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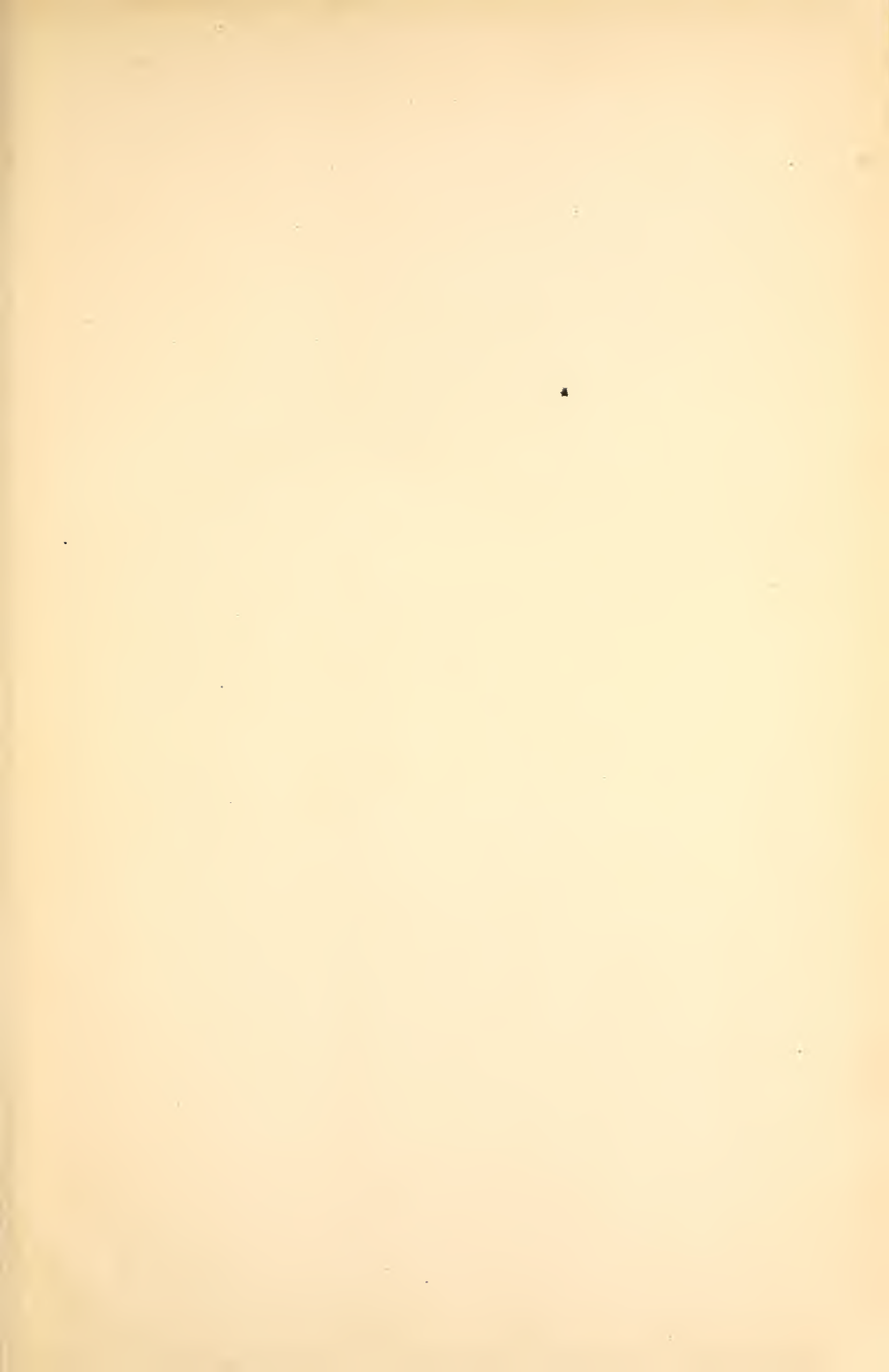
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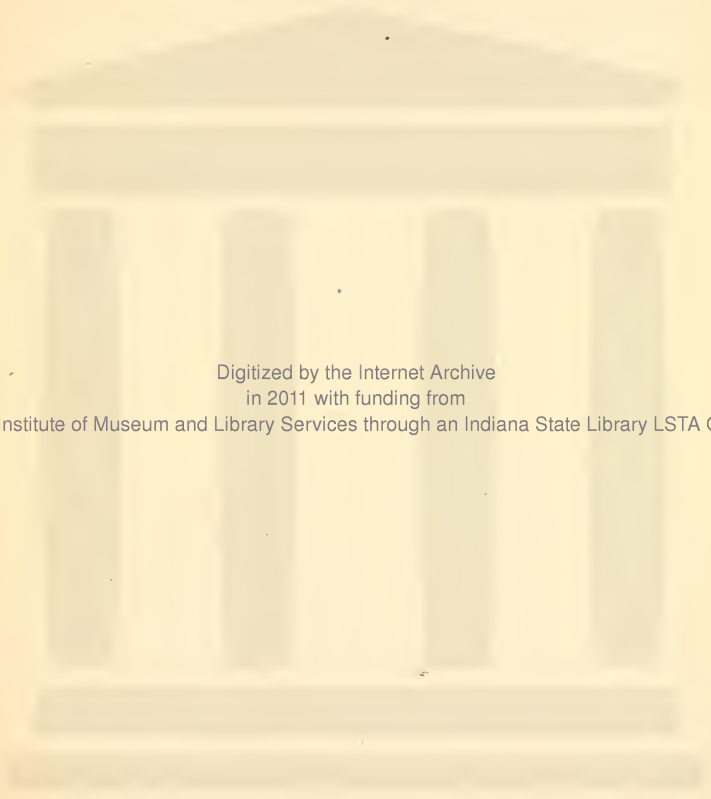
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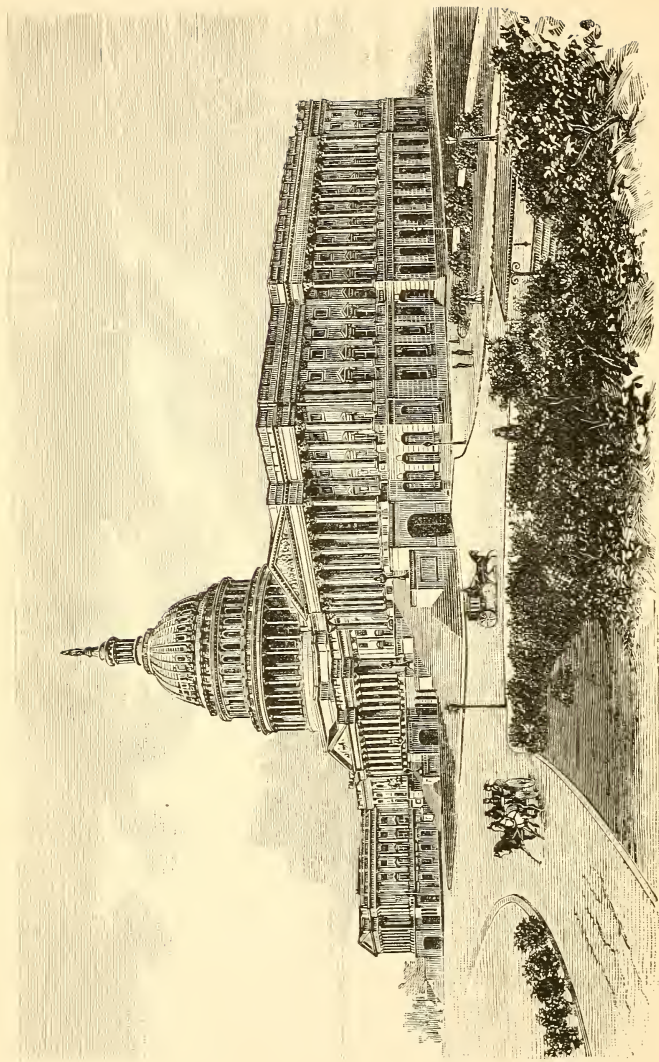
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GREAT CITIES OF THE REPUBLIC

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Frontispice.

THE CAPITOL.

175
Great Cities of the Republic

THE
STORY OF WASHINGTON

THE NATIONAL CAPITAL

BY

CHARLES BURR TODD

AUTHOR OF "THE STORY OF NEW YORK," ETC.

ILLUSTRATED

NEW YORK & LONDON
G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS

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1889

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G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS
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TO
THE PEOPLE OF THE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
THIS VOLUME
IS
RESPECTFULLY DEDICATED
BY
THE AUTHOR

What constitutes a State ?

Not high-raised battlement or labored mound,
Thick wall or moated gate ;

Not cities proud with spires and turrets crowned ;
Not bays and broad-armed ports

Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride ;
Not starred and spangled courts

Where low-browed baseness wafts perfume to pride.
No ! MEN, high-minded MEN,

With powers as far above dull brutes endued
In forest, brake, or den,

As beasts excel cold rocks and brambles rude ;
Men who their duties know,

But know their rights, and knowing dare maintain,
Prevent the long-aimed blow,

And crush the tyrant while they rend the chain :—
These constitute a State ;

And Sovereign Law, that State's collected will,
O'er thrones and globes elate,

Sits empress, crowning good, repressing ill.



PREFACE.

IN writing the Story of Washington, the author has had in mind both the local and general reader; for the national capital belongs not alone to its citizens, but also to the nation. On the one hand it was desirable not to burden the narrative with details of merely local interest; on the other, not to treat the subject in so general a way as to associate with it no local flavor whatever. He has also endeavored to write in a simple and direct style that would attract youthful readers, and that would not displease those of mature years. It is common complaint that our young people read foreign books—especially English books—so exclusively, that we are in danger of becoming a race of Anglomaniacs,—a consummation that our law-makers seem bent on furthering by their inexcusable delay in passing an international copyright law.

In these pages the author has endeavored to make prominent what was noble, dignified, and patriotic in the city's history, and thus to awaken in her behalf the interest and affection of his readers. He has also endeavored to make prominent the fact that Washington is the capital of the nation, and should be re-

garded and treated as such. The sectional jealousies which led Congress so long to treat the city with indifference, and to pursue her with a niggardly policy that kept her for years a provincial village, are happily abated. The agitation for a removal of the seat of government has ceased with them. The later argument of the "capital-movers," that the city is not the geographical centre, still remains. But this, too, will soon lose its force. Space will be annihilated. As regards communication, distance is not now considered, and without doubt in a few years pneumatic tube, air ship, or some other mechanical contrivance will in a few hours convey hither the delighted traveller from the Golden Gate or farthest limits of Oregon.

The citizen of Washington is dependent on Congress for every crumb of municipal improvement he gets. He has neither voice nor vote in the government of his city. During the past fifteen years Congress has awakened to a sense of its responsibilities toward the District and has done much for the capital, while much yet remains to be done.

America has material resources far surpassing those possessed by the great empires of antiquity; she has the requisite artistic and mechanical genius for making them available. There is no reason why in every thing that men deem noble, beautiful, and excellent, the American capital should not take rank among the greatest capitals of the earth.

It is well to remember that a nation's capital may fairly be considered as an index to the nation's character, and that the outcome of our institutions

will be studied by critical strangers in the city on the banks of the Potomac.

The author acknowledges with pleasure the aid afforded by citizens of Washington and others in the prosecution of his work. His thanks are especially due Mr. Justice Bradley of the Supreme Court, Assistant Secretary of State Rives, Mr. Worthington C. Ford, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, Mr. A. R. Spofford, Librarian of Congress, Mr. William B. Webb, President of the Board of Commissioners of the District of Columbia, Mr. William B. Powell, Superintendent of Public Schools, and General H. V. Boynton.

It is hardly necessary to name here all the books and periodicals consulted.

Mr. Joseph B. Varnum's "Washington Sketch-Book," Messrs. Hutchins and Moore's "National Capital," "The Reminiscences and Letters" of Dr. Manasseh Cutler, Ben : Perley Poore, Dolly Madison, Mrs. W. W. Seaton, and W. A. Gobright, with the files of *Harper's*, *Scribner's* and the *Atlantic Magazines*, the *New York Tribune*, *Times*, *Herald*, and *World*, the *Washington National Intelligencer*, *Post*, and *Star*, with the unpublished manuscripts in the State and War Departments, have formed the basis of the work. A number of the illustrations of public buildings, etc., have been taken by permission from Messrs. Hutchins and Moore's larger work "The National Capital."

C. B. T.

WASHINGTON, January 2, 1889.



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PART I.
THE HISTORICAL CITY.





THE STORY OF WASHINGTON.

CHAPTER I.

THE RESULT OF A COMPROMISE.

WASHINGTON, the beautiful capital of to-day, is one of the latest instances of a national capital founded by design. Rome grew on the Tiber because of the seven hills. The great king, Clovis, chose Paris for his capital because its site on an island of the Seine promised protection from his fierce enemies, the Northmen; and the emperor, Charles V., made the wilderness city Madrid his court town because of its inaccessible and defensible position. But the latest example of a people choosing a wilderness site and erecting there its capital, to be enriched by a nation's revenues, and made historic by its statesmen, orators, and generals, is to be found in our own capital city of Washington. The story of its birth forms one of the most interesting chapters in its history.

The idea of a national capital originated in one of

the gloomiest periods of the nation's history, and as the result of conditions that threatened to destroy it almost before it had begun to live. On Thursday, the nineteenth day of June, 1783, Congress was sitting in the old City Hall at Philadelphia. The English yoke had just been broken. The thirteen colonies were free; but their national unity was by no means established. They were rather a group of independent sovereignties with warring interests—the smaller States arrayed against the larger, the Northern section against the Southern. The Confederacy's treasury was empty; it had no credit; worse still, it was heavily in debt to its soldiers for arrears of pay, and to the States for money loaned to carry on the war. There was no President, and no capital city to be the rallying point of national feeling and aspirations. On the morning of this nineteenth of June, a courier spurred in with news that a body of the unpaid soldiers, then encamped at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, were under arms and on the march to Philadelphia to demand of Congress their arrears of pay, and that they would be followed next day by all of Armand's legion, with the same object in view. Congress in great fear appealed to the Executive Council of Pennsylvania for protection, but President Dickinson declared that the State militia could not be relied upon in a matter of this kind, and that the soldiers must be allowed to enter the city. Whereupon, we are told, Messrs. Isard, Mercer, and others, "being much displeased, signified that if the city would not support Congress, it was high time to remove to some other place." The next day

the mutineers entered the city, and for two days, officered by their sergeants, held Congress in a state of siege. They formed a cordon around the hall where it was assembled, and remained under arms all day, sometimes pointing their muskets at the windows, but refraining from actual violence. After adjournment, as the members came out, mock opposition was made to their passage, but they were finally allowed to retire to their homes. At the evening session a resolution to adjourn to Princeton was introduced and discussed amid the most alarming rumors. The debate continued for several days, but at last, after the city had been five days in the hands of the soldiers, Congress adjourned to Princeton, in New Jersey.

This forced adjournment impressed on the legislators the necessity of establishing a federal capital. If laws were to be made and respected, they said, law-makers must be secured from intimidation. Accordingly, in October, 1783, we find Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, moving that buildings for the use of Congress should be erected on or near the banks of the Delaware or Potomac, provided that a suitable spot could be procured for a federal town, and that the right of soil and exclusive jurisdiction should be vested in the United States. This resolution became a law and endured for six months, when it was repealed. At its next session, in October, 1784, at Trenton, Congress advanced the project still further by appointing three commissioners to lay out a district on either bank of the Delaware.

But the Southern members strenuously opposed this plan, and advanced several weighty and ingenious arguments against it. There was, first, that of locality. The Delaware was not a centre of population, nor yet a geographical centre; it would be dominated unfairly by Northern ideas; exposed to the insidious influence of the money power lodged in the hands of the merchants of New York and Philadelphia, and be in danger of intimidation from mobs. They proposed as a compromise the banks of the Potomac, a geographical centre, a centre of population, and, as they argued, soon to be the artery through which the products of the great West should seek the sea. For these statesmen—Washington, Jefferson, and Madison, at least—had already projected a Chesapeake and Ohio canal and a national road which should pierce the Alleghanies at the passes of the Potomac, and render a city on the banks of that river the entrepot of the West; and they ardently desired that this future city should become the national capital. The Northern members were too strong for them, however, and after a heated discussion the original resolution prevailed. But the influence of Washington and Jefferson was exerted to prevent the commissioners from taking action, and we hear nothing more of the project until 1787, when the Constitution, which made of the many States one nation, was adopted. By Article I, Section VIII, Clause 16 of that instrument, Congress was given power to “exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district not exceeding ten miles square, as may by cession of

particular States and the acceptance of Congress become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings." This section was assented to without debate. Yet strangely enough, nearly two years passed before any action was taken upon it.

At last, at the opening session of the First Congress under the Constitution (New York, 1789), petitions from so many state and municipal bodies asking that the seat of government might be permanently located came pouring in, that Congress was forced to act. The agitation came chiefly from the Southern States, and was reinforced by the powerful influence of Washington, the newly elected President, and of Jefferson and Madison. New York and New England were satisfied with the condition of things, and objected to any agitation of the matter at that time. There were more important questions to be settled, they urged; for instance, the proposition that the Federal Government should assume the war debts of the several States—a question in which they had deeper interest for two reasons: first, because their debts were larger on account of the war than the other States; and second, because their citizens held a disproportionate share of the scrip of all the States. They were also averse to having the national capital removed to any point south of New York. Pennsylvania favored a place called Wright's Ferry, on the Susquehanna, near Havre de Grace. New

Jersey declared for Philadelphia. The Southern States were unanimously in favor of a point on the Potomac. Matters were in this condition when at its first session the House passed a resolution fixing the permanent seat at Wright's Ferry, as soon as the necessary buildings could be erected, the government in the meantime to remain in New York; but when a bill designed to carry the resolution into effect was introduced, the Southern members combated it with all the eloquence and rhetorical skill at their command. Mr. Madison even went so far as to declare that had Virginia foreseen the proceedings of that day she might never have entered the Union.

"I confess to the House and to the world," said Mr. Vining, "that viewing this subject in all its circumstances I am in favor of the Potomac. I wish the seat of government to be fixed there because I think the interest, the honor, and the greatness of the country require it. I look on it as the centre from which those streams are to flow that are to animate and invigorate the body politic. From thence it appears to me that the rays of government will naturally diverge to the extremities of the Union. I declare that I look on the Western territory from an awful and striking point of view. To that region the unpolished sons of earth are pouring from all quarters,—men to whom the protection of the law, and the controlling power of government are alike necessary. From these considerations I conclude that the bank of the Potomac is the proper situation."

In spite of Southern opposition, however, the bill passed the House by thirty-one ayes to nineteen

nays. Coming to the Senate, that body amended by striking out the word *Susquehanna*, and inserting a clause that the permanent seat of the government should be fixed at Germantown, near Philadelphia, whenever Pennsylvania or her citizens should agree to pay one hundred thousand dollars for the erection of the necessary government buildings. When the amended bill came back to the House that body agreed to it, but added a slight amendment that the laws of Pennsylvania should remain in force until repealed by Congress. But this amendment sent the bill back to the Senate, and as that body adjourned without acting upon it, the bill was lost. But for this little accident Philadelphia's pretty suburb might now be the federal capital.

The South was quick to improve the opportunity, and resolved to try the force of pecuniary inducements. In December, 1789, Virginia passed an act offering ten miles square of her territory on the Potomac for the federal city, and the sum of one hundred and twenty thousand dollars for the erection of public buildings. The same winter, by concerted action, the Maryland Legislature offered ten miles square on the opposite side of the Potomac, and the further sum of seventy-two thousand dollars for the buildings. These offers, and the resultant discussion, created great excitement throughout the country.

The location of the capital became an issue. Every city in the Middle States desired it, and began to offer inducements to secure it. New York and Philadelphia pointed out that they had gratuitously furnished Congress with "elegant and conven-

ient accommodations," while its sessions were held in their midst. New Jersey offered to provide suitable buildings at Trenton. Baltimore promised, if she should be chosen, to erect every edifice needed by the federal Legislature. In the midst of the discussion Congress sat (in Philadelphia, 1790), and at an early date a bill was introduced in the Senate "to determine the permanent seat of Congress and of the government of the United States." Later a resolution was carried, "that a site on the river Potomac between the mouth of the Eastern Branch and the Conogocheague be accepted for the permanent seat of government." The Eastern Branch referred to is that broad and deep estuary now forming the eastern boundary of Washington, on which the Navy Yard is placed. The Conogocheague (pronounced Conogochig) is a stream in Washington County, Maryland, beyond the Blue Ridge.

The debate upon this bill was one of the most spirited and animated of the session. The Northern members ridiculed the idea of building palaces in the woods. They thought some existing city should be chosen. Gerry, of Massachusetts, spoke of the injustice of placing the capital where nine States were north of it, and only four south of it. The advocates of the bill, however, presented many arguments in favor of it. They took up the resolution of Mr. Scott, of Pennsylvania, introduced at an early stage of the discussion, "that the site of the future capital should be as near as possible the centre of wealth, of population, and of territory," and argued that the site on the Potomac filled

these conditions as nearly as might be. They argued, too, that the site of the future capital should not be a commercial city. If it were, they said, it would exert an undue influence over measures of government by its commercial importance. It would become a favored city, too, since the government funds largely disbursed there would give it advantages in point of capital over others. And what great commercial city, they asked, would be willing to give up the elective franchise, of which it had been decided to deprive the residents of the proposed federal city, lest their votes and political influence should be too much influenced by officers of government? It was during this debate that the South Carolina Senators uttered their famous objection to Philadelphia—that the Quakers of that city were forever dogging Southern members with their schemes of emancipation.

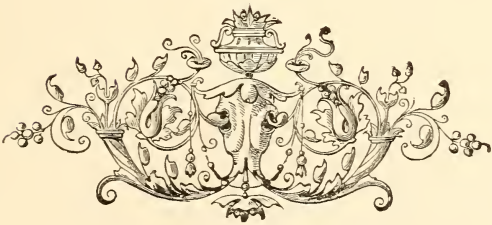
By and by, on the 10th of July, 1790, the long-debated act was passed by a vote of thirty-two ayes to twenty-nine nays—a majority of three. A year before there had been a majority of twelve in favor of the Delaware. Some surprise was felt, and no little feeling manifested in New York and New England at this change of opinion by the majority. The general public was quite unable to account for it. It was really the result of a compromise between the leaders of the opposing factions. Alexander Hamilton, at this time Secretary of the Treasury, was the leader of the Northern section, and Thomas Jefferson, the Secretary of State, of the Southern. The two chieftains chanced to

meet one day before the President's door while the question of the site for the capital was still undecided, and at once began to talk of the absorbing topic. Hamilton expressed his fears that a dissolution of the Union impended. The Eastern States, he said, had openly threatened secession, and so embittered were Northern and Southern members of Congress that they would not meet together for the transaction of business. No great principle was involved in the location of the capital, and he asked if a compromise could not be effected by which the Northern States should allow the capital to be placed on the Potomac, and the Southern States consent that the debts of the creditor States should be assumed by government. Jefferson thought that, as the crisis was so imminent the matter might be arranged, and invited Hamilton to join him at dinner next day and discuss the matter with two or three friends. Mr. Jefferson (who gives the account) does not tell us who composed the dinner party, but it probably consisted of his friends Madison and Lee, of Virginia, and Robert Morris, of Pennsylvania, the friend of Hamilton, and the great financier of the Revolution. As a result of this dinner the matter was arranged. The capital was placed on the Potomac, and Congress passed a funding act, with an amendment permitting the general government to assume twenty-one million dollars of state debts.

We think, however, it would be erroneous to attribute the result entirely to this compromise.

Washington had from the beginning been greatly in favor of the movement, and his known wishes

undoubtedly had great influence with Northern members. In the next chapter we shall see how he devoted heart and soul to the task of creating his capital in the wilderness.





CHAPTER II.

THE BIRTH OF A CITY.

WE can only know what was in the minds of the fathers concerning this capital city by studying the Act of Congress which created it. This instrument passed Congress on July 10, 1790, and was entitled: "An Act establishing the temporary and permanent seat of government of the United States." Its provisions were:

"That a district of territory not exceeding ten miles square, to be located as hereafter directed on the river Potomac, at some place between the mouths of the Eastern Branch and Conogocheague, be and the same is, hereby accepted for the permanent seat of the government of the United States,—provided, nevertheless, that the operation of the laws of the State within such district shall not be affected by this acceptance until the time fixed for the removal of the government thereto, and until Congress shall otherwise by law direct. That the President of the United States be authorized to appoint, and by supplying vacancies happening from refusals to act, or other causes, to keep in appointment as long as may be necessary, three commissioners who, or any two of them, shall, under direction of the President, survey and by proper metes and bounds define and limit

a district of territory under the limitation above mentioned, and the district so defined, limited, and bounded shall be deemed the district accepted by this Act for the permanent seat of the Government of the United States. That the said commissioners, or any two of them, are to have power to purchase or accept such quantity of land on the eastern shore of said river, within the said district, as the President shall deem proper for the use of the United States, and according to such plans as the President shall approve. The said commissioners, or any two of them, shall, prior to the first Monday of December in the year 1800, provide suitable buildings for the accommodation of Congress and the President, and for the public offices of the government of the United States. *That for defraying the expense of such purchases and buildings the President of the United States be authorized and requested to accept grants of land and money."*

Not a penny for building the new city was appropriated—in fact, with an empty treasury and a bankrupt credit, Congress was powerless to vote an appropriation, even if so disposed.

To President Washington was committed the task of selecting a site for the new city, and of appointing commissioners for erecting it. Hitherto his influence had been a silent one. From this moment he appears as the chief actor in the founding of the capital, although so closely connected with him as almost to be considered joint founders were two other famous men of that day, Jefferson and Madison.

There are in the Department of State three large boxes filled with time-stained letters of the three statesmen, giving interesting details of the evolution

of the city, and these are supplemented by a large volume in the War Department entitled, "Letters of the Presidents of the United States," and filled with writings by Washington, Adams, Jefferson, and Madison, nearly all bearing upon this topic. There is also here a commissioners' letter-book filled with letters and copies of letters that passed between the President and the commissioners appointed by him to lay out the district and the city. On these sources chiefly we shall draw for our account of the birth of the city. These letters show the three sages to have been in frequent consultation during the succeeding four years on the absorbing topic. Whether at Mount Vernon, or Monticello, or Montpelier, or at Philadelphia, or on other journeys, the federal city seems to have been ever in their thought.

The first step was the selection of a site. Some fourteen miles above the President's home at Mount Vernon, the Potomac is joined by the Eastern Branch, a small stream but then navigable at high water to the little port of Bladensburg, six miles inland. A V-shaped plain lay between the two rivers, and extended some three miles along the Potomac and about a mile inland, where it was lost in the blue, wooded hills of Maryland. These hills swept in a semicircle from one river to the other, and on the Potomac ended in high bluffs and even crags. At the foot of the bluffs a trading port known as Georgetown had been established by Scotch emigrants as early as 1695, and which at this time enjoyed a lucrative trade with London, Liverpool, and the West Indies. Her docks were burdened with

2¹²
Mount Vernon Sep 29: 1792

Gentlemen,

Your letter of the 1st instant
from George Town came duly to hand, —
The delay in acknowledging the
receipt of it, has proceeded from a belief
that if the orders were transmitted he
fore the sale of lots, appointed to be
held on the 8th of next month, they
would get to your hands in time. —
I shall in a order from the

President of the United States announ-
cing the above sale - and an an-
nouncement for disposing thereafter, of let
by private sale, at such times, and
on such terms as you shall deem best
calculated to promote the growth of
the Federal City, and the essential
interests thereof. - With esteem

I am, Gentlemen
Your Most Obedt. Serv^r

Edw. Tappan

The Com^{rs} of the Federal
District

the products of all climes, while the elegant residences of her merchants and planters crowded the heights. Washington had been familiar with the place from his youth— had even encamped upon her hills while attached to Braddock's ill-fated expedition. The scene then spread before his eyes was of a character to impress itself upon his memory. The grand amphitheatre of hills, the plain, the shining reaches of the Potomac, here a mile wide, and uncoiling itself far southward between dark-wooded hill ranges, formed a picture of surpassing loveliness. Washington made choice of this plain and the surrounding hills for the site of the federal city. The matter was discussed at a meeting of the three sages held at Mount Vernon early in September, 1790, and at its close, probably at Washington's request, Jefferson and Madison rode up into Maryland to consult with the famous Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, concerning the plan.

“He came into it,” wrote Jefferson to Washington, “with a shyness not usual in him. Whether this proceeded from his delicacy in having property adjoining Georgetown, or from what other motive, I cannot say. He said enough to show his preference for Georgetown, as being at the junction of the upper and lower navigation.”

And so after due deliberation the site of the future capital was chosen.

It was not at this time “a wilderness,” as the opponents of the new city were fond of charging. It had even then a history. In 1624, four years after

the Pilgrims landed on Plymouth Rock, the first white man to look upon it had sailed up the Potomac in his shallop. An English fur-trader—Henry Fleet—he had come hither to trade with the Anacostian Indians, who then inhabited the present site of the city, and with the tribes of the upper Potomac. In his journal (discovered a few years since in the Lambeth Library, London) Fleet gave a quaint description of the city's site as it then appeared.

“Monday, the 25th June, we set sail for the town of Tohoga, where we came to an anchor two leagues short of the Falls. . . . This place without question is the most pleasant and healthful place in all this country, and most convenient for habitation, the air temperate in summer and not violent in winter. It aboundeth with all manner of fish. The Indians in one night commonly will catch thirty sturgeons in a place where the river is not above twelve fathoms broad, and as for deer, buffaloes, bears, turkeys, the woods do swarm with them ; and the soil is exceedingly fertile ; but above this place the country is rocky and mountainous like Canada. The 27th of June I manned my shallop and went up with the flood, the tide rising about four feet in height at this place. We had not rowed above three miles, but we might hear the Falls to roar about six miles distant.”

Maryland had been settled in 1634, by Lord Baltimore's Catholic colony, but it was not until 1695 that a body of Scotch and Irish exiles, adherents of the English house of Stuart, settled in the present limits of the district, and gave to their collected farms the title of “New Scotland.” Prince George's County, which in 1790 contained most of the territory

selected for the federal seat, was erected about 1700, and Montgomery County, which comprised the remainder, in 1783, having been carved out of Frederick County, which had been erected in 1748. The face of the country had been well cleared by 1790, and was covered with large plantations, on which the planters lived with the state and consequence of the English squire, owning many slaves, and made opulent by the cultivation of the great staple—tobacco.

Three thriving bustling port towns were within easy distance: Alexandria or Bellhaven on the Virginia bank of the Potomac six miles below, Bladensburg six miles up the Eastern Branch, and Georgetown, as before remarked, which was separated from the city limits only by romantic Rock Creek. There was at this time both in town and country a polite and cultivated society, which had already produced two eminent men—William Wirt, the famous jurist and orator, and General James Wilkinson, who had arranged the details of Burgoyne's surrender, and who later gave his life to the cause of Texan independence.

