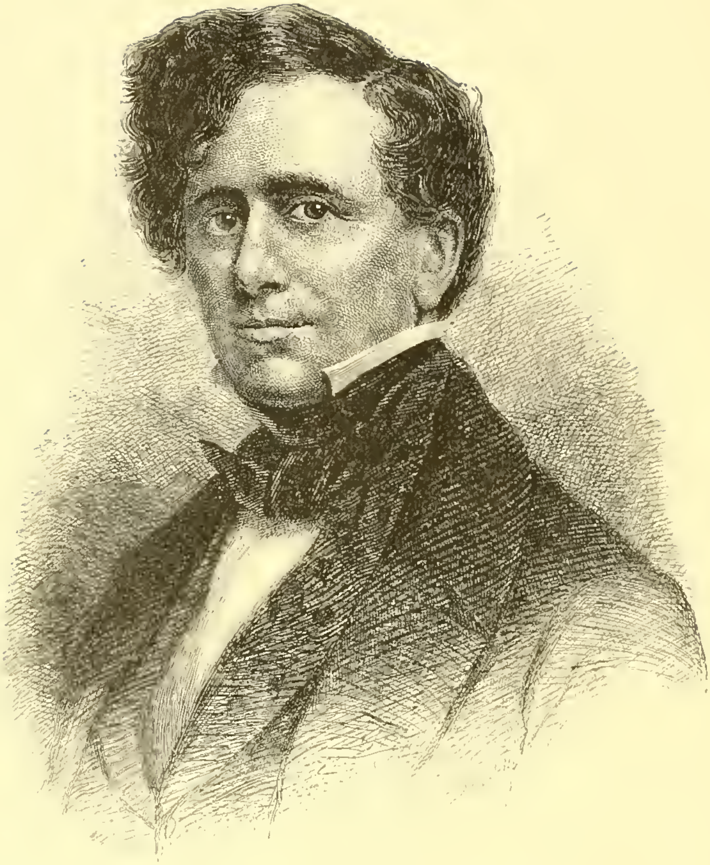
MILLARD FILLMORE, thirteenth President of the United States, was born in the township of Locke (now Summerhill), Cayuga county, N. Y., February 7, 1800. His father, Nathaniel Fillmore, was a farmer. Owing to a defective title, he lost his property on what was called the "Military tract," and removed to another part of Cayuga county, where he took a perpetual lease of 130 acres, wholly unimproved and covered with heavy timber. It was here that the future President first knew anything of life. Everything was of a very primitive character in that section, the schools partaking of the nature of their surroundings. Young Millard Fillmore never saw a copy of "Shakespeare" or of "Robinson Crusoe," a history of the United States, or even a map of his own country, till he was nineteen years old. His father's hard luck with the exceedingly poor soil which he endeavored to cultivate made him desire something better than farming for his sons. Millard was apprenticed at fourteen, for a few months on trial, to the business of carding wool and dressing cloth. During his apprenticeship he was treated with such injustice that he was glad to leave the place. At the close of his term Fillmore shouldered his knapsack, containing a few clothes and a supply of bread and dried venison, and set out, on foot and alone, for his father's house, a distance something more than a hundred miles through the primeval forests. Mr. Fillmore speaks of this episode in his autobiography, saying: "I think that this injustice—which was no more than other apprentices have suffered, and will suffer—had a marked effect on my character. It made me feel for the weak and unprotected and to hate the insolent tyrant in every station in life."

In 1815 he again began the business of carding and cloth dressing, which was carried on from June to December of each year. The first book that he purchased or owned was a small English dictionary, which he diligently studied while attending the carding machine. In 1819 he thought of studying law, but as he had yet two years of his apprenticeship to serve he proposed to compromise the matter with his employer by paying $30 for his time and relinquishing his wages for his last year's services. He effected an arrangement with a retired country lawyer, by which he was to receive his board in payment for services in the office. Thus he began the study of law, part of the time teaching school, and so struggling on, overcoming almost insurmountable difficulties, till at length, in the spring of 1823, he was admitted as an attorney by the Court of Common Pleas of Erie county. He had not really completed the course of study usually prescribed. The intercession of several leading members of the Buffalo bar, whose confidence he had won, enabled him, however, to obtain the coveted privilege to practice, which he began at Aurora, where his father then resided, and where he luckily won his first case and a fee of $4. In 1827 he was admitted as an attorney, and two years later as counselor of the Supreme Court of this State. In 1830 he removed to Buffalo, and after a brief period formed a partnership with Nathan K. Hall, to which Solomon G. Haven was soon after admitted.

By hard study and the closest application, Mr. Fillmore speedily became a sound and successful lawyer, eventually attaining a highly honorable position in the profession. His political career began and ended with the birth and the extinction of the Whig party. In 1828 he was elected by Erie county to the State Legislature of New York, serving for three terms, retiring with a reputation for ability, integrity and a conscientious performance of his duties. In 1826 he had married Miss Abigail Powers, the daughter of the Rev. Lemuel Powers, a step that served to lighten many of the burdens of the first years of his practice, as his wife proved herself to be a helpmate in the highest sense of the word. When, consequently, in 1832 he was elected to Congress he was quite settled in life, so far as a ripened experience of the world is concerned. He had seen more at the age of thirty-two than some men many years his senior. After serving for one term he retired till 1836, when, at the earnest solicitation of his friends, he again accepted a seat in Congress. At the time he took his seat in Congress the great conflict between President Jackson and Congress, on the subject of the National Bank was going on, and being fanned into greater heat by the leaders of the contending parties. The veto of the Bank Bill and the removal of the deposits had stirred the political opponents of Jackson until the greatest statesmen of the country were engaged in the discussion, and when Mr. Fillmore's voice could not be heard he was learning much as a silent observer. He was again returned to Congress in 1840, but declined a renomination in 1842. Although Mr. Fillmore did not claim to have discovered any original system of revenue, still the tariff of 1842 was a new creation, and he is most justly entitled to the distinction of being its author. It operated successfully, giving immediate life to our languishing industries and national credit. In the Whig Convention that met at Baltimore in May, 1844, he was a candidate for the office of Vice-President, supported by his own and several of the Western States. In the following September he was nominated by acclamation for Governor, but was defeated by Silas Wright, his illustrious contemporary, Henry Clay, being vanquished at the same time by James K. Polk in the Presidential contest. In 1847 Mr. Fillmore was elected Comptroller of the State of New York, an office which then included many duties now distributed among other departments. In his report of January 1, 1849, he suggested that a national bank, with the stocks of the United States as the sole basis upon which to issue its currency, might be established and carried on, so as to prove a great convenience to the Government, with perfect safety to the people. This idea involves the essential principle of our national banks. In June, 1848, Mr. Fillmore was nominated by the Whig National Convention for Vice-President, with General Zachary Taylor, who had recently won military renown in Mexico, as President. This ticket was successful, Mr. Fillmore being inaugurated as Vice-President on March 5, 1849. He had resigned the Comptrollership in February. More than seven months of a session in Congress had been exhausted in heated controversies, when, on July 9, 1850, the country was startled by the death of President Taylor. He passed away in the second year of his presidency. It was a critical moment in the history of the country when Millard Fillmore was made President of the United States, Wednesday, July 10, 1850. With great propriety he reduced the ceremony of his inauguration to an official act to be marked by solemnity, and not by pomp. He was, therefore, unostentatiously sworn into office in the Hall of Representatives in the presence of both Houses. Mr. Fillmore's administration being in a political minority in both Houses of Congress, many wise and admirable measures recommended by him failed of adoption ; nevertheless we are indebted to him for cheap postage ; for the extension of the National Capitol, the corner-stone of which he laid on the 4th of July, 1851 ; for the Perry treaty, opening the ports of Japan, and for various valuable exploring expeditions. Nothing in Mr. Fillmore's Presidential career was, during the closing years of his life, regarded with greater satisfaction than the suppressed portion of his last message of December 6, 1852, which related to the great political problem of the period—the balance of power between the free and the slave States. His plan was one of African colonization, somewhat similar to one seriously entertained by his successor, President Lincoln. Mr. Fillmore died in Buffalo, on the 8th of March, 1874.

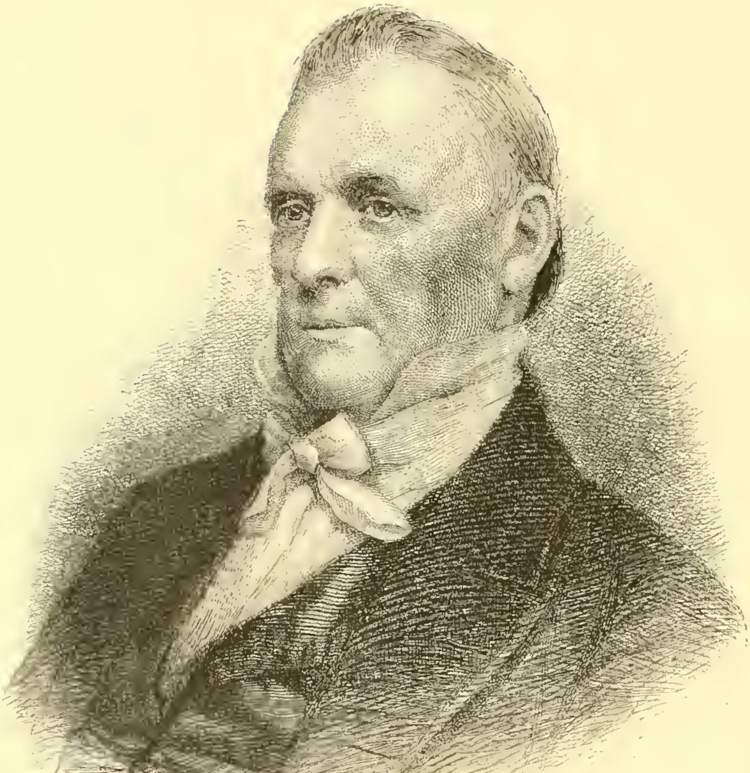
FRANKLIN PIERCE.

FRANKLIN PIERCE, the fourteenth President of the United States, was born in Hillsborough, New Hampshire, November 23, 1804. His father, General Benjamin Pierce, served throughout the Revolutionary War, and in 1827 and 1829 was Governor of New Hampshire. Franklin Pierce graduated at Bowdoin College in 1824, and studied law at Portsmouth, afterward in the law school at Northampton, Mass., and at Amherst, N. H. He was admitted to the bar in 1827, and began practice at Hillsborough. He was an ardent advocate of the election of General Jackson to the presidency. From 1829 to 1833 he represented the town of Hillsborough in the State Legislature, and in the last two years was the Speaker of the House. In 1833 he was elected to Congress, where he served on the judiciary and other important committees. He opposed the policy of internal improvements, the bill authorizing an appropriation for the military academy at West Point, and all anti-slavery measures. He remained a member of the House of Representatives till 1837, when he was elected to the United States Senate, of which he was the youngest member, being barely at the legal age. In 1842 he resigned his seat and returned to the practice of his profession at Concord, to which place he had removed from Hillsborough in 1838. In 1846 President Polk offered him the post of United States Attorney-General, which he declined. He also declined the Democratic nomination for Governor. He supported the annexation of Texas, in opposition to a considerable portion of the Democracy of New England, and in 1847 he enrolled himself a member of one of the first volunteer companies of Concord. On the passage by Congress of the bill for the increase of the army, he became Colonel of the Ninth Regiment, and shortly after was commissioned Brigadier General and joined the army under General Scott at Puebla, August 7, after several sharp engagements with guerillas on the way. In the battle of Contreras he was severely hurt by the falling of a horse, but continued during the day at the head of his brigade. In the battle of Churubusco, while leading his men against the enemy, he fell fainting from the pain of his injuries, but he refused to quit the field. After the battle General Scott appointed him one of the Commissioners to arrange the terms of an armistice. In December, the war being ended, he returned home, resigned his commission, and resumed the practice of the law. In 1850 he presided over the constitutional convention of New Hampshire. In 1852 the Democratic National Convention assembled at Baltimore, and after thirty-five ballotings for a candidate for President of the United States, the Virginia delegation brought forward the name of Franklin Pierce, and on the forty-ninth ballot he was nominated by 282 votes to eleven for all other candidates. His principal competitors were James Buchanan, Lewis Cass, W. L. Marcy and S. A. Douglas. At the ensuing election he received the votes of all the States except Massachusetts, Vermont, Kentucky and Tennessee, whose suffrages were given to General Winfield Scott. Of the votes of the Electoral College Pierce received 234 and Scott 42. In his inaugural address, March 4, 1853, President Pierce maintained that slavery was recognized by the Constitution, and that the fugitive slave law was constitutional and should be strictly executed, and denounced in strong terms the agitation of the slavery question. His Cabinet, which was not changed during his administration, was as follows: William L. Marcy of New York, Secretary of State; James Guthrie of Kentuky, Secretary of the Treasury; Jefferson Davis of Mississippi, Secretary of War; James C. Dobbin of North Carolina, Secretary of the Navy; Robert McClelland of Michigan, Secretary of the Interior; James Campbell of Pennsylvania,



Franklin Pierce

Postmaster-General; Caleb Cushing of Massachusetts, Attorney-General. Among the most important events of his administration were the dispute respecting the boundary between the United States and Mexico, resulting in the acquisition of Arizona; the exploration of the routes proposed for a railroad from the Mississippi to the Pacific; the amicable settlement of a serious dispute with Great Britain about the fisheries; the affair of Martin Koszta; the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, and the organization of the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska under the Kansas-Nebraska act; the Ostend Conference; the treaty negotiated at Washington in 1854 between the United States and Great Britain, providing for commercial reciprocity between this country and the Canadian provinces; the treaty with Japan negotiated in the same year by Commodore Perry; the filibustering invasion of Nicaragua by William Walker; the dismissal of the British Minister at Washington, and the British Consuls in New York, Philadelphia and Cincinnati, because of their complicity in the illegal enlistment of recruits for the British army, and the troubles in Kansas. President Pierce signed bills to reorganize the consular and diplomatic systems of the United States; to organize the Court of Claims; to provide a retired list for the navy, and to confer the title of Lieutenant General on Winfield Scott. He vetoed bills for the completion and improvement of certain public works; for appropriating public lands for the relief of the indigent insane; for the payment of the French spoliation claims, and for increasing the subsidy of the Collins Line of steamships. On January 24, 1856, he sent a message to Congress, in which he represented the formation of a Free-State government in Kansas as an act of rebellion, and justified the principles of the Kansas and Nebraska act. At the Democratic National Convention, in June, he was a candidate, but after several ballotings Mr. Buchanan was nominated. Before the adjournment of Congress, in August, 1856, the House of Representatives made an amendment to the army appropriation bill, providing that no part of the army should be employed to enforce the laws made by the territorial legislation of Kansas, until Congress should have decided that it was a valid legislative assembly. The Senate refused to concur in this proviso, and Congress adjourned without making any provision for the support of the army. The President immediately issued a proclamation calling an extra session to convene on Augest 21, when the army bill was passed without any proviso, and immediately afterward Congress adjourned. Pierce's message on the assembling of Congress in December, was chiefly devoted to the subject of Kansas, and in its citation of events and expressions of praise, it took strong grounds against the Free-State party of the country. Soon after the close of his administration, March 4, 1857, Mr. Pierce visited Madeira, and afterward made a protracted tour of Europe, returning home in 1860. He died in Concord on October 8, 1869.



James Buchanan

JAMES BUCHANAN.

JAMES BUCHANAN, fifteenth President of the United States, was born near Mercersburg, Pa., April 23, 1791. As the days of his youth were those of the nation's youth, he saw, during his public career of forty years, all our great extensions of boundary on the South and West, acquired from foreign powers; the admission of thirteen new States, the development of many important questions of internal and foreign policy, and the gradual rise and final culmination of a great and disastrous insurrection. He was educated at a school in Mercersburg and at Dickinson College, Pa., where he was graduated in 1809. He began to practice law in Lancaster in 1812. His early political principles were those of the Federalists, who disapproved of the war. His first public address was made at the age of twenty-three, on the occasion of a popular meeting in Lancaster after the capture of Washington by the British in 1814. He urged the enlistment of volunteers for the defense of Baltimore, and was among the first to enroll his name. In October of the same year he was elected to the House of Representatives in the Legislature of Pennsylvania for Lancaster county.

In October, 1815, he was again elected to the Legislature, and at the close of that session he retired to the practice of his profession, in which he gained early distinction. His intention at this time was not to re-enter public life, but the death of a young lady to whom he was engaged caused him to seek change and distraction of thought. He accepted a nomination to Congress, and was elected in 1820, taking his seat in December, 1821. He remained in the House of Representatives ten years—during Mr. Monroe's second term, through the administration of John Quincy Adams and during the first two years of Jackson's administration. In December, 1829, he became chairman of the Judiciary Committee of the House.

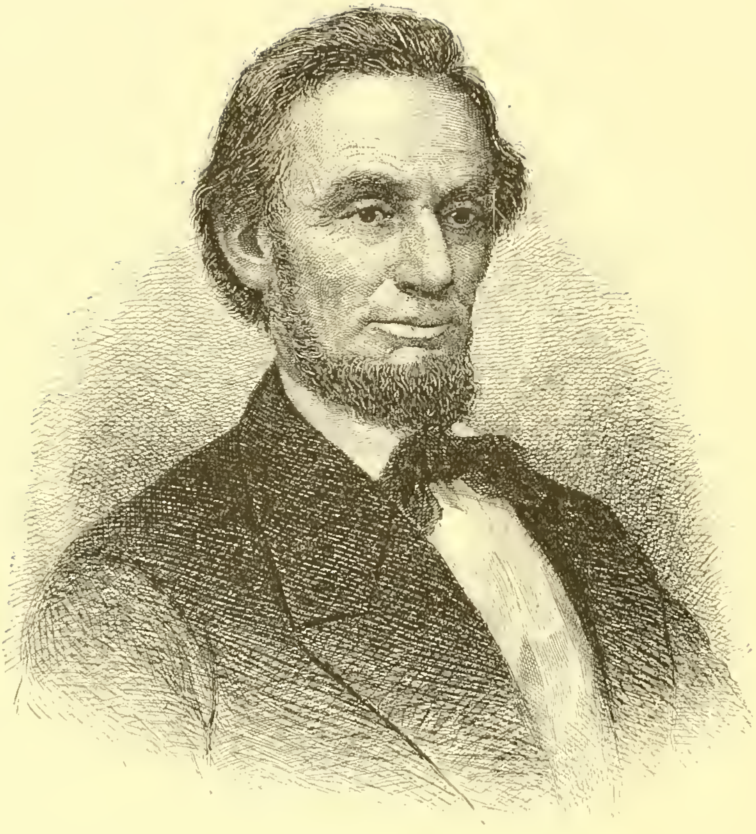
During Mr. Adams' term the friends of the administration began to take the name of National Republicans, while the opposing party assumed the name of Democrats. Mr. Buchanan was one of the leaders of the opposition in the House of Representatives. He was always a strong supporter and warm personal friend of General Jackson. At the close of the Twenty-first Congress, March, 1831, it was Mr. Buchanan's wish to retire from public life, but at the request of General Jackson—who had become President in 1829—he accepted the mission to Russia. He sailed from New York April 8, 1832, and arrived at St. Petersburg about the middle of June. The chief objects of his mission were the negotiation of a commercial treaty that should promote an increase of commerce between Russia and the United States by regulating the duties to be levied on the merchandise of each country by the other, so far as to prevent undue discrimination in favor of the products of other countries—to provide for the residence and functions of Consuls, etc., and also the negotiation of a treaty respecting the maritime rights of neutral nations on the principle that "free ships make free goods." He left St. Petersburg August 8, 1833, spent a short time in Paris and London, and reached home in November. On December 6, 1834, the Legislature of Pennsylvania elected him to the United States Senate.

Toward the end of Jackson's administration the subject of slavery began to be pressed upon the attention of Congress by petitions for its abolition in the District of Columbia. One memorial on this subject was presented by Mr. Buchanan himself from some Quakers in his own State. Mr. Calhoun and others objected to the reception of these petitions. Mr. Buchanan, though he disapproved of slavery, yet contended that Congress had no power under the Constitution to interfere with slavery within those States where it existed, and that it would be very unwise to abolish it in the District of Columbia; but nevertheless he also contended, in a long and forcible speech, for the people's right of petition, and the duty of Congress, save under exceptional circumstances, to receive their petitions.