The appointment of commissioners seems to have been a topic long and anxiously discussed. It was deemed necessary that a majority at least should reside in the neighborhood, in order that they might "attend readily and satisfactorily"; at the same time it was thought advisable to "make the appointments with a view to attaching particular parts of the Union to the object,—New England and in particular Massachusetts first, and next South Carolina and Georgia." But it was at last decided to appoint

two from Maryland, and one from Virginia, all known to be favorable to the project. They were General Thomas Johnson and Hon. Daniel Carroll of Maryland, and Dr. David Stuart of Virginia.* Of these sponsors of the city, a more detailed account than we have space for would be interesting. General Johnson had in 1774 in Congress nominated Washington to be Commander-in-chief, and had served through the Revolution as the trusted friend and comrade of his chief. He is described as having been of brusque and impetuous manner, given to "strange oaths," but of a kindly disposition, and of marked executive ability. Daniel Carroll though not thirty years of age was at this time a member of Congress, and had ably supported the bill fixing the capital on the Potomac. He was a member of the distinguished Carroll family of Maryland, owner of a great estate, and was aristocratic in feeling and somewhat dictatorial in tone. Dr. Stuart was a practising physician residing at Alexandria,—an elderly, benevolent gentleman, fond of quoting the classical poets, who had been Washington's family physician for years, and was also attached to him by family ties, having married the widow of Major John Parke Custis, the son of Martha Washington by her first husband. They were appointed on the 22d of January, 1791. Two days later President Washington issued a proclamation giving the bounds of the territory he had selected. A second proclamation was issued March 30th, Congress in the interim

* Succeeded in 1795 by Gustavus Scott, William Thornton, and Alexander White.

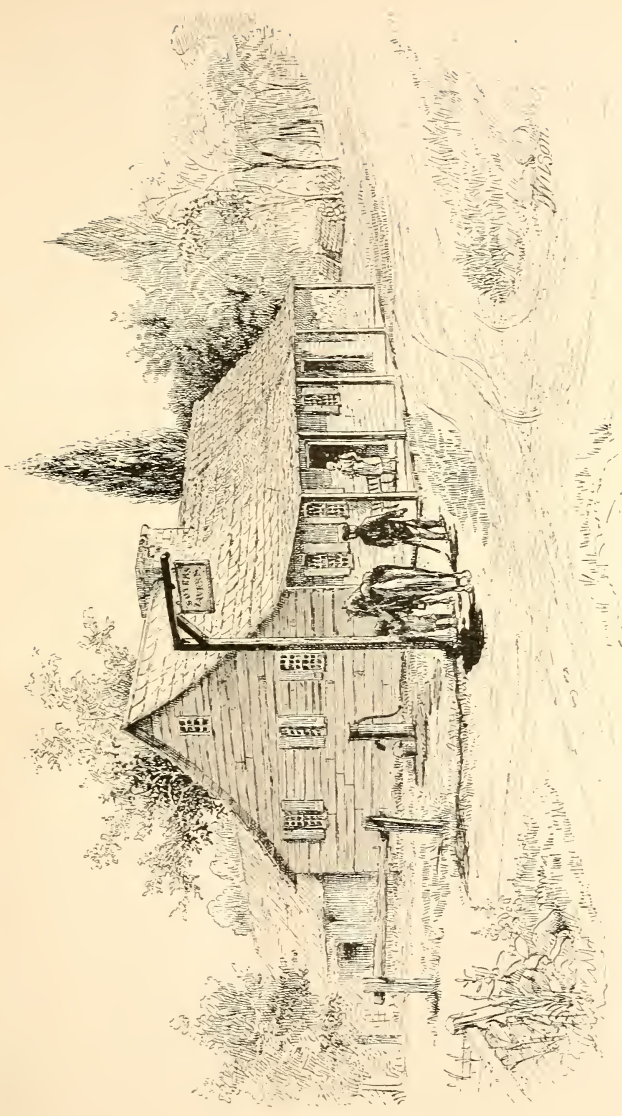
having at the President's request so amended the original act as to include a section of country below Alexandria. The bounds of the federal territory as given in the second proclamation were as follows :

“Beginning at Jones' Point, being the upper cape of Hunting Creek in Virginia, and at an angle of 45 degrees west of the north, and running in a direct line ten miles—for the first line ; then beginning again at the same Jones' Point, and running another direct line at a right angle with the first ; then from the terminations of the said first and second lines running to other direct lines of ten miles each, the one crossing the Eastern Branch and the other the Potomac, and meeting each other in a point. . . . The territory so to be located, defined, and limited shall be the whole territory accepted under the said act of Congress as the district for the permanent seat of the government of the United States.”

The district or “territory,” as it was at first called, was ten miles square—five on either side of the river,—and contained one hundred square miles. Georgetown on the north and Alexandria on the south were both in the original district. Early in the spring of 1791 the commissioners began running the lines of the new territory, the actual surveys being made by Andrew Ellicott, a young Pennsylvanian of marked ability, who later became Geographer-General of the United States. The next important step was to secure from the owners the land required for the federal seat.

The patrician tavern of Georgetown in 1791 was “Suters,” a long-roofed, wide-porchèd structure on the post road to Bladensburg, where the “quality”

always put up, and where the planters were fond of congregating to discuss the rare old Madeira and beady Jamaica rum of the Scotch host. In its "great room," before the fire of logs in the huge fireplace, the President, the commissioners, and the planters spent many a day during this winter of 1790-1 conferring on this question. There were but four principal owners—Daniel Carroll, David Burns, Samuel Davidson, and Notley Young. Davidson and Young figure but little in the traditions of the period. Daniel Carroll, the third proprietor, had a large patrimonial estate called Carrollsburg along the Eastern Branch, including the present Capitol Hill, and is said to have been instrumental in locating the Capitol on its present site. His country seat, Duddington Manor, became a feature of the city after population centred there, and was the scene of a profuse hospitality and of much social gayety. Its owner, however, met a sad ending. His lands failed to appreciate in value, the city tending westward toward Georgetown instead of growing up about the capital, as was expected. He became bankrupt and died in 1849, quite poor. David Burns, the second largest proprietor, was an illiterate Scotchman, surly and obstinate, who lived in the rude log cabin one may still see at the foot of Seventeenth Street, half hidden by the once stately Van Ness mansion. Burns owned nearly half of the capital site adjoining Georgetown, including the square on which the Treasury and White House now stand, and he was extremely reluctant to sell—indeed tradition says that



SUTER'S TAVERN IN 1791.

the President and commissioners found a greater obstacle in him than in all the other proprietors combined. The negotiations continued throughout the winter, and toward the close of February, 1791, were concluded satisfactorily. On the third of March, 1791, the President was able to write to Jefferson :

“The terms entered into by me on the part of the United States with the landholders of Georgetown and Carrollsburg are, that all the land from Rock Creek along the river to the Eastern Branch, and so upward to or above the ferry, including a breadth of about a mile and a half, the whole containing from three thousand to five thousand acres, is ceded to the public on condition that when the whole is laid off as a city (which Major L’ *Enfant* is now directed to do) the present proprietors shall retain every other lot ; and for such parts of the land as may be taken for public use for squares, walks, etc., they shall be allowed at the rate of £25* an acre. Nothing is to be allowed for the ground which may be occupied for streets and alleys.”

To which Mr. Jefferson replied :

“The acquisition of ground at Georgetown is really noble, considering that only £25 an acre is to be paid for any grounds taken for the public, and the streets not to be counted, which will, in fact, reduce it to about £19 an acre. I think very liberal reserves should be made for the public.”

The city’s site having been secured, the next step was the appointment of a competent engineer for laying it out. Washington, with his intuitive knowledge of men, had no difficulty in selecting the man.

* Maryland money, 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ dollars.

There was living in Philadelphia at this time a middle-aged Frenchman called Major Pierre Charles L'Enfant. He had been educated in the best military schools of France, and with the first guns of the Revolution had hastened, like so many other gallant Frenchmen, to the aid of the oppressed Americans. He did excellent service, too, in teaching the latter how to plan and rear fortifications, and in this service attracted the attention of Washington, who caused him to be appointed major of engineers. Later he had remodelled and fitted up the City Hall in New York for the use of the first Congress, and later still the Federal House in Philadelphia, in a manner to win golden opinions from all sorts of people.



PIERRE CHARLES L'ENFANT.

To him Washington now turned for the plan of the grand city he had in view. L'Enfant, for his part seems to have realized that this was the opportunity of a lifetime; that if he proved equal to the occasion his fame was secure. All through this spring and summer of 1791 he brooded over the plan. One point was quickly settled in his mind—he would not plan for thirteen States and three millions of people, but for a mighty republic of fifty States and five hundred millions. In his boat on

the broad bosom of the Potomac, from the heights of Georgetown, and from the opposing hills across the Anacostia, he studied the features of the site. The old palace of Versailles in *La Belle France* that he had known as a boy came frequently into his thoughts during these musings. But then Versailles had been laid out solely with reference to the palace, while this was to be a city for millions. Often, too, did he recall the grand old forests of Compiègne and Fontainebleau, with their long avenues meeting at *Carrefours*, and increasing in number according to the importance of the junction. Quite early in these reveries, April 4th, he writes a letter to Jefferson (who has not viewed his appointment with friendly eyes, possibly because he himself wished a larger share in designing the federal city), asking for plans of some of the grand cities of Europe, such as London, Paris, Amsterdam, Naples, Venice, Genoa, and Florence. He disclaims any intention of imitating, but observes: "I shall endeavor to delineate in a new and original way the plan, the contrivance of which the President has left to me without any restriction whatever; but," he adds, "the contemplation of what exists of well improved situation, even the comparison of these with defective ones, will suggest a variety of new ideas, and is necessary to refine and strengthen the judgment." Jefferson furnished the maps with the remark that they were "none of them comparable to the old Babylon revived and exemplified in Philadelphia." But the engineer did not agree with him. Philadelphia, he observed, was laid out in squares, like a

chess-board ; he thought that three or four great avenues, run obliquely, would relieve the monotony by introducing occasional curves and angles, and would also facilitate communication. He therefore combined both features. Choosing Capitol Hill as a centre, he first laid down streets parallel to it, and running due east and west. These were named after the letters of the alphabet, A, B, C, and so on. Then he drew another set of streets running from north to south, and intersecting the lettered streets at right angles, and which were distinguished by the numerals 1, 2, 3, etc. Lastly, radiating from the Capitol and other public buildings, he laid out magnificently wide and straight avenues, cutting the checker-board at every variety of angle, and creating those squares, circles, triangles, and parallelograms which eighty years later were used to such advantage in the renaissance of the city, and which, with their beautiful growth of trees, render Washington the most picturesque city on the continent. The defect of the plan lay in doubling the names of the streets, and in creating too many of the avenues, both tending to confusion.

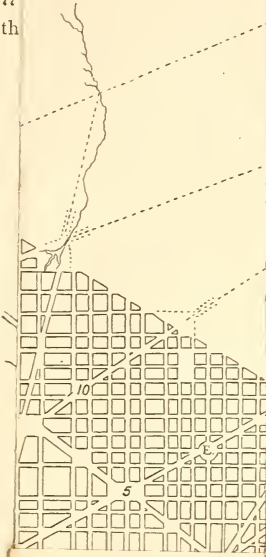
In making these, however, the engineer had an ulterior object in view—he wished to connect outlying points of his plan with the Capitol, the President's house, and other public buildings, and to create vistas which they should fill, so that in whatever part of the city the observer should be placed his eye, sweeping down the avenue, should rest on the imposing pile of the Capitol, the Monument, the Treasury, or some other public edifice. There were

some sixteen of the avenues in all, each named after one of the sixteen States that, in 1800, formed the American Union. These avenues are from one hundred and sixty to one hundred and thirty feet wide, while none of the streets are of a less width than ninety feet. Ample provision was also made for public parks and gardens, not all of which has been utilized. In the original plan the Capitol grounds extended to the Potomac, as did also those of the President's house. The city, as originally laid out, extended from northwest to southeast about four and one half miles, and from east to southwest about two and a half miles, and included about seven thousand one hundred acres. It was a drive of fourteen miles around it; there were sixty-five miles of avenues and one hundred and ninety-seven miles of streets.

While L'Enfant was busy with his plan the commissioners had been surveying the district, and had laid out a plot ten miles square, with an area of one hundred square miles, lying on both sides of the Potomac. But, in 1846, that on the Virginia shore was retroceded to Virginia, so that the present area of the district is but fifty square miles. By the 13th of April, 1791, the commissioners were ready to fix the first boundary stone of the district. Accordingly, attended by masonic and civic societies, and by a multitude of spectators, they proceeded to Jones' Point, near Alexandria, and there fixed a granite pillar with appropriate masonic ceremonies. The address of the day was delivered by an eloquent Scotch clergyman, the Rev. James Muir, the con-

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REFERENCES.



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- A naval itinerary column, proposed to be erected to celebrate the first rise of a navy, and to stand a ready monument, to consecrate its progress and achievements.
- This church is intended for national purposes, such as public prayer, thanksgivings, funeral orations, etc., and assigned to the special use of no particular sect or denomination, but equally open to all. It will be likewise a proper shelter for such monuments as were voted by the late Continental Congress, for those heroes who fell in the cause of liberty, and for such others as may hereafter be decreed by the voice of a grateful nation.
- Five grand fountains, intended with a constant spout of water. N.B.—There are within the limits of the city, above 25 good springs of excellent water abundantly supplied in the driest season of

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PLAN

of the City intended for the permanent seat of the Government of the United States. Projected agreeable to the direction of the President of the United States, in pursuance of an Act of Congress passed the sixteenth day of July, MDCCXC., "establishing the Permanent Seat on the bank of the Potowmac."—By PIERRE CHARLES L'ESPANT.



L'ESPANT'S PLAN OF THE CITY OF WASHINGTON.

REFERENCES.

- A.—The equestrian figure of GEORGE WASHINGTON, a monument voted in 1783, by the late Continental Congress.
- B.—An historic column—also intended for a mile or itinerary column, from whose station (a mile from the Federal house) all distances of places through the continent are to be calculated.
- C.—A naval itinerary column, proposed to be erected to celebrate the first rise of a navy, and to stand a ready monument, to consecrate its progress and achievements.
- D.—This church is intended for national purposes, such as public prayer, thanksgivings, funeral orations, &c., and assigned to the special use of no particular sect or denomination, but equally open to all. It will be likewise a proper shelter for such monuments as were voted by the late Continental Congress, for those heroes who fell in the cause of liberty, and for such others as may hereafter be decreed by the voice of a grateful nation.
- E.—Five grand fountains, intended with a constant spout of water. N.B.—There are within the limits of the city, above 25 good springs of excellent water abundantly supplied in the driest season of the year.
- F.—Grand Cascade, formed of the water from the sources of the Tiber.
- G.—Public walk, being a square of 1200 feet, through which carriages may ascend to the upper square of the Federal house.
- H.—Grand Avenue, 400 feet in breadth, and about a mile in length, bordered with gardens, ending in a slope from the houses on each side. This avenue leads to the Monument A, and connects the Congress Garden with the
- I.—President's park, and the
- K.—Well improved field, being a part of the walk from the President's house, of about 1800 feet in breadth, and $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile in length. Every lot, deep-colored red, with green plots, designates some of the situations which command the most agreeable prospects, and which are the best calculated for spacious houses and gardens, such as may accommodate foreign ministers, &c.
- L.—Around this square, and all along the
- M.—Avenue from the two bridges to the Federal house, the pavement on each side will pass under an arched way, under whose cover, shops will be most conveniently and agreeably situated. This street is 160 feet in breadth, and a mile long.



cluding sentences of which may be reproduced for the benefit of the living :

“ May this stone long commemorate the goodness of God in those uncommon events which have given America a name among nations. Under this stone may jealousy and selfishness be forever buried. From this stone may a superstructure arise whose glory, whose magnificence, whose stability unequalled hitherto shall astonish the world, and invite even the savage of the wilderness to take shelter under its roof.”

During the summer the pillar marking the centre of the district was set near the present Washington Monument. As yet, neither district nor city had been christened, and, at a meeting of the commissioners at Georgetown, September 8 and 9, 1791, Jefferson and Madison being present, this important matter was attended to, the district being named Columbia, after the great navigator, and the city WASHINGTON, after the father of the nation, who was also its chief benefactor. At the same meeting the method of designating the streets by letters and numbers was adopted, and names, letters, and numbers were all given to Major L'Enfant to be incorporated in the plan.

The engineer inserted the names and numbers, and completed his plan, but never saw it come to full fruition by being engraved. He possessed the usual infirmities of genius,—a quick temper and overbearing disposition,*—and as the commissioners

* “ Men who possess talents which fit them for peculiar purposes are almost invariably under the influence of untoward dispositions, or a sottish pride, or possessed of some other disqualification by

were not disposed to abate one jot or tittle of their authority, he was soon involved in a bitter quarrel with them, and these were the grounds of the quarrel. When the plan was completed, the commissioners demanded it in order to have it engraved and published, but L'Enfant declined to do this, alleging that, if published, the plan would be made use of by speculators to purchase the best locations in his "vistas and architectural squares, and raise huddles of shanties which would permanently disfigure the city." When this refusal was reported to Washington he dismissed the engineer March 1, 1792, and appointed Andrew Ellicott in his place, who made a plan in close imitation of L'Enfant's, which was published late in 1792 and widely circulated. In the Congressional Library may still be seen L'Enfant's original plan, carefully secluded by him during his life, but secured by government after his death—a torn and discolored paper, yet giving proof of having oncè been an elaborate and elegant design.

Immediately on L'Enfant's dismissal Jefferson wrote to the commissioners that he ought to be fairly rewarded for his services, and that the President had suggested \$2,500 or \$3,000, but had left the determination to them. The commissioners soon after ordered their bankers to place five hundred guineas at Major L'Enfant's disposal, and wrote him that they had also recorded a building lot

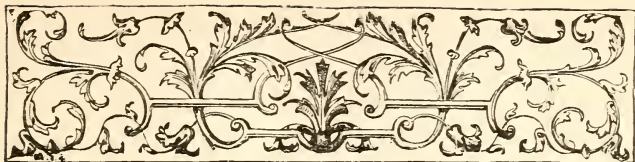
which they plague all those with whom they are concerned ; but I did not expect to meet with such perverseness in Major L'Enfant as his late conduct exhibited."—Washington to the commissioners, November 20, 1791.

“near the President’s house” in his name as further compensation, but the proud Frenchman returned a curt note expressing his wish and request “that you will call back your order for the money and not take any further trouble about the lot.” His subsequent fate was a sad one, and marks alike the limitations of genius and the ingratitude of republics.

Retiring to Philadelphia he planned there some public works of moment, but soon retired to private life—not to be entirely forgotten, however, by his old friends. Madison, while President, appointed him Professor of Engineering at West Point, but the position was promptly declined. In the war of 1812 he was appointed to construct the present Fort Washington on the Potomac, and did plan and partly execute the work, but again he failed to agree with his superiors, and was dismissed. From this time he resided chiefly with his friend, Dudley Digges, Esq., at his fine manor house, Chellum Castle, near Bladensburg, and haunted the halls of Congress seeking compensation for past services. His tall, thin form, clad in blue military coat buttoned close to the chin, broadcloth breeches, military boots, with a napless, bell-crowned hat upon his head, and swinging as he walked a hickory cane with large silver head, was for years a familiar object in the streets of the city he had planned. Congress never heeded his appeal, and at last, on the 4th of June, 1825, he died, a disappointed, broken old man. He was buried in the garden of Chellum Castle, and his grave is marked for remembrance only by a tall cedar tree and fragrant beds of myrtle. There is

neither stone nor inscription—perhaps none is needed, for so long as time endures the beautiful city that he planned will remain his grandest monument and noblest epitaph.





CHAPTER III.

MAGNIFICENT INTENTIONS.

APPENDED to L'Enfant's plan were certain designs for public buildings and works of art intended to dignify and adorn the new city, which originated with the three founders, and which we shall describe in this early chapter not only on account of their intrinsic interest, but also to recall them to public remembrance, for not all of these plans have been carried out.

"I. An equestrian figure of George Washington, a monument voted in 1783 by the late Continental Congress.

"II. An historic column, also intended for a mile or itinerary column, from whose station at a mile from the Federal House all distances and places throughout the continent are to be calculated.

"III. A naval itinerary column, proposed to be erected to celebrate the first rise of a navy, and to stand a ready monument to perpetuate its progress and achievements.

"IV. Fifteen squares to be divided among the several States of the Union for each of them to improve; the centres of these squares designed for statues, columns, obelisks, etc., such as the different States may choose to erect.

“V. A church intended for national purposes, such as public prayer, thanksgiving, funeral orations, etc., and assigned to the special use of no particular sect or denomination, but equally open to all. It will likewise be a proper shelter for such monuments as were voted by the late Continental Congress for those heroes who fell in the cause of liberty, and for such others as may hereafter be decreed by the voice of a grateful nation.

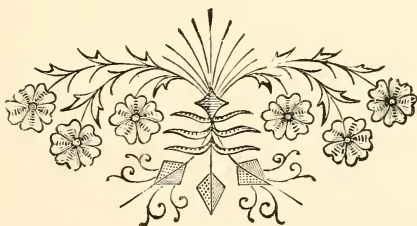
“VI. Five grand fountains.

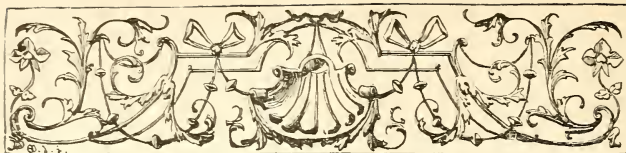
“VII. A grand avenue, four hundred feet in breadth, and about a mile in length, bordered with gardens ending in a slope from the houses on each side; this avenue to lead to the monument of Washington, and to connect the Congressional garden with the President’s park.

“VIII. The water of Tiber Creek to be conveyed to the high ground where the Congress House stands, and after watering that part of the city, its overplus to fall from under the base of the edifice, and in a cascade of twenty feet in height and fifty in breadth, into the reservoir below, thence to run in three falls through the gardens in the grand canal.”

The site designated for the statue of Washington was the one now occupied by the Monument. The historic or itinerary column was to have been placed in the open space east of the Capitol, where East Capitol Street, North Carolina, Massachusetts, Kentucky, and Tennessee avenues meet. The church (why should it not now be built as the American Westminster Abbey?) was to have occupied the site of the present Patent Office. The “five grand fountains” were to have been placed at reservation 17 on New Jersey

Avenue, at the intersection of F Street North and Maryland Avenue toward the Baltimore road, at H Street North and New York Avenue, at N Street North and Pennsylvania Avenue, and in Market Space.





CHAPTER IV.

REARING THE CAPITOL.

IN March, 1792, the following advertisement appeared in the principal newspapers of the country:

“ Washington in the Territory of Columbia. A premium of a lot in this city to be designated by impartial judges, and five hundred dollars, or a medal of that value at the option of the party, will be given by the Commissioners of the Federal Buildings to the person who before the 15th of July, 1792, shall produce to them the most approved plan for a Capitol to be erected in this city; and two hundred and fifty dollars, or a medal, for the plan deemed next in merit to the one they shall adopt. The building to be of brick, and to contain the following apartments, to wit: A conference-room and a room for the Representatives, sufficient to accommodate three hundred persons each; a lobby or ante-room to the latter; a Senate room of twelve hundred square feet area; an ante-chamber; twelve rooms of six hundred square feet each for committee rooms and clerks' offices. It will be a recommendation of any plan if the central part of it may be detached and erected for the present with the appearance of a complete whole, and be capable of admitting the additional parts in future, if they shall be wanted. Drawings will be expected of the ground plots, elevations of each front, and sections through the building in

such directions as may be necessary to explain the internal structure ; and an estimate of the cubic feet of brickwork composing the whole mass of the walls."

Of the many designs sent in two only seem to have been seriously considered by the President : one by Dr. William Thornton, an Englishman of fine natural abilities, but unskilled in architecture ; a second by Stephen L. Hallett, a cultivated French architect, then residing in New York.

There is evidence that Dr. Thornton's plan was at first favored. Writing to the commissioners from Philadelphia, January 31, 1793, Washington observed that he had under consideration Hallett's plans for the Capitol, "which have a great deal of merit." "Dr. Thornton," he continues, "has also given me a view of his, which come forward under very advantageous circumstances. The Grandeur, Simplicity, and Beauty of the exterior, the propriety with which the apartments are distributed, and the economy in the mass of the whole structure will, I doubt not, give it a preference in your eyes as it has in mine"; and he suggests that if the Doctor's plan is adopted, Hallett should be soothed as much as possible, and some employment be given him about the Capitol. Hallett, however, pointed out grave defects in Thornton's plan, and at the latter's request a commission of two practical architects chosen by himself was appointed to examine it. On July 25, 1793, Washington again wrote the commissioners that Mr. Carstairs and Colonel Williams (the two architects forming the commission) had rejected Dr.

Thornton's plan as impracticable, and had reported in favor of Mr. Hallett's, and that the latter would cost but one half that of the former.* Mr. James Hoban, who had been appointed superintendent of the Capitol, was therefore informed that the foundations would be begun upon the plan exhibited by Mr. Hallett, leaving "the recess in the east front open to further consideration." From this date,—July, 1793, must be reckoned the years of the Capitol. The southeast corner-stone was ready to be laid on the 18th of September, 1793. Great preparations were made for the event. Grenadier and artillery companies were mustered, and civic societies, the mayor and corporation of Georgetown, the surveying department of the city of Washington, and many distinguished citizens were invited.

The 18th dawned fair and cloudless, and at an early hour the open spaces of the embryo city were filled by an expectant multitude. An intelligent eye-witness has thus described the exercises of the day:

"Lodge No. 9 and Lodge No. 22 with all their officers and regalia appeared on the southern bank of the grand river Potomack; one of the finest companies of volunteer artillery parading to receive the President of the United States, who shortly came in sight with his suite, to whom the artillery paid military honors, and His Excellency and suite crossed the river and were received in Maryland by the officers and brethren of No. 22 Vir-

* This account is taken from the Washington letters in the State Department, and settles the much controverted point as to the authorship of the plan of the Capitol. Letters of Washington to the District Commissioners, preserved in the War Department, also establish the fact.

ginia, and No. 9 Maryland, whom the President headed, and, preceded by a band of music, with the rear brought up by the Alexandria Volunteer Artillery, with grand solemnity of march proceeded to the President's Square in the city of Washington, where they were met and saluted by Lodge No. 15 of the city in all their elegant regalia, headed by Bro. Joseph Clark, Rt. W. G. M., and conducted to a large lodge prepared for the purpose of their reception. After a short space of time the brotherhood and other bodies were disposed in a second procession, which took place amid a brilliant crowd of spectators of both sexes according to the following arrangement: The surveying department of the city of Washington, Mayor and Corporation of Georgetown, Virginia Artillery, Commissioners of the city of Washington and their attendants, stone cutters, mechanics, two sword bearers, Masons of the First Degree, Bibles, etc., on grand cushions, Deacons with staffs of Office, Masons of the Second Degree, Stewards with Wands, Wardens with truncheons, Secretaries with tools of office, Past Masters with their Regalia, Treasurers with their Jewels, Band of Music, Lodge No. 22 of Virginia disposed in their own order; Corn, Wine, and Oil; Grand Master P. T.; George Washington, W. M. No. 22 Virginia; Grand Sword Bearer. The procession marched two abreast in the greatest solemn dignity, with music playing, drums beating, colors flying, and spectators rejoicing (from the President's Square to the Capitol in the city of Washington, where the Grand Marshal ordered a halt, and directed each file in the procession to incline two steps, one to the right, and one to the left, and face each other, which formed a hollow, oblong square, through which the Grand Sword Bearer led the van, followed by the Grand Master P. T. on the left, the President of the United States in the centre, and the Wor-

shipful Master of No. 22, Virginia on the right). All the other orders that composed the procession advanced in the reverse of their order of march from the President's Square to the southeast corner of the Capitol, and the artillery filed off to a destined ground, to display their manœuvres and discharge their cannon.

“The President of the United States, the Grand Master, P. T., and the Worshipful Master of No. 22 took their stands to the east of a huge stone, and all the craft forming in a circle westward stood a short time in silent, awful order.

“The artillery discharged a volley. The Grand Marshal delivered the Commissioners a large silver plate with an inscription thereon, which the Commissioners ordered to be read, and which was as follows :

“‘This Southeast Corner Stone of the Capitol of the United States of America in the city of Washington was laid on the 18th day of September, 1793, in the 13th year of American Independence, in the first year of the second term of the Presidency of George Washington, whose virtues in the civil administration of his country have been as conspicuous and beneficial as his military valor and prudence have been useful in establishing her liberties, and in the year of Masonry 5793, by the President of the United States, in concert with the Grand Lodge of Maryland, several lodges under its jurisdiction, and Lodge No. 22, from Alexandria, Virginia.

“ ‘THOMAS JOHNSON,	} <i>Commissioners.</i>
DAVID STUART,	
DANIEL CARROLL,	
JOSEPH CLARK, <i>R. W. G. M. P. T.</i>	} <i>Architects.</i>
JAMES HOBAN,	
STEPHEN HALLETT,	
COLLEN WILLIAMSON, <i>M. Mason.</i>	

“The artillery discharged a volley. The plate was then delivered to the President, who, attended by the Grand Master P. T. and three Most Worshipful Masters, descended to the caisson trench and deposited the plate, and laid it on the corner stone of the Capitol of the United States of America, on which was deposited corn, wine, and oil. Then the whole congregation joined in prayer, which was succeeded by Masonic chanting honors and a volley from the artillery. The President of the United States and his attendant brethren ascended from the caisson to the east of the corner stone, and then the Grand Master, elevated on a triple rostrum, delivered an oration, after which there was more Masonic chanting and a 15th volley from the artillery. The whole company retired to an extensive booth where an ox of 500 lbs. was barbecued, of which the company generally partook, with every abundance of other recreation. The festival concluded with 15 successive volleys from the artillery, and before dark the whole company departed with joyful hopes of the production of their labor.”

The commissioners had before this advertised for plans for a “President’s House,” and a design submitted by James Hoban, an Irish architect, who was now acting as supervising architect of the Capitol, had been accepted. The construction of both was now pushed forward with vigor, the act of Congress creating the district having stipulated that the house for Congress should be ready for occupancy by the year 1800. Brick as a material was wisely discarded, and Virginia sandstone from quarries opened at Acquia Creek for the purpose substituted. From this period until 1800 the

city site presented much the appearance of a huge workshop. Long lines of teams drawing blocks of stone from the river landing; Scotch, French, and Italian stone-cutters at work under booths fashioning them; Italian sculptors modelling classic ornaments; and on Capitol Hill and at the President's house graceful walls surrounded by scaffolding slowly rising toward heaven, were the salient features of the scene. The foreign sculptors and artisans were imported for the purpose, and for laborers the commissioners hired slaves of their owners at so much a week. Indeed labor was much more easy to secure than the funds necessary to pay for it. Congress, as we have seen, had appropriated nothing, in fact had nothing to give. The \$120,000 given by Virginia, and the \$72,000 voted by Maryland were soon exhausted. Lots were thrown on the market as soon as the city was plotted, and a number were sold, but the money thus secured was but a drop in the ocean. Lotteries were held with but indifferent success, and the commissioners made futile efforts to borrow money of France and Holland. At length the President applied personally to the State of Maryland for a loan of \$100,000, which was granted, but so little faith had the State in the credit of the General Government, that she demanded the personal credit of the commissioners—which was given. While the city was yet in embryo—in 1797,—Washington, declining a third term as President, retired to Mount Vernon, and his successor, John Adams, assumed the care of the Federal City. President Adams came from a section openly hostile to the

East Chester Oct 31. 1797

Gentlemen

I have rec^d the Letter you wrote me
Sometime ago inclosing the Form of a
Full Power to borrow money: And yesterday

I rec^d a duplicate of it. I have not inform^d
it, as yet because some questions arise
upon it in my mind, which I wished to

ask at present. I have written to day upon

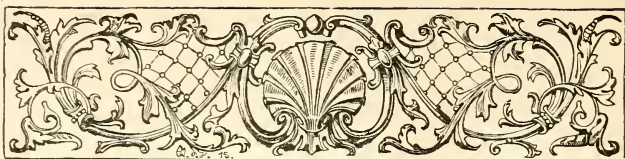
the Subject and shall be able to give you
my Answer I hope, in a few days after
the meeting of Congress. mean time I am

with great Esteem, gentlemen your
most obedient servant

The Commissioners of
the Federal City
John Adams

building of the new Capitol, but his first letter to the commissioners announced his determination to carry out to their fullest extent the plans of his predecessor, and he conscientiously performed his promise. One of his first duties was to appoint a new architect for the Capitol. Stephen Hallett remained in office but one year and then resigned. George Hadfield, an Englishman, appointed to succeed him, resigned in 1798, and James Hoban, supervising architect, was then left to carry on the work alone. Hoban finished the north wing late in 1799, in readiness for Congress. The President's house, though not entirely finished, was made ready for its distinguished guest. Before Congress could enter the city, however, Washington, the founder, had bidden farewell to earth. In the little chamber at Mount Vernon, familiar to all the world, he died, December 14, 1799; Providence, which had given him so many good gifts, denying him the crowning felicity of seeing the government of the young nation housed in its own capital.





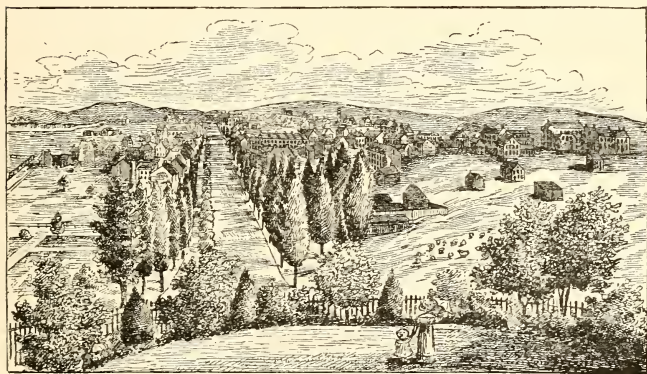
CHAPTER V.

TAKING POSSESSION.

ONE Indian-summer day in October, 1800, the hills an oriflamme of color, a bundle of white sails flashed away down in the narrows below Alexandria, and swiftly the news ran through the city that the long-expected "packet sloop," bearing the government records, furniture, and minor officials was below and fast approaching with wind and tide. At once the city's three thousand inhabitants hurried to the docks, and with hands shading their eyes gazed down the river. She had had quite an adventurous voyage, this little packet that bore the American Government and its fortunes,—down the Delaware and out to sea,—in through the royal capes Henry and Charles,—and up the long reaches of the Potomac.

As she came on, the stars and stripes flying at masthead, the people uttered cheer after cheer, bells rang, handkerchiefs waved, and every popular demonstration of joy that could be made, *was* made: for the citizens had begun to fear that the government would never leave its comfortable and elegant quarters in Philadelphia, to migrate to the wilderness city. As early as the 16th of May, of that year, President Adams had issued his order directing the

removal, and here it was mid-autumn—no wonder there was impatience at the delay. Late next day in their elegant hired coaches, the high officials of state drove into town—John Marshall, the famous jurist, Secretary of State; Oliver Wolcott of Connecticut, Secretary of the Treasury; Samuel Dexter, Secretary of War; Benjamin Stoddert, Secretary of the Navy: grave, dignified men, handsomely dressed in cocked



WASHINGTON, ABOUT 1800.

hats, powdered wigs, broadcloth coats and small-clothes—and another popular ovation greeted them. They were soon domiciled in the little cluster of brick offices about the White House, built for the Departments, and when, in November, President Adams and his family arrived, and the Sixth Congress assembled in the one little wing of the Capitol that was ready for it, the court circle was complete. No doubt the curious reader would like to look upon

the city in embryo, and fortunately we have in letters of the distinguished people of the day very graphic, although perhaps not always unprejudiced pictures. Wet "slashes," covered with scrub oak and alders, largely covered the level space between the Capitol and the White House. An inlet from the Potomac—called Tiber Creek—extended nearly to Capitol Hill, covering the present site of Centre Market, and having marshy, alder-fringed banks that in places cut into the line of Pennsylvania Avenue. The Departments were housed in a group of small brick buildings about the White House. The block known as the "Six buildings," on Pennsylvania Avenue between Twenty-first and Twenty-second streets, still standing, had already been erected and there were groups of wooden buildings along the road to Georgetown and about the Capitol—but we will allow the letter-writers to present the picture. The first is Oliver Wolcott, the famous Connecticut statesman. In a letter to his wife, dated July 4, 1800, he thus gives his "first impressions."

"The City of Washington, *or at least some part of it*, is about forty miles from Baltimore. . . . The Capitol is situated on an eminence which I should suppose was near the centre of the immense country here called the city. It is a mile and a half from the President's House and three miles on a straight line from Georgetown. There is one good tavern about forty rods from the Capitol, and several other houses are built and erecting; but I do not perceive how the members of Congress can possibly secure lodgings, unless they will consent to live like scholars in a college, or monks in a monastery,

crowded ten or twenty in one house, and utterly secluded from society. The only resource for such as wish to live comfortably will I think be found in Georgetown, three miles distant over as bad a road in winter as the clay grounds near Hartford.

“I have made every exertion to secure good lodgings near the office, but shall be compelled to take them at the distance of more than half a mile. There are in fact but few houses at any one place, and most of them small, miserable huts, which present an awful contrast to the public buildings. The people are poor, and, as far as I can judge, they live like fishes, by eating each other. All the ground for several miles around the city, being, in the opinion of the people, too valuable to be cultivated, remains unfenced. There are but few inclosures even for gardens, and those are in bad order. You may look in almost any direction over an extent of ground nearly as large as the city of New York, without seeing a fence or any object except brick kilns and temporary huts for laborers. . . . Greenleaf’s Point presents the appearance of a considerable town which had been destroyed by some unusual calamity. There are (there) fifty or sixty spacious houses, five or six of which are occupied by negroes and vagrants, and a few more by decent-looking people ; but there are no fences, gardens, nor the least appearance of business. This place is about a mile and a half south of the Capitol.”

Of the White House or “President’s Palace,” as the unfriendly called it, he thus speaks:

“It was built to be looked at by strangers, and will render its occupant an object of ridicule with some and of pity with others. It must be cold and damp in winter,

and cannot be kept in tolerable order without a regiment of servants."

One of the very few ladies who followed their lords to the capital was Mrs. President Adams, who thus had the distinguished honor of being the first mistress of the President's House. She was one of the most charming of letter-writers, and in a letter to her daughter, dated November 25th, 1800, gives *her* first impressions thus:

"I arrived here on Sunday last and without meeting with any accident worth noticing except losing ourselves when we left Baltimore, and going eight or nine miles on the Frederick road, by which means we were obliged to go the other eight through the woods, where we wandered two hours without finding a guide or the path. Fortunately a straggling black came up with us, and we engaged him as a guide to extricate us out of our difficulty; but woods are all you see from Baltimore until you reach the city—which is only so in name. Here and there is a small cot without a glass window interspersed among the forests, through which you travel miles without seeing any human being. In the city there are buildings enough, if they were compact and finished, to accommodate Congress, and those attached to it; but as they are, and scattered as they are, I see no great comfort for them. If the twelve years in which this place has been considered as the future seat of Government had been improved as they would have been in New England, very many of the present inconveniences would have been removed. It is a beautiful spot, capable of any improvement, and the more I view it the more I am delighted with it."

We shall next introduce a member of Congress, the Hon. John Cotton Smith, of Connecticut, who wrote a very interesting description of the city, and of the domestic life of Congressmen of that day. He says :

“ Our approach to the city was accompanied with sensations not easily described. One wing of the Capitol only had been erected, which, with the President’s House a mile distant from it,—both constructed with white sandstone,—were shining objects in dismal contrast with the scene around them. Instead of recognizing the avenues and streets portrayed on the plan of the city, not one was visible, unless we except a road with two buildings on each side of it called the New Jersey Avenue. The Pennsylvania Avenue, leading, as laid down on paper, from the Capitol to the Presidential mansion was then nearly the whole distance a deep morass covered with alder bushes, which were cut through the width of the intended avenue during the then ensuing winter.

“ Between the President’s house and Georgetown a block of houses had been erected, which then bore and may still bear the name of the Six Buildings. There were also two other blocks consisting of two or three dwelling-houses in different directions, and now and then an insulated wooden habitation, the intervening spaces, and indeed the surface of the city generally, being covered with shrub-oak bushes on the higher ground, and on the marshy soil either trees or some sort of shrubbery. . . . There appeared to be but two habitations really comfortable in all respects within the bounds of the city, one of which belonged to Daniel Carroll, Esq., and the other to Notley Young, who were

the former proprietors of a large proportion of the land appropriated to the city, but who reserved for their own accommodation ground sufficient for gardens, and other useful appurtenances. The roads in every direction were muddy and unimproved. A sidewalk was attempted in one instance, by a covering formed of the chips of the stones which had been hewed for the capital. It extended but a short distance, and was of little value: for in dry weather the fragments cut our shoes, and in wet weather covered them with white mortar. In short, it was a new settlement. The houses, with two or three exceptions, had been very recently erected, and the operation greatly hurried in view of the approaching transfer of the National Government. A laudable desire was manifested by what few citizens and residents there were, to render our condition as pleasant as circumstances would permit. One of the blocks of buildings already mentioned was situated on the east side of what was intended for the Capitol Square, and being chiefly occupied by an extensive and well kept hotel, accommodated a goodly number of the members. Our little party took lodgings with a Mr. Peacock, in one of the houses on New Jersey Avenue, with the addition of Senators Tracy of Connecticut, Chipman and Paine of Vermont, and Representatives Thomas of Maryland, and Dana, Edmond, and Griswold of Connecticut. Speaker Sedgwick was allowed a room to himself; the rest of us in pairs. To my excellent friend Davenport and myself was allowed a spacious and decently furnished apartment, with separate beds, on the lower floor. Our diet was varied, but always substantial, and we were attended by active and faithful servants.

“A large proportion of Southern members took lodgings

at Georgetown, which, though of a superior order, were three miles distant from the capital, and of course rendered the daily employment of hackney coaches indispensable.

“Notwithstanding the unfavorable aspect which Washington presented on our arrival, I cannot sufficiently express my admiration of its local position. From the capital you have a distinct view of its fine undulating surface situated at the confluence of the Potomac and its eastern branch, the wide expanse of that majestic river to the bend at Mt. Vernon, the cities of Alexandria and Georgetown, and the cultivated fields and blue hills of Maryland and Virginia on either side of the river, the whole constituting a prospect of surpassing beauty and grandeur.

“The city has also the inestimable advantage of delightful water, in many instances flowing from copious springs, and always attainable by digging to a moderate depth; to which may be added the singular fact that such is the due admixture of loam and clay in the soil of a great portion of the city, that a house may be built of brick made of the earth dug from the cellar; hence it was not unusual to see the remains of a brick kiln near the newly erected dwellings.”

“Wilderness City,” “Capital of Miserable Huts,” “City of Streets without Houses,” “City of Magnificent Distances,” “A Mud-hole almost Equal to the Great Serbonian Bog,” were epithets that appear in the letters of these disgusted statesmen, who perhaps did not take into sufficient consideration the extreme difficulty of building a capital in ten years, with no other resources than the gifts of the charitable, and the proceeds of the sale of lots.



CHAPTER VI.

THE CITY'S SPONSORS.

THE first ruler of the city was a strong, heroic figure—John Adams, the fiery patriot of the Revolution, the champion of the Declaration of Independence in Congress. Every one who takes the slightest interest in his country's history is familiar with his story. He had been the strong staff on which Washington leaned, the man whom he desired to be his successor ; and so, on Washington's retirement in 1796, the people had elected Adams President. But Adams came to the capital in bitterness of soul. A few days before there had been a revolution in the political world. The Federal party, of which he was the head, had been sorely defeated in the contest for the Presidency, and the Republican party, led by Jefferson, his political rival, had won. His brief sojourn of barely four months was in the rôle of the setting rather than that of the rising luminary. This, except in one instance, did not deter him from a scrupulous observance of the courtesies of his office. In official and social life he adopted the courtly ceremonial inaugurated by Washington, riding up to the Capitol and delivering his message to Congress in person, and giving formal levees and

stately dinners at stated times. Washington society, during his brief term, was courtly, polished, and exclusive to a degree.

If the President was sponsor to the infant city, so also was Congress; indeed, the latter has always had the more direct control over its destinies, the government of the city being vested solely in that body. Let us consider briefly this Congress, the first to assume parental control. There were thirty-two Senators and one hundred and five Representatives, representing sixteen States. Jefferson, as Vice-President, was President of the Senate. Theodore Sedgwick, the eminent jurist, was Speaker of the House. Of the many able and eloquent men in both Houses the names of but few are to-day remembered. John Randolph of Roanoke is best known; tall, lean almost to the point of emaciation, a master of coarse invective and sarcasm, nothing delighted him so much as personal debate and opposition. He was in politics very much what Voltaire was in letters. Griswold, Tracy, and John Cotton Smith of Connecticut, Sumter and Rutledge of South Carolina, Gouverneur Morris of New York, Bayard of Delaware, and Baldwin of Georgia who drafted the Constitution, were the most influential members. At this first session too, as if to concentrate public attention on the infant city, occurred the famous tie contest between Jefferson and Burr for the Presidency. For seven days the contest was waged in the House. The whole country became aroused. Every morning swift couriers sped north and south with news of the day's

balloting. In store, tavern, work-shop, people talked of nothing but the great tie intrigues. Toward the last the excitement rose to fever-heat; threats of revolution were freely made, and if Congress had not sat in the wilderness city, it is probable that an armed mob would have stormed the gates of the Capitol. At last the votes of Maryland were won for Jefferson, and on the 17th of February, 1801, he was declared elected. On the 4th of March following, the new President was inaugurated. It was the first ceremony of the kind that the infant capital had ever seen; it was the simplest and most democratic in form that it was destined ever to see. The inaugurations of Washington and Adams had been attended with something of the state and ceremony of English coronations. Jefferson determined to emphasize the triumph of democracy by a change. A recent historian, following partisan accounts, describes him as riding unattended up Pennsylvania Avenue on horseback through the mud, hitching his horse to a sapling, and as passing thence up into the Capitol, where he delivered his inaugural and took the oath. It is very unwise, however, to accept partisan accounts for sober history. In Raynor's "Life of Jefferson," published in 1832, there is an authoritative account by an eye-witness, from which we quote :

"The sun shone bright on that morning. The Senate was convened. Those members of the Republican party who remained at the seat of government, the judges of the Supreme Court, some citizens and gentry from the neighboring country, and about a dozen ladies made up

the assembly in the Senate Chamber who were collected to witness the inauguration. Mr. Jefferson had not yet arrived. He was seen walking from his lodgings, which were not far distant, attended by five or six gentlemen who were his fellow lodgers. Soon afterward he entered, accompanied by a Committee of the Senate, and bowing to the Senate, who arose to receive him, he approached a table on which the Bible lay, and took the oath, which was administered to him by the Chief Justice. He was then conducted by the President of the Senate to his chair, which stood on a platform raised some steps above the floor. After a pause of a moment or two, he arose and delivered that beautiful inaugural address, which has since become so popular and celebrated, with a clear, distinct voice in a firm and modest manner. On leaving the chair he was surrounded by friends who pressed forward with eager congratulations, and some, though not many, of the more magnanimous of his opponents, most of whom, however, silently left the Chamber. The new President walked home with two or three of the gentlemen who lodged in the same house. At dinner he took his accustomed place at the bottom of the table, his new station not eliciting from his democratic friends any new attention or courtesy."

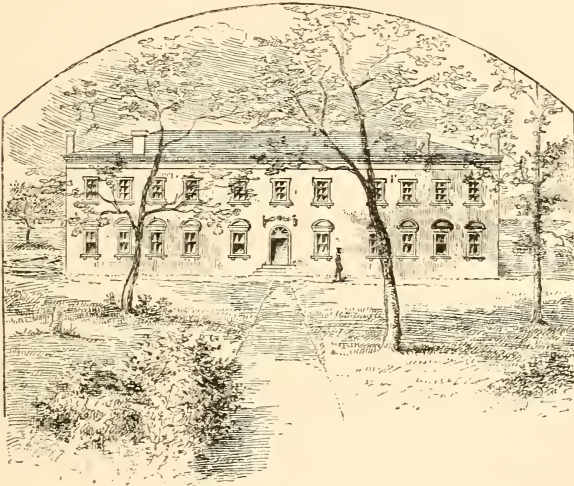
Thus were inaugurated the days of "Jeffersonian simplicity." The inaugural, couched in Addisonian English, was remarked for its brevity, clearness, and simplicity of diction. In it the new President thus defined his position :

"Equal and exact justice to all men of whatever state or persuasion, religious or political ; peace, commerce, and honest friendships with all nations, entangling alli-

ances with none ; the support of the State governments in all their rights as the most competent administrations for our domestic concerns, and the surest bulwarks against anti-republican tendencies ; the preservation of the general government in its whole constitutional vigor as the sheet-anchor of our peace at home, and safety abroad ; a jealous care of the right of election by the people ; a mild and safe corrective of abuses which are lopped by the sword of revolution where peaceable remedies are unprovided ; absolute acquiescence in the decisions of the majority, the vital principle of republics, from which there is no appeal but to force, the vital principle and immediate parent of despotism ; a well disciplined militia, our best reliance in peace, and for the first moments of war, till regulars may relieve them ; the supremacy of the civil over the military authority ; economy in the public expense, that labor may be lightly burdened ; the honest payment of our debts and sacred preservation of the public faith ; encouragement of agriculture, and of commerce as its handmaid ; the diffusion of information and arraignment of all abuses at the bar of public reason ; freedom of religion, freedom of the press, and freedom of person under the protection of the *habeas corpus*, and trial by juries impartially selected."

President Adams did not tarry, as courtesy demanded, to deliver the government into the hands of his successor, but rode away at daylight that morning in bitterness of spirit, to go into retirement at his Massachusetts home. Before parting with him and his administration, let us take a passing glimpse of the social life of the capital in this first year of its existence.

Of society there was very little. In the White House the courtly ceremonial of palaces obtained so far as was consistent with democratic ideas. Once a week the President held his levees, which all respectably dressed persons might attend. Once a week he gave a formal dinner to invited guests. Mrs. Adams' social duties seem to have been limited to the receiv-



THE PRESIDENT'S HOUSE IN 1800.

ing and paying of visits. In the letter to her daughter before referred to she thus describes the domestic arrangements of the White House, and her social duties :

“ The house is upon a grand and superb scale, requiring about thirty servants to attend and keep the apartments in order and perform the ordinary business of the house and stables,—an establishment very well propor-

tioned to the President's salary. The lighting the apartments from kitchen to parlors and chambers is a tax indeed, and the fires we are obliged to keep to secure us from daily agues is another very cheering comfort. The ladies from Georgetown and in the city have many of them visited me. Yesterday I returned fifteen visits—but such a place as Georgetown appears—why our Milton is beautiful. . . . Since I sat down to write I have been called down to a servant from Mount Vernon, with a billet from Major Custis, and a haunch of venison, and a kind congratulatory letter from Mrs. Lewis upon my arrival in the city, with Mrs. Washington's love, inviting me to Mount Vernon, where, health permitting, I will go before I leave this place. . . . The vessel which has my clothes and other matter is not arrived. The ladies are impatient for a drawing-room. I have no looking-glasses but dwarfs for this house, nor a twentieth part lamps enough to light it. . . .

“You can scarce believe that here in this wilderness city I should find my time so occupied as it is. My visitors, some of them, come three or four miles. The return of one of their visits is the work of a day. Most of the ladies reside in Georgetown or in scattered parts of the city at two and three miles distance.”





CHAPTER VII.

EARLY DAYS.

PRESIDENT JEFFERSON introduced a social as well as a political revolution. The White House was thrown open to the public ; the President was accessible to all. His mode of life was simple, his habits methodical as clock-work. He rose with the sun, and devoted the day until dinner to the duties of his high office. After dinner he gave the hours until retiring to society and recreation. One who saw him often at this time thus described him * : “ He is tall in stature and rather spare in flesh. His dress and manners are very plain. He is grave, or rather sedate, but without any tincture of pomp, ostentation, or pride, and occasionally can smile, and both hear and relate humorous stories.”

He was a widower at this time, his beloved wife Martha having been dead eighteen years. Neither of his two married daughters could leave home duties to become mistress of the White House, and at the President's earnest request the post was filled by Mrs. James Madison, the lovely and accomplished wife of his Secretary of State.

* Dr. Samuel L. Mitchell, Senator from New York, 1801-1813.

One of the ladies whom Colonel Burr met while a Senator at Philadelphia in 1793-4, was a Mrs. Dorothy Payne Todd, a charming young widow of twenty-two, whose husband, John Todd, a lawyer of that city, had recently died, leaving her a pretty fortune. She was of Quaker birth and breeding, and so very beautiful that we are told gentlemen would station themselves where they could see her pass. And when she walked in the street her fair friends would say half jestingly: "Really, Dorothy, thou must hide thy face, there are so many staring at thee." One day in Philadelphia Colonel Burr told her that the famous Virginia statesman, James Madison, then a Member of Congress, had asked to be presented to her. She gave permission, and in a little flutter of expectation thus wrote her intimate friend, Mrs. Lee: "Dear friend, thou must come to me. Aaron Burr says that the great little Madison has asked to be brought to see me this evening." They were married the succeeding autumn. This lady, who to great beauty added a kind heart and engaging manners, did the social honors of the White House during Mr. Jefferson's term. The President's official family consisted of James Madison, Secretary of State; Albert Gallatin, the learned and talented Swiss, Secretary of the Treasury; General Henry Dearborn, of New Hampshire, Secretary of War; Levi Lincoln, of Massachusetts, Attorney-General; and Gideon Granger, of Connecticut, Postmaster-General. The Seventh Congress, which came in December 7, 1801, was the first that assumed jurisdiction over the city,

but the latter was not incorporated until 1802. Little of interest is found in the history of the city during the eight years of Jefferson's term. The President took the greatest interest in its welfare, and used every effort in his power to beautify it, and render it stable. His watchful care over it is strikingly shown in the letter reproduced in facsimile on the succeeding page; and in his messages to Congress he recommended liberal appropriations for its improvement, as indeed President Adams had done before him. But there were always unfriendly voices urging lack of authority on the part of Congress to make such grants, and the appropriations were very small. He did succeed in getting, in 1803, an appropriation of fifty thousand dollars for the completion of the south wing of the Capitol, and another for setting out four rows of Lombardy poplars on Pennsylvania Avenue.

The city grew but slowly. At the close of Jefferson's term (1808) it contained but about five thousand people. This result was caused largely by the uncertainty that existed as to its future. Agitation for the removal of the Capitol continued until the introduction of the steam-engine and the telegraph removed the chief grounds of the opposition—*i. e.*, its remoteness and inaccessibility. The most persistent effort of all was made near the close of Jefferson's first term. The discomforts and inconveniences of the new city were deemed intolerable by the Northern members, and Congress would probably have voted then to remove the government until the new city should have had time to grow, had a suitable

Mr. Jefferson presents his compliments to Mr. Monroe
he has this moment seen a wooden house building on F. street
near Mr. Hiders' which seems indubitably beyond the limits allowed
he prays him to have it removed & if found unlawful, to have
expedition instantly served on all liable to them.

Apr. 26. 05.

place presented itself. The violence and persistency of these attacks led to the coining of a new term, "Capitol-movers."

The newspapers of Philadelphia and New York were most violent in these attacks, probably because those cities had lost most by the change. Their writers never tired of joking at the young capital. "That Arcadian seat of government," they termed it, "that village in the wilderness," away from the centres of population, where "men of talent were expected to expatriate themselves for six months in the year, deprived of the society of wives and children, and of the comforts of civilized life." They depreciated the Capitol itself, described "the puddles under the skylights," "the crumbling ceilings, and rattling sashes, unwelcome interruptions of many an elaborate harangue," the court surmounted by a dome two or three hundred feet high, "round which foreign ministers and Yazoo nabobs may swing to the side-doors and alight under cover in chariots and four, or coaches and six, surrounded by all the paraphernalia of European parade." They said nothing could be heard in the hall of the House, the voice of the Speaker being completely lost before reaching the ear, and "if now so bad," they asked, "what will it be when keen northwesterners shall begin to bawl through the long-drawn corridors, when driving snow-storms shall rush through the folding-doors, sweep up the winding stair-cases, break pell-mell into the hall with the dripping members, and whirl round the Arabian Circle in the very teeth of representative Majesty?"

The most telling blows, however, were struck by a writer in the Philadelphia *United States Gazette*. We quote some of his letters as reflecting the thought of the day :

“Where are our cities?” he asked. “To Northward ! Our churches, colleges, libraries, moral and political associations ? To Northward ! Finally, where is our Government ? Tending Southward ; transporting itself, gradatim, from the banks of the Delaware to Tiber Creek, from those of Tiber Creek to those of the Little Miami, or of the great Tombigbee, to Florida, Louisiana, and the Lord knows where. In the meantime the national bantling, called the city of Washington, remains, after ten years of expensive fostering, a ricketty infant unable to go alone. Nature will not be forced. This embryo of the State will always remain a disappointment to its parents. The Federal City,” he continues, “is in reality neither town nor village—it may be compared to a hunting seat, where State sportsmen may run horses and fight cocks—kill time under cover, and shoot public service flying. A few scattered hamlets here and there indicate a sordid and dependent population, and two or three vast edifices upon distant hills so palpably demonstrate intermediate vacuity that Indian sachems and Tripolitan ambassadors are regularly fitted out for a tour to the northward, that they may not return and see nothing but the nakedness of the land. . . . There sits the President, during the summer recess, like a pelican in the wilderness, or a sparrow upon the house-top, and when the delegates flock around him for the winter they flutter awhile from tree to tree and then settle down by hundreds and peck, and flutter, and hop about without fear of surprise, the hill of the Capitol

being from one or two furlongs to three or four miles distant from the neighboring farms and the mischievous urchins of the vicinity."

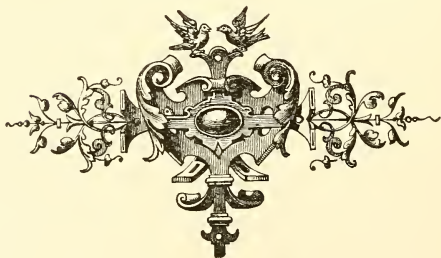
He likens the Congressmen trudging along on a frosty morning through mud and snow to "so many pilgrims incurring voluntary hardship, or a journey of penance," and supposes a snow-storm, "as likely to be as fatal to a parliamentary question at Washington as a shower of gold at Westminster, and a bleak November as sure to blow away anti-ministerial opposition on Capitol Hill as a puff from one of the orators of Government at the *Palais du Tribunat*."

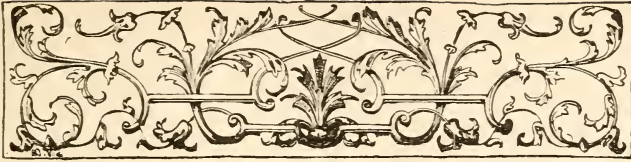
In March, 1804, a bill to remove the seat of government to Baltimore, and making provision for providing the necessary public buildings, and for transporting the public effects, passed to its second reading in the Senate; at the same time a motion was offered in the House to recede the District back to Maryland and Virginia, one argument being that the time of Congress was too much taken up in legislating for it.

"When Congress is once mounted on wheels and set a rolling," said a federal Senator—Manasseh Cutler—referring to this bill, "I believe it impossible to say where the government will roll to, and when it will stop. . . . It is believed the one [reason] which operated the most powerfully is that this city has the misfortune to be called after the name of Washington. The people of this city are, as might be expected, extremely irritated. If these measures should be carried,—which I scarcely think

possible,—we may have a little specimen of that kind of government these exclusive friends of the people are advocating—mobocracy—before we leave the city.”

The “Capital-movers” did not succeed in their project, however, although they continued the agitation for many years, and aided no little in retarding the growth of the city.





CHAPTER VIII.

THE CAPITOL DESTROYED.

THE inauguration ceremonies of President Madison (March 4, 1809) departed somewhat from the Spartan simplicity that had been observed by Jefferson. A grand procession of carriages, military, and civic societies, and citizens on foot escorted him to the Capitol, where in the presence of a brilliant and imposing company he took the oath of office. He was clad—as the Republican journals widely heralded—in a full suit of clothes woven by American looms from the wool of merinos bred in this country,—his coat from the factory of Colonel Humphreys in Connecticut, and his waistcoat and small-clothes from that of Chancellor Livingston of New York,—all presented by those gentlemen for the occasion.

There was as great a change in the atmosphere of the White House, where the charming Mrs. Madison was now mistress. The levees of Washington and Adams were revived, state dinners again became the fashion, gradually a court circle grew into existence, and the ladies were gratified with an abundance of balls and assemblies; but on the 18th of June, 1812, this polite society was startled as if by a thunderbolt from a clear sky, for on that day Congress formally

declared war against Great Britain. In this narrative we are concerned with that war only as it affected the fortunes of the city. It had been waged with varying fortunes on sea and land for two years before the citizens of Washington began to be alarmed by fears of British invasion.