Mr. Buchanan was conspicuous in the Senate as a supporter of Jackson's financial policy throughout his administration and that of his successor, Mr. Van Buren, of the same party. He had been re-elected to the Senate in January, 1837, by a very large vote and for a full term, his first election having been to a vacancy. He was the first person who had ever received a second election from the Legislature of Pennsylvania. In 1839 Mr. Van Buren offered him the Attorney-Generalship, but he declined, prefering his position as a Senator from Pennsylvania. In 1843 he was elected to the Senate for a third term, and in 1844 his name was brought forward as a Democratic candidate of Pennsylvania for the presidential nomination; but before the National Convention met he withdrew in order that the whole strength of the party might be concentrated upon one candidate. James K. Polk was elected, and Mr. Buchanan became his Secretary of State. Instead of carrying out the policy of President Polk and Mr. Buchanan, the administration of President Taylor caused such complications and misunderstandings between England and the United States in connection with the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, that Mr. Buchanan was obliged to go, subsequently, as Minister to London to straighten out matters. On the accession of the Whig party to power, under Taylor, in March, 1849, Mr. Buchanan retired for a time from official life. In 1852 Mr. Buchanan was a candidate for the presidency on the Democratic ticket, but General Franklin Pierce received the nomination and was elected. Under Pierce's administration he was appointed Minister to England, where he landed August 17, 1853. Upon the conclusion of his mission he returned to New York in April, 1856, meeting with a public reception from the authorities and people of the city, that evinced the interest that now began to be everywhere manifested in him as the probable future President. Chiefly through the efforts of Mr. Slidell, Mr. Buchanan was nominated. The main political issue was now slavery or no slavery. Mr. Buchanan was chosen President, because he received the electoral votes of the five free States of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Indiana, Illinois and California. Without them he could not have been elected. Mr. Buchanan was inaugurated on March 4, 1857. He has been often and severely reproached for a "temporizing policy" during his administration, and a want of such vigor as might have averted the civil war; but the policy of Mr. Lincoln's administration, until after the attack on Fort Sumter, was identical with that of Mr. Buchanan. It was the great misfortune of Mr. Buchanan's position that he had to appeal to a Congress in which there were two sectional parties breathing mutual defiance. On March 9, 1861, he returned to his home at Wheatland, a small estate of twenty-two acres, about a mile from the town of Lancaster, Pa., where he was welcomed by an immense gathering of his neighbors and the citizens of Lancaster. Here he lived for the remaining seven years of his life, dying in his seventy-eighth year. Mr. Buchanan's loyalty to the Constitution of the United States was unbounded. He was not a man of brilliant genius, nor did he ever do any one thing to make his name illustrious and immortal, as Webster did, when he defended the Constitution against the heresy of nullification, but in the course of a long, useful and consistent life, filled with the exercise of talents of a fine order and uniformability, he had made the Constitution of his country the object of his deepest affection, the constant guide of all his public acts.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN, the sixteenth President of the United States, was born in Hardin (now Larue) county, Kentucky, February 12, 1809. His ancestors were among the early settlers of Rockingham county, Va., whither they had come from Bucks county, Pa. His parents were both of Virginian birth. One year of schooling was all that Mr. Lincoln ever had. The few books within his reach he diligently read. In 1825 he managed a ferry across the Ohio for $6 a month. He was noted for his immense strength and agility, and for his skill as a wrestler. He was six feet four inches high. In 1828 he went to New Orleans as a "bow hand" on a flat boat, with a cargo of produce. In March, 1830, the family moved to Illinois, settling ten miles west of Decatur, where they built a log house on the north fork of the Sangamon, and cleared fifteen acres of land, for the fencing of which Abraham split the rails. After becoming of age he spent a year or two in working at odd jobs for the farmers of the neighborhood. His first public speech, made about this time, was on the navigation of the Sangamon river, and was delivered extemporaneously in reply to one by a candidate to the Legislature named Posey. He was clerk in a country store from August, 1831, till the spring of 1832, when his employer became bankrupt. During this time he piloted the first steamboat that attempted the navigation of the Sangamon. When the store was closed he enlisted as a private in a company raised for the Black Hawk War, but was at once chosen captain. When in the fall of 1832 he became a candidate for the Legislature, his political position was not very clearly defined; his principles accorded most nearly with those of the Whig party, then in process of formation, but he had a personal admiration for Jackson. He canvassed the district, but was defeated, though he received the almost unanimous vote of his own precinct. He next bought a store with a partner named Berry, and was Postmaster of New Salem from May, 1833, till 1836, when the office was discontinued. Berry proved a drunkard, and died soon after the firm became bankrupt. Lincoln paid the debts, discharging the last one in 1849. After studying law for a few months, Mr. Lincoln accepted an invitation from the County Surveyor, to become his deputy. He studied six weeks, entered upon the work, and soon became known as an expert surveyor; but in the autumn of 1834 his instruments were sold under a sheriff's execution. In the same year he was elected to the Legislature as a Whig, receiving a larger majority than any other candidate on the ticket. In the Legislature he was a member of the Committee on Public Accounts and Expenditures. He was re-elected in 1836 and served on the Finance Committee, and again in 1838 and 1840, in both of the latter terms being the Whig candidate for Speaker. Mr. Lincoln was admitted to the bar in 1837, and with John T. Stuart opened an office at Springfield, whither the Capitol of Illinois was removed in 1839. He became noted for his ability in jury trials, and finding that legislative service interfered with his practice, he declined another re-election. On November 4, 1842, he married Mary, daughter of the Hon. Robert S. Todd, of Lexington, Ky. Mr. Lincoln was a candidate for presidential elector in 1840, and again in 1844, and each time canvassed the State for the Whig candidates, being frequently pitted against Stephen A. Douglas in joint debate. He was a warm admirer of Henry Clay, whose defeat was a sore disappointment to him. Mr. Lincoln was elected to Congress in 1846. His first speech in Congress was made on January 12, 1848, in support of the famous "Spot Resolutions," which were in opposition to the policy of Polk's administration, condemning the war with Mexico as unjust, and calling upon

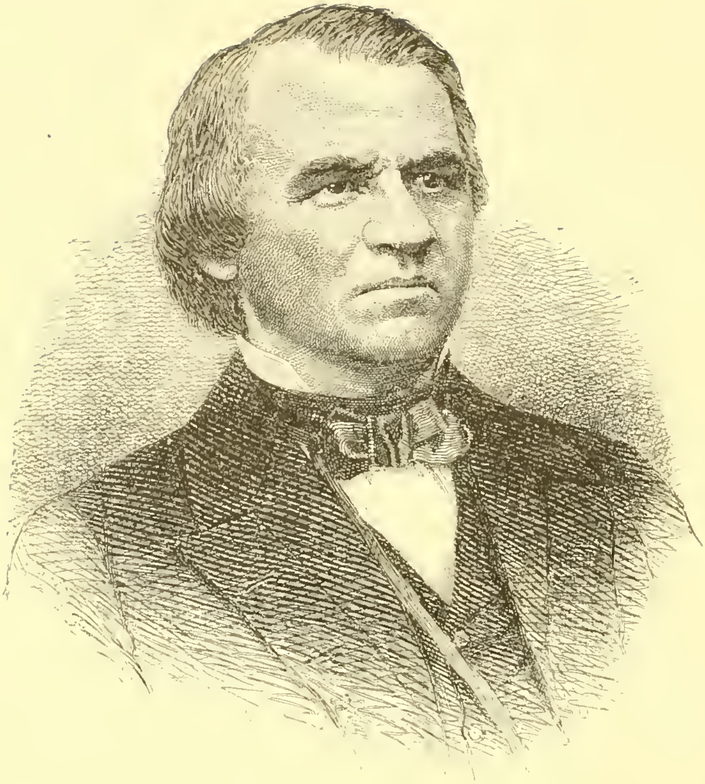


Your friend, as ever

A. Lincoln

the President to designate the spot where the alleged outrages had been committed by the Mexicans. On January 16, 1849, Mr. Lincoln introduced a bill for abolishing slavery in the District of Columbia, and for compensating the slave owners, provided a majority of the citizens should vote in favor of it. In 1849 he was an unsuccessful candidate for United States Senator against General Shields. President Fillmore offered him the Governorship of Oregon, which he declined. In the Republican National Convention of 1856, the Illinois delegation presented Mr. Lincoln's name for the vice-presidency, and on the informal ballot he received 110 votes, standing next to the Hon. Wm. L. Dayton, who was nominated. In June, 1858, the Republican Convention at Springfield nominated him for United States Senator in place of Stephen A. Douglas, who was a candidate for re-election. On a challenge from Lincoln, he and Douglas canvassed the State together, speaking in joint debate seven times. The outcome of this contention between the two was the now celebrated political campaign of 1860, with Lincoln and Hamlin as the nominees on the ticket of the Republican party, and John C. Breckinridge and Stephen A. Douglas, presidential nominees, respectively, of the extreme Southern and the Northern wings of the Democratic party. John Bell received the nomination of the "Constitutional Union" party, composed of anti-Lecompton Democrats, "Know-Nothings" and old-line Whigs. The result of the election on November 6, was the elevation to the presidency by the popular vote of Abraham Lincoln.

The most important act of President Lincoln's administration was his celebrated Emancipation Proclamation, in which he declared that on January 1, 1863, the slaves in all States or parts of States, which should then be in rebellion, should be proclaimed free. This was put forth September 22, 1862, five days after the battle of Antietam had defeated Lee's first attempt at invasion of the North, and was published on the first day of January following. Colored soldiers were first enlisted into the Federal service during Mr. Lincoln's administration, in January, 1863, and within the year their number reached 100,000, about 50,000 actually bearing arms; before the close of the war of the rebellion they numbered about 170,000. At the dedication of the cemetery in which the slain of the battle of Gettysburg were buried—November 19, 1863—President Lincoln made a brief address, which is perhaps the finest ever delivered on a similar occasion, and which has become familiar to the entire English-reading world. As the history of Mr. Lincoln's two administrations is also a history of the civil war, it would, consequently, be impossible to give a complete review of all the numerous and remarkable events of the period comprising them, within the space to which this brief sketch is confined. Mr. Lincoln was renominated June 8, 1864. He was at the head of the nation when precedents were worthless, and when no man could forecast the future. His conduct during that trying time was governed by the events of the day as they appealed to his love of justice and keen sense of the fitness of things. He was the most remarkable product of the remarkable possibilities of American life. From the poverty in which he was born, and through all his early social and financial embarrassments, and the fluctuations of popular politics, he rose to the championship of union and freedom when the two seemed utterly inconsistent, never lost his faith when both seemed hopeless, and he was suddenly snatched from life when both had been secured. On the evening of Good Friday, April 14, 1865, he was assassinated, while at Ford's Theatre, Washington, witnessing a performance of "Our American Cousin," by John Wilkes Booth, the actor an event that is now historical.



Andrew Johnson

ANDREW JOHNSON.