Early in this summer of 1814, rumors spread through the capital of a great British armament preparing at Bermuda, some said for an attack on New York, others on Baltimore and Annapolis, while others asserted quite as vehemently that the national capital was the chosen object of British vengeance.

How easy it would be, they argued, for Admiral Sir George Cockburn, who had been a year with his fleet in Chesapeake Bay, when reinforced by the Bermuda armament to disembark a strong column at any point on the western shore of the Chesapeake—but forty miles distant—and by a forced march capture the city.

But by some strange fatuity, the President and his Cabinet treated these possibilities as unworthy of credence. "The British come here!" a Cabinet officer is reported to have said, in answer to the representations of citizens. "What should they come here for?" Sure enough: a provincial village of six thousand inhabitants. But then there were the state papers and public buildings, the moral effect of capturing an enemy's capital, and the satisfaction of chastising the city where a British minister had been obliged to ask for his recall on the ground of ill-treatment. In reply the minister urged the extreme improbability of an hostile force leaving its base of

supplies and marching forty miles inland to attack a town presumably well defended; and as to the Potomac, why its rocks and shoals and devious channel would prevent any stranger force from ascending it.

Colonel James Monroe, a gallant soldier of the Revolution, was now Secretary of State; another Revolutionary soldier, General Armstrong, was Secretary of War, and acting on their advice, President Madison did substantially nothing for the defence of his capital. Fort Washington commanding the Potomac, which Major L'Enfant had planned early in the war, was hurried forward to completion; but no defences on the landward side were erected, and no army was called out to defend it.

What was done was this. The District of Columbia, Maryland, and that part of Virginia north of the Rappahannock, were created a tenth military district under command of General W. H. Winder, a brave officer, who had seen service in the Northwest, and who had recently returned from long detention in Canada as prisoner of war.

General Winder on taking command (June 26, 1814) found for the defence of Washington detachments of the 36th and 38th regulars amounting to a few hundred men, but nothing more—no forts, no guns, no army. A force of thirteen regiments of Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania militia had been drafted, but were not to be called into active service until the enemy should appear—an arrangement against which General Winder protested in vain, urging that the men should be called out at once

and placed in positions between Washington and the Chesapeake, and about Baltimore, where they could be drilled, disciplined, and massed instantly at any threatened point. But in this he was overruled.

While these weak and ineffectual preparations are being made, the enemy has been marshalling his forces. Early in August Rear-Admiral Cockburn's blockading squadron had been joined in the Potomac by the fleet of Vice-Admiral Cochrane, who as ranking officer at once took command. The hardy fishermen, who had learned to watch warily the actions of the marauding squadron, soon saw that important movements had been decided upon. The *Seahorse* frigate, Captain Gordon, with several other frigates and tenders were seen to separate from the main fleet and proceed up the Potomac, while the remaining ships of war, with the exception of one or two blockaders, spread sail and swept grandly up the Chesapeake.

Two days later these same fishermen, looking seaward, discovered a fleet of sails beating in between the royal Capes, and watched them grow until twenty-two frigates and ships of the line had passed in and lay at anchor within the Roads. An admiral's pennant floated over one and the decks of the ships were black with men. This was the long-expected Bermuda expedition under Rear-Admiral Malcolms, and it bore, besides its complement of sailors and marines, four thousand troops of the flower of the British army under General Ross—veterans of Wellington's army, whom the recent abdication of Napoleon had released from service in France and

Spain. Meantime Admiral Cochrane's fleet had proceeded up the Chesapeake, and meeting Commodore Barney's little Baltimore flotilla of gunboats had chased it into the Patuxent River, and was now doing blockading service at the mouth of that river.

Here on the 17th of August it was joined by Malcolm's and Ross' force, and the whole body then moved up the Patuxent ostensibly to attack Barney, but really to effect a landing of troops for the march to Washington. Barney, to prevent his vessels falling into the enemy's hands, burned them, and with his seamen and marines and the few guns he could mount, made a forced march across the peninsula to join Winder for the defence of Washington.

All through the night of August 19, 1814, a courier spurred post-haste under the sombre pines, over the heavy sandy roads of tidewater Maryland, toward Washington. At every little post town—Nottingham, Marlborough, Bladensburg—he drew rein at the ancient tavern and cried in stentorian tones: "The British have landed in force at Benedict and are marching inland. To arms! To arms!" and swept on like an ill-omened spirit of the night. He was in Washington at daylight, where his news created a vast confusion of counsel and effort. President Madison and Colonel Monroe agreed that the capital was the object of attack; and the latter soon set out on a reconnoissance to discover the enemy's force and intentions.

General Armstrong maintained that Baltimore was the point aimed at. "They will strike somewhere," he said to General Van Ness, who called upon him

on behalf of the citizens to urge prompt and energetic measures. "They will strike somewhere, but they will not come here. No, no, Baltimore is the place, sir; that is of so much more consequence." And at a consultation with the President and General Winder, three days later, he expressed the opinion that Ross' movement was intended simply to cover and aid the armed vessels destined to the attack on Barney's flotilla in the Patuxent, and that if they made an attack on Washington at all, it would be "a mere Cossack hurrah," a rapid march and hasty retreat, coming as he did wholly unprepared for siege and investment. His advice to General Winder was:

"I would assemble my force in the enemy's front, fall quietly back to the Capitol, giving only that degree of resistance that invites a pursuit. When arrived in its front I would immediately put in battle my twenty pieces of artillery, give the direction and management of these to Barney and Peters, fill the upper part of the building and the adjacent buildings with infantry, regulars, and militia, amounting to 5,000 men, while my 300 cavalry held themselves in reserve for a charge the moment a recoil appeared in the British columns of attack."

General Wilkinson, who was in the city, advised that the roads in the enemy's front should be obstructed, that a force should be sent to make a detour and fall on his rear, while flying parties harassed his flanks and rear, by which means he thought he might be forced to take to his ships.

General Winder still believed that Annapolis was

the enemy's ulterior object, and gave many excellent reasons for his opinion.

It is well to bear in mind these adverse opinions and counsels, since they furnish a key to the subsequent disaster. The people of Washington were thrown into the greatest excitement by the news. Men grasped their arms, and women turned pale at the thought of the city's being delivered over to "Cockburn's savages," whose atrocities had filled the country with horror. On the 23d a dispatch from Colonel Monroe was received, saying that the enemy was in full march toward the city, and closing with the significant words: "Have the material prepared to destroy the bridges. You had better remove the records." A most distressing panic ensued.

Meantime, the enemy was engaged in disembarking his force. This was variously estimated by American reconnoitring parties at from 4,000 to 7,000 men. Colonel Monroe placed it at the latter figure; the Revolutionary veteran, Colonel Beall, at the former. Their total force landed, as appears from official records, comprised the 21st Regiment, 1,003 men; one battalion each of the 4th, 44th, and 85th regiments, 2,180 men in all; 90 artillerymen; 1,500 marines under Admiral Cockburn, and 350 seamen; a total of 5,123 men. A part of this force was left to garrison Benedict and the towns along the way. About 4,000 men composed the invading army.

Let us see what force General Winder possessed to repel the attack. Of District troops there was a

brigade, commanded by General Walter Smith, of Georgetown, which comprised two regiments of militia and volunteer companies, with two companies of light artillery, having each six six-pounders, and two companies of riflemen. These regiments were well armed and disciplined, and comprised in all 1,070 men. From Baltimore and its vicinity came a brigade of 2,200 men under General Stansbury, in which were two companies of volunteer artillery with six six-pounders, and a battalion of volunteer riflemen, commanded by the famous William Pinckney, previously Attorney-General and Minister to England, and later Senator. There were two other regiments of Maryland militia, about 1,100 strong; a regiment of Virginia militia of 700 men; 300 regular infantry under Lieutenant-Colonel William Scott; 520 sailors and marines from Barney's flotilla and from the Navy Yard; a squadron of United States dragoons; and various companies of volunteers to the number of 300; in all 6,000 men, of which 900 only were regular troops. There were also twenty-six pieces of artillery—a force outnumbering the British by 3,000 men, could it have been concentrated on any one point, a manœuvre rendered very difficult from the ignorance of the commander as to where the enemy would strike.

Let us now follow the British advance, and see what means were adopted to check it. Landing at Benedict, as we have seen, on August 19th, on the 20th they began their march toward Nottingham, a small town about fifteen miles farther up the Patuxent, convoyed by Cockburn in his boats

and tenders. On the 21st the column halted for the mid-day meal at Lower Marlborough, about midway between Benedict and Nottingham, where Ross and Cockburn held a council of war. The force then moved on to Nottingham and encamped for the night. On the 22d, at daybreak, it was under arms again, leaving the river now and marching inland by the Chapel road toward Upper Marlborough and Bladensburg. The country here was hilly, well wooded, sparsely peopled, and intersected by numerous roads leading to Baltimore, Annapolis, and Washington, either of which points it was thought the enemy might have in view. It offered good advantages for guerilla warfare had the people rallied; but the reputation of Cockburn's troops had preceded them, and the planters thought only of removing their women and children to places of safety.

Five miles from Nottingham the road forks, one branch running northward to Marlborough, the other westward to Washington. Ross turned into the Washington road as if that city were his destination; but after halting an hour, reversed his column and took the road to Marlborough, thus further mystifying his enemy, and forcing the American army (which had been hurried out on the Washington road) either to push on and attack him or to fall back within supporting distance of the capital. It took the latter alternative. The British, meantime, pressed on to Marlborough, which they reached at 2 P.M. of the 22d. They remained there until the same hour the next day, when they resumed their march toward Washington, and bivouacked that

night at Melwood, but ten or twelve miles from the capital. Breaking camp before daylight next morning, they came soon to a fork of the road, one branch of which ran northward to Bladensburg, distant ten miles, the other westward to the bridge over the Eastern Branch at Washington, distant about eight miles. Here again Ross made a feint of taking the Eastern Branch road, but as soon as his last column had entered it, reversed front and marched along the Bladensburg road toward that town. General Win-der with the main body had been stationed to dispute the passage of the Eastern Branch bridge; but as the route the enemy would take was now apparent, his troops were hurried forward to Bladensburg, where a body of Maryland militia had already been posted to check the enemy, should they advance in that direction.

It is a favorite drive with Washingtonians to-day over the smooth Bladensburg pike to the quaint old village. Dipping into the ravine where Barney made his stand, you have on the right the famous duelling ground enriched with some of the noblest blood of the Union. A mile farther on you come out on the banks of the Eastern Branch, here an inconsiderable mill-stream easily forded, though spanned by a bridge some thirty yards in length. On the opposite shore gleam through the trees the houses of Bladensburg very little changed since the battle day. Some seventy yards before reaching the bridge, the Washington pike is joined by the old Georgetown post-road, which comes down from the north to meet it at an angle of forty-five degrees. The grad-

ually rising triangular field between these two roads, its heights now crowned by an elegant club-house of modern design, was the battle ground.

The entire American army had been posted here, and on a second line of battle a mile in the rear, before the British column appeared in sight across the river. Had General Winder not been hampered with the presence and instructions of his superior officers, President Madison, Colonel Monroe, and General Armstrong, he might have made his dispositions with better judgment. The one earthwork—a barbette battery at the apex of the triangle—was at once occupied by two companies of Baltimore artillery, while the battalion of riflemen commanded by Major Pinckney and two companies of militia acting as riflemen were posted on the right and left, respectively, as supports. Five hundred yards in their rear on the heights were posted in a line stretching nearly from road to road the three regiments of Maryland militia, commanded by Colonels Sterett, Ragan, and Schultz,—General Stansbury's brigade,—with Captain Burch's artillery on their extreme left, covering the Georgetown road; and the cavalry beyond the artillery. Between the Battery and its supports and Stansbury's brigade was then an orchard, and a large tobacco storehouse, the position of the latter being in full view of the lower road by which the enemy was advancing.

The army had been posted here to dispute the passage of the bridge. A mile in its rear—far beyond supporting distance—was formed a second line of battle composed of Barney's battery—seamen and

marines,—Lt.-Col. Scott's regiment of regulars, Smith's brigade of militia, Major Peters' battery of six guns, Colonel Beall's regiment of Maryland militia, and a few other militia battalions and companies that had composed General Winder's force at the Eastern Branch bridge. Commodore Barney's two eighteen-pounders were planted in the highway at a point where the road dropped into a narrow ravine, with his three twelve-pounders on his right, the seamen acting as artillerists. Peters' battery of six guns was stationed farther to the left on still higher ground, and the infantry were disposed to the right and left as supports. The first line was composed almost entirely of undisciplined militia, half famished and so exhausted with five days and nights of almost continuous marching in search of the enemy that they were in no condition for battle. The Maryland brigade that morning had marched sixteen miles, arriving but an hour before the battle commenced.

Scarcely had General Winder finished his dispositions when the British appeared on the other bank, marching in a line parallel with the American position, and in full view of the troops on the hill; in their red coats, with bayonets glistening, drums beating, and standards waving, making a martial appearance well calculated to overawe untried levies. Here marched the seasoned veterans of Wellington's campaigns, well armed, well officered, fresh from camp; on the other shore awaited them raw militia, hastily levied, badly equipped, and faint from long marching and little food.

Getting into the village, the British began a fire of Congreve rockets, in place of artillery, a new arm of service recently introduced, and from its novelty the more disquieting. Under cover of this fire, they advanced a column upon the bridge, but the Baltimore artillery lodged in the battery so decimated it with round shot and grape, that it broke in an instant and disappeared behind the houses.

Quite an interval now elapsed, employed by the enemy in bringing up his main body, and by the Americans in a steady artillery fire, with a view to silencing the rocketers, who were fast getting the range of the reserve troops on the hill. Very soon a heavier column rushed at double quick upon the bridge; round shot and grape tore through its ranks as before, but the gaps were quickly filled, and a large force was soon over the bridge, and in line under the bluff, where the shot from the battery could not reach it, and where it soon received large reinforcements from the light troops who had forded the river above the bridge. The supporting riflemen, seeing the enemy across the stream, fired two or three ineffectual volleys, and fell back to the right of Stansbury's brigade, which, as we have seen, had been drawn up on the crest of the hill in reserve. General Winder at once ordered the 5th Regiment of this brigade to advance and defend the battery, but as it moved down the slope the rockets began to hiss over the heads of the two remaining regiments, and to cut through their ranks, creating such panic that they fled incontinently, leaving the advancing regiment unsupported. General Winder command-

ed the latter to halt, and dashed after the fugitives, whom he succeeded in bringing to a halt; then leaving their officers to reform them, he hurried back to the 5th, but on reaching them he found to his dismay that the two regiments he had left were in disorderly flight. Meantime the artillery, left unsupported, had retired from the battery, which, with the barn and orchard, had been occupied by the enemy. At the same moment Winder, observing that a strong column of the enemy had passed up the pike, and was deploying into the field to attack his flank, ordered a retreat. Up to this time the 5th with Pinckney's rifles and the artillery had behaved well, but to retreat in the face of the enemy—almost an impossibility with veteran troops—was too great a trial of their endurance. They broke into disgraceful flight, and hurried after the other fragments of the shattered army.

The British, having thus disposed of the first line, pressed on down the Washington pike, and at the distance of a mile met the second line or reserve, which up to this time had taken no part in the battle, and which received few accessions from the first line, as the routed militia had fled by way of the Georgetown or post road. This line the enemy attacked simultaneously on both flanks, as he had the first,—Colonel Brooks of the 44th Regiment marching up the Georgetown road, and taking it on its left, while Colonel Thornton attacked its extreme right on the Bladensburg pike. The latter force first met Commodore Barney's battery, which, as we have seen, had been planted in the main road beyond the

ravine. The result is thus told by the gallant Commodore in his report :

“On seeing us [he] made a halt. I reserved our fire. In a few moments the enemy again advanced, when I ordered an eighteen-pounder to be fired, which completely cleared the road : shortly after, a second and a third attempt was made by the enemy to come forward, but all were destroyed. They then crossed over into an open field, and attempted to flank our right ; he was there met by three twelve-pounders, the marines under Captain Miller, and my men acting as infantry, and again was totally cut up. By this time not a vestige of the American army remained, except a body of 500 or 600, posted on a height on my right, from whom I expected much support from their fine situation. The enemy from this moment never appeared in force in front of us. They pushed forward their sharpshooters, one of whom shot my horse under me, which fell dead between two of my guns. The enemy, who had been kept in check by our fire for nearly half an hour, now began to outflank us on the right ; our guns were turned that way. He pushed up the hill about 200 or 300 men toward the corps of Americans stationed as above described,* who to my great mortification made no resistance, giving a fire or two and retired. In this situation we had the whole army to contend with. Our ammunition was expended, and unfortunately the drivers of our ammunition wagons had gone off in the general panic.”

At this crisis the seamen and marines retreated, leaving the Commodore severely wounded and

* Magruder's regiment.

stretched upon the ground. Ross and Cockburn came up while he lay there, and treated him with the utmost respect and attention, ordering a surgeon to be brought at once to dress his wound.

In this report Commodore Barney gives no credit to troops of the second line other than his own. Yet, when the enemy was engaged in the ravine, Peters' battery, which had been planted on an eminence a short distance northwest of Barney's position, opened upon him with good effect, and the British 85th, when thrown into the fields to carry Barney's left, was forced quickly back by Magruder's regiment stationed there. An English officer, who wrote under the *nom de plume* of a "Subaltern in America," admits that this attack on Barney's position entailed greater loss in proportion to the numbers under fire than any battle in which the British had ever been engaged.

The second line was now in orderly retreat toward the Capitol. Of its subsequent fortunes a very interesting account is given by General Smith, the officer commanding it :

"The first and second regiments," he says, "halted and formed after retreating five or six hundred paces, but were again ordered by General Winder to retire. At this moment I fell in with General Winder, and after a short conference with him was directed to move on, collect the troops, and prepare to make a stand on the heights westward of the turnpike gate. This was done as fast as the troops came up. A front was again presented toward the enemy, consisting principally of the troops of this District, a part of those who had been at-

tached to them in the action, and a Virginia regiment of about 400 men, under Colonel Miner, which met us at this place. While the line was yet forming I received orders from General Winder to fall back to the Capitol, and there form for battle. I took the liberty of suggesting my impression of the preferable situation we then occupied ; but, expecting that he might be joined there by some of his dispersed troops of the front line, he chose to make the stand there. Approaching the Capitol I halted the troops, and requested his orders as to the formation of the line. We found no auxiliaries there. He then conferred for a few moments with General Armstrong, who was a short distance from us, and then gave orders that the whole should retreat through Washington and Georgetown. It is impossible," he adds, "to do justice to the anguish evinced by the troops of Washington and Georgetown on receiving this order. The idea of leaving their families, their homes, and their houses at the mercy of an enraged enemy was insupportable. To preserve that order," he adds significantly, "which had been maintained during the retreat, was now no longer practicable."

The broken army fled by twos and threes through the city, and sought refuge among the hills and crags of Virginia. The British were two miles behind them.

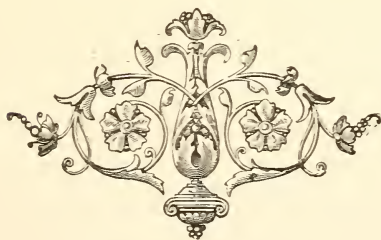
All day the city had been a scene of the wildest confusion : militia companies marching in and then out upon the pike ; long trains of wagons laden with government records, household effects, women and children, hastening over the bridge toward the Virginia wilds ; a mob of the lower orders on foot,

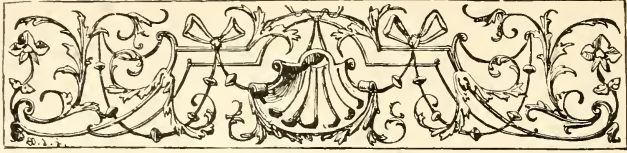
swift couriers dashing in from the front, thunder of guns and roll of musketry, little troops of gentlemen sight-seers dashing in from the field, and then the disorderly swarm of fugitives. These were the sights and sounds of the city on this fatal 24th of August, 1814.

President Madison, with Mr. Jones his Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Rush his Attorney-General, General Mason, and Daniel Carroll of Duddington, also betook themselves to the Virginia shore. Heroic Mrs. Madison remained until the British entered the city, when she too escaped into Virginia, as will be narrated later.

The British reached the east Capitol grounds about six in the evening. The two wings of the Capitol had been finished in 1811, and offered a fine target to the soldiery. For a while they amused themselves by firing volleys into the windows. At length a party, among which were General Ross and Admiral Cockburn, forced their way into the hall of the House of Representatives. A mock session was organized. Cockburn was escorted to the Speaker's chair, and after a brief introduction put the question: "Shall this harbor of Yankee democracy be burned? All for it say 'Aye.'" A hearty "Aye" with cheers rang through the building, and the motion was declared carried unanimously. The soldiers also clamored to fire the building, and after briefly consulting with his officers, General Ross gave the order. Abundant combustibles were found in the books and papers of the Congressional Library, and in the desks and other furniture, and

in half an hour the beautiful edifice that had been twenty-one years in building was in ruins. Only the bare walls were left. The column then pressed on to the White House, in the hope of capturing the President and his wife, whom, they declared, they wished to exhibit in England. Its doors were locked, but they forced them in, and searched the house from attic to cellar. Finding no one, the torch was applied, and the mansion, with its library, furniture, and family stores, was consumed. Only the bare walls were left standing.





CHAPTER IX.

THE OCCUPATION AND RETREAT.

COMPARATIVELY little injury was done to private property while the enemy held the city. The office of the *National Intelligencer*, which had incensed the British by the vigor and intensity of its war articles, was entered and its types and furniture destroyed. Several private houses and rope-walks were also burned. The public buildings were, with one exception, totally destroyed.

General Ross, in his report, said that the Capitol, the Arsenal, the Dock-Yard (Navy Yard), Treasury, War Office, President's Palace, rope-walk, and the great bridge across the Potomac were "set fire to and consumed," but the Navy Yard had previously been fired by the Americans, and the War Office, as appears by a passage in Mrs. Madison's letters, was not destroyed. More destruction would undoubtedly have been wrought but for a cyclone that burst upon the city the day after the capture.

"Roofs of houses," wrote one of the invaders, "were torn off and carried up into the air like sheets of paper, while the rain which accompanied it was like the rushing of a mighty cataract rather than the dropping of a shower. This lasted for two hours without intermission, during

which time many of the houses spared by us were blown down, and thirty of our men, with as many more of the inhabitants, were buried beneath the ruins. Two cannons standing upon a bit of rising ground were fairly lifted in the air and carried several yards to the rear."

The enemy had other sources of uneasiness besides the storm. They found it difficult to believe that the city could have been left so undefended except by design, and were continually desecring "armies in buckram" on the neighboring hills marshalling to attack them. And so on the evening of the 25th, having spent but one day in the city, they began their retreat. The officers were secretly told to make ready for falling back. The inhabitants were ordered to remain within doors from sunset to sunrise under pain of death, and all the horses were impressed for the transport of the artillery.

"It was about eight o'clock at night," says an eyewitness, "that a staff officer, arriving on the ground, gave directions for the corps to form in marching order. Preparatory to this step large quantities of fresh fuel were heaped upon the fires, while from every company a few men were selected, who should remain beside them till the pickets withdrew, and move about from time to time so that their figures might be seen by the light of the blaze. After this the troops stole to the rear of the fires by twos and threes; when far enough removed to avoid observation, they took their places and in profound silence began their march. The night was very dark. Stars there were indeed in the sky, but for some time after quitting the light of the bivouac their influence was

wholly unfelt. We moved on, however, in good order. No man spoke above his breath, our steps were planted lightly, and we cleared the town without exciting observation.

Dr. Catlett, an American surgeon held a prisoner by the British, has drawn a rather more effective picture :

“ They appeared to be preparing to move ; had about forty miserable-looking horses haltered up, ten or twelve carts and wagons, one ox-cart, one coach, and several gigs, which the officers were industriously aiding to tackle up, and which were immediately sent on to Bladensburg to move off their wounded. A drove of sixty or seventy cattle preceded this cavalcade. On our arrival at Bladensburg the surgeons were ordered to select all the wounded who could walk (those with broken arms and the like) and send them off immediately. The forty horses were mounted with such as could ride, the carts and wagons loaded, and ninety odd wounded left behind.”

Thence the enemy continued his march to Benedict, and on the 29th rejoined his ships “ without molestation of any sort,” as Admiral Cockburn declared. The value of the public property destroyed, including the Navy Yard, was estimated by a Congressional Investigating Committee, afterward appointed, at one million dollars, by others at two millions. The private property destroyed comprised the houses built for General Washington on Capitol Hill, the house formerly occupied by Mr. Gallatin, from behind which a gun was fired at General Ross

which killed the horse he rode, the "Great Hotel," owned by Daniel Carroll of Duddington and others, and the rope-walks of Tench, Ringgold, Heath, & Co., and John Chalmers, the whole valued at five hundred thousand dollars.

The destruction of the public buildings elicited a general burst of horror and indignation throughout the country, and did much to heighten and render ineradicable that unfriendly feeling toward England which the Revolution had created. It is proper to observe, however, that these acts caused as righteous indignation in England as in America. "Willingly," said the *London Statesman*, "would we throw a veil of oblivion over our transactions at Washington. The Cossacks spared Paris, but we spared not the capital of America"; and the *Liverpool Mercury*, at the close of a long denunciatory article, said:

"We will content ourselves by asking the most earnest friends of the conflagratory system, What purpose will be served by the flames of the Senate House at Washington? If the people of the United States retain any portion of that spirit with which they successfully contended for their independence, the effect of those flames will not easily be extinguished."

And the *Annual Register* of 1814: "It cannot be concealed that the extent of devastation practised by the victors brought a heavy censure upon the British character, not only in America but on the Continent of Europe."

It only remains to fill out the picture with some striking incidents of the occupation of the city. On

Eighth Street, between Market Space and D, lived Captain Vernon, of the Washington militia. He marched away to Bladensburg with his company that morning, but Mrs. Vernon remained and continued in the city during the occupation. In later years she was fond of relating to her children the story of that eventful day.

“On Wednesday,” she said, “about three o’clock in the afternoon, I saw the American soldiers marching along the avenue, but could not see my husband among them, and toward night we heard that the enemy had arrived. The first intimation I had was by the firing of guns ; and after dark I saw the fires caused by the burning of the Sewell House—Carroll’s now—and the Capitol, between which edifice and our house there were scarcely any buildings except Brown’s old hotel.*

“I concluded that they were going to burn all the way down, and went to call Paul, an old black servant, who had promised to stay, but was not to be found. Kitty, his wife, had previously gone, so that I was without servants, with an infant in my arms, and felt very helpless and lonely. Mrs. Bender, my neighbor, whose husband had been also ordered off, came in, frightened almost out of her wits, with a bottle of camphor in one hand and a handkerchief in the other. . . . We lighted both houses and I went in and sat with her. About nine o’clock the British came down opposite the Centre Market, then called the Marsh Market. . . . Late in the day, on Thursday, we heard a clanking of horses, but the fog obscured our vision. . . . Suddenly there was an exclamation outside : ‘ Let ’s have a pop at him ! ’ and the report of a gun ; and immediately we heard a

* The present Metropolitan.

man dart through the passage of our house and down the kitchen stairs."

The ladies were motionless from fright, but after a while peeped out of the back window and saw the cellar door slowly raised, revealing the well-known sandy head of Moriarty, an old Irishman, who kept a little shop in a tenement near by.

"He had been in the act of pumping water next door, and hearing the exclamation, 'Let's have a pop at him!' supposed he was the one they were after, and dropping his stone pitcher, beat a retreat through our passage as the nearest cover. The horsemen, however, were in pursuit of a man named Lewis, who had insulted them, and whom they shot in the discharge which followed Moriarty's retreat. Lewis, after receiving the shot, galloped as far as F Street, and then fell dead from his horse. . . . On Thursday afternoon Hinckley went out on the avenue where Admiral Cockburn and other officers were gathered in a group on horseback, and told him that these two houses were occupied by ladies who were entirely alone. The Admiral was very civil, and said he hoped that his character had not been so much maligned as to lead any one to suppose that he would disturb unresisting persons, and that orders had been issued to that effect."

While the British held possession a terrible explosion shook the city and nearly frightened the people out of their wits. It came from a well at Greenleaf's Point, in which, at the destruction of the Navy Yard, a large quantity of powder in kegs had been secreted in the hope of preserving it from the

enemy. A party of two hundred soldiers, with several officers, had been sent to complete the destruction at that point.

“One of the artillerymen,” says the subaltern, “most unfortunately dropped a lighted port-fire into the well, which, with a magazine about twelve yards distant, full of shells charged and primed, blew up with the most tremendous explosion I ever heard. One house was unroofed, and the walls of two others which had been burnt an hour before were shook down. Large pieces of earth, stones, brick, shot, shells, etc., burst into the air, and falling among us (who had nowhere to run, being on a narrow neck of land with the sea on three sides), killed about twelve men and wounded above thirty more, most of them in a dreadful manner. The groans of the people almost buried in the earth, or with legs and arms broken, and the sight of pieces of bodies lying about, was a thousand times more distressing than the loss we met in the field the day before.”

A lady who won laurels in this affair was Mrs. Dolly Madison, wife of the President. It will be interesting by means of her letters to her sister, Mrs. Cutts, and by family papers and traditions, to follow her fortunes through the ordeal.

Mr. Madison left her in the White House on Monday, August 22d, to attend to the disposition of the troops, having first stationed “Colonel C., with his hundred,” in the enclosure as a guard. The Colonel appears to have deserted his post on Tuesday, the day before the battle.

“French John” she wrote on this day, “offers to spike the cannon at the gate and lay a train of powder

which would blow up the British should they enter the house. To the last proposition I positively object, without being able to make him understand why all advantages in war may not be taken."

Her adventures during battle day (August 24th) are thus described in a letter to her sister :

"Twelve o'clock.—Since sunrise I have been turning my spy glass in every direction, and watching with unwearied anxiety, hoping to discover the approach of my dear husband and his friends ; but alas, I can descry only groups of military wandering in all directions, as if there was a lack of arms or of spirit to fight for their own fire-sides."

"Three o'clock.—Will you believe it, my sister, we have had a battle or skirmish near Bladensburg, and here I am still within sound of the cannon. Mr. Madison comes not. May God protect us ! Two messengers covered with dust come to bid me fly, but here I mean to wait for him. . . . At this late hour a wagon has been procured and I have had it filled with plate and the most valuable portable articles belonging to the house. Whether it will reach its destination—the Bank of Maryland—or fall into the hands of British soldiery, events must determine. Our kind friend, Mr. Carroll, has come to hasten my departure, and is in a very bad humour with me because I insist on waiting until the large picture of General Washington is secured, and it requires to be unscrewed from the wall. This process was found too tedious for these perilous moments ; I have ordered the frame to be broken and the canvas taken out. It is done ; and the precious portrait placed in the hands of two gentlemen of New York for safe-keeping. And now, dear sister, I must leave this house, or the retreating

army will make me a prisoner in it by filling up the road I am directed to take."