ANDREW JOHNSON, seventeenth President of the United States, was born in Raleigh, N. C., December 29, 1808. His parents were very poor. At the age of ten he was apprenticed to a tailor. A natural craving for learning was latent in the lad, and appears to have been given activity by hearing a gentleman read from an ordinary school text-book, "The American Speaker." He was taught the alphabet by fellow-workmen, then borrowed the "Speaker," and learned to read. In 1824 he worked as a journeyman tailor at Laurens Court House, S. C. He married Eliza McCardle in 1826, at Greenville, Tenn. She being a woman of refinement, was of great assistance to him, teaching him to write, and reading to him while he was at his work during the day. It was not until he had been in Congress that he learned to write with ease. While in Greenville he was elected an Alderman in 1828, having made himself prominent as the leader of the opposition to what was called then the "aristocratic coterie of the quality"—Tennessee being controlled in those days by landholders, whose interests were fostered by the State constitution, and Greenville itself being ruled by the "coterie" mentioned. Johnson's persistent resistance to the supremacy of the "coterie" caused his re-election in 1829 and 1830, the latter year advancing him to the mayoralty, which office he held for three years. Advocating in 1834 the adoption of the new State constitution, by which the influence of the large landholders was abridged, we find him representing in the following year the counties of Greene and Washington in the Legislature. Resisting the popular mania for internal improvements caused his defeat in 1837, but his return to the Legislature in 1839 was a final indorsement of his course in the beginning, the reaction apparently having justified his foresight, strengthened his influence and restored his popularity. In 1840 he was an elector for the State-at-large on Van Buren's ticket, and made a State reputation by the force of his oratory. He was elected to the State Senate in 1841 from Greene and Hawkins counties. He was in Congress in 1843, having been elected over John A. Asken, a United States Bank Democrat, who was supported by the Whigs. His first speech was in support of the resolution to restore to General Jackson the fine imposed upon him at New Orleans. In 1845 he was re-elected, and sustained Polk's administration, and was regularly elected until 1853. During this period he made his celebrated defense of the veto power and urged the adoption of the homestead law, which was obnoxious to the slaveholding power of the South. In 1853 he was made Governor. The district lines had been so "gerrymandered" as to throw him into a district in which the Whigs had an overwhelming majority. Having announced himself as a candidate, the result was his election by a fair majority. The homestead law and other measures for the benefit of the working classes were dwelt upon in his message to the Legislature, and earned him the title of the "mechanic Governor." He opposed the Know-Nothing movement with characteristic vehemence, and defeated Meredith P. Gentry, the Whig candidate, in 1855, after a remarkably exciting canvass. After his election to the United States Senate in 1857 he urged the passage of the homestead bill, and on May 20, 1858, made his greatest speech on that subject. He had the gratification in 1860 of seeing his favorite bill pass both Houses of Congress. President Buchanan vetoed it, however, and the veto was sustained. Johnson revived it at the next session, and also introduced a resolution looking to a retrenchment in the expenditures of the government, and on constitutional grounds opposed the grant of aid for the construction of a Pacific railroad. He was prominent in debate, and frequently clashed with

Southern supporters of the administration. His pronounced Unionism estranged him from the slaveholders on the one side, while his acceptance of slavery as an institution guaranteed by the Constitution caused him to hold aloof from the Republicans on the other. When Congress met he took decided and unequivocal grounds in opposition to secession, on December 13 introducing a joint resolution to amend the Constitution so as to elect the President and Vice-President by district votes, to elect Senators by a direct popular vote, and to limit the terms of Federal judges to twelve years, half of them to be from slaveholding and half from non-slaveholding States. In his speech on this resolution, December 18 and 19, he declared his unyielding opposition to secession, and announced his intention to stand by and act in and under the Constitution. The Southern States were then in the act of seceding, and every word uttered in Congress was read and discussed by thirty millions of people. Johnson's speech, coming from a Southern man, thrilled the popular heart, but his popularity in the North was offset by the virulence by which he was assailed in the South. Returning to Tennessee from Washington, he was attacked at Liberty, Va., by a mob, and drove them back with a pistol. At Lynchburg he was hooted and hissed, and at various places burned in effigy. He retained his seat in the Senate until appointed by President Lincoln military Governor of Tennessee, March 4, 1862, and while in that position made a superb record for himself, his singular moderation and discretion, though he had absolute and autocratic powers, strengthening the Union cause in Tennessee. At the Republican convention held in Baltimore June 6, 1864, Henry J. Raymond urging the name of Andrew Johnson for the vice-presidency, after Mr. Lincoln had been renominated for the presidency by acclamation, Johnson was according selected. He was inaugurated March 4, 1865, and upon the assassination of President Lincoln on April 14, 1865, Mr. Johnson was at once sworn in as President. On May 29, 1865, he declared a general amnesty to all except fourteen specified classes of citizens, among the number excepted being "all participants in the rebellion the estimated value of whose taxable property was over twenty thousand dollars." On April 29 he issued a proclamation for the removal of trade restrictions, and again, on May 9, a proclamation restoring Virginia to the Union, while on May 22 all ports except four in Texas were opened to foreign commerce, so that it was quite evident that a change had taken place in the President's sentiments. After the amnesty proclamation, the fundamental and irreconcilable difference between President Johnson and the party that had elected him to power became more apparent. The first breach between them was the veto of the Freedman's Bureau bill in February, 1866. Johnson's opposition to the Civil Rights bill, his disapproval of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, his veto of the second Freedman's Bureau bill, and of the giving negroes the right of suffrage in the District of Columbia, finally brought about an attempt to impeach him, which, however, failed. He vetoed the bill admitting Nebraska, and the tenure of office bill. His removal of Edwin M. Stanton from the Secretaryship of War led to further trouble for him. On February 24, 1868, the House passed a resolution to impeach him. The trial began on March 5. On May 16 the test vote was had. Thirty-five Senators were for conviction and nineteen for acquittal. A change of one vote would have carried conviction. The Senate adjourned *sine die*, and a verdict of acquittal was entered. After the expiration of his term Mr. Johnson returned to Tennessee. He was a candidate for the United States Senate, but was defeated. He was defeated in 1872 for Congressman from the State-at-large, but yet regained his hold upon the people of the State sufficiently to take his seat in the Senate at the extra session of 1875. On his return home at the end of the session he was stricken with paralysis, July 29, and died the next day. He was buried at Greenville.

ULYSSES S. GRANT.

ULYSSES S. GRANT, eighteenth President of the United States, was born at Point Pleasant, O., April 27, 1822. His ancestors were Scotch. In 1823 his parents removed to the village of Georgetown, O., where his boyhood was passed. He entered West Point Military Academy in 1839. His name was originally Hiram Ulysses, but the appointment was blunderingly made out for Ulysses S., and so it had to remain. The study in which he showed most proficiency during his course at the Academy was mathematics. He graduated in 1843, ranking twenty-first in a class of thirty-nine, and was made a brevet second lieutenant of infantry and attached as a supernumerary lieutenant to the Fourth Regiment, which was stationed on the Missouri frontier.

In the summer of 1845 the regiment was ordered to Texas to join the army of General Taylor. On September 30 Grant was commissioned as a full lieutenant. He first saw blood shed at Palo Alto, May 8, 1846, and took part also in the battles of Resacos de la Palma and Monterey and the siege of Vera Cruz. After the battle of Molino del Rey, September 8, 1847, he was appointed on the field a first lieutenant for his gallantry. He was brevetted captain for brave conduct at Chapultepec, to date from the battle.

In 1848 he married Miss Julia T. Dent, of St. Louis, a sister of one of his classmates. In 1852 he accompanied his regiment to California and Oregon, and while at Fort Vancouver, August 5, 1853, he was commissioned full captain, after which he was not in public life again until the civil war broke out. Then he was chosen to command a company of volunteers, with which he marched to Springfield, where he was retained as an aide to Governor Yates, and acted as mustering officer of Illinois volunteers until he became Colonel of the Twenty-first Regiment, his commission dating from June 17, 1861.

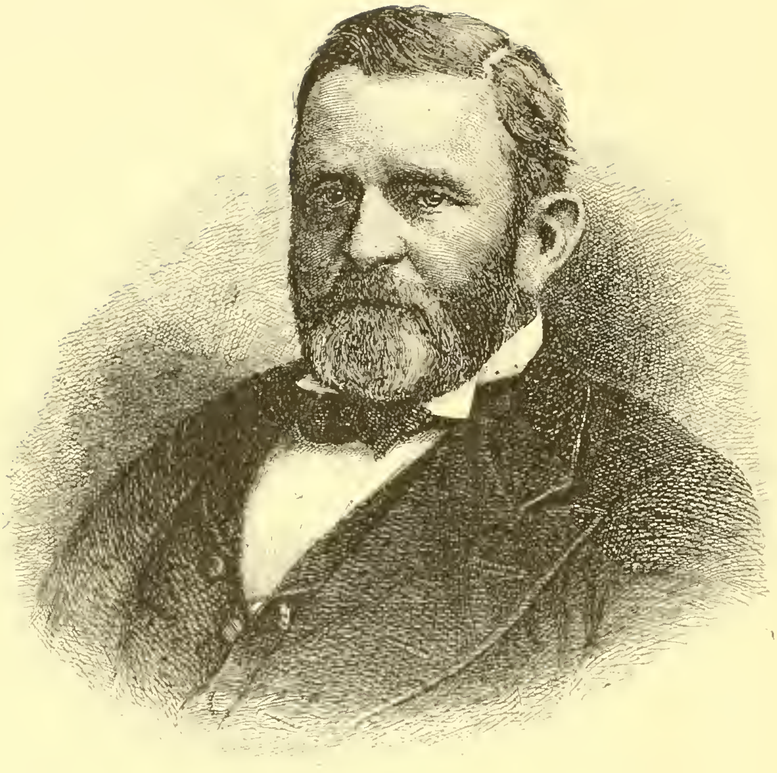
He joined his regiment at Mattoon, organized and drilled it at Caseyville, and then crossed into Missouri, where it formed part of the guard of the Hannibal and Hudson Railroad. On July 31 he was placed in command of the troops at Mexico, forming a part of General Pope's force. On August 23 he was promoted to be Brigadier-General of Volunteers, the commission being dated back to May 17, and assumed command of the troops at Cairo.

The capture by Grant, on February 16, of Fort Donelson, with all its defenders, except General Floyd's brigade, was the first brilliant and substantial victory that crowned the Federal arms.

In answer to the proposal of General Buckner, the commander of Fort Donelson, that commissioners be appointed to arrange the terms of capitulation, Grant wrote: "No terms other than an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately on your works." To the gratification at so great a military success was added a popular admiration of the terse and soldierly declaration in which the surrender had been demanded, and the hero of the affair sprang at once into national celebrity. He was immediately commissioned Major-General of Volunteers, to date from February 16. After the battle of Pittsburgh Landing, when Grant was slightly wounded, he became Commander of the Department of West Tennessee, with headquarters at Corinth.