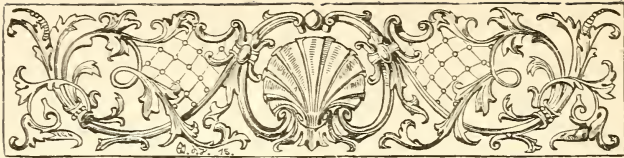
Her carriage drove first to the residence of Mr. Jones, Secretary of the Navy, where she was joined by his family. Returning toward the White House in search of Mr. Madison, she discovered him with his party near the river, and accompanied them to the shore, where a small boat had been held in readiness to convey them across. Here she bade them farewell, and drove to the residence of a Mr. Love on the Virginia shore, where she spent the night at a window watching the flames circling above the Capitol and the White House.

The next day was full of trials and discomforts for the heroic lady. Before daybreak she started forward to the rendezvous appointed the night before by Mr. Madison. The roads were filled with frightened people, with scouts and militia roaming about, and spreading wildest rumors of the enemy's advance. Stories of an insurrection of the negroes were also rife, and to these, as the day advanced, were added the horrors of the tornado, before referred to. Toward night, thoroughly drenched, almost fainting with fatigue and exposure, the party reached the appointed place of meeting—a quaint, long-roofed, old-time Virginia tavern. The President had not arrived. The tavern was thronged with women and children, refugees from the city, who declared that the wife of the man who had brought such ruin and misery upon them should not be sheltered under the same roof. But after remaining in the storm for some time the escort forced the unwilling landlord to admit them.

As night fell the Presidential party appeared, hungry and wearied to the point of exhaustion. The President ate what remained of the lunch that had been brought from the White House, and sought needed repose; not to sleep undisturbed, however, for at midnight a courier dashed up with tidings that a party of the enemy were at hand, and he was forced to flee farther into the forest, where he found shelter in the rude hut of a forester.

As day broke, Mrs. Madison, by advice of her husband, disguised herself, and leaving her carriage and four behind, fled farther into the wilderness, attended only by a nephew of Judge Duvall and one soldier; but before going far a courier overtook her with news that the British had evacuated the city, and she at once retraced her steps to the Long Bridge. It was burned from end to end. The officer in charge of the one ferry-boat refused to transport her until she disclosed her identity, when she was allowed to cross. Reaching her home, disguised, and in a strange carriage she found it burned to the ground, and the noble buildings, the pride of the city, only smoking ruins.

Fortunately her sister, Mrs. Cutts, was living in the city, and with her she found an asylum until Mr. Madison's return. He then rented the Octagon, a dwelling owned by Colonel Tayloe, and standing on the northeast corner of New York Avenue and Eighteenth Street, where the family passed the winter, and where he signed the treaty of peace. Later he removed to the northwest corner of Pennsylvania avenue and Nineteenth Street, where he resided until the White House was repaired. Both of these houses were standing in 1881.



CHAPTER X.

THE BATTLES OF THE GIANTS.

THE principal reason why Washington has become a national capital in fact as well as in name, is because within her limits was fought the great contest which changed the American people from a confederacy to a nation.

No people becomes a nation without first passing through a crisis of sufficient intensity to weld its discordant elements into a homogeneous whole. That crisis for us was the anti-slavery contest and the civil war which followed and of which it was the cause. That war turned all eyes upon the capital. The city became the centre of a nation's hope, its brain and heart, the fortress where its enormous powers were concentrated, the stronghold whence its citizen soldiery marched to attack the enemy, and to which they returned with standards advanced, and bugles pealing jubilant strains of victory and of nationality preserved. From the year 1820, when the Missouri Compromise passed the House, to the year 1861, when the whole question was given to the arbitrament of the sword, slavery was the paramount issue in politics, the question of questions, often thought settled, forever reappearing, like

Banquo's ghost, on the most inopportune occasions. Her position as the arena in which this contest was fought is the city's greatest distinction, her chief claim to national veneration and regard. In this chapter we shall seek to identify her with the great men and the great events of that memorable conflict.

In the election of November, 1816, James Monroe had been chosen to succeed Mr. Madison as President. At the same time Daniel D. Tompkins of New York was elected Vice-President. Mr. Monroe, who has before appeared in our pages, had been a colonel in the Revolution, a senator from Virginia, and later Governor of that State, had filled important diplomatic appointments to France, England, and Spain, and had served acceptably as Secretary of State under Mr. Madison, thus placing himself in the direct line of succession. His cabinet was remarkable for the eminence of the men composing it—John Quincy Adams, Secretary of State, William H. Crawford, Secretary of the Treasury, John C. Calhoun, Secretary of War, and Smith Thompson, Secretary of the Navy.

These men were in power when in the winter of 1818-19, the Territory of Missouri applied for admission to the Union, and the great contest to which we have alluded began in the Halls of Congress. The struggle was not for the abolition of slavery in the States where it then existed, but against its extension into the territories north and west of the Mississippi, from which territories new States were being carved with marvellous rapidity. The Southern or slaveholding members advocated this extension;

the Northern members, with some exceptions, opposed it.

On the 19th of February, 1819, when the debates began, Congress was sitting in the large wooden building on Capitol Hill, which later achieved fame as the Old Capitol Prison, and which had been erected for its use by citizens of Washington on the burning of the Capitol in 1814. In the following December, however, when the Sixteenth Congress came together, it was able to take possession of the new wings of the Capitol, which had been rebuilt, under the superintendence of the architects Latrobe and Bullfinch, in a much more magnificent manner than before. The House chamber in the present structure we now know as the Hall of Statuary. The Senate met in the present chamber of the Supreme Court.

In this Sixteenth Congress that stirring debate took place. All Washington thronged to hear it—old and young, rich and poor, white and black. The colored people especially were greatly excited by the tone of the debates, so much so that their masters began to fear that the sentiments of the Abolitionists would incite them to insurrection and violence. The chambers were from day to day packed to their utmost capacity. Of that great triumvirate—Clay, Webster, Calhoun—who later won immortality by their connection with this question, only Clay participated in the opening debates of the Sixteenth Congress.

The latter was then forty-two years of age, and Speaker of the House, of which he had been a mem-

ber since 1811. Webster was thirty-seven, and had been from 1812 to 1817 a member of the House, but in the latter year retired to practise his profession of the law. Calhoun, two months younger than Webster, was in Congress from 1810 to 1817, in which year, as we have seen, he had become Secretary of War.

Of that second great triumvirate, later brought into prominence by this contest,—Lincoln, Sumner, and Seward,—the former was then a boy of ten, Seward was a junior in Union College, and Sumner, a lad of eight, was conning his primer in the primary schools of Boston.

Paul H. Hayne, the matchless orator, Davis, Benton, Breckinridge, Douglas, Corwin, Cass, Marshall, and others, who later bore so prominent a part in the struggle, were still hidden in the veil of obscurity.

The chief speakers in the House were Henry Clay, John Randolph of Roanoke, Colston of Virginia, and Cobb of Georgia, for the South, and James W. Tallmadge and John N. Reynolds of New York, for the North. Clay was Speaker and frequently left the chair to address the House, the galleries and the throngs upon the floor hanging upon his lips, spellbound by his eloquence. No reporters were there to preserve his speeches, and they are lost to posterity. John Randolph made a striking and picturesque figure—tall, thin, pallid as death, with his towering mane of hair thrown back from his brow, and his thin lips curled in scorn, never in his element except when opposing some measure or excoriating a fellow-member.

An incident that occurred during this debate may be cited as showing the nature of the man. Annoyed by the presence of a large company of ladies on the floor of the House he rises deliberately, and pointing his long skeleton forefinger at them, exclaims in his peculiar, shrill, squeaking voice: "Mr. Speaker, what pray are all these women doing here so out of place in this arena? Sir, they had much better be at home attending to their knitting."

Cobb, of Georgia, is boldest of speech, and is the first to throw out in debate the threat of secession as a menace to the North, if it persists in its unfriendly attitude toward slavery. It is not by any means, however, the first time that the direful word has been heard in the Republic. In 1789, as we have seen, the Northern States had used it with effect to obtain the assumption of the State debts, and in the war of 1812-15 New England had covertly threatened it when Jefferson's Embargo Act and the subsequent war had destroyed her commerce and made havoc with her material prosperity. At a point in the debate Cobb, looking pointedly at Tallmadge, declares that a fire has that day been kindled which not all the waters of the ocean can quench, and which only seas of blood can extinguish. "He did not hesitate to declare that if Northern members persisted the Union would be dissolved."

Judge Tallmadge rises to reply.

"Language of this sort," he remarks, "has no effect upon me. My purpose is fixed. It is interwoven with my existence. Its durability is limited with my life. It is a great and glorious cause—setting bounds to slavery

the most cruel and debasing that the world has ever witnessed. If a dissolution of the Union must take place, let it be so. If civil war, which gentlemen so much threaten, must come, I can only say let it come. . . . If blood is necessary to extinguish any fire which I have assisted to kindle, while I regret the necessity I shall not hesitate to contribute my own."

Such is the tone of the debate. In the Senate the champions are Rufus King of New York, for the North, and William Pinckney of Maryland, for the South, both men of great eloquence and learning, but whose speeches, because reporters are not employed at this early date, are lost to us.

"We found here as great interest in the debates as in the House. It happened, on the occasion of our visit, that Vice-President Tompkins, a very gallant man, had invited a party of ladies, whom he met at Senator Brown's the night before, to take seats on the floor of the Senate, although this was a great innovation. The ladies in the gallery seeing a few of their sex comfortably seated on the Senate sofas with warm foot-stools and other luxuries, desert their seats and flock into the Senate, causing the courteous and dignified Vice-President such alarm that he fails to hear for the first time the opening remarks of the Senator who is addressing the Chair. Some of the Senators frown indignantly and are heard to mutter: 'Too many women here for the proper transaction of business,' but the ladies receive no such cutting reproof as has been visited on them in the House."

One of these ladies, in a letter to a friend, draws this parallel between the oratory of Mr. King and Mr.

Pinckney, the champions in whom popular interest centres :

“ I prefer Mr. King’s oratory to any I have heard, his manner so grave and dignified, chaste language, disdain- ing flowers, ornamental tropes, or figures, or the studied grace of gesture. In this opinion I am singular, perhaps unique, as the palm is unanimously awarded to Pinckney. Indeed you may have seen comparisons made between this celebrated modern and the ancients, Demosthenes and Cicero, in which the latter are evidently in the background of the picture.”

The question was carried over to the succeeding Congress. Amendments and counter-amendments were offered without number, restrictive clauses inserted and withdrawn, dilatory motions made—every parliamentary device to secure an advantage or prevent the enemy from gaining one exhausted. At last, in February, 1820, the matter was temporarily settled by a compromise : the North consented that Missouri should enter the Union a slave State. The South agreed that the territory north of $36^{\circ} 30'$ —the northern boundary of Arkansas—should there- after remain free.

This arrangement—since known in history as the “ Missouri Compromise ” — was the work of the moderate men of both parties, who saw no other way at that time of preserving the Union. But it only exasperated the extremists on both sides. John Randolph, rising in his seat in the House after the bill had passed, and pointing his forefinger at the Speaker, denounced it as a “ dirty bargain,” and stigmatized the eighteen Northern men who had

voted for it as "dough-faces,"—a term which became a slogan in later campaigns of the Free-soilers.

Ten years passed before Congress witnessed another conflict of equal moment in the historic contest. In the interim many collisions had occurred over the vexed question; the moral sentiment of the North against slavery had been greatly strengthened, and the South had become more and more apprehensive as to the stability of her pet institution, so much so that a new doctrine in defence of it—that of Nullification—was formulated by that great Southern leader and master in subtlety, John C. Calhoun.

This second great tournament occurred in the Capitol in January, 1830, but before considering it let us refer briefly to the circumstances which gave rise to it, and to the combatants who took part in it.

In 1830 Andrew Jackson was President, having, in 1829, succeeded John Quincy Adams, who, in 1824, at the close of Mr. Monroe's two terms, had been chosen President by the House, no choice having been made by the people. Two parties were now in the field—both formed from the once dominant Republican party: the Democrats, under the leadership of President Jackson, composed of the rank and file of the old Republican party; and the Whigs, who followed the leadership of Henry Clay, and who included in their ranks the fragments of the old Federalist party and the more progressive elements of the Republican.

Calhoun is Vice-President, and therefore presiding officer of the Senate. Henry Clay is living in re-

tirement on his Kentucky farm, whither he had withdrawn in disgust on the accession to power of his great enemy, Jackson. Daniel Webster is in Congress, a Senator from Massachusetts. In the same body sits a slender young man of thirty-nine, from South Carolina, with a fine, intellectual face and speaking eyes, who, in the absence of Clay, is regarded as the most finished orator of the Senate. He is known as Robert Young Hayne, grand-nephew of that Isaac Hayne who, in 1781, had been executed by the British for his devotion to the interests of the colonies. The orator had entered public life in 1814 in South Carolina when barely of age, had filled the most responsible offices of the State in rapid succession, and in 1823 had been returned by South Carolina to the Senate, where he had distinguished himself as the special champion of his own State in particular and of Southern interests in general.

The minor issue between the two parties at this time (slavery being the greater) is the protective tariff of 1828, Henry Clay's "great American system," the "tariff of abominations," as it is called by the Southern planters. This tariff proposed to protect our infant industries by imposing a tax on all manufactured goods imported. The manufacturing North favored it; the agricultural South, which wished to buy in the cheapest market, bitterly opposed it, so bitterly that it made it the occasion of testing the efficacy of its new-born doctrine of Nullification.

Such were the accessories of the contest. The great debate began on Monday, January 18th, with

the opposition of the Western members to Senator Foote's resolution calling for an inquiry into the sale of Western lands, Senator Benton making a strong speech in opposition to the resolution. Next day—Tuesday, the 19th—Senator Holmes, of Maine, replied, and other members engaged in the debate. They were followed by Senator Hayne, who began hostilities by a bitter attack on New England, whose attitude toward slavery had greatly displeased the South. To this speech, Webster of Massachusetts, at the request of Northern Senators, made an effective reply. Heretofore the debate had been comparatively tame; from this time forward it engaged the attention of the whole country; the champions had been named and the arena defined. Mr. Hayne at once gave notice that he should reply to Mr. Webster. He insisted on his adversary's being present, and gave due notice of the day in the public prints, so that at the appointed hour galleries and Senate floor were crowded with an audience largely in sympathy with the orator. He spoke, too, under the eye of his great leader, Calhoun, who occupied the curule chair as President of the Senate. Hayne's effort is said to have been a masterly one, far exceeding any thing that had preceded it.

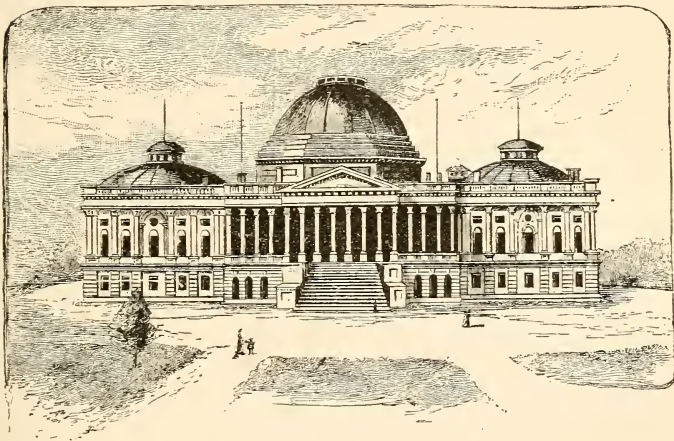
Its exordium was devoted to an arraignment and excoriation of Massachusetts, and of the Senator who so ably represented her in Washington. All that fiery eloquence, biting sarcasm, and fierce invective could do was done to cast contempt and opprobrium upon that State, her Senator, and the principles for which he stood. Then changing his

tone the orator entered into an exposition of the doctrine which was then beginning to fill a large share of public attention—that of Nullification. To the reference to this topic every member of that vast audience gave breathless attention.

The speaker's argument was, in brief, that as South Carolina had originally, through her State Convention legally called, consented to be governed by the Acts of Congress, she could now through her State Convention, called in like manner, refuse her assent to any law of Congress that she might deem unconstitutional, or inimical to her interests, thus "nullifying" them, rendering them inoperative so far as she was concerned. This was the apotheosis of State Rights; and in effect rendered the Constitution a mere compact between the States, like that which had united the colonies in the Revolution, and which had proved a rope of sand. It was an ingenious doctrine boldly stated, the product of a greater mind than Hayne's,—that of Calhoun himself. Its authors proposed to apply it in this particular instance to the tariff of 1828, but the astute Northern statesmen quickly saw that it was as a bulwark of slavery that this theory had been shaped with so much labor and ingenuity. All felt that a grave crisis was at hand—for the new doctrine, if not exposed and its sophistries refuted, must inevitably destroy the Union.

The newspapers spread intelligence of this crisis before the country, and all eyes were turned upon the Capitol as the theatre of approaching critical events. Who should combat this dangerous doctrine, expound and defend the Constitution, and

thus perform as great a service to his country, as they who had drafted the instrument? The eyes of Nationalists turned instinctively to Daniel Webster of Massachusetts; he accepted the trust. He was now forty-eight years of age, in the maturity of his powers, an able lawyer, the foremost orator of the world, a statesman by the gift of God and the discipline of twenty years' experience in public life.



THE CAPITOL IN 1830.

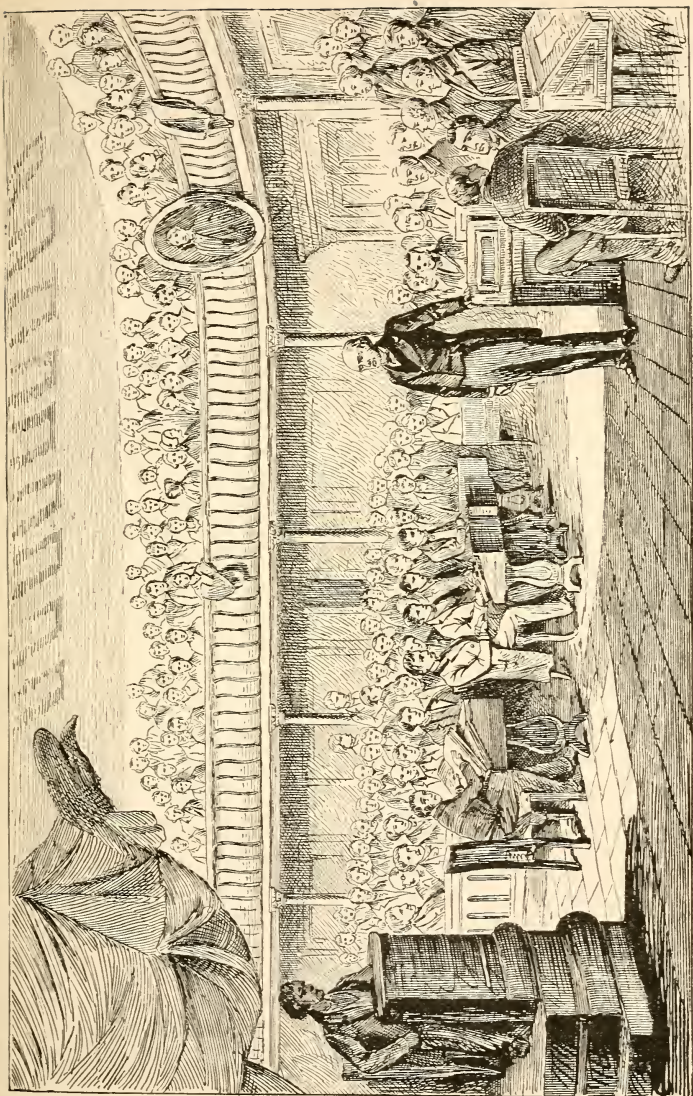
A day was set, the 26th of January, 1830, on which he would reply to Mr. Hayne. He made no extraordinary preparations for the effort. His mind had been preoccupied during the entire debate by an important case he was arguing in the Supreme Court, and he is said to have bestowed on the reply only such brief intervals as could be snatched from other pursuits. Three great heads or divisions were no doubt formulated in his mind—the repelling the

personalities of Hayne, the defence of New England, and especially of Massachusetts, and the great argument in defence of the Constitution.

At last the appointed day came. We will in imagination follow the throngs to the Capitol on the 26th of January and enter the Senate chamber—the old chamber now devoted to the Supreme Court. It is soon packed so densely that we who are in cannot get out, and those who are out can by no means get in. The House is as deserted as though it stood adjourned, and its members are congregated on the Senate floor. The galleries are packed, and stairways and lobbies are black with humanity. The Senate floor is densely crowded, and in the members' chairs are many ladies, whose gay bonnets and brilliant dresses soften and subdue the sternness of masculine array. Around the President's chair the throng is particularly dense. One man, Representative Lewis of Alabama, having managed to gain the framework of one of the painted windows which flank the President's throne, has cut a hole through the pane with his pocket-knife in order to gain a view of the speaker.

The orator is the cynosure of all eyes. He sits at the right of the President, clad in what has come to be known as the Whig uniform (copied in part from the old Continentals—blue dress-coat with large silver buttons, high white cravat, and buff waistcoat); calm in the consciousness of strength—one can even see the gleam of exultation in his eye as though the victory were already won.

So great is the desire to hear him that the opening



WEBSTER'S REPLY TO HAYNE.

ceremonies of the Senate are dispensed with. The orator rises, stands for a moment surveying his audience, then with native intuition seizes upon the only expedient that will allay the suppressed excitement, the overwrought expectations of his hearers, and enable him to win, as though they were but one, their wills and sympathies.

He begins :

“Mr. President : When the mariner has been tossed for many days in thick weather, and on an unknown sea, he naturally avails himself of the first pause in the storm, the earliest glance of the sun, to take his latitude and ascertain how far the elements have driven him from his true course. Let us imitate this prudence ; and, before we float farther on the waves of this debate, refer to the point from which we departed, that we may, at least, be able to conjecture where we now are. I ask for the reading of the resolution before the Senate.”

It is well done. A long-drawn sigh of relief goes up all over the chamber, and when the clerk has finished reading the resolution every one is at ease, and the speaker is in possession of his audience.

He proceeds with that marvellous speech familiar as household words to all classes of readers. It is not long, however, before the spell of the orator is upon us. A silence deep, mysterious, falls upon all. The emotions we feel are but a reflex of his own. The frown, the smile, the downcast countenance, the suffused eye, the unchanging attention, bear witness to his power. But this power seems rather in the voice and presence of the man, than in his words. Insensibly

we recall what an able critic and scholar* said of his manner during the oration on Plymouth Rock: "*When I came out I was almost afraid to come near him. It seemed to me as if he was like the mount that might not be touched, and that burned with fire. I was beside myself, and am so still.*"

When he comes to dwell on the trials, sufferings, and triumphs of New England in the Revolution, grave judges and divines turn aside their faces to conceal their emotions. Up in a corner of the gallery sits a company of Massachusetts men, who, mindful of the odds against their champion, have followed him with bated breath. As he proceeds they breathe more easily, and when he comes to deliver that magnificent encomium upon Massachusetts, their overwrought feelings give way, and they shed tears like girls. His argument in defence of the Constitution is followed with the deepest attention by the most thoughtless, and the exultant rush of feeling with which he goes through that glorious peroration banishes the fear we have indulged that so lofty a flight might meet with an Icarus-like fall.

The influence of this speech was not confined to the halls of Congress. The newspapers spread it broadcast before the people; immense editions in pamphlet form were sold. It rendered innocuous the doctrine of Nullification, and thirty years later it sent millions of freemen to the embattled field in defence of the Constitution it defended. As the venerable Chancellor Kent admirably said: "Constitutional law, by means of those Senatorial discus-

* George Ticknor.

sions, and the master genius that guided them, was rescued from the archives of our tribunals and the libraries of our lawyers, and placed under the eye, and submitted to the judgment, of the American people. Their verdict is with us, and from it there lies no appeal."

One of those who read this speech had the power, and very soon the opportunity, to put its precepts into practice. That man was Andrew Jackson, President of the United States. A native of South Carolina, the Nullifiers had counted on him as an ally, but, as the sequel proved, every pulse in the old soldier's frame beat in sympathy with the national idea.

On November 19, 1832, South Carolina, by her Convention, legally called, adopted her famous "Nullification Ordinance," which was promptly met by President Jackson's equally famous message, in which he declared :

"I consider the power to annul a law of the United States, assumed by one State, incompatible with the existence of the Union, contradicted expressly by the letter of the Constitution, unauthorized by its spirit, inconsistent with every principle upon which it was founded, and destructive of the great object for which it was formed."

This message he followed up by sending General Scott to take command in Charleston, dispatching two men-of-war to Charleston harbor, stationing United States troops within striking distance of the rebellious State, and by threatening privately to hang the leading conspirators higher than Haman unless they desisted from their treasonable practices.

Meantime the North was becoming aroused, and Legislature after Legislature passed resolutions denouncing the acts of South Carolina as unwarranted and treasonable. Some modifications in the tariff law, of which that State greatly complained, and other concessions were made, and South Carolina receded from her position.

Six years later another of the great debates which have made the American Capitol historic was begun. Ostensibly, this contest was over the Right of Petition, but, as with the others, slavery was the real question at issue. The champion on this occasion was the venerable ex-President, John Quincy Adams. On retiring from the Presidency, in March, 1829, Mr. Adams returned to the family homestead at Quincy, Massachusetts, which, from that time, became his residence. For a year he remained in retirement. But in 1830 his neighbors of the Twelfth Congressional District, seeing him idle, began to inquire among themselves if he could not be induced to represent them in Congress. Approached on the subject, Mr. Adams replied that in his opinion no man, however exalted his position, could be dishonored by accepting an office bestowed on him by the people; he was therefore returned to Congress from that district, and took his seat in the Twenty-Second Congress (December, 1831), the first ex-President who had ever appeared as a member of that body. He was sixty-seven years old—at an age when most men seek retirement from the toils of public life,—yet for eighteen years he continued in the House a leader of the Northern wing, and by

reason of his eloquence, skill in statesmanship, and former exalted position, respected by friend and foe alike.

Mr. Adams began his famous contest in favor of the right of petition, the second week after entering Congress, by presenting fifteen petitions from members of the Society of Friends in Pennsylvania praying for the abolition of slavery and the slave trade in the District of Columbia. He continued to present similar petitions, until at last, in February, 1836, Southern members declared that no more should be received, and a committee was appointed by the House to take into consideration the disposition of petitions concerning slavery and the slave trade. This committee reported three resolutions—first, that Congress had no power to interfere with slavery in any State; second, that Congress ought not to interfere with it in the District of Columbia; and third, that because of the offensive and dangerous character of the subject, “all petitions, memorials, resolutions, proposals, or papers relating in any way to the subject of slavery or the abolition of slavery, shall, without being printed or referred, be laid upon the table, and that no further action whatever shall be taken thereon.”

On these resolutions a bitter and stormy debate ensued. Mr. Adams, who had usually contented himself with presenting the petitions without advocating them, earnestly opposed the resolutions. When the first came up he remarked that if the House would give him five minutes he would prove it untrue, but his voice was drowned in hisses and

cries of "Order, order!" The resolution then passed by a large majority. When his name was called on the last resolution he refused to vote, but sent to the Speaker this declaration, which he demanded should be put on the Journal of the House: "I hold the resolution to be a direct violation of the Constitution of the United States,* of the rules of the House, and of the rights of my constituents." This declaration would have convicted the House of unconstitutional and tyrannical acts, and of course met with angry reprobation and denial, a result doubtless expected by its author, but it served to call the attention of the country to the fact that freedom of speech was being stifled in the House, and that measures were being passed by the sheer power of the majority without debate or argument or regard for Constitutional right. From this hour the "old man eloquent" stood before the country as the champion of the right of the humblest to petition Congress for redress of grievance, and as the avowed enemy of the slave power. It was in vain that the jeers, threats, and insults of the majority were hurled at him, that threats of physical violence and even of assassination were openly made. A fragment of Plymouth Rock set upon the floor of the House could not have stood more sturdily or more unyielding.

In his powers of body and mind Adams alone was stronger than the host of his adversaries. His in-

* Referring to Article I. of Amendments to the Constitution, which prohibits Congress from abridging "the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances"

dustry, his powers of keen analysis, fierce invective, sarcasm, knowledge of parliamentary usage, and almost intuitive ability to fathom the motives of his enemy and divine his probable mode of attack, gave him an immense advantage and at last crowned him victor.

Some instances of the display of these qualities may be cited. On January 6, 1837, he presented the petition of one hundred and fifty women on the same subject—the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia. The opposition at once sprang to arms. Mr. Glascock of Georgia objected to receiving the petition; Mr Parks moved that the preliminary motion on the reception of the petition be laid on the table, which was carried. Mr. Adams then rose, and gave notice that he proposed to call up that motion every day as long as he should be permitted to do so by the House. He should not consider his duty accomplished so long as the petition was not received, and the House had not decided to receive it. Mr. Pinckney, rising to a question of order, inquired if there was now any question before the House. The Speaker (James K. Polk, later President) remarked that the gentleman from Massachusetts was giving notice of a motion hereafter to be made, and that debate upon it was not in order. Mr. Adams said so long as freedom of speech was allowed him there he would call that question up until it was decided. He was promptly called to order. He then said he had the honor of presenting to the House the petition of two hundred and twenty-eight women, wives and daughters of his immediate

constituents, and as part of the speech he intended to make he would read the petition,—it was not long and would not consume much time. Glascock objected to the reception of *any* petition. Adams calmly proceeded to read, that, “Whereas the petitioners, inhabitants of South Weymouth in the State of Massachusetts, impressed with the sinfulness of slavery, and keenly aggrieved by its existence in a part of our country over which Congress”—— Pinckney here arose to a question of order. Had the gentleman from Massachusetts a right under the rule to read the petition? The Speaker ruled that he had a right to make a statement of the contents of the petition. Pinckney desired the decision of the Chair as to whether a gentleman had a right to read a petition. Adams said he was reading the petition as a part of his speech, and took this to be the privilege of a member of the House. It was a privilege he should exercise until deprived of it by some positive act of the House. The Speaker ruled that the gentleman had a right to make a brief statement of the contents of the petition.

The following colloquy then ensued.

Mr. Adams: “At the time my friend from South Carolina——”

The Speaker: “The gentleman must proceed to state the contents of the petition.”

Mr. Adams: “I am doing so, sir.”

The Speaker: “Not in the opinion of the Chair.”

Mr. Adams: “I was at this point of the petition, ‘keenly aggrieved by its existence in a part of our country over which Congress possesses

exclusive jurisdiction, in all cases whatsoever, [cries of "Order, order!"] do most earnestly petition your honorable body, [Mr. Chambers of Kentucky here rose to a point of order] immediately to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia, [Mr. Chambers reiterated his call to order, and the Speaker directed Mr. Adams to take his seat, but the latter continued reading with the utmost rapidity and in a loud voice] and to declare every human being free who sets foot upon its soil.'"

The House was now in an uproar. A dozen members were crying "Order!" at once, and as many more were on their feet seeking to catch the Speaker's eye. That gentleman, somewhat confused by the hubbub, decided that a member could not be allowed to read a petition. Mr. Adams, nowise dismayed by the tempest raging around him and the angry glances thrown at him, took the floor and appealed from the decision of the Chair, "which deprived a member of the privilege of reading what he chose."

"Such a decision," said he, "is an unheard of thing in legislative halls. If the usual practice is to be reversed, let the decision stand upon record, and let it appear how entirely freedom of speech is suppressed in this House. If the reading of a paper is to be suppressed in my person, so help me God! I will only consent to it as a matter of record."

He then finished reading the petition as follows :

"Your petitioners respectfully announce their intention to present the same petition yearly before your honorable body, that it might at least be a memorial in the

holy cause of human freedom that they had done what they could.' ”

He had gained his point ; the petition was accepted and laid upon the table.

Soon after Mr. Adams received another petition, purporting to come from certain slaves in Virginia, praying that slavery might *not* be abolished. He saw at once that it was written in irony, or perhaps to prove whether he would present *any* petition offered him, and determined to turn it to the discomfiture of the opposition. On the 7th of February, 1837, therefore, after reading nearly two hundred “abolition ” petitions, he packed up his papers, and was about resuming his seat, when his eye fell upon a paper, which he hastily took up, glanced over, and then exclaimed in his shrill, high-pitched voice :

“ Mr. Speaker, I have in my possession a petition of a somewhat extraordinary character, and I wish to inquire of the Chair if it be in order to present it.”

“ If the gentleman will inform the Chair what the character of the petition is it will probably be able to decide the matter,” replied the Speaker.

“ Sir,” said Mr. Adams, “ the petition is signed by eleven slaves of the town of Fredericksburg, County of Culpeper, State of Virginia. It is one of those petitions which, it has occurred to me, are not what they purport to be. It is signed partly by persons who cannot write, by making their mark, and partly by persons whose handwriting shows that they have received the education of slaves. The petition declares itself to be from slaves, and I am requested to present it. I will send it to the Chair.”

The Speaker was taken by surprise; he hesitated, hitched his chair forward as his custom was when disconcerted, and said that the matter was so novel and unprecedented that he would have to take time to consider it; meanwhile he would refer it to the House. At this the members, who had been paying no attention to the colloquy, became interested, and Representative Lewis of Alabama inquired excitedly what the petition was. The Speaker informed him. The simple words threw the House into a paroxysm of rage. "Treason, treason!" resounded through the hall, mingled with opprobrious epithets, and cries of "Put him out," "put him out! Do not let him disgrace the House longer!"

A resolution that the offender "be taken to the bar of the House and censured by the Speaker thereof," was offered and lost. The idea of dragging the venerable ex-President as a culprit to the bar of the House to be censured by its youthful Speaker, was repugnant to the most bitter of his opponents. At last, after many resolutions had been offered, Mr. Adams gained a hearing, and told the excited statesmen that the petitioners prayed that slavery should not be abolished, then looking into their crest-fallen faces, he proceeded to define and defend his position in regard to presenting petitions.

"Sir," said he, "it is well known that from the time I entered this House down to the present day I have felt it a sacred duty to present any petition couched in respectful language from any citizen of the United States, be its object what it may, be the prayer of it that in which I could concur, or that to which I was utterly op-

posed. It is for the sacred right of petition that I have adopted this course. . . . Where is your law which says that the mean, and low, and degraded shall be deprived of the right of petition? Where in the land of freedom was the right of petition ever placed on the exclusive basis of morality and virtue? Petition is supplication—it is entreaty—it is prayer, and where is the degree of vice or immorality which shall deprive the citizen of the right to supplicate for a boon, or to pray for mercy? Where is such a law to be found? It does not belong to the most abject despotism. There is no absolute monarch on earth who is not compelled by the constitution of his country to receive the petitions of his people, whosoever they may be. This is the law even of despotism, and what does your law say? Does it say that before presenting a petition you shall look at it and see whether it comes from the virtuous and the great and mighty? No, sir; it says no such thing. The right belongs to all. . . . But possibly when color comes into the question there may be other considerations. It is possible that this House, which seems to consider it so great a crime to attempt to offer a petition from slaves, may, for aught I know, say that freemen, if not of the carnation, shall be deprived of the right of petition in the sense of the House.”

The orator did not win his case at this time, but four years later, December 3, 1844, from his seat in the House he saw the odious gag law defeated by a vote of one hundred and eight against eighty, and the right of petition triumphantly vindicated. Notwithstanding, the injustice done him in these debates greatly aided his cause, for the violent and overbearing demeanor of Southern statesmen disgusted and

alarmed just and moderate men of all parties. There were many reasons why slaveholders should deprecate any interference with their peculiar institution, and there were many good men who were not slaveholders, but who sympathized with them, seeing in the social and economic relation of the Southern whites to the negro, in the horrors of a possible slave insurrection, and the impossibility of devising any measures of emancipation that should do justice to both master and slave and prevent the two races from coming into constant collision, insuperable difficulties to the abolition of slavery.

Another instance of the power and influence of this master-mind may be cited. At the organization of the Twenty-Sixth Congress, in December, 1839, the Whigs thought themselves strong enough to enter into a contest for the Speakership of the House. During this contest an exceedingly striking and dramatic scene occurred, honorable alike to Mr. Adams and to members of all parties.

There were five Whig members from New Jersey, whose election was nominally contested, but whose votes must be added to the roll unless the Whigs were to lose control of the House. In organizing a new House the first step is for the clerk to call the roll of members. On December 2d, the members-elect being present, the clerk, Hugh H. Garland, proceeded to perform this duty. The roll-call by States went monotonously on, every member waiting breathlessly to see what was to be done with the contesting members. "New Jersey," at length called Mr. Garland, and added: "The clerk has to

say that there being five contested names from this State he shall pass them over, not taking the responsibility of deciding whether they are elected or not." Immediately the Whig members were on their feet protesting against this high-handed action of the clerk. Resolutions were offered which the clerk refused to put, and he steadfastly declined to read the contested names. The puzzled members, without a presiding officer and without organization, were at their wits' end, not knowing how to compel the presumptuous official to perform his duty. For three days the deadlock continued; at last, on the fourth day, the master-spirit appeared, and with a few bold strokes extricated the House from its dilemma.

Mr. Adams during the three days had been busily engaged at his desk seemingly oblivious of the conflict. He had come now to advanced age. His hair was white as snow; his right arm, partly paralyzed, required a rest in writing; his once resonant voice, when high-pitched in debate, was somewhat cracked; it was a burden for him to rise, but his eye as it rested upon the clerk when he began the roll-call on the fourth morning was as bright and piercing as ever. "Massachusetts," said the clerk, and those near Mr. Adams saw that he was preparing to speak. His hands were clasped in front of his desk, where he always placed them to aid him in rising, and his keen eye was fixed upon the clerk. "New Jersey," said the latter, "and the clerk has to repeat" but Mr. Adams is upon the floor. "I rise to interrupt the clerk," he says. "Silence, silence! Hear him, hear him! Hear John Quincy Adams!" is heard from all

parts of the chamber. In an instant profound silence reigns, and every eye is bent upon the venerable orator. He pauses a moment, casts a withering look upon the offending official, and turns to address the House.

“It was not my intention to take any part in these extraordinary proceedings. I had hoped this House would succeed in organizing itself; that a Speaker and clerk would be elected, and that the ordinary business of legislation would proceed. This is not the time nor place to discuss the merits of conflicting claimants from New Jersey. That subject belongs to the House of Representatives, which, by the Constitution, is made the ultimate arbiter of the qualifications of its members. But what a spectacle we here present! We degrade and disgrace our constituents and the country. We do not and cannot organize, and why? Because the clerk of this House—the mere clerk whom we create, whom we employ, and whose existence depends upon our will—usurps the throne and sets us, the Representatives, the vicegerents of the whole American people, at defiance, and holds us in contempt. And what is this clerk of yours? Is he to suspend by his mere negative the functions of government, and put an end to Congress? He refuses to call the roll. It is in your power to compel him to call it if he will not do it voluntarily.”

A voice: “The clerk will resign rather than call the State of New Jersey.”

“Well, sir, let him resign, and we may possibly discover some way by which we can get along without the aid of his all-powerful talent and genius. If we cannot organize in any other way, if this clerk of yours will not con-

sent to our discharging the trust confided to us by our constituents, then let us imitate the example of the Virginia House of Burgesses, which, when the colonial Governor Dinwiddie ordered it to disperse, refused to obey the imperious and insulting mandate, and like men——”

Here the orator was interrupted by a burst of applause. All knew the story of the old Raleigh tavern and the Apollo ball-room.

Mr. Adams waited until the applause had died away, and then offered a resolution “ordering the clerk to call the members from New Jersey possessing the credentials from the Governor of that State.” “Who will put the question?” a dozen voices asked, for this has been the difficulty throughout. “I intend to put it myself.” replied Mr. Adams, with dignity. His proposition was assented to with enthusiasm. Mr. Richard Barnwell Rhett of South Carolina, from his pedestal on top of a desk, moved “that the Honorable John Quincy Adams take the chair of Speaker of the House, and officiate as presiding officer till the House be organized by the election of its constitutional officers.” The motion, put by himself, was enthusiastically carried, and Mr. Rhett and Mr. Williams were appointed a committee to conduct him to the chair. He had now a most difficult and delicate role to play, for the parties were very evenly balanced, and in the eleven days of balloting for a Speaker that ensued, his patience, wisdom, and judgment were severely tested. The contest at length ended in the triumph of the Whigs, Mr. R. M. T. Hunter of Virginia being elected Speaker.

Eight years later, on a raw February morning, the House witnessed a very different scene. Mr. Adams, now eighty-one years of age, arose with a paper in his hand to address the Speaker, but was seen to totter and fall into the arms of his neighbor, Mr. Fiske of Ohio. A cry of alarm, "Stop! stop! look to Mr. Adams," rang through the chamber. He had received the second and fatal stroke of paralysis. Mr. Winthrop, the Speaker, at once adjourned the House, and the sufferer was carried to a sofa in the rotunda, and later into the Speaker's room, where Mrs. Adams and other members of his family joined him. In about an hour he recovered sufficient consciousness to murmur: "This is the last of earth; I am content," and sank into a comatose state from which he never rallied. Like a faithful soldier he had fallen at his post.

There was an imposing funeral in Washington, and a Congressional Committee of one from each State was appointed to accompany the remains to Boston. There they lay in state in Faneuil Hall while due honors were paid, and were then removed to Quincy for burial.

Many more of these exciting contests occurred in the Capitol, but we have described enough to define their character and show the nature of their results. As the half century approached, new men appeared upon the scene, while the old warriors dropped from the lists. Early in the half-century year Calhoun left the Senate one day never to return. He too died in harness (March 31, 1850), and his obsequies were celebrated in a manner befitting his rank and

public services. He lies buried in St. Phillip's churchyard in Charleston. Hayne died in 1840, in the flower of youth. His grave is also in Charleston, but in St. Michaels' churchyard. Webster and Clay survived until 1852, dying within three months of each other, but they were at that time setting rather than rising suns. Of the young men who crowded forward, eager to take up their mantles, there was one, who is ranked by historians as, next to Washington, the greatest American—Abraham Lincoln. Lincoln entered Congress in 1846. Charles Sumner and William H. Seward, Stephen A. Douglas, Tom Corwin, Jefferson Davis, Thomas F. Marshall, John C. Breckenridge, Alexander H. Stephens, Robert Toombs, and many others appear prominently in the Congressional reports of those days.

As years flew on, however, the cloud of civil war rolled up more portentous on the horizon. The course of events tended to a crisis. Those events are too familiar to be dwelt on here at length. Henry Clay's "Compromise" of 1850, which deferred the civil war ten years; the fierce contests over the admission of Kansas, the battles waged for possession of that State between pro-slavery men and free-soilers, the birth of the Republican party in 1854, the Lincoln-Douglas debates, the descent of John Brown on Virginia in 1859, and his speedy execution; the election as President, in 1860, of Abraham Lincoln by the Republican party on an anti-slavery platform, are events familiar to all, and formed the successive steps towards the irrepressible conflict.

But before turning our attention to the period of the war, let us consider what material progress the city has made during these years of political convulsion. Slowly but steadily she has been growing in wealth and population. Down to the outbreak of the civil war, the spectre of a removal of the Capitol was ever present to depress values and frighten investors. Congress for years did little for the city. Yet decade by decade the census reports placed something to her credit. In 1810 her population had risen to 8,208; in 1820 it was 13,247; in 1830, 18,826; in 1840, 23,364; in 1850, 40,001; in 1860, 61,122. But the houses were, as a rule, built of wood, and were destitute of architectural pretensions; the wide avenues and walks were many of them unpaved and illy kept; the canal, known as the Tiber, was open and offensive; there were few squares or shades, or places of public resort; indeed the capital city then presented much the appearance of an over-grown village.

During this time also Presidents of varying merit had succeeded one another at the White House. Andrew Jackson, after ruling eight years, had been succeeded in 1837 by his Vice-President, Martin Van Buren; he in 1841 by William H. Harrison, the candidate of the young and aggressive Whig party, who survived but a month, and was succeeded by his Vice-President, John Tyler. In 1844 James K. Polk, a Democrat, was elected, but in the contest of 1848 the Whigs again elected their candidate, General Zachary Taylor, who had won bright laurels in the Mexican war. General Taylor died in 1850, and

was succeeded by the Vice-President, Millard Fillmore. In 1852 Franklin Pierce, a Democrat, was elected, and in 1856 James Buchanan of the same party. The College of 1860 chose Abraham Lincoln, as we have seen, and put an end to Democratic supremacy for twenty-four years.

One event of this later period should be noticed at length—the laying of the corner-stone of the south extension of the Capitol, which occurred on July 4, 1851. Congress had found that its chambers were too small for its increasing numbers, and decided to construct a north and a south extension in which it might be better accommodated. The commission was given to Robert U. Walker, who had designed Girard College and other public buildings, and in the spring of 1851 the corner-stone of the south extension was ready to be laid. Millard Fillmore was President. The Fourth of July, the seventy-sixth anniversary of our independence, was selected for the laying of the corner-stone. The day and the event were made the occasion of imposing ceremonies. At an early hour the extensive grounds of the Capitol were packed to their utmost capacity. Ladies in gay costumes, military companies in uniform, civic societies, Masonic and other fraternities in regalia, added to the brilliancy of the scene. Upon a platform on the left portico of the eastern front of the Capitol was gathered a distinguished company—the President of the United States, heads of departments, foreign ministers, governors of States,—conspicuous among all the massive form of Daniel Webster, then Secretary of State, and who

had been chosen orator of the day. Major B. B. French, Grand Master of the Order of Free and Accepted Masons, first performed the initial ceremonies, and President Fillmore then laid the corner-stone according to Masonic rites, as Washington had laid the original corner-stone fifty-eight years before. Mr. Webster, but a year distant from his death-bed and in feeble health, delivered an oration in which the fire of earlier days glowed with almost its accustomed brilliancy. These were its opening words:

“FELLOW-CITIZENS :—I greet you well ; I give you joy on the return of this anniversary ; and I felicitate you also on the more particular purpose of which this ever memorable day has been chosen to witness the fulfilment. Hail, all hail ! I see before and around me a mass of faces glowing with cheerfulness and patriotic pride. I see thousands of eyes turned toward other eyes all sparkling with gratification and delight. This is the New World. This is America. This is Washington, and this the Capitol of the United States. And where else among the nations can the seat of government be surrounded on any day of any year by those who have more reason to rejoice in the blessings which they possess ? Nowhere, fellow-citizens ; assuredly nowhere ! Let us, then, meet this rising sun with joy and thanksgiving.”

Later in his speech he made the interesting statement, that he had caused to be placed under the corner-stone a paper bearing these memorable words :

“ On the morning of the first day of the seventy-sixth year of the Independence of the United States of America, in the City of Washington, being the 4th day of July, 1851, this stone, designated as the corner-stone of the Extension of the Capitol, according to a plan approved by the President, in pursuance of an act of Congress, was laid by Millard Fillmore, President of the United States, assisted by the Grand Master of the Masonic Lodges, in the presence of many members of Congress ; of officers of the Executive and Judiciary Departments, National, State, and District ; of officers of the Army and Navy ; the corporate authorities of this and neighboring cities ; many associations, civil, military, and Masonic ; officers of the Smithsonian Institution and National Institute ; professors of colleges and teachers of schools of the District of Columbia, with their students and pupils ; and a vast concourse of people from places near and remote, including a few surviving gentlemen who witnessed the laying of the corner-stone of the Capitol by President Washington, on the 18th day of September, 1793. If, therefore, it shall be hereafter the will of God that this structure shall fall from its base, that its foundations be upturned, and this deposit brought to the eyes of men, be it known that on this day the Union of the United States of America stands firm ; that their Constitution still exists unimpaired, and with all its original usefulness and glory, growing every day stronger and stronger in the affections of the great body of the American people, and attracting more and more the admiration of the world. And all here assembled, whether belonging to public life or to private life, with hearts devoutly thankful to Almighty God for the preservation of the liberty and happiness of the country, unite in sincere and fervent prayers that this deposit, and the

walls and arches, the domes and towers, the columns and entablatures, now to be erected over it, may endure forever ! God save the United States of America !

DANIEL WEBSTER,
Secretary of State of the United States."

And yet the civil war was but ten years distant.





CHAPTER XI.

WAR.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN, President-elect, reached Washington at half-past six o'clock on the morning of the 23d of February, 1861. Never had ruler come to his capital in more troublous times. The South was in secession, and repeated acts of overt rebellion had been committed. Beginning in December, 1860, one month after Lincoln's election, startling events had followed each other in rapid succession. South Carolina passed her Ordinance of Secession, seized Fort Moultrie and other national property in Charleston harbor, and forced Major Anderson into Fort Sumter, where he was now closely invested by her batteries. Forts Pulaski and Jackson, defending Savannah, were seized by order of Governor Brown of Georgia. Fort Morgan at Mobile was occupied by the authorities of Alabama. The steamer *Star of the West*, conveying provisions to Fort Sumter, was fired upon by the South Carolinians. Mississippi passed the Ordinance of Secession and seized all government property within her borders. Alabama passed the Ordinance of Secession, Florida passed the Ordinance of Secession and seized all the forts in Pensacola harbor except Fort Pick-

ens. Georgia passed the Ordinance of Secession. Senators of Florida, Mississippi, and Alabama resigned their seats in Congress. Louisiana passed the Ordinance of Secession, seized revenue cutters and other government property, and her delegation in Congress, excepting Mr. Boulogny, withdrew. The Congress of the Confederate States of America was organized, and chose Jefferson Davis President. A Peace Conference was held without accomplishing any result. Meantime the government under President Buchanan seemed paralyzed, and took no efficient step for its protection and preservation.

President Lincoln himself came secretly, in a special train by way of Harrisburg, his friends having been alarmed by rumors of a plot to assassinate him on the road. He was met at the station in Washington by the Hon. E. B. Washburne of Illinois, and conveyed in a close carriage to Willard's hotel, where Senator Seward, his future Secretary of State, was waiting to receive him. The same morning he held a long interview with President Buchanan at the White House. Four days after his arrival, the Mayor and Council of Washington, after first taking leave of President Buchanan, called to pay their respects to the incoming President. His reply shows the sentiments with which in this hour of bitterness he assumed the reins of government.

"I assure you, Mr. Mayor, and all the gentlemen present, that I have not now and never have had any other than as kindly feelings toward you as to the people of my own section. I have not now and never have had any disposition to treat you in any respect otherwise than

as my own neighbors. I have not now any purpose to withhold from you any of the constitutional rights under any circumstances, that I would not feel myself constrained to withhold from my own neighbors ; and I hope, in a word, when we shall become better acquainted—and I say it with great confidence—we shall like each other the more.”

The fourth of March, 1861, the day of the inauguration, arrived. Lieutenant-General Scott, who had been placed in command at Washington, took the greatest precautions to guard against either attack, or an attempt to assassinate the President, both of which were feared. A high fence was erected around the platform on the central portico of the Capitol, where Mr. Lincoln was to stand in delivering his inaugural, and an enclosed avenue of boards was built from the spot where he would alight to the portico, so that none might approach near with evil intent. The procession was one of the most imposing that had ever escorted a President to the Capitol, for the day ushered in a new political era. In the leading carriage rode President Buchanan and President-elect Lincoln, with Senators Baker and Pearce, the carriage being escorted by marshals and mounted dragoons, selected from the most efficient companies of the regular army, and in ranks so deep that a hostile shot could with difficulty have penetrated the column. Behind the military came other carriages of dignitaries, and then a large car in which sat thirty-four beautiful little girls, dressed in white, and waving miniature banners,—each designed to represent a State or Territory.

These were followed by a great number of delegations from the various States and by citizens and visitors, in carriages and on foot.

The eagerness to see the man who had dethroned the Democratic party after a reign of nearly forty years, joined to the exciting state of public affairs, combined to render this one of the most memorable occasions the city had ever seen.

President Buchanan, it was observed, seemed sad and preoccupied, and spoke but little during the ride; Mr. Lincoln appeared calm and self-possessed, but little affected by his unfamiliar surroundings or the suppressed excitement about him. The people were in an April mood, the joy of victory tempered by the hostile attitude of the South, bright visions of the future clouded by the shadow of war—a fratricidal war—that overhung the city.

On reaching the Capitol Mr. Lincoln was escorted to the Senate, and took the seat assigned him. The chamber was crowded with the usual imposing array—prominent officers of government, the army and navy, Senators and Representatives, the Diplomatic Corps brilliant with gold lace and insignia. The oath was administered to Hannibal Hamlin, Vice-President-elect, by John C. Breckenridge the retiring Vice-President, and the former assumed the chair as President of the Senate. After he had delivered a brief address, the procession was re-formed, and, with Mr. Lincoln in the van, advanced to the platform on the east portico, and Senator Baker, turning to the multitude that filled Capitol Square, said: “Fellow-citizens, I introduce to you Abraham Lincoln,

President-elect of the United States." Cheers again and again repeated greeted the new Chief Magistrate. Mr. Lincoln stood a moment surveying the people, then placed his spectacles before his eyes, and proceeded to read in a clear, penetrating voice that inaugural address which has become an American classic, surpassed by but few state papers.

He concluded with the pathetic words:

"I am loth to close. We are not *enemies*, but friends, We must not be enemies. Though passion may have strained, it must not break, our bonds of affection. The mystic cords of memory, stretching from every battle-field and patriot grave to every living heart and hearth-stone all over this broad land, will yet swell the chorus of the Union, when again touched, as surely they will be, by the better angels of our nature."

And then, says an eye-witness, a tremendous cheer arose, and ran like a wave along the avenue, carrying testimony which was likewise flying over the wires in every direction, that the inauguration had been successfully accomplished, and that in spite of all perils, visionary and real, Abraham Lincoln was President of the United States, and a new historic era had been ushered in.

The oath was administered by Chief-Justice Taney, the President placing his hand on the Bible, and repeating after the venerable jurist: "I do solemnly swear that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States." At its con-

clusion he bowed and reverently kissed the Book, while thunder of cannon and jubilant music of bands announced the completion of the inaugural ceremonies. The procession then returned to the White House in the same order as that in which it had come, and a grand reception concluded the ceremonies.

Days of doubt, turmoil, and alarm followed. What would the President do to "protect and defend, the Constitution," as he had sworn? What would the South do in defence of her position? were the questions of the day. For the first six weeks Mr. Lincoln adopted a Fabian policy. For the moral effect he preferred that the South should be the aggressor. He appointed as his Cabinet, Senator William H. Seward of New York, Secretary of State; Salmon P. Chase of Ohio, Secretary of the Treasury; Simon Cameron of Pennsylvania, Secretary of War (soon superseded by Edwin M. Stanton); Gideon Welles of Connecticut, Secretary of the Navy; Montgomery Blair of Missouri, Postmaster-General; Caleb B. Smith, Secretary of the Interior; and Edward Bates, Attorney-General. He also called an executive session of Congress, but he was chiefly employed in learning the details of government, and what resources it possessed for maintaining its authority.

The city during this period was in a state of constant excitement and alarm. Many of its people were in sympathy with the seceding States. Momentarily the citizens expected to see the Potomac hills bristle with the bayonets of an invading army.

"The city has been the scene of the wildest excitement throughout the day," wrote a correspondent on

April 10th. "Troops marching, drums beating, flags flying, the whole length of Pennsylvania Avenue. Ten companies, or one fourth of the volunteer militia of the District are mustering to-day for inspection. Fear of an attack from an invading army under command of that celebrated Texas Ranger, Ben. McCullough, is the cause of these movements."

Other letters speak of the warlike appearance of the city; of troops continually marching through the streets, and of drums and fifes heard in every direction. Meantime the South maintained her defiant attitude. Her leaders labored under a misapprehension as to the spirit and resources of the North—as, in fact, they had done for years. They did not believe the Northerners would fight; they convinced themselves that a show of force was all that was necessary to effect a peaceable separation of the States. They even sent peace commissioners to Washington with proposals to this effect. But they were soon and bitterly undeceived.

On Thursday, April 11th, South Carolina troops opened fire on Fort Sumter. The brave Anderson returned the fire. Blood was shed. On Saturday morning, April 13th, the North was electrified by the news that Fort Sumter had fallen—that the Stars and Stripes had bowed to the Palmetto. The scenes in the capital on receipt of this news were repeated in every city of the North. Business was largely suspended. People gathered on the street corners and at the hotels to discuss the startling news. The telegraph and newspaper offices, the White House, War and Navy Departments were

besieged by eager inquirers. At the White House the President and his Cabinet were in consultation throughout the morning; it was seen that the moment so long awaited had arrived. Accordingly on Monday morning, April 15th, President Lincoln issued his call for seventy-five thousand volunteers in defence of the Union, and proclaimed a special session of Congress for July 4th.

Never was there a grander uprising of a people than that in response to the President's call. The same day General Scott, hoisting his commander-in-chief's flag over the War Department, enrolled four hundred volunteers. The same day Governor Andrew of Massachusetts telegraphed, "One regiment of Massachusetts' quota is ready. How will you have them proceed?" "By rail," laconically responded the Secretary of War. And in answer, as every schoolboy knows, they marched—the glorious Sixth. The same day Governor Sprague of Rhode Island tendered a regiment; Governor Ramsay of Minnesota offered another in person. The Legislature of New York voted thirty thousand men and three millions of money to carry on the war. Governor Dennison of Ohio tendered ten thousand, "with more if needed." Banks all over the free States offered their treasures to government. That same day martial law was proclaimed in the District of Columbia, and at nightfall alert gentlemen of the press telegraphed that Washington was assuming the appearance of a vast military camp.

The next day more dispatches were received. Governor Buckingham of Connecticut telegraphed:

"Your request will have immediate attention." Governor Fairbanks of Vermont: "One thousand men are ready to march." Governor Randall: "The call for one regiment will be promptly responded to, and further calls when made." Governor Washburne of Maine: "The people of Maine of all parties will rally with alacrity to the maintenance of the Government and the Union." Distinguished citizens of Cincinnati: "Men of all grades enrolling. Utmost enthusiasm prevails. There is no sympathy with treason: God bless you!"

Not all the responses of governors were to this effect, however. For instance Governor Letcher of Virginia replied on the 19th, refusing to obey, and saying: "Virginia accepts the issue of war." On the 18th five hundred Pennsylvania troops reached the Capitol. On the 19th at nightfall there was great cheering, and the gallant Sixth Massachusetts—the first organized regiment to respond to the President's call,—bruised and bleeding from the brickbats of the Baltimore rioters, wheeled into Pennsylvania Avenue, and took its way to the Capitol. Among the spectators was Lieutenant-Colonel Butterfield of the famous New York Seventh, who had come on in advance of his regiment to secure quarters for them.

Let us visit the Massachusetts men at their bivouac in the Capitol. At midnight we set out with the second patrol of Colonel Cassius M. Clay's command. As we approach the magnificent edifice a sentinel orders us to halt, but we give the countersign and are allowed to pass. Two ladies in

charge of a sergeant meet us near the entrance—nurses going in to care for the wounded men of the Sixth. We hardly recognize the portico of peaceful days, for it is barricaded with barrels of cement placed endwise, and piled ten feet high between the marble piers and columns. Entering we meet watchful sentries in every corridor, and are directed to the Senate wing, where the Massachusetts men, thoroughly exhausted by four sleepless nights of travel, have thrown themselves to rest. It is a strange scene presented in the Senate chamber and the corridors adjacent; arms stacked in the corners, uniformed officers and soldiers stretched on the senatorial sofas, chairs, on the carpet and tiled floors—their knapsacks for a pillow, lost in deepest slumber. On the morrow, some of them will write home in strains of the purest sentiment, of their magnificent quarters, and of their emotions on ascending the grand staircases, and traversing the stately chambers, where had resounded the voices of the noblest orators and statesmen of the republic.

In other parts of the building are quartered the five hundred Pennsylvania troops and a company of United States artillery—for all through these opening weeks of the struggle, the fear is that the enemy may by a sudden dash gain possession of the Capitol, and there undertake to dictate terms to the country. The White House, too, and all the public buildings are strongly guarded by detachments of troops. The gallant Seventh Regiment of New York arrives on April 25th, and marches down Pennsyl-

vania Avenue to the music of its splendid band, to salute the President. It reports the Massachusetts Eighth as holding Annapolis, and the Seventy-First, Twelfth, Eighth, Sixty-ninth, and Fifth New York as on the way. From this time, regiments pour in unceasingly, and the safety of the capital is assured. But the North was impatient for an advance. It also underrated the spirit and resources of its opponent. At length, on the 17th of July, General Scott ordered the army to march against the enemy, who was known to be entrenched on the banks of Bull Run and about Manassas Junction, some thirty miles southwest of Washington. General McDowell commanded, leading an army of about thirty thousand men. The march of the various regiments from their camps and through the city formed a stirring and brilliant spectacle. They were citizen soldiers from shop, farm, store, and counting-house, diverse in drill, equipment, and uniform, yet their soldierly bearing and the military ardor in their faces were remarked. Above them bright standards waved, and inspiring strains of martial music filled the air. Ladies and gentlemen in carriages accompanied the troops on their way. Behind came long files of wagons, the horses attached to them neighing and trampling under the attacks of the flies and a midsummer sun.