After securing the surrender of Vicksburg, on July 4, 1863, Grant was promoted to the rank of Major-General in the regular army.

His defense of Chattanooga, which was threatened by Bragg, was mentioned by General Halleck in his annual report as, in his opinion, the most remarkable battle in



U. S. Grant

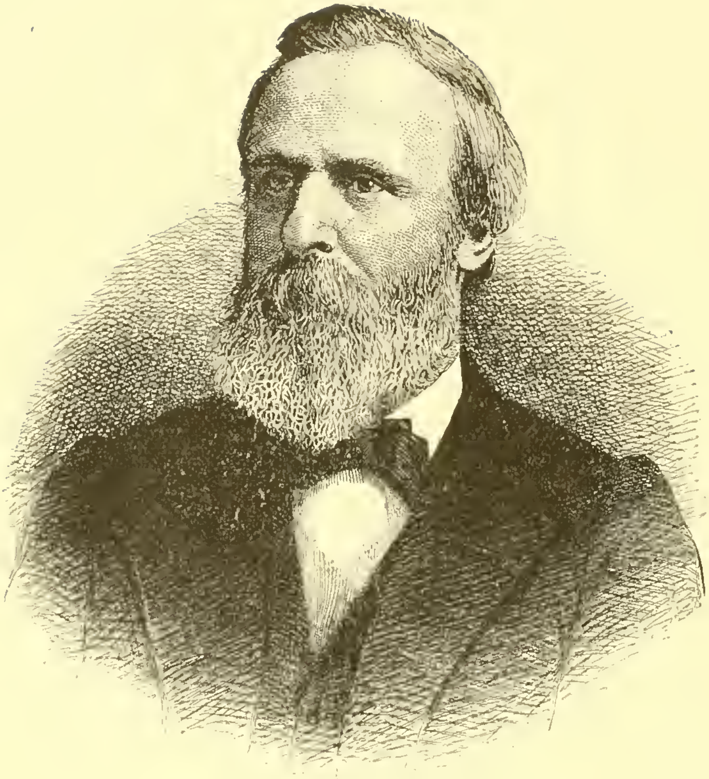
history, considering the strength of the rebel position and the difficulty of storming his entrenchments. The first measure passed in the Congressional session of 1863-64 was a resolution providing that a gold medal be struck for General Grant, and returning thanks to him and his army. Resolutions of thanks were also passed by the Legislatures of New York and Ohio. A bill reviving the grade of Lieutenant-General in the army was passed by Congress, and on March 1, 1864, received the signature of President Lincoln, who at once nominated General Grant for the position. The Senate confirmed the nomination on the following day.

After receiving his commission, upon his arrival in Washington on March 9, Grant issued his first general order on the 17th, dated at Nashville, in which he announced, upon thus assuming command of the armies of the United States, that headquarters would be in the field, and, until further orders, with the army of the Potomac. Not before during the civil war had any one General in the field commanded all the National armies. Grant, with nearly 700,000 men in the field, at once planned two campaigns, to be directed simultaneously against vital points of the Confederacy by two chief armies under his command: the one under General Meade to operate against Richmond, defended by Lee: the other, under General Sherman, against Atlanta, defended by Johnston.

Grant's first attempt in his movement against Richmond was foiled by the bloody battle of the Wilderness, Lee, having been apprised in time, boldly taking the offensive and striking the Federal columns while they were on the march. After a number of flanking movements by Grant's army were foiled, and Lee being neither defeated in the open field nor cut off from Richmond, the great problem of the war instantly narrowed itself down to a siege of Petersburg, which Grant now began.

Lee's attempt to create a diversion by an invasion of Maryland and an attack on Washington failed, Sheridan ultimately driving back the invaders up the valley of the Shenandoah; while in Georgia, Johnston was unable to check the advance of Sherman, and his successor in command, Hood, was forced to evacuate Atlanta, and lost his army before Nashville. The siege of Petersburg ended, after the victory at Five Forks, in the beginning of April, 1865, when Richmond was evacuated and Lee retreated westward toward Danville, followed closely by Grant, who finally compelled the surrender of his remaining force, at Appomattox Court House, April 9.

Upon the conclusion of the war, Grant fixed his headquarters at Washington, where, on July 25, 1866, he was commissioned General of the United States Army, the rank having been created for him. On August 12, 1867, when President Johnson suspended Secretary Stanton from office, General Grant was made Secretary of War *ad interim*, and held the position until January 14, 1868, when he returned it to Mr. Stanton, whose removal the Senate had refused to sanction. At the Republican National Convention held in Chicago, May 21, 1868, General Grant on the first ballot was unanimously nominated for President, with Schuyler Colfax for Vice-President. He was inaugurated on March 4, 1869. At the National Republican Convention held in Philadelphia, June 5, 1872, President Grant was renominated by acclamation, and Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts, received the nomination for Vice-President. Grant retired from office at the close of his second term, March 4, 1877, and on the 17th of May embarked at Philadelphia, with his wife and his eldest son, for a tour around the world. He visited nearly every country of Europe, and then India, Burmah, China and Japan. After being the recipient of many distinguished honors while abroad, he returned September 20, 1879, landing at San Francisco. At the close of the year he visited the West Indies and Mexico. He died, as is well known, after a long and painful illness, during which he had the sympathy not only of his own country, but of the people of all foreign lands to which his fame had spread, on July 23, 1885.



Sincerely

R. B. Hayes

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

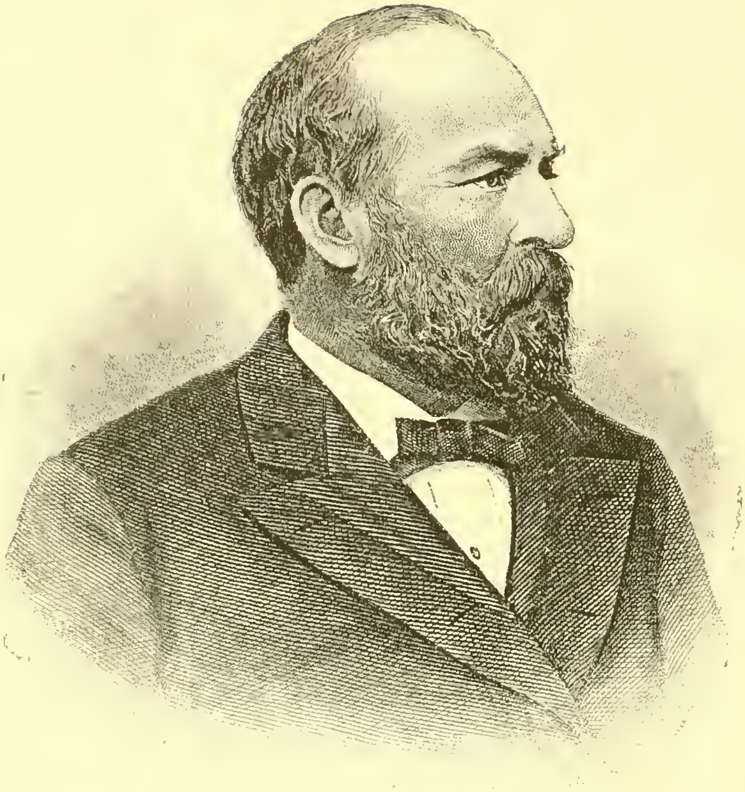
RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD HAYES, nineteenth President of the United States, was born at Delaware, O., October 4, 1822. His parents were originally from Vermont. They removed to Ohio in 1817. Mr. Hayes' father, who was a country merchant, died four months before his son's birth. The latter graduated Valedictorian at Kenyon College in 1842. He studied law at Harvard, and was admitted to the bar at Marietta, O., in 1845. He began to practice at Lower Sandusky, but in 1850 removed to Cincinnati, where two years later he married Lucy W., daughter of Dr. James Webb. In 1856 he was an unsuccessful candidate for Judge of the Common Pleas Court. He was appointed City Solicitor to fill a vacancy in 1859, and subsequently was elected to the office, but in 1861 was defeated for re-election. In June of that year he was appointed Major of the Twenty-third Ohio Infantry, which was assigned to duty in West Virginia. In September Major Hayes was appointed Jugde Advocate of the Department of the Ohio. He only filled this office for about two months, being made a Lieutenant Colonel in October. In command of his regiment, he distinguished himself at the battle of South Mountain, September 14, 1862, where he was severely wounded in the arm by a musket ball. The next month he was appointed Colonel of his regiment. In 1864 he commanded a brigade in General Cook's expedition to cut the communications between Richmond and the Southwest, and led the force that successfully stormed the works at Cloyd Mountain. In the first battle of Winchester, July 24, 1864, he displayed great personal bravery while leading off on foot his brigade, which was overpowered by numbers. At the battle of Berryville he led his brigade into action; and at the battle of Opequan, September 19, he was the first man of his command to pass over the slough. In the battle of Cedar Creek, October 19, he played a prominent part, and his horse was shot under him. Ten days afterward he was commissioned Brigadier General, and in March, 1865, he was made a Major General by brevet "for gallant services during the campaign of 1864 in West Virginia, and particularly at the battles of Fisher's Hill and Cedar Creek, Va." During the war he was wounded four times. In the autumn of 1864 he had been elected to represent one of the Cincinnati districts in Congress. He took his seat in December, 1865, and was made Chairman of the Library Committee. He was re-elected in 1866. While in Congress he took little part in debate, but accomplished a large amount of work. In 1867 he was elected Governor of Ohio over Judge Thurman by a majority of 2983, and, resigning his seat in Congress, was inaugurated on January 13, 1868. In 1869 he was re-elected Governor by 7506 majority over George H. Pendleton. Declining another election as Governor, he became, in 1872, a candidate for Congress, but was defeated by General H. B. Banning. In January, 1874, a wealthy uncle, Sardis Birchard, who had educated him and been an intimate friend of his all his life, died, leaving him a considerable estate. The campaign of 1875 in Ohio was looked upon as of national importance, chiefly because it turned on the financial issue. The Republicans again nominated General Hayes, and he was elected over Governor William Allen by a majority of 5544. In March, 1876, the Ohio Republican Convention recommended his nomination for the presidency at the National Convention in Cincinnati, June 15, 1876. He received on the first ballot sixty-one votes, forty-four of which were those of his own State. His vote steadily increased, until on the seventh ballot, all the opponents of Mr. Blaine having united in favor of Governor Hayes, he was nominated by 384 votes, to 351 for the former and 21 for Benjamin H. Bristow.