In the city news of its fortunes was anxiously awaited. Late in the evening of July 21st, an army correspondent arrived from the front, dusty, breathless, without his hat, but bearing important news—the battle was then being fought along the line of Bull Run. In a small room on Newspaper Row he

dictated, while a brother journalist wrote, his account. Every thing was favorable to the Union arms. It told of rapid marchings of troops, attacks, retreats, firing of guns, flank movements, killed and wounded, personal experiences in the imminent deadly breach. The account was finished at 11.30 P.M., but before giving it to the wires, the two men went out in search of later news. In front of the Metropolitan Hotel, then called Brown's, a hack-load of passengers from the front had just alighted, and one, in response to eager inquiries, began giving his own experience, tracing in the sand with his cane by the light of the moon the movements of the brigades. There had been reverses for the Union Army, he said, and a panic. A large portion of the troops were in disgraceful flight toward their entrenchments around the city. The news proved but too true, and instead of victory, the correspondents telegraphed a disgraceful defeat.

When too late, the leaders perceived that the army had been pushed forward too soon, before it was properly organized, and that to be effective it must be drilled, officered, and disciplined. General Scott, laboring under the infirmities of years, did not feel equal to the task, and General George B. McClellan, a young officer whose organizing and executive talents had attracted his attention, was appointed to perform the work. McClellan's first act was to make a careful survey of the field—with not very encouraging results.

An army of fifty thousand infantry, one thousand cavalry, and six hundred and fifty artillery had been

gathered for the defence of the capital, but was without camp equipment or proper stores. But six earthworks had been thrown up to protect the city, all on the Virginia side of the Potomac—Fort Corcoran with its two redoubts Bennett and Haggerty, the whole mounting twenty-three guns, on the heights overlooking Georgetown; Fort Runyon, of twenty-three guns, and Fort Albany, with eighteen, at the farther end of the Long Bridge; and Fort Ellsworth, of twenty-four guns, on Shuter's Hill, commanding Alexandria. There were no defences of importance on the Maryland side.

The camps had been placed without regard to purposes of defence or location. Many of the roads were unpicketed. There was no organization into brigades or divisions. There was no artillery establishment, no corps of engineers, no medical, quartermaster, subsistence, ordnance, or provost-marshal's departments. The crude material of an army excellent in character was there, and nothing more. For its organization in an unprecedentedly short period into one of the finest armies of the world, the nation is indebted to General McClellan and Secretary-of-War Cameron.

From this time forward to the close of the war Washington presented much the appearance of an entrenched camp and military hospital. By October 15, 1861, over one hundred and fifty-two thousand men were encamped in and around the city. In October, 1862, the army had increased to two hundred thousand men, and there were seventy large general hospitals sheltering thirty thousand sick and wounded soldiers.

To get as graphic a picture as possible of Washington as it appeared then, let us in fancy visit the city in March, 1862, just before the army makes its grand advance upon Richmond. Two hundred thousand men are dwelling in neatly arranged cities of white tents on both sides of the great river—cities that sleep and awake to the sound of bugle and tap of drum. The sergeant drilling his awkward squad, regiments of glistening bayonets forming blue squares on the hill-sides, ponderous parks of artillery rumbling away, squadrons of cavalry sweeping the plain, military staffs in brilliant uniform attending their chiefs, brigades and divisions in review with waving banners and bursts of exultant music from a thousand bands; yonder a line of ambulances advancing from the latest battle-field, blood trickling from them drop by drop—red against blue;—these are the sights and sounds that greet us on every side.

A cordon of grim batteries surrounds the city. North, south, east, west, wherever we look, they confront us. On the north, stretching from the Potomac to the Anacostia, frowns a line of batteries—Sumner on Georgetown Heights near the reservoir, Reno on the Tenallytown Hills, Stevens on the Seventh-Street road, Gaines, De Russey, Slocum, Totten, Bunker Hill, Saratoga, Slemmer, Thayer, and Lincoln—the last bringing us to the Anacostia. Then across that river there are Forts Stanton, Guble, Carroll, Mahan, Meigs, Dupont, Baker, Wagner, Ricketts, and Snyder; and at the Chain Bridge, Forts Ethan Allen and Marcy. Across the Potomac at Alexandria, in addition to Fort Ellsworth, are Forts

Worth, Ward, and Lyon, and on Arlington Heights are Forts Craig, Tillinghast, Cass, Woodbury, Richardson, and Strong, to say nothing of a long series of minor redoubts. There are in all one hundred and fifty-one forts and batteries, and twelve hundred and eighty-eight guns and mortars ready to belch fires of death upon any foe of sufficient hardihood to approach the city with hostile intent.

In the hospitals we find many brisk, active men and bright-faced women in attendance—nurses of the United States Sanitary Commission, a beneficent society that had been created by private enterprise and accepted by the government in the first year of the war—June 9, 1861—“To direct its inquiries to the principles and practices connected with the inspection of recruits and enlisted men, the sanitary condition of the volunteers, to secure the general comfort and efficiency of the troops, and provide cooks, nurses, etc., for the hospitals.” This society received contributions of money and supplies, held “sanitary fairs” in all the great cities for the same object, and spent the money thus gained in relieving the wants of the soldiers. Its agents accompanied the armies, and were at all military centres throughout the country. In Washington it established, soon after its formation, a receiving station and Soldier’s Rest, and in October following, three cheap, temporary model hospitals were erected by government after plans provided by the Commission. In November following it is recorded that the Commission distributed from its Washington depot 34,481 articles of clothing. We find that it has at

this time a home and temporary hospital of 320 beds on North Capitol Street, and in the city five "lodges" for the care and refreshment of disabled and discharged soldiers—one on Seventeenth Street, a second on F Street, a third on H Street, a fourth on Sixth Street wharf, and a fifth on Maryland Avenue. The H Street building has connected with it a dormitory of one hundred beds, a dining-room of one hundred seating capacity, a storehouse, a free pension agency, a medical examiner of applicants for pensions, an office of the agent selling railroad tickets to discharged soldiers at reduced rates, and an office of the paymaster for discharged soldiers. While we have been learning these facts, a disabled soldier of the Army of the Potomac has come to the paymaster's office, presented his discharge papers, and has been paid off. From this moment the Sanitary Commission takes him in charge and protects him from the harpies who are making large sums by preying on discharged soldiers. He is fed and lodged; if his papers are wrong, as often happens, assistance is given in correcting them; he is aided in securing his pension and bounty money, and a ticket at reduced rates is secured for him over the railroads to his home.

In this first year of the war, the first act in the general emancipation of the slaves took place in the liberation of all persons of color held to servitude in the District of Columbia. The Act providing for it passed Congress on April 16, 1862. By its provisions legal owners were to be compensated, and three commissioners were appointed to pay for the slaves

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liberated. They held their sessions in the City Hall, and nearly nine months passed before the business was concluded. Some of the scenes presented at the City Hall, as described by the daily press, were dramatic, and some laughable. An expert from Baltimore, a noted slave-dealer, was employed to examine the negroes, which he did with great particularity, making them dance about to show their suppleness of limb, and open their mouths to prove that they had sound teeth—which he regarded as an evidence of good health and also as an indication of age. The negroes came singing hosannas at the prospect of freedom, and submitted themselves to be examined with the greatest abandon and good-nature. Their owners were obliged to take the oath of loyalty before they were entitled to compensation. \$914,942 were paid for the slaves and for the expenses of the commissioners. In all 2,989 slaves were liberated. The highest sum paid for any single slave was \$788, and the lowest \$10.95, the slave in the latter case being an infant. The largest slaveholder owned 69 slaves, and received \$17,771 for them.

This act was important as being the forerunner of President Lincoln's great Emancipation Act, which was proclaimed the succeeding autumn—September 22, 1862,—and which declared that the slaves in all States found in rebellion against the government on January 1, 1863, should be forever free.

Although Washington was so continually threatened by the enemy, but one serious attempt was made during the war to capture the city. We refer to the raid of General Jubal Early in the summer of

1864. This event was so directly connected with the city, and might have been attended with such serious and far-reaching results, that it should be treated more fully than has been accorded it in histories of the war.

Grant at the time was busily engaged in throttling Lee on the lines about Richmond and Petersburg, and to create a diversion in his rear, and if possible capture Washington, Early was sent up through the Shenandoah Valley and across the Potomac. He had, by his own account, Lee's Second Army Corps of picked veterans, Breckenridge's division of infantry, with three brigades of infantry, four of cavalry, and nine field batteries aggregating forty guns,—in all about ten thousand men. Washington at this period was almost denuded of soldiers. Disabled veterans, those detailed for hospital duty, the department clerks, a regiment of District militia, and a few marines and employés at the navy yard were all that could be mustered,—in all not five thousand men,—a fact of which the enemy had full intelligence through his spies.

On the morning of July 9th, the city was startled by the sullen booming of guns away to the northward. Old men who were boys in 1814 recalled the famous battle of Bladensburg; but then it was the foreign invader that threatened—now a domestic foe was at her doors. Soon rumors came pouring in. The enemy, reported from thirty thousand to forty-five thousand strong, was confronting General Lew Wallace and his handful at the railroad bridge over the Monocacy, bent on capturing the Washington pike and the National pike

leading from Baltimore to the West, both of which converged at that point. The Monocacy was but thirty-five miles away. The couriers described the situation; a clear water stream flowing down to the Potomac, commanding hills on the eastern bank, broad green fields on the western, beyond which the huge mass of Mount Catocin loomed up; the iron railroad bridge of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad spanning the river, a stone bridge also, and a wooden bridge carrying the two pikes over the stream, the railroad bridge being equidistant between the two; the pretty village of Frederick City three miles to the north, reached by the railroad and the pikes. On the commanding eastern bank the little army of Major General Lew Wallace, since so famous as an author, who then commanded the Middle Department, embracing the region between Washington and Baltimore and the Monocacy, was drawn up in battle array, bent on saving the capital by disputing the enemy's advance to the last, and in the doing of it fighting one of the most gallant and spirited, as well as most momentous in results, of the minor battles of the war. He had but three thousand three hundred men—two thirds of them Home Guards and one-hundred-days' men from Ohio—against the enemy's ten thousand. A division of the Sixth Corps under General Ricketts, which had been hurried from Petersburg to Baltimore when the enemy appeared in the valley, were nearly all the veteran troops he could command. Of this division three regiments were still on the road between Baltimore and the Monocacy, and were promised him at one o'clock.

Early on the morning of the 9th, his dispositions for battle were made, the enemy being then in force at Frederick City. To General Tyler and the Maryland and Ohio men was given the task of defending the railroad bridge. Three companies of Colonel Gilpin's regiment were posted to defend Crum's ford, midway of the stone bridge and the railroad bridge, while Landstreet and Gilpin were held in reserve at the railroad. On the left, which was likely to be the main point of attack, Ricketts' veterans were formed in two lines across the Washington pike, so as to hold the rising ground south of it and the wooden bridge over the river. Still farther to the left Colonel Clendennin was posted to watch that flank and guard the lower fords. On the opposite bank, three quarters of a mile in advance, Colonel Brown, with the First Regiment of Potomac Home Guards, were deployed as skirmishers. As these dispositions were made, the railroad agent informed him (the General) that two more troop trains were on the road and would arrive at one P.M. They comprised the remainder of Ricketts' division—three regiments. At the same time the enemy appeared in force, marching down the pike from Frederick City. At sight of the line of defence he halted, threw out skirmishers, planted his guns behind them, and began the battle. At nine he formed columns again, and without attacking even the skirmish line, swept through the fields to the left, just out of range of the Union guns, and forced the passage of the river at a ford about a mile below Ricketts' line. To meet him that officer changed front to the left, so that his right rested on the river bank.

At 10.30 A.M. the enemy's first line of battle appeared marching up against Ricketts, and so far overlapping him, that his second line was merged into the first, leaving no reserve. Still the enemy overlapped. Two guns were hurried from Tyler's force to the imperilled line without avail. Finally the wooden bridge was burned, and the force stationed to defend it was ordered to the front, leaving only Tyler's men in reserve. Early's line now charged with a cheer and a rush, but the veterans stood firm as a rock, and it was hurled back badly defeated. Again it formed and charged recklessly—there was a fierce struggle,—then it fell back shattered, and retired sullenly to the woods in the rear.

Wallace could now have retreated safely, but the enemy's full strength was not yet brought against him, and it was important that he should hold on as long as possible. One o'clock came, but there were no signs of the expected reinforcements. Two—but still no rumble of approaching trains was heard. The ranks stood firm and awaited events. At half-past two they saw the enemy's third line of battle move out of the woods and down the hill behind which it had formed; right behind it marched the fourth, outnumbering them four to one. Evidently it was time to leave. Ricketts was therefore ordered to retire by way of the Baltimore pike, which he did in good order. While this was being done, the stone bridge became the objective point of both armies. To yield it was for the Union forces to lose their only line of retreat. Colonel Brown with his Marylanders had been fighting over this bridge since the action

began, aided toward the last by Tyler, who had hurried to his support. As the head of Ricketts' retreating column reached the pike, Wallace galloped to the bridge and ordered the gallant fellows to hold it at all hazards until the enemy attacked their rear, or until Ricketts' last regiment should clear the country road. Tyler obeyed. He held on, in spite of furious assault again and again repeated, until Ricketts was well on the road to New Market, when a sharp attack upon his rear told him that orders had been obeyed: he was surrounded by the enemy. Not then did the brave fellows think of surrender. Some fled to the woods; the greater part kept their ranks, and, headed by Colonel Brown, fought their way through. General Tyler and his staff escaped into the forest and eventually joined the main army. At this point the enemy stopped pursuit.

Colonel Clendennin who, as we have seen, had been fighting on the extreme left, proved himself a gallant officer. Finding that he was cut off from the main body, he threw himself into the little village of Urbana, where he repeatedly repulsed the assaults of the enemy, and at last by a bold charge, sabre in hand, cut through the hostile ranks, capturing the battle-flag of the Seventeenth Virginia. "As brave a cavalry soldier as ever mounted horse," said his commander in his report of the battle.

The road to Washington was now open to the enemy, but he had been delayed twenty-four precious hours. The next night his army bivouacked at Rockville, but ten miles from Washington, and the next morning appeared before the defences of

Washington. The city was thrown into the wildest confusion and alarm. The gravity of the crisis was apparent. Early once within the defences was master of the situation. The officers of government, the invaluable public records, and public buildings were at his mercy. Most serious of all would be the moral effect—for France had long been urging England to recognize the Southern Confederacy, and so great an exploit as the capture of the national capital would, without doubt, be followed by such recognition.

The wildest rumors disturbed the authorities and the citizens. The lowest reports placed the number of the invading hosts at thirty thousand men, and the highest at forty-five thousand. The authorities made preparations for vigorous defence. Three thousand five hundred men on hospital duty were ordered to report to General Alger, the military governor of the city. The clerks in the Departments were organized into companies, armed, equipped, and hurried to the front along the northern line of defences; while the employés of the Navy Yard, with the marine corps, were formed into a regiment and marched out on the Bladensburg road to guard Fort Lincoln. Colonel S. W. Owen even organized a mounted regiment from the teamsters of the city. All the important roads leading into the capital were barricaded with chains, army wagons, and the like.

Meantime hurrying northward came the two divisions of the famous Sixth Corps, and a portion of the Nineteenth Corps—which had been ordered by General Grant to the defence of the capital.

Old residents who were in the city at the time give interesting reminiscences of the scenes and incidents of the siege. As a rule, the Department clerks took up arms and manned the defences with spirit and courage. One, a perfect giant in form, is remembered for his pusillanimity. He first excused himself on the ground that he had false front teeth and could not bite a cartridge, but was told he would be furnished with a breech-loader. This failing, he pleaded heart disease, and finally was excused by taking an overdose of physic, which made him really ill. The veteran reserves marched to the trenches in various stages of dismemberment. The tale is told of a group of five who held a clump of timber on the skirmish line in advance of Fort Stevens, from which they poured deadly missiles into the enemy's line. Had he known their disabilities he might easily have taken them, there being but five sound legs and six good arms in the entire five.

On July 11th there was sharp skirmishing a mile and a half beyond Tenallytown—in front of Forts Reno, Kearney, and De Russey,—and at Silver Spring, just north of Fort Stevens, where the enemy entrenched. Demonstrations were also made against Fort Lincoln, on the Bladensburg road. On the evening of this day—July 11th—Washington was a beleaguered city. The booming of cannon resounded from along the northern and northeastern borders of the District, and the enemy's shells could be distinctly seen and heard bursting in air to the southward of Forts Stevens, Slocum, and Totten, telling

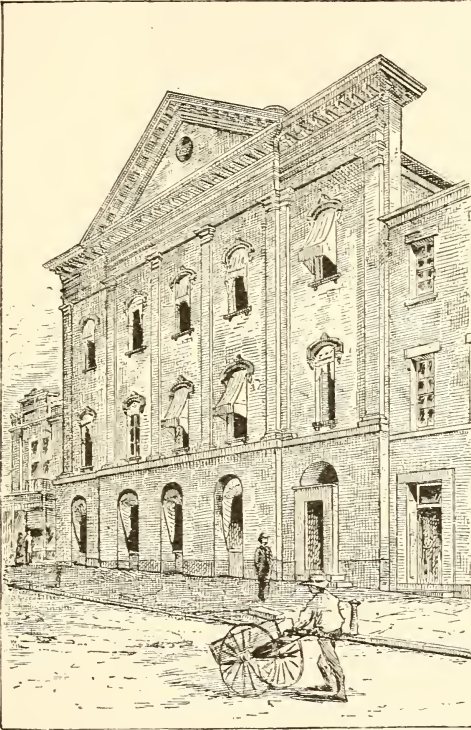
the frightened inhabitants that the enemy was slowly but surely drawing nearer. From Fort Stevens the opposing skirmish lines even could be seen in close contact, while the smoke and rattle of musketry were plainly discernible. For two days, while the Second Regiment of District militia held the line between Forts Stevens and Slocum, thousands of civilians drove out there to view the situation,—President Lincoln and Secretaries Seward and Stanton being among them. As showing the proximity of the enemy, it is related that while Messrs. Koontz and White, attachés of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company, and Dr. Du Hanul of Washington, were standing with two soldiers on one of the forts guarding the approaches from the north, they were discovered by the enemy's sharpshooters, who shot the two soldiers simultaneously, killing one outright and mortally wounding the other. The civilians hastily retreated, and shortly after orders were issued forbidding non-combatants to approach the lines.

On the evening of the 11th the enemy's advance was within a mile of Fort Stevens, and the situation became extremely critical. Early was evidently massing his forces in three columns for attack upon the Seventh Street road, where the defences were weakest, and where the greatest pressure had been brought to bear. Every thing pointed to an assault on the morrow. But at four that afternoon—just in the nick of time—the two divisions of the Sixth Corps arrived, with the Nineteenth just behind. Up the streets they marched, as only veterans can

march — company, battalion, regiment, brigade, division, the gallant General Wright commanding, and greeted with exultant cheers, swinging of hats, and display of handkerchiefs by the relieved inhabitants. "Just in time, old Sixth Corps!" shouted a "vet." from among the bystanders. "You bet," was the grim response, as the soldiers shifted their muskets and marched to the defences, there to be greeted by the defenders with still more triumphant cheers. The enemy was quick to discover the presence of the "fighting Sixth." That night on the outposts the rebel pickets recognized the men whose fighting qualities they had learned to respect. "Hello, old Sixth Corps," they shouted; "where in thunder did you come from?" "Come from Richmond! What are you Johnnies doing here?" replied the boys of the Sixth. "Oh! Early's brought a lot of wooden furloughs for your bummers, but they won't come out and take 'em," was the reply.

Next morning, however, the Sixth went out and took them, Wharton's brigade engaging Early's skirmish line, and driving it back after a pretty fight of an hour, President Lincoln and a number of prominent officials viewing the affair from the ramparts of Fort Stevens. That night the invading army disappeared. Early, finding, in the expressive language of the soldiers, that "he had taken a bigger contract than he could fill," had retreated to his Virginia fastnesses. It is well to remember, however, that but for Wallace's gallant stand at the Monocacy, the Sixth Corps would have been a day too late.

Richmond fell on the 4th of April, 1865. On the 8th Lee surrendered his army; and Grant and his victorious hosts came marching back to the city



FORD'S THEATRE, WHERE LINCOLN WAS SHOT.

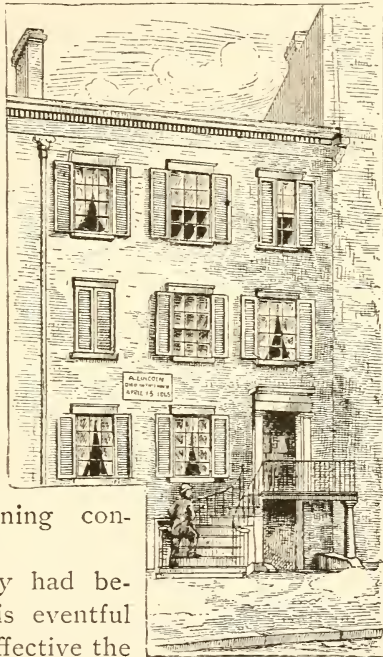
they had so long and bravely defended. Washington was mad with joy over the event. Orders went swiftly out from the War Department, announcing the overthrow of the rebellion and the return of

peace. Recruiting and drafting were stopped, the blockade was raised, restrictions on commerce removed. On April 13th the city honored the event with a grand celebration. The Capitol, the White House, and other public buildings, with many private residences, were gay with bunting; business was generally suspended, and citizens met each other with congratulations. All day at intervals the heavy siege guns in the forts thundered salutes. In the evening there was a general illumination and bonfires, and President Lincoln, standing on the portico of the White House, addressed an immense audience which heartily applauded his expressions of peace and good-will to all.

But the city soon learned that mourning often crowds closely on the heels of rejoicing. The newspapers of Friday, April 14th, announced that that night President Lincoln and General Grant would attend Ford's Theatre, where the popular comedy "Our American Cousin" was to be enacted. General Grant was invited by the President to form one of his party, but a prior engagement obliged him to decline. About nine o'clock President Lincoln, with a few friends, entered the theatre. The play was stopped, and the orchestra played "Hail to the Chief," while the audience vociferously applauded. An hour later, while every one was watching the actors on the stage, a pistol-shot was heard, seemingly in the President's box, and a moment later a man leaped from it to the stage, flourished a dagger in full view of the audience, and with the exclamation *Sic semper tyrannis*, disappeared by the

stage exit. A scene of terror and distress ensued. The President was seen to be leaning forward in his seat unconscious, and the piercing screams of Mrs. Lincoln announced that he had been shot. Men climbed upon the box to the aid of the sufferer; others rushed upon the stage in pursuit of the murderer. Surgeons hastily summoned found that the victim had received a bullet wound in the back of the head, and soon decided that the wound was mortal. He was removed to a private house across the street, where the next morning, without regaining consciousness, he died.

Meantime the city had become aroused. This eventful night showed how effective the police and secret-service force of government had become under the pressure of war. Instantly the telegraph aroused the police and military. The long roll was beat in the distant camps and fortifications. Signal lights flashed. Church bells tolled. Cavalry and infantry scoured the streets and picketed every road



HOUSE WHERE LINCOLN
DIED.

leading out of the city. In five minutes on D Street alone five thousand people were in swift and excited motion.

Soon news came of an attempt to assassinate Secretary Seward and other high officers of government, and it was apparent that a deep-laid plot of assassination existed. The conspirators escaped for the time being, but ultimately received the punishment due to their crimes. The chief assassin, Booth, was overtaken in the Virginia barn where he had sought refuge, and was slain by a bullet from Boston Corbett's rifle. The others were also identified, and after trial executed or imprisoned.

The funeral services of the slain President were held at the White House on April 19th, and were of a character befitting the illustrious dead. The day was bright and beautiful, without a cloud; at sunrise the heavy boom of minute-guns from the forts announced the commencement of ceremonies. The people who began early to assemble at the Executive Mansion found it draped in funeral crape, together with most of the buildings, public or private, in the vicinity. The East Room, in which, on a gloomy catafalque, the dead reposed, was hung with crape, the frames of the glittering mirrors being covered with black and white drapery, which lent to the room a dim, religious light well befitting the solemnity of the occasion. The audience gathered by the bier was of a character to lend dignity to the scene. The President of the United States, the Chief-Justice and his associates of the Supreme Court, members of Congress, cabinet ministers and

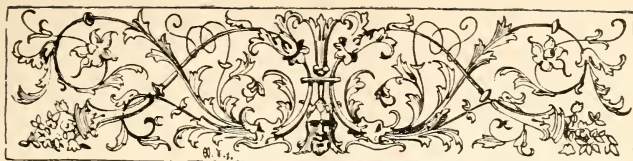
executive officers of government, generals of the army, foreign ambassadors and other members of the Diplomatic Corps, the clergy, and a multitude of distinguished citizens gathered from far and near to pay the last sad rites to one whom the nation most honored.

The Rev. Dr. Hall, rector of the Church of the Epiphany, began the ceremony by reading part of the Church service for the burial of the dead. Bishop Simpson offered prayer. Rev. Dr. Gurley delivered a funeral oration. At two o'clock the minute-guns and tolling bells announced that the funeral procession had left the White House. Its route was down Pennsylvania Avenue to the Capitol; the avenue for the whole distance had been cleared by the police, but the pavements were lined with silent and subdued spectators. The column moved to the solemn booming of minute-guns—first the military escort, a mile in length, each soldier with arms reversed and draped in black, marching to the sound of muffled drums and mournful dirge music.

After the militia came the civic procession, headed by Marshal Lamon, Surgeon-General Barnes, and the physicians who had attended the President. Behind these gentlemen was the funeral car, attended by the pall-bearers, fifteen in all,—three each, selected from the Senate, the House, the army, the navy, and from civil life. Next came the family of the President, consisting of Robert Lincoln, his little brother Thad, and their relatives, Mrs. Lincoln being too ill to be present. Behind

these rode President Johnson, with two mounted officers on either hand; then in carriages, Chief-Justice Chase, and the Supreme Bench, the Diplomatic Corps, Senators and Representatives, public officers, civic societies, delegations from cities, a large body of colored citizens, and forming the rear-guard another large body of military. The whole procession was three miles long, and consumed two hours and ten minutes in passing a given point. Arrived at the Capitol the body was placed in the centre of the rotunda, under the great dome, which had been appropriately draped for the occasion. Rev. Dr. Gurley then read the burial-service, and the exercises of the day were concluded. After lying in state in the Capitol for two days, the remains were removed for permanent interment in Springfield, Illinois, the route including New York and other great cities of the North, where equal honors were paid to the dead.





CHAPTER XII.

MARCHING HOME AND INTO HISTORY.

BY the middle of May, Sherman's gallant veterans had arrived in the city, and it was decided fitly to celebrate the army's disbandment by a grand review of the two great divisions which, between them, had ground the armies of the South like grain between the upper and nether millstone.

Preliminary to the final discharge, therefore, the Army of the Potomac, under General Meade, and the Division of the Mississippi, under General Sherman, were ordered to pass in review before the eye of their Commander-in-chief, before the eyes of their respective chieftains, and before the eyes of the nation they had saved. Adequate preparations were made for the event, and so perfectly disciplined were the troops of the two armies, so welded together by the *esprit* of their splendid achievements, that the whole mass moved as one, and the work of organizing and directing the great parade was easily and smoothly accomplished. It was arranged that one day should be devoted to each army: the 23d of May, 1865, was assigned to the Army of the Potomac, and the following day, the 24th, to the Division of the Mississippi.

The morning of the 23d dawned gloriously—all that the actors in the pageant, or the spectators could have desired. The air, tempered by the spring rains, was cool, fragrant, and free from dust. Battle-scarred Washington smiled brightly in the May sunshine, and decked herself gayly to greet the victors. Bunting of all kinds floated bravely from flag-staffs, decked the fronts of buildings, hung suspended over the streets. The reviewing stand had been erected on the sidewalk in front of the White House—a long pavilion, richly decorated with flags, inscribed with the famous victories of both armies, and having on either flank long stands for the accommodation of officials, ladies, and disabled veterans. Opposite, across the street, was a second pavilion, erected for members of Congress, governors of States, and other State officials, and this was flanked as far as Seventeenth Street on the one side, and to Fifteenth and a Half Street on the other, by private stands, erected by citizens of Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, and Ohio, and by the officers who were to take part in the parade.

As the appointed hour—nine o'clock—approaches, the scene, whether viewed from the White House, or from the west point of the Capitol, is inspiring to a degree. Never has Washington been so packed with humanity. The newspapers have given notice of the event to the remotest hamlets, and the people have come in multitudes. Painters, poets, journalists, historians are there to give it continued fame. The lawyer has left his briefs, the artisan his bench, the farmer his plough, to greet the veterans whose

trials and exploits for four years have been the theme of office, workshop, and cottage fireside; the father has brought his son, the mother her daughter, that they may be able to describe it in distant years to children's children. They have read in history of Roman "triumphs,"—how the victorious legions swept along the Appian Way with captives at their chariot wheels, while Rome applauded; of the welcome Paris gave Napoleon's victorious hosts, of the ovations London tendered to the heroes of Waterloo and the Crimea, but they feel that in spectacular display and historic interest, this will surpass all.

Massed under arms behind the Capitol and filling the camps around the city are five great *corps d'armée*—the Army of the Potomac, the Army of the James, the Army of Georgia, the Army of the Tennessee, and the Corps of Cavalry, under Sheridan—two hundred thousand men in all. The hour of nine peals from a score of steeples. Blare of bugle and roll of drum greet it; the column is in motion, marching down from East Capitol Square, where it has been held for orders. The Army of the Potomac has the advance. First rides its gallant commander, General George C. Meade, followed by his general staff, in brilliant uniforms, by the head-quarters escort—a squadron of the First Massachusetts Cavalry,—and by the Cavalry Corps under General Merritt.

Let us witness the pageant from the reviewing stand. A brilliant company has gathered there. President Johnson occupies the centre, with Lieu-

tenant-General Grant seated beside him as reviewing officer. In the second line from the front are Generals Sherman, Hancock, and Torbert, Secretaries Sherman, Stanton, Welles, and other Cabinet officers, while the pavilion and the stands on either side are crowded with officers of the army and diplomatic corps in brilliant uniforms, with ladies in gay attire, with governors, senators, and civilians.

General Meade passes the stand at 9.15 A.M. and salutes. The drum-corps opposite peals out a salute in reply, and the march now commences. The splendid Cavalry Corps under Merritt first passes under review. General Grant gives it a nod of approval as he recalls its record. Hooker mobilized it. Pleasanton first successfully fought it. Enough to say of it that it has been with Sheridan in the Valley. It passes in platoons of sixteen horses, each trooper with drawn sabre.