In his letter of acceptance of his nomination by the National Republican Convention, dated July 8, 1876, Mr Hayes laid especial stress upon three points—civil service reform, the currency, and the pacification of the South. The Democrats nominated for the presidency Samuel J. Tilden, who, having as Governor of the State of New York won the reputation of a reformer, attracted the support of many Republicans who were dissatisfied with their party. The result of the election became the subject of acrimonious dispute. Both parties claimed to have carried the States of Louisiana, South Carolina and Florida. Each charged fraud upon the other, the Republicans affirming that Republican voters, especially colored men, all over the South, had been deprived of their rights by intimidation or actual force, and that ballot boxes had been foully dealt with, and the Democrats insisting that their candidates in Louisiana, Florida and South Carolina had received a majority of the votes actually cast, and that the Republican canvassing boards were preparing to falsify the result in making up the returns. The friends of both the candidates for the presidency sent prominent men into the States in dispute, for the purpose of watching the proceedings of the canvassing boards. The canvassing boards of the States in question declared the Republican electors chosen, which gave Mr. Hayes a majority of one vote in the electoral college, and the certificates of these results were sent to Washington by the Governors of the States. But the Democrats persisted in charging fraud, and other sets of certificates, certifying the Democratic electors to have been elected, arrived at Washington. To avoid a deadlock, which might have happened if the canvass of the electoral votes had been left to the two Houses of Congress (the Senate having a Republican and the House of Representatives a Democratic majority) an act, advocated by members of both parties, was passed to refer all contested cases to a commission, composed of five Senators, five Representatives and five Judges of the Supreme Court—the decision of this commission to be final, unless set aside by a concurrent vote of the two Houses of Congress. The commission, refusing to go behind the certificates of the Governors, decided in each contested case by a vote of eight to seven in favor of the Republican electors, beginning with Florida on February 7, and Rutherford B. Hayes was at last, on March 2, declared duly elected President of the United States. Thus ended the long and painful suspense. The decision was generally acquiesced in, and the popular excitement subsided quickly. President Hayes was inaugurated on March 5, 1877. Mr. Hayes began his administration with earnest efforts for the reform of the civil service, but his recommendations to Congress were unheeded. The dissatisfaction of Republican Senators and Representatives with the endeavors of the administration in the direction of civil service reform found vent in various attacks upon the President and the heads of departments. The administration of President Hayes was, however, on the whole, very satisfactory to the people at large, although much attacked by the politicians of both parties. By withdrawing the Federal troops from the Southern State houses, and restoring to the people of those States practical self-government, it prepared the way for that revival of patriotism among those lately estranged from the Union, that fraternal feeling between the two sections of the country, and the wonderful material advancement of the South which we now witness. It conducted with wisdom and firmness the preparations for the resumption of specie payments, as well as the funding of the public debt at lower rates of interest, and thus facilitated the development of the remarkable business prosperity that continued to its close. While in its endeavors to effect a thorough and permanent reform of the civil service, there were conspicuous lapses and inconsistencies, it accomplished important and lasting results. On the expiration of his term Mr. Hayes retired to his home at Fremont, O.

JAMES A. GARFIELD.

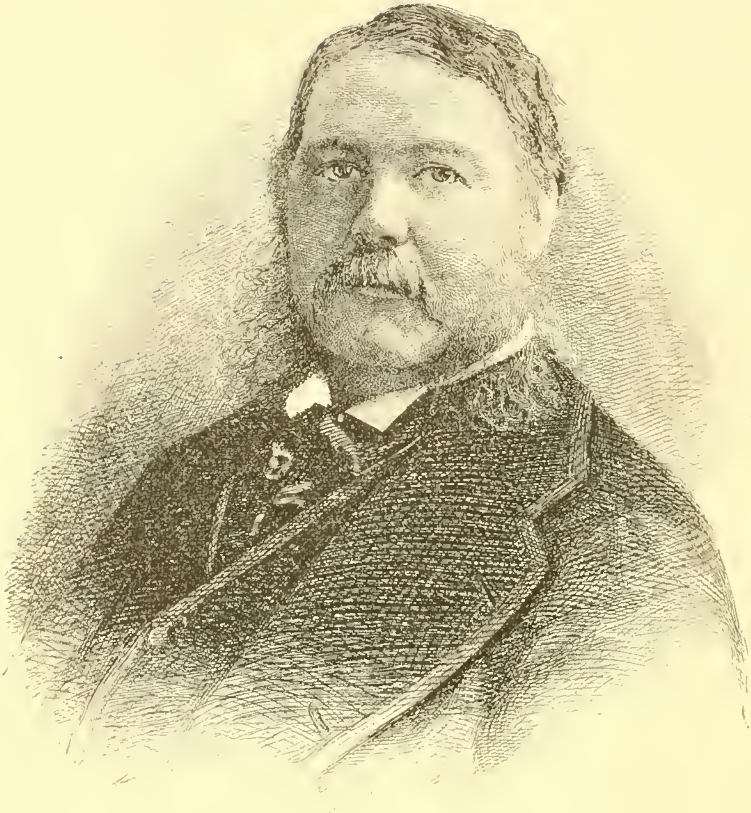
JAMES ABRAM GARFIELD, twentieth President of the United States, was born in Orange, Cuyahoga county, O., on November 19, 1831. He was from lineage well represented in the struggles for civil and religious liberty, both in the Old and in the New World. His father, Abram Garfield, was a native of New York, but of Massachusetts ancestry. He was descended from Edward Garfield, an English Puritan, who, in 1630, was one of the founders of Watertown. His mother, Eliza Ballou, was born in New Hampshire, of a Huguenot family that fled from France to New England after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, in 1685. Abram Garfield, the father of the future President, moved to Ohio in 1830, and settled in what was then known as "The Wilderness," now as the "Western Reserve," which was occupied by Connecticut people. He made a prosperous beginning in his new home, but, after a sudden illness, died, leaving a widow with four small children, of whom James was the youngest. The mother brought up her family unaided. In the lonely cabin which was then their home, she impressed upon them a high standard of moral and intellectual worth, her hymns and songs cheering them in their tasks. Work was but play under such stimulus. At three years of age James A. Garfield went to school in a log hut. He learned to read there. There, too, began that habit of omnivorous reading which ended only with his life. At ten years of age he was accustomed to manual labor. The winter days at school were the goal of his ambition. Work always yielded its claim to their influence. By the time he was fourteen he had a fair knowledge of arithmetic and grammar. He was particularly apt in the facts of American history, which he had early gathered from the scant sources of his remote abode in the wilderness. He read and reread everything within his reach. He was, too, a constant student of the Scriptures. Much of the dignity and earnestness of his literary styles, his contemporary and friend Mr. Blaine attributes to their influence. He was fond of stories of adventure and of the sea, and came near shipping as a sailor at one time, owing to the effect of them upon his imagination. During the winter of 1849–50 he attended the Geauga Seminary at Chester, O., where he met his future wife, Miss Lucretia Rudolph, in whom he discovered a congeniality of intellectual pursuits, and a sympathy in tastes and ambition, that paved the way for the one great love of his life. In the vacations he learned and practiced the trade of a carpenter. He helped at the harvest, too—taught—did anything—everything—to get money to pay for his schooling. After the first term he asked and needed no aid from home. He had reached that stage of self-dependence when he could do without help from anyone. He had a handsome, robust personality. He was strong, fearless, ready for any emergency. He was converted, too, at this period to "Campbellism." His nature was profoundly stirred by it.

Upon finishing his studies in Chester he entered, in 1851, the Hiram Eclectic Institute, now Hiram College, at Hiram, Portage county, O., the principal educational institution of his sect. He was not quick of acquisition. His indomitable perseverance, however, conquered all difficulties. He was enabled to enter Williams College in the autumn of 1854. He was graduated with the highest honors from that institution in the class of '56. In the next six years he was a college president, a State Senator, a Major-General in the national army, and a representative-elect to the National Congress. American annals reveal no other promotion so rapid and so varied. But Garfield, despite all this, was not born, but made. He made himself by persistent, strenuous, conscientious study and work. He was the product, at his graduation, of



J. A. Garfield

twenty-five years of most varied discipline, cheerfully accepted and faithfully used. After being a teacher of Latin and Greek for one year at Hiram Institute, upon his return to Ohio, he was made its president at the age of twenty-six. He became an intellectual and moral force in the Western Reserve. In 1858 he entered his name as a student in a law office in Cleveland, studying in Hiram. Without solicitation or thought on his part he was sent, in 1859, to represent the counties of Summit and Portage in the Senate of Ohio. The war came. He who had been farmer, carpenter, student, teacher, lawyer, preacher and legislator, was to show himself an excellent soldier. In August, 1861, Governor Wm. Dennison commissioned him Lieutenant-Colonel in the Forty-second Regiment of Ohio Volunteers. The men were his old pupils at Hiram College, whom he had persuaded to enlist. His first victory was at Middle Creek, January 10, 1862, one of the most important of the minor battles of the war. He had been assigned the task of driving the Confederate General Humphrey Marshall from eastern Kentucky, after having been given by General Buell the command of a brigade, owing to the soldierly condition of his regiment, and the confidence with which he had impressed that officer, who allowed the young soldier to lay his own plans, though on their success hung the fate of Kentucky. In recognition of this signal service to the cause, which had an encouraging effect upon the entire North, President Lincoln promptly made the young Colonel a Brigadier-General, dating his commission from the battle of Middle Creek. The campaign upon the Big Sandy—Shiloh—Corinth—the campaign in middle Tennessee—and his experience at Chicamauga (June 24, 1863), when he was promoted to the rank of a Major-General upon a field that was lost—suggested a brilliant military future. He yielded his ambition in this direction, nevertheless, to Mr. Lincoln's urgent request, resigned his commission December 3, 1863, and hastened to Washington to sit in Congress, to which he had been chosen fifteen months before, as the successor of John R. Giddings. He was thirty-two years old when he entered Congress, and no longer a bachelor, having married his old schoolmate, Miss Lucretia Rudolph, November 11, 1858, in Hudson, O., soon after his accession to the presidency of the college. The House was to be the theatre of his lasting fame. His first speech was made on the 14th of January, 1864, upon a motion to print extra copies of General Rosecrans' official report. He was soon regarded as an authority on military matters. He reached, perhaps, the climax of his Congressional career during the extra session of the Forty-fifth Congress (1879) when, like Webster in 1832, he stood the defender of the Constitution, and his splendid eloquence and resistless logic upheld the prerogatives of the executive, and denounced the attempts that had been made by the Legislature to prevent or control elections, however disguised, as an attack upon the Constitution. His last speech to the House was made on the appointment of special deputy marshals, April 23, 1880. He was already United States Senator-elect from Ohio, having been chosen after a nomination of singular unanimity January 13, 1880. He was elected to the presidency over his competitor, General Winfield Scott Hancock, November 2, 1880, and his inaugural address of March 4, 1881, proved satisfactory to the people generally. The early summer came. Peace and happiness, and the growing strength of his administration, cheered his heart. He was setting out on a trip to New England to attend commencement exercises at his alma mater—Williams College. He was passing through the waiting-room of the Baltimore and Potomac depot, at nine o'clock on the morning of July 2, leaning on the arm of Mr. Blaine, when he was shot by a disappointed office-seeker, the first ball passing through his coat sleeve, the second entering by the back, fracturing a rib and lodging deep in the body. The end came, after weeks of suffering, at Elberon, N. J., September 19, 1881. The drama of his life was over.



C. A. Arthur

CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

CHESTER ALAN ARTHUR, twenty-first President of the United States, was born in Fairfield, Vt., October 5, 1830. He was the son of a Baptist clergyman, who emigrated from Ireland when eighteen years of age, published "The Antiquarian" for several years, and was the author of "Family Names" (New York, 1857). The son was graduated at Union College, Schenectady, in 1848, taught school in Vermont, was admitted to the bar in 1853, and settled in New York city. His first notable case was the Lemmon slave case, in which he was the attorney for the people, the Hon. William M. Evarts being the leading counsel on the same side. They maintained that eight slaves, with whom Jonathan Lemmon, of Virginia, attempted to pass through New York, were rendered free by the act of the master involuntarily bringing them into free territory; and on the successive appeals this view was sustained. In 1856 Mr. Arthur was counsel for a colored woman who had been expelled from a street car in New York city on account of her color, and obtained a verdict against the company, whereby the equal rights of colored people in public vehicles were established. From the first organization of the Republican party he was widely known as a most active and influential politician. In January, 1861, he was appointed, by Governor Morgan, Engineer-in-Chief, and a year later Quartermaster-General of the State forces, holding this office till January 1, 1863. He conducted the duties of his office in equipping, supplying and forwarding the immense number of troops furnished by his State with such success that his accounts were audited and allowed at Washington without deduction, while those of some of the States were reduced by millions of dollars. It has also been said that, while he had the giving of many large and profitable contracts and the control of enormous purchases, he left the office of Quartermaster-General poorer than when he took it. In 1862 there was a secret meeting of loyal Governors, to discuss measures for providing troops, at which Mr. Arthur was present by invitation, being the only person taking part who was not the Governor of a State.

Many instances are related of the notably vigorous administration of his military office. In 1863 General Arthur returned to the practice of law and built up a large business in collecting claims against the government. He also drafted many important measures of legislation, and promoted their adoption, both at Washington and Albany. For a short time he was counsel of the New York Board of Tax Commissioners. Meantime he took an active part in local politics, and became known for his skill as an organizer and manager. He was Collector of the Port of New York from November, 1871, till July, 1878, when he was removed by President Hayes. Two special committees investigated Mr. Arthur's administration of the Collector's office and reported nothing on which a charge of official dereliction could be based. Both the President and the Secretary of the Treasury, in connection with his suspension, acknowledged the purity of his official acts. A petition for his retention in office, signed by all the Judges of the New York Courts, most of the prominent members of the bar, and nearly all the importing merchants of the city, was suppressed by Mr. Arthur himself. The only accusation made against him was that of disregarding the President's order in respect to active participation in political management.

After his removal from office he resumed his law practice. The Republican National Convention which met in June, 1880, nominated General Arthur without opposition for Vice-President on the presidential ticket with General Garfield, and he was elected in November. In the contest between the President and Senators Conkling and Platt in regard to appointments in the State of New York, the Vice-President supported the Senators and headed a remonstrance signed by them and by Postmaster-General James, addressed to the President, condemning the appointment of William H. Robertson for Collector of the Port of New York, and asking that the nomination be withdrawn. After the resignation of the New York Senators, General Arthur went to Albany and actively participated in the effort to secure their re-election. On the death of Garfield, September 19, 1881, he became President. His inaugural address was explicit, judicious and reassuring, and his purpose not to administer his high office in the spirit of former faction, although by it he lost some friendships, did much toward healing the dissensions with the dominant party. The factional feeling in the Republican party, which the year before had resulted in the nomination of Garfield for President, as the representative of one faction, and of himself for Vice-President, as the representative of the other, had measurably subsided during the canvass and the following winter, only to break out anew immediately after the inauguration of the new administration, and a fierce controversy was raging when the assassination of President Garfield convulsed the nation and created the gravest apprehensions. Cruel misjudgments were formed and expressed by men who would now hesitate to admit them. The long weeks of alternating hope and fear that preceded the President's death, left the public mind perturbed and restless. Doubt and uneasiness were everywhere apparent. The delicacy and discretion displayed by General Arthur as Vice-President had compelled approval, but had not served wholly to disarm prejudice, and when he took the murdered President's place, the whole people were in a state of tense and anxious expectancy, of which, doubless, he was most painfully conscious. All fears, however, were speedily and happily dispelled, President Arthur's conservative course commanding universal confidence, preserving public order and promoting business activity. His conduct was the wisest and most desirable that was possible. If apparently negative in itself, it was positive, far-reaching and most salutary in its results. The service, which at this crisis in public affairs he thus rendered to the country, must be accounted the greatest of his personal achievements, and the most important result of his administration.

His administration, considered as a whole, was responsive to every national demand, and stands in all its departments substantially without assault or criticism. He died suddenly of apoplexy at his residence in New York, Thursday morning, November 18, 1886. In person, President Arthur was tall, large, well-proportioned, and of a handsome and distinguished presence. He was genial in domestic and social life, and warmly beloved by his friends. He conducted his official intercourse with unvarying courtesy, and dispensed the liberal hospitalities of the executive mansion with ease and dignity, and in such a way as to meet universal commendation from citizens and foreigners alike. He had a full and strong mind, literary taste and culture, a retentive memory, and was apt in illustration by analogy and anecdote. He reasoned coolly and logically, and was never onesided. The style of his papers is simple and direct. He was eminently conscientious, wise and just in purpose and act as a public official; had always the courage to follow his deliberate convictions, and remained unmoved by importunity or attack. He married, on October 29, 1859, Ellen Lewis Herndon of Fredericksburg, Va., who died January 12, 1880, leaving two children, Chester Alan Arthur and Ellen Herndon Arthur.

GROVER CLEVELAND.

GROVER CLEVELAND, the twenty-second President of the United States, was born at Caldwell, a small town of Essex county, in the State of New Jersey, on the 18th day of March, 1837.

On the paternal side, young Grover was of English extraction, and the salient features of his genealogy may be briefly epitomized as follows:

Moses Cleveland emigrated from Ipswich, a town of Suffolk county, in England, in 1635, and settled at Woburn, one of the pioneer villages of Massachusetts, where he lived, prospered in business, and died in 1701. He left a grandson, Aaron, whose son in turn, also Aaron by name, was the great-great-grandfather of Grover Cleveland.

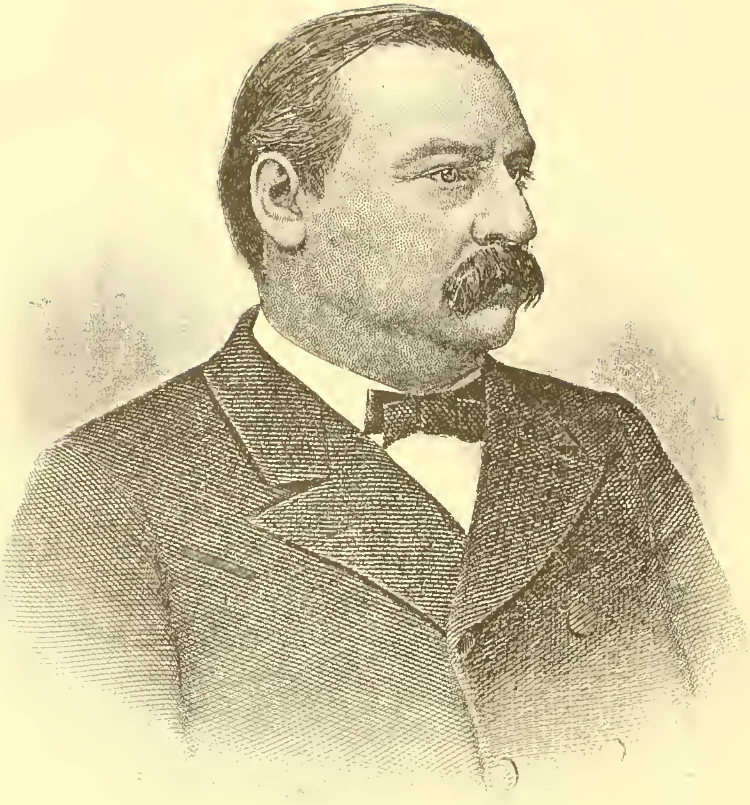
The sons of this second Aaron Cleveland moved from the old homestead in Massachusetts to Norwich, Conn., where William, the eldest, became locally famous as a cunning worker in silver and skillful watchmaker.

His son, Richard Falley Cleveland, early in life developed studious habits, and upon his graduation from Yale College, in 1824, was ordained to the Presbyterian ministry, and, after a lapse of four years devoted to theological study, married Anne Neal, daughter of a Baltimore merchant, of Irish birth. These two were the parents of Grover Cleveland. When four years of age his father accepted a call to Fayetteville, near Syracuse, N. Y., where young Cleveland's scholastic training commenced. The next move of the minister's family was to Clinton, Oneida county, N. Y., where Grover's academic career was continued and completed.

At seventeen years of age, seeking to improve his fortune, he visited New York city, and through the good services of his brother William, now a Presbyterian minister, presiding over a charge at Forest Point, N. Y., secured a position of assistant teacher in the New York Institute for the Blind. After a short career in this uncongenial capacity he returned to Oneida county, where his mother was living in comparative poverty, and in 1855 started for the far West in search of employment alike congenial and profitable. On his way he stopped at Black Rock, now a part of Buffalo, in order to spend a day with his uncle's family. This gentleman, Mr. Lewis F. Allen, persuaded young Cleveland to remain and assist in the compilation of a volume of the American Herd-Book. He remained, worked hard, and as a recompense for six weeks of arduous toil received—what in those comparatively early days was deemed a munificent reward—$60.

In August of 1855, after weeks of anxious search and sustained effort, he secured a position in the offices of Rogers, Bowen & Rogers, prominent at the Buffalo bar, as general clerk and copyist, at a salary of $4 per week. While there he diligently prosecuted the study of law, and in 1859 was admitted to the bar. But for three years longer he remained in the service of his original employers at a salary, which was finally increased to $1000 per annum.