There around the corner of Fifteenth Street comes Custer heading his famous Division. A fair hand throws him a flower wreath, which he catches gallantly on his sword-arm; but the movement alarms his spirited stallion, which rears, plunges, and dashes off at a frightful speed down the avenue. But the General is not easily thrown. Still holding the garland in one hand, he subdues the steed with the other, and after properly punishing him forces him back into the ranks. The troopers of this division all wear the "Custer tie," a scarf of red silk, merino, or flannel tied around the neck, with the ends falling nearly to the waist. The brave fellows are cheered all along the line, and as Davis'

division passes there are more cheers, for in its rear rides a lonely contraband on a mule, the picture of independence, and receiving cheers and laughter with the nonchalance of an old campaigner.

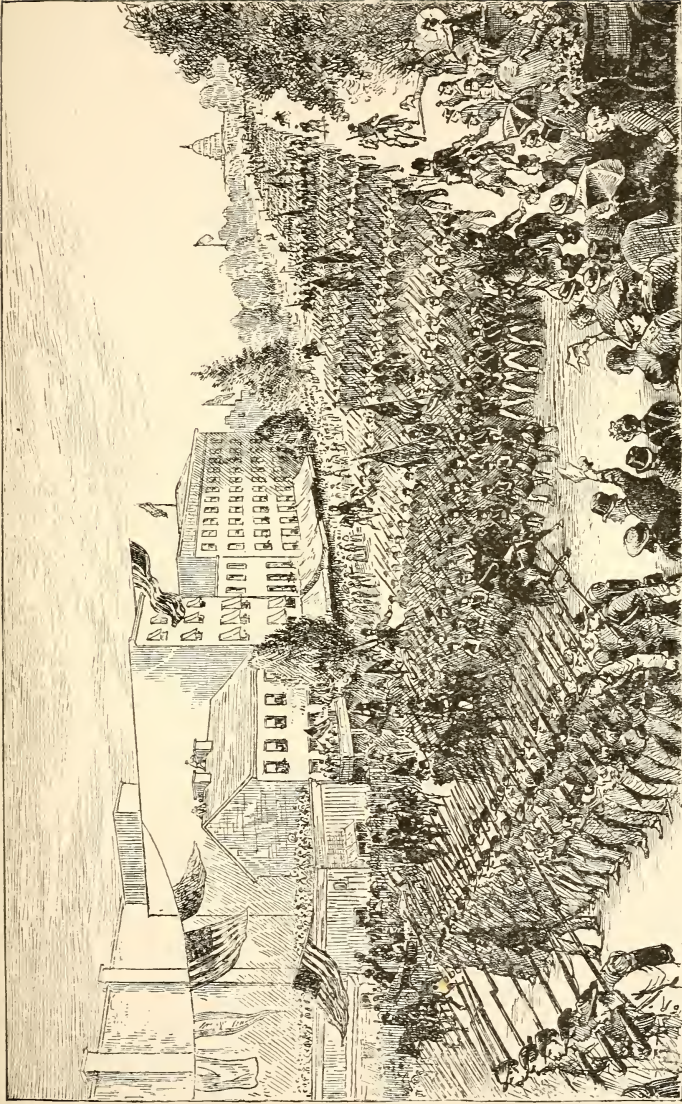
Next, with a clatter, come those pets of the cavalry, the horse batteries, brigaded under their chief, Colonel Robertson. Those three-inch rifles and brass twelves have raided it with the cavalry up and down every valley and highway in old Virginia. The batteries pass by in sections, the buglers playing the calls in chorus with fine effect. They disappear and the mixed infantry and cavalry of the Provost-Marshal's force, "the law-and-order brigade" of the Army of the Potomac, take their place. The Engineer Brigade of General Benham succeeds,—men of valor, skill, and patience, members of that indefatigable corps which has bridged every notable stream of the war—which could, if necessary, bridge the Potomac yonder in three hours. Two of their famous pontoon boats follow them. Thus the cavalry passes—it has been an hour and fifteen minutes filing by,—and the infantry, headed by the gallant Ninth Corps, comes marching by, officers, men, and horses fairly covered with bouquets.

The Ninth—where has it not marched and fought? In North Carolina first, at Roanoke Island with Burnside, then with the Army of the Potomac at South Mountain, Antietam, and Fredericksburg, then transferred to Kentucky, to Mississippi, to East Tennessee and the defence of Knoxville, and back to Virginia again, where, under Grant, it smelled powder in the battles of the Wilderness, of the

James, and of the Appomattox. A score of times it has been cut to pieces, and yet it has twenty-five thousand veterans in line to-day.

Here march two regiments that fought at Roanoke on February 8, 1862. Here are the bagpipes of the Seventy-ninth New York, discoursing as stirring strains as when it marched down Broadway in the first week of the war, and here the shot-rent, blood-stained banners wave above the color-guard, some in tatters, some barely holding to the staff, and others tied to the staff, the threads too precious to lose a single one. These fragments of silk speak volumes; they are more eloquent than words, and the people greet them with thunders of applause.

A gap now intervenes and then we see the Maltese Cross of the Fifth Corps advancing up the Avenue. The men have been under arms since 5 A.M., yet they march with the free swinging step of the trained soldier, a step that carries its twenty-three thousand men past in an hour and fifteen minutes. The column is closed with the Second Corps of twenty-five thousand men, and the review of the Army of the Potomac is accomplished. The marching has been by company front twenty men in line, and has been perfect in its way. The alignment has been especially commended—so many glittering bayonets in line, so many helmets, so many knapsacks, so many right feet advanced;—thus they have passed,—companies, battalions, regiments, brigades, divisions, corps—nearly one hundred thousand men, in five and one half hours without delay, mishap, or error of any kind. No wonder the foreign



MARCHING HOME AND INTO HISTORY.

diplomats and officers turn to one another and remark that there are no soldiers in the world that could surpass these Americans veterans.

President Johnson has frequently acknowledged the salutes of the brigade commanders as they rode by, but General Grant has sat imperturbable,—now and then making a commendatory remark as some exceptionally brave officer or distinguished regiment passed. Along the line of march, however, the brave veterans have been received with flowers, flutter of handkerchiefs, clapping of hands, and plaudits of the spectators.

The prettiest feature of the day was a band of some two thousand of the teachers, scholars, and trustees of the public schools of Washington, who were stationed on the north side of the Capitol, the girls gayly bedecked with ribbons of different colors, the boys with rosettes of similar hue upon their breasts, and all bearing flags, banners, and mottoes suitable to the occasion. As the hosts descended Capitol Hill, two thousand childish voices took up the strains of the "Battle Cry of Freedom," and sang it through in honor of the victors.

The next day the Division of the Mississippi passed in review before the same august assemblage. More interest, if possible, was taken in this pageant than in that of the day before, partly because the Armies of Georgia and Tennessee were new to the people of Washington, and also because their career showed more of romantic incident and chivalric daring. By seven o'clock spectators begin to seek for

good positions; there are more present than on the preceding day.

It is a little past nine as General Sherman, leading the advance, appears around the corner by Fifteenth Street, attended by his staff. Resounding cheers greet the hero of that grand march to the sea, who has added a new chapter to military history. Men wave their hats, ladies flutter delicate handkerchiefs and rain flowers on the favorite. He advances with "the light of battle in his eyes," salutes his reviewing officer, and, dismounting beyond, joins the group in the pavilion. Meantime the serried ranks are sweeping by. The order of march is by close columns of companies, all colors unfurled, the brigade bands playing as on the march, the battalion colors to salute the reviewing officer by drooping, the field music by making three ruffles in passing without interrupting the march. Their general gazes proudly on them and with good cause.

These are the men who have counted their milestones by thousands, who began their career by marching from the Ohio to the Tennessee under Buell, who made that gallant raid into Alabama under the daring Mitchell, who checked the Confederate advance at Stone River under Rosencrans, who carried the passes of the Cumberland to seize Chattanooga, who stood like a rock under Thomas at Chickamauga, who stormed Missionary Ridge under Sherman, and fought above the clouds of Lookout Mountain under Hooker, who marched from Chattanooga to Atlanta, and from Atlanta to

the sea, and who, under Sherman and McPherson, Slocum, Howard, and Kilpatrick, swept like a tornado through Georgia and the Carolinas, and struck the death-blow to the rebellion.

Spectators note the splendid physique, the sturdy, swinging step of the men. There are but few Eastern regiments. These ranks have been filled chiefly from the yeomanry of the prairies, from the dwellers by the Great Lakes, and the pioneers of the Far West.

First comes the Army of the Tennessee led by General John A. Logan, black-haired, dark-skinned, riding a superb, dapple-gray stallion, and who is greeted with repeated plaudits. Following him marches the Seventeenth Corps, General Frank P. Blair, then the Fifteenth Corps led by Hazen, hero of Fort McAllister. At the head of each brigade is a battalion of black pioneers clad in the old plantation garments, with axe and shovel on shoulder, marching with even, sturdy step and superior air, for Sherman has declared that the parade shall be an exact picture of his army on the march. In the Twentieth Corps under General Mower, the First Division, under the veteran General Williams, has the advance. Army men speak of the latter as having seen more battles than years, and tell over the list of his engagements—with Shields in the Valley, with Banks at Front Royal, with Slocum at Antietam, with Hooker at Chancellorsville, with Meade at Gettysburg, and with Hooker again at Lookout Mountain, Resaca, and Peach Tree Creek.

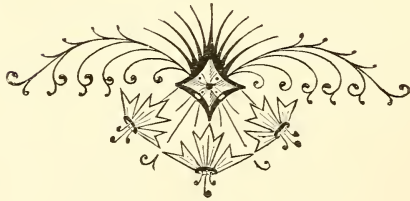
Another crack division, General John W. Geary's

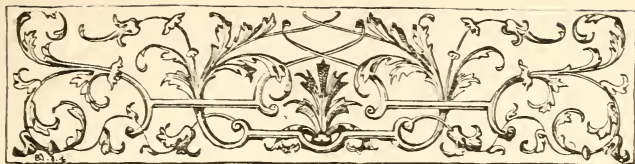
“White Star,” marches by, and then everybody is on the *qui vive*, for here, following General Bar-num’s brigade of New York troops, swings into view the first army pack-mule train ever seen in Washington. First come two diminutive white donkeys, ridden by two small contrabands. Then a dozen patient pack-mules fitted with Mexican pack-saddles, laden with boxes of hard tack on one side and with camp equipage on the other. As many stolid male contrabands lead the mules, and they are followed by colored females on foot, and by a white soldier on horseback to see that all goes well. The mess and the mess-kit are borne by this cavalcade, and reclining contentedly on the mule’s panniers we see a half-dozen game-cocks, a sure-footed goat, and a pair of young coons—a grotesque spectacle truly, one that provokes cheers and laughter from ten thousand throats.

But again the bayonets glisten, colors gleam, and bugles blare. The Fifteenth Corps, forming the rear-guard, is passing now, famous for marching and fighting, once commanded by General George H. Thomas, and to-day partaking not a little of the qualities of the Rock of Chickamauga. Now the last battalion dips its colors, the last rank passes and recedes from view. The Army of the Potomac and the Division of the Mississippi have passed by and into history.

Another picture forces itself upon us. Far south, in companies, in squads, singly, maimed, hungry, footsore, penniless, despairing, the fragments of the brave armies that have withstood these puissant hosts

for four long years, are seeking their desolated homes. For the former, the glory of conquest; for the latter, the bitterness of defeat,—a bitterness which fortunately alike for the nation and for themselves is not enduring.





CHAPTER XIII.

THE RENAISSANCE.

SINCE the war three events have for the time being fixed the attention of the whole country upon the Capitol—the impeachment trial of President Johnson in March, 1868, the assassination of President Garfield in July, 1881, and the inauguration of President Cleveland in March, 1885. For a description of the impeachment trial the reader is referred to the chapter on the Capitol in Part II.

No event in their history, save perhaps the assassination of President Lincoln, so shocked the American people as the shooting, by a wretched lunatic, of James A. Garfield, the twentieth President of the United States. Garfield had risen from the ranks of the people; he had done good service in the army, rising to the rank of major-general, and as representative in Congress had given evidence of possessing rare powers of oratory and statesmanship. He was but forty-nine years of age—apparently still on the threshold of a great public career,—and had been but four months in possession of his high office. On the morning of Saturday, July 2, 1881, he left the White House to attend the commencement exercises of Williams College, his *Alma Mater*. Accompanied

by James G. Blaine, his Secretary of State, he entered the depot of the Baltimore and Potomac Railroad to take his train, when suddenly several shots were heard behind the group, and Garfield fell to the ground helpless. He was removed to the White House. Mrs. Garfield, who was absent at Long Branch, was summoned, and hastened to the bedside of her stricken husband. The weary weeks of pain that followed, the removal to Elberon in the hope of benefit from the sea air, the death of the illustrious sufferer there on September 19, 1881, are events within the memory of the youngest reader.

The body was taken in state to Washington and placed in the rotunda of the Capitol, on the spot where, sixteen years before, the casket of President Lincoln had rested. For two days citizens of all conditions and nationalities filed past and reverently looked on the face of the dead. Then after impressive funeral ceremonies the remains, escorted by the military with arms reversed and bands playing funeral marches, were removed to the station where the murder was committed, and conveyed to Cleveland, Ohio, and were there laid to rest in beautiful Forest Grove Cemetery of that city. Guiteau, the cowardly murderer, being subsequently tried, convicted, and sentenced, met on the gallows the fate that his crime richly deserved.

The inauguration of Grover Cleveland on March 4, 1885, as twenty-second President of the United States, was a noteworthy event in the history of the city. Like the inauguration of Abraham Lincoln, it denoted a change in the reign of parties. At the

Presidential election of 1884 the Republican party had been defeated, and the Democratic party had won. Hundreds of thousands of people poured into Washington to witness the affair. No such military display had been seen in the capital since the grand reviews of 1865; and the procession along Pennsylvania Avenue was the largest that had ever escorted an incoming President to the Capitol. The inauguration ceremonies in the Senate chamber, and in the central portico of the east front, were such as have been before described. A fine display of fireworks from the White House grounds in the evening, and a brilliant inauguration ball at the new Pension building, concluded the festivities of the day.

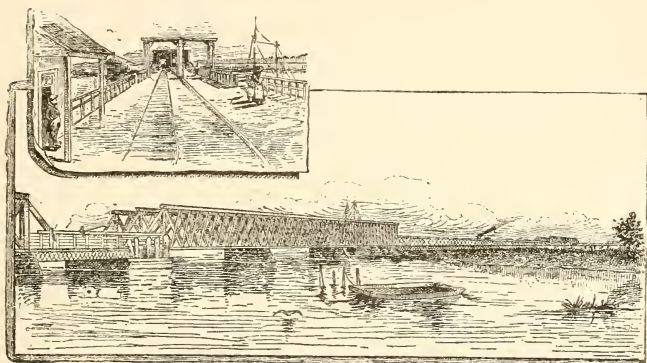
These important events, however, were not nearly so far reaching in their effect upon the city as the era of municipal improvement which began in the spring of 1871, during the Presidency of General Grant. Modern visitors to Washington can have no conception of the dirty, straggling, unkempt, provincial-like appearance of the city in 1861, when the defenders of the Union began pouring in for its protection. The citizens, dependent upon Congress, had very little public spirit or civic pride. Most of the real estate was held by old and conservative owners, who deprecated public improvements because of the excessive taxation they would involve. Congress itself did nothing for the city except when spurred by the force of public opinion, and then its appropriations were only aimed to meet the present emergency. In 1860 the entire water supply came from pumps and springs. Not a street was lighted

except Pennsylvania Avenue. There was no Fire Department worthy of the name, and the police force was a mere constabulary. There was not a street car in the city, nor a street that was paved for any consecutive distance. Southeastern Washington was cut off from the remaining portion by a wide shallow canal—the ancient Tiber,—which extended from the Potomac nearly to Capitol Hill, and was a receptacle for the city's filth and refuse. There was not a sewer in the city; the parks and commons were given up to weeds. A mass of earthen bluffs, pierced by two streets, and scarcely accessible for mire and refuse, lined the river bank. The White House was surrounded by stables, wooden fences, and patches of bare earth. The present Departments were not half finished. The Capitol was without a dome, and the wings still unfinished were filled with workmen. An omnibus line was the only means of communication with Georgetown, and only an alleged ferry to Alexandria existed. Scarcely a common school worthy of the name was in operation. There was a refined and cultivated social element in the city, but its influence was not exerted in the direction of civic improvement and good government.

Something was done during the civil war to remedy these evils. The dome was raised on the Capitol, and the Treasury, Post-Office, and Patent Office nearly completed. The first street-car line was opened in 1862. The Long Bridge, which had been built in 1835, was rebuilt, and the railroad bridge beside it constructed. After the war came the era of adjustment, and as Washington had been

in ante-bellum times largely Southern in tone this task long occupied the attention of the people. At length, as before remarked, the era of improvement began.

So far as the impartial historian can discover, the credit for originating this movement belongs largely to Alexander R. Shepherd, at that time an active, energetic business man of the city. He seems to have had the faculty of looking forward to future as well



LONG BRIDGE.

as present requirements, and a mind capable of constructing a comprehensive plan of public improvement. This gentleman succeeded in interesting President Grant, and then Congress in his scheme. The old English form of municipal government—mayor and common council—was abolished and a territorial form of government for the District erected, with governor, legislature, and delegate to Congress. A Board of Public Works was also created, with Mr.

Shepherd as Chairman. The territorial government organized with Henry D. Cook, the banker, as Governor, who was, however, soon superseded by Mr. Shepherd. The latter, in carrying on his operations, followed the professional advice of Mr. A. B. Mullett, then the supervising architect of the Treasury, and who later planned the State, War, and Navy building. Governor Shepherd also consulted with the Boards of Public Works of other cities. The Board decided that the first thing necessary in the work of reconstruction was a proper sewerage system for the city. To construct this was no easy matter. Pennsylvania Avenue, in places, was below high-water mark. Much of the ground now covered by the Centre Market and streets contiguous was a morass with the canal in the centre. Tiber Creek, which rises on the terrace some two miles north of the city, and which then flowed into the canal, near Capitol Hill, was wont to become a roaring torrent even in a moderate rain, and flood the city.

The engineers began their labors by arching over the canal with brick, thus converting it into a sewer. Next they tapped the Tiber as it descended from its heights back of the city, and led it and its floods off to the Eastern Branch, while its former bed, and three of its branches, were arched over with brick, and made the main sewers of the system. The West End and Georgetown were also given sewerage systems, so that by 1875 there were one hundred and twenty-three miles of this underground work in operation, the whole system in extent and completeness far exceeding any similar work on the

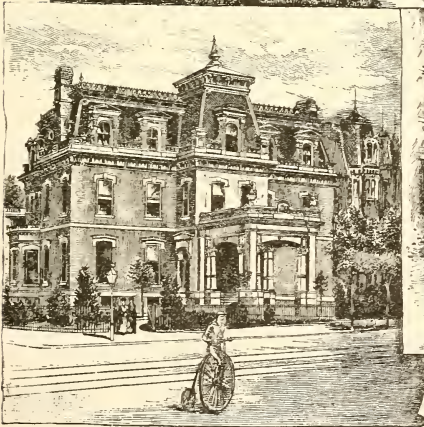
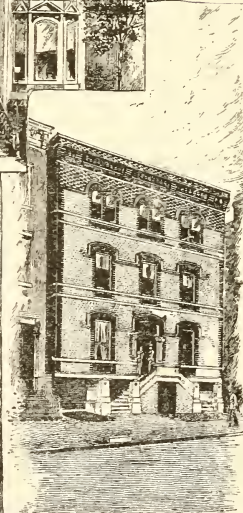
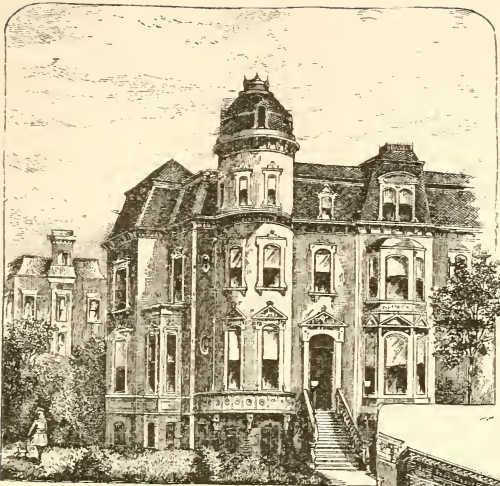
western continent. The introduction of gas and water mains went on side by side with these improvements. The great Washington aqueduct, which through crags and over creek valleys brings pure water from the Great Falls of the Potomac, nearly fifteen miles above, had been so far finished by December, 1863, that water was introduced into the city through two mains originally designed to supply the public buildings, but which had been tapped by the old corporation and made to furnish a limited supply to the citizens. The Board now adopted a comprehensive system of water supply, laid its own mains from the reservoir two miles west of Georgetown, and by 1875 had one hundred and thirty-three miles of water mains and pipes in operation, affording each inhabitant a daily supply of one hundred and twenty-seven gallons. The Gas-light Company was also incited to equal activity, so that by 1873 over three thousand public lamps were illuminating the streets and squares.

As soon as the underground work was well advanced, the Board turned its attention to the streets and parks. The first point to be decided was the style of pavement to be laid, and the engineers of all the great Northern and Western cities were consulted on the subject. In the spring of 1872, the Park Commissions of New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, and Buffalo sat in conference with the Board for two weeks, and samples of all kinds of pavements in use were submitted to them, together with tests and costs of repairs; the Board then visited Boston and the great cities of the West and inspected their

systems of paving, the result being that $58\frac{1}{2}$ miles of wood pavement were laid, $28\frac{1}{2}$ of concrete, and 93 of cobble, macadam, gravel, and Belgian block—a total of 180 miles.

In the beginning a great obstacle presented itself in the width of the streets, which, however suitable to a national capital, covered such areas that the cost of paving them, it was feared, would bankrupt property owners and stagger Congress. The main avenues were 160 feet wide, and the streets were from 130 feet to 160 feet wide, covering in the aggregate two thirds of the city's site, their entire length being 264 miles, and their united area 2,554 acres. The streets of New York cover but thirty-five per cent. of her entire area. Mr. Mullett, fertile in expedients, at once suggested a remedy. He advanced the pavements into the streets a uniform distance, and reduced the cost of the former by sodding between them and the house fronts, thus giving each householder a front yard, while the original width of the streets above the sidewalks was retained. Two hundred and eight miles of these sidewalks were laid—seven miles of flag and concrete, the remainder of brick.

Next came the equalizing of the grades of the city. The plain, so called, on which Washington is built presents many and great inequalities. A topographical survey in 1871 would have shown abrupt hills of peculiarly colored sand or clay standing on stratified metamorphic rock, ragged ravines cut by the water-courses, and depressions of large area, which, before a system of drainage was inaugurated, had been pools of half-stagnant water. To show this



FOREIGN LEGATION BUILDINGS.
RUSSIAN. ENGLISH. SPANISH.

inequality it is only necessary to give the altitude of a few well-known points. The White House grounds, for instance, are fifteen feet above mean low-water; Capitol Hill, one mile east, is about ninety feet above. Pennsylvania Avenue, connecting the two, is below high-water mark. Observatory Hill, two hundred and sixty rods west of the White House, is ninety-six feet above tide. Yet between Observatory Hill and the Capitol, in 1876, lay a ridge one hundred and three feet above tide-water. These hills were cut down, the ravines and hollows filled up, and the site of the city made as nearly level as was desirable to insure perfect drainage.

Lastly, as the crowning work, the planting of the streets and squares with shade trees was begun. A "Parking Commission," composed of William H. Smith, Superintendent of the Botanic Garden, William Saunders, Superintendent of the Horticultural Division of the Department of Agriculture, and John Saul, a local nurseryman, was organized, and began its work with skill and energy. The first trees were procured from the city nurseries, but as they could not be obtained in sufficient quantities, and of the varieties needed, the commission soon established its own nurseries, in which most of the trees now shading the city were grown. From the spring of 1872 the planting and care of trees has been steadily practised in Washington under the care of this commission, and the result is seen in the masses of shade, which form the most charming, distinctive, and sanitary feature of the city.*

* The following list of the number and varieties of shade trees planted in Washington up to June 30, 1887, will be found of interest :

When Congress came together in December, 1873, it found the old site but a new city. Between Capitol Hill and the White House stretched a beautiful park with gravelled drives and green lawns. The bluffs along the river bank had been graded into quays, paved with granite blocks, and made easy of access. Rock Creek had been bridged, and Georgetown Heights and the West End were near neighbors. The ancient sand-banks, gulfs, and unsightly commons had been graded, turfed, and set with trees and shrubs. The grades of Capitol Hill had been adjusted to those of the city, and in place of the yawning canal was a noble mall, a grand market, and depots in the most approved style of architecture.

COMMON NAME.	BOTANIC NAME.	NUMBER.
Soft or White Maple.....	<i>Acer dasycarpum</i>	23,305
Sugar and Black or Southern Maple.....	“ <i>saccharinum</i> ; <i>A. nigrum</i>	832
Norway Maple.....	“ <i>platanoides</i>	2,786
Scarlet or Red Maple.....	“ <i>rubrum</i>	864
Sycamore.....	“ <i>pseudo-platanus</i>	422
Ash-leaved Maple or Negunda.....	“ <i>negunda</i>	4,043
American Linden or Elm.....	<i>Tilia americana</i>	5,121
European “ “.....	“ <i>europæa</i>	409
American Ash (mixed).....	{ <i>Fraxinus americana</i> and } other species	{ } 967
Sycamore or Buttonwood or European Plane-Tree (mixed).....	{ <i>Platanus</i> { <i>occidentalis</i> } { <i>orientalis</i> } }	{ } 4,575
American, European, Wing-ed or Wha-who, and Slippery Elm (mixed).....	{ <i>Ulmus</i> { <i>americana</i> { <i>alata</i> { <i>fulva</i> { <i>campestris</i> } } } }	{ } 5,365
Carolina Poplar (mixed).....	<i>Populus</i> { <i>monilifera</i> { <i>quadrangulata</i> } }	{ } 7,050
Lombardy Poplar.....	“ <i>fastigiata</i>	43
Grecian “.....	“ <i>græca</i>	454
Turkistan “.....	<i>Populus</i> species from Turkistan	7
Catalpa (mixed).....	<i>Catalpa</i> { <i>bignonoides</i> { <i>kempferi</i> } }	{ } 854
Willow (laurel-leaved).....	<i>Salix pentandra</i>	78

And the streets—they had been covered with the most noiseless and durable pavement that ingenuity and experience could construct, embowered in trees and green borders of grass plots inclosed in panels of post and chain, while at the points of junction appeared new squares, circles, and triangles, in which flashing fountains, noble statuary, green-turfed terraces, and parterres of flowers appeared to gladden eye and heart. No such transformation of a city had ever been effected outside of the pages of good Haroun Alraschid.

The effect was seen in the greatly accelerated growth of population and rise in value of real estate. From 109,199 souls in 1870 the city has increased to

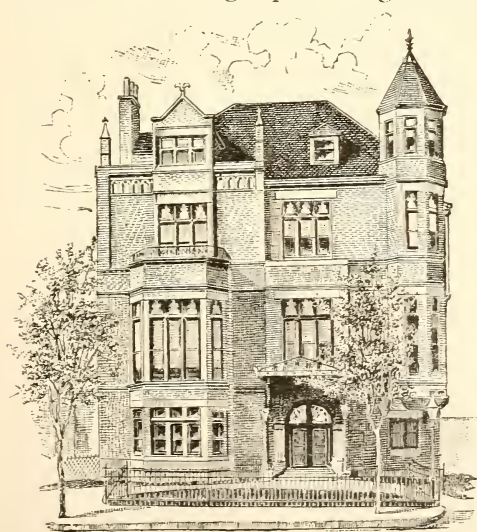
COMMON NAME.	BOTANIC NAME.	NUMBER.				
Ginkgo or Maidenhair-Tree...	Salisburia adiantifolia.....	145				
Sweet-Gum.....	Liquidambar styraciflua.....	73				
Oaks (mixed).....	Quercus { palustris phellos bicolor alba heterophyllis robus rubra fastigiata coccinea	}.....	273			
				Horse-Chestnut.....	Æsculus hippocastanum.....	244
				Kentucky Coffee.....	Gymnocladus canadensis.....	166
				Honey-Locust.....	Gleditschia triacanthos.....	1,200
				Tulip-Tree.....	Liriodendron tulipifera.....	1,712
				Aspen Poplar.....	Populus alba.....	1,863
Ailantus.....	Ailantus glandulosa.....	54				
Cork or White Elm.....	Ulmus racinosa.....	15				
Paper Mulberry.....	Broussoneetia papyrifera.....	62				
Cypress (mixed).....	Taxodium { distichum } { sinense }	24				
Zelkona-Tree.....	Planera acuminata.....	5				
	Philodendron amuriense....	3				
Total number.....		63,014				

210,000 in 1887, many of them being people of wealth, or of moderate and fixed incomes, who have become inhabitants because of its superior attractions as a residence city. In 1873 the total sales of real estate aggregated twelve millions of dollars, when for years previous a few hundred thousand dollars had been thought promising.



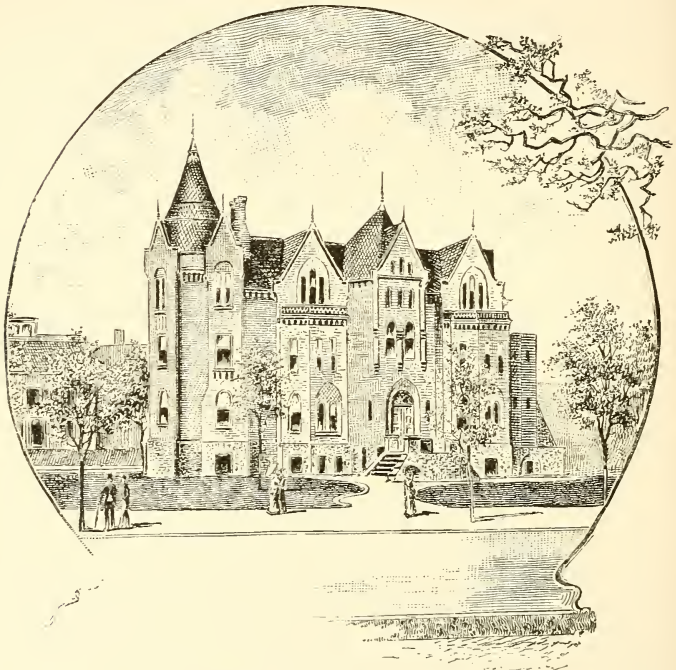
RESIDENCE OF GEORGE BANCROFT.

In the now fashionable West End, but which was then an unattractive waste, a syndicate of wealthy Californians securing a tract of land began building a class of residences of such magnificence as to astonish



RESIDENCE OF JEROME NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

conservative land-holders and house-owners. Other