In 1863 he was appointed Assistant District Attorney of Erie county. Two of Cleveland's brothers were at that time in the army, leaving his mother and sister dependent almost solely upon him for support. Unable in consequence to enlist, he borrowed money with which to send a substitute, and it was not until long after the termination of the war that he was able to repay the loan. In 1865, at the early age of twenty-eight, he was the Democratic candidate for District Attorney of Erie county.



Grover Cleveland

but was defeated by the Republican candidate, his intimate friend and subsequent law partner, Lyman K. Bass.

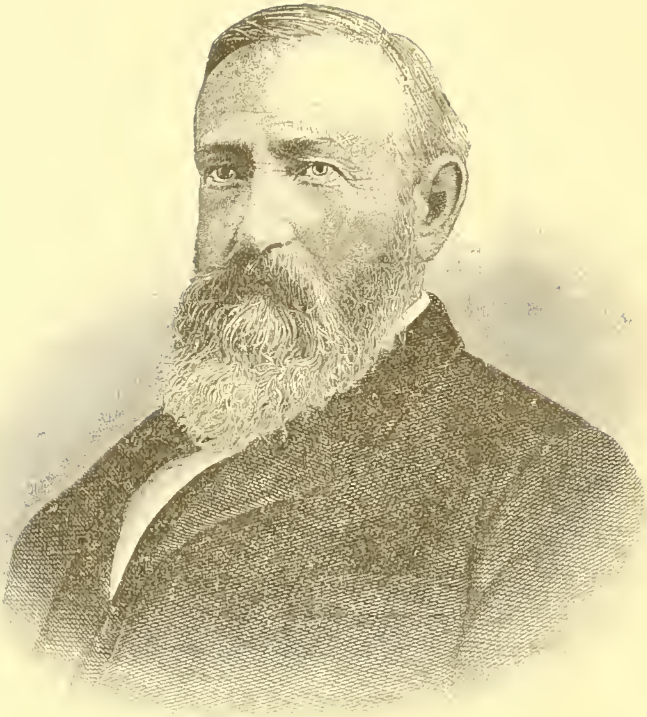
He then effected a partnership with Isaac V. Vanderpool, and in 1869 became a member of the firm of Lansing, Cleveland & Folsom. He continued in successful practice until his election as sheriff of Erie county in 1870. At the expiration of his term of office he formed a partnership with his old and successful political antagonist, Lyman K. Bass, which continued in operation for many years. The firm was successful in its practice, and Mr. Cleveland won marked distinction as a pleader alike for the simplicity and directness of his logic, his careful preparation of cases and thorough mastery of detail.

In the autumn of 1881 he was nominated by the Democratic party for the Mayoralty of the city of Buffalo, and was elected by a majority of 3530 votes, the largest ever before given to any candidate for municipal honors in that city. He entered upon the duties of his new office on the 1st of January, 1882, and soon won for himself the sobriquet of the "veto Mayor," using that prerogative liberally in checking what he deemed to be unwise expenditures of the city's money. But his career as Mayor of Buffalo was destined to be short-lived. The Democratic State Convention met at Syracuse on the 22d of September, 1882, and on the second day of its session and upon the third ballot Grover Cleveland was nominated for Governor of the State of New York in opposition to Charles J. Folger, at that time Secretary of the United States Treasury. The election, which in many respects was a remarkable one in the political annals of New York, resulted in the triumph of Grover Cleveland, who received a plurality over his opponent of 192,854 votes, the total vote cast being 918,894. On the last day of the following September he took the oath of office, and at once entered upon the gubernatorial administration of affairs.

The following two years of his life were absorbed in strict attention to affairs of State, no break to the monotony and severity of the labor being furnished until July 8, 1884, at which time the Democratic National Convention met at Chicago, and Grover Cleveland's name became prominent as a candidate for the exalted office of President of the United States. After three days devoted to the detail of organization and the introduction of the names of the various candidates, on the morning of the 12th of July Mr. Cleveland received 683 votes out of a total of 820 cast, or more than sufficient to secure his nomination, which upon motion was then made unanimous.

There is one feature of his official career which, although purely social in its bearing, will remain identified with his administration as an occurrence of public interest for all time to come. We refer to President Cleveland's marriage in the White House to Miss Frances Folsom, daughter of his deceased friend and partner, Oscar Folsom, of the Buffalo bar. This lady, with the single exception of the wife of President Madison, was the youngest of the many mistresses of the White House, and the very first in American history to be married within its honored walls.

Mr. Cleveland was renominated by the convention of his party at St. Louis in June, 1888. The campaign which resulted was bitter and unrelenting. His opponent, Mr. Harrison, carried twenty States, with 238 electoral votes, and Mr. Cleveland eighteen States, with 168 electoral votes. Immediately after the inauguration of his successor Mr. Cleveland took up his residence in New York, where he has since practiced his profession, law, and has been interested in great causes, earning a large income. He purchased a place of about 100 acres near the head of Buzzard's Bay in Massachusetts, and spends his summers there in as much retirement as the visits of his friends permit.



Benj Harrison

BENJAMIN HARRISON.

BENJAMIN HARRISON, the twenty-third President of the United States, comes of an historic family. While it is by no means certain that, as has been asserted, he can claim descent from the Roundhead Major-General Thomas Harrison, who fought under Oliver Cromwell, was one of the signers of the death warrant of Charles I, and after the restoration paid the penalty of that act by being "hanged, drawn and quartered" on October 13, 1660, by the faithful servants of his most gracious majesty Charles II, it is known that the descendants of Thomas Harrison, after his execution, emigrated to Virginia. It is claimed that Benjamin Harrison, the namesake and great-grandfather of the subject of this sketch, who was born in that colony in the following century, came from this family, but whether or not, he made a name for himself as a Colonial Congressman, and as thrice elected Governor of Virginia, and will go down to posterity as one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. He died in 1791.

His son, William Henry Harrison, who afterward became the ninth President of the United States, was born in Berkely County, Va., in 1773. He joined the army when nineteen years of age, and in 1795 was made a Captain and placed in command of Fort Washington, on the site of the present city of Cincinnati. Six years later, in 1801, he received the appointment as Governor of the newly created Territory of Indiana, which embraced the area covered by the present States of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin. In the year 1811 he led a body of 800 regular soldiers against the forces of the famous Indian chief Tecumseh, whom he defeated at the historical battle of Tippecanoe, a name which was afterwards adopted by his political followers as their battle cry, and has ever since been associated with his own. In the following year, 1812, he was promoted to the rank of Brigadier-General and subsequently was made Major-General. Later General Harrison served the country acceptably as Representative, United States Senator and Foreign Minister.

In 1840 he was elected President and was inaugurated March 4, 1841, but only about a month later he was attacked by a complaint brought on by over-exertion during the campaign, and died within a few days. John Scott Harrison, the son of the President and father of Benjamin Harrison, was a farmer, but was several times elected County Clerk, and also served more than one term as a member of Congress.

General Benjamin Harrison first saw the light at North Bend, O., August 20, 1833, in the house from which his grandfather was elected President. His early life was the ordinary one of the son of a plain farmer. He was worked hard, and, at the district school, which he attended until fifteen years of age, he was well taught. On leaving the district school, he entered the Miami University at Oxford, O., from which, at the age of eighteen, he graduated fourth in a class of sixteen. It was while at Oxford that he met the lady who afterward became his wife. She was a daughter of the Rev. J. W. Scott, the principal of a female seminary in the town, and when he left college to enter upon the study of law in the office of Judge Bellamy Storer in Cincinnati, the young couple were engaged to be married. Before Harrison was twenty-one years of age they were married and he had been admitted to the bar.

The breaking out of the war found Harrison living quietly and peacefully, the father of a young family, working industriously for his modest income; in fact in just such a position that he might have been pardoned had he hesitated about rushing at once to the front. But he was not the man to hold back in such an emergency. The story is told of him that, having gone to Governor Morton to ask for a military command for one of his friends, he found the Governor in low spirits over the slow response to his call for troops. Stepping to a window he called his visitor's attention to some workmen engaged in building a house, and expressed his surprise that they could work on so calmly when the next day there might be no Government to protect their property. Harrison left him, and, without going home or consulting wife or friends, went straight to a hat store, procured an army hat, and, inside an hour, was parading the streets behind a fife and drum enlisting recruits. Entering the service as Second Lieutenant, he became Captain and afterward Colonel of the Seventieth Indiana Volunteers, but his regiment being assigned chiefly to garrison and guard duty, he had at first little opportunity to distinguish himself, and it was at Resaca that he first won renown, leading a charge in which one-third of his command were killed or wounded. It was after that splendid dash that Fighting Joe Hooker rode up to him and said, as he reined in his horse: "Ben Harrison, I'll make you a Brigadier for this day's work." He was brevetted Brigadier-General shortly after this, and afterward served with gallantry and without injury until the war ended and the troops were mustered out. He was described at the time as being, although thirty years of age, a mere boy in appearance and slight of frame. He was well liked, however, and commanded the respect and confidence of all who came in contact with him. He was noted for the quiet, but firm way in which he stood up for the rights of his command in the way of good camping places, accoutrements, supplies and the like, even while inexperienced in soldiering, having learned what his rights were, and almost invariably succeeded in getting them, a fact which added not a little to his popularity with his men.

With the return of peace General Harrison laid aside the sword and was re-elected reporter to the Supreme Court, again entering, to some extent, the field of politics. The important duties of that office were, however, performed by him with such painstaking care, and withal so satisfactorily, that in 1868 he was offered the nomination for another term. This, however, he declined, and again began the practice of law, which he continued successfully until 1876, when he was nominated for Governor. It was during the Tilden and Hendricks campaign, and from the first it seemed a foregone conclusion that he would be beaten, but he made a most vigorous campaign, and, although defeated, ran about 2,000 votes ahead of the rest of his ticket. This fact placed him in such prominence in his party that in 1881 he was elected to the United States Senate almost without opposition. In this position he served six years, retiring in March, 1887, when he went back to the practice of his profession at Indianapolis. As a Senator General Harrison favored the regulation of foreign contract labor, and was one of the committee which reported the Chinese Restriction bill; he opposed alien ownership of large tracts of land; upon the silver question he is a bimetalist. He was nominated for President at Chicago by the Republican National Convention on June 25, 1888, and was elected by 233 electoral votes, against 168 for Grover Cleveland, who was the Democratic candidate for the second time.

General Harrison is reasonably well off, but is not a rich man. He has two children, a daughter and a son. He is described as being short, sturdy and compact, his hair and full beard sprinkled with gray. He has a straight nose, light blue eyes, and a rather large mouth and a square, firm jaw. He is a modest man, and is much liked and respected by his townsmen.

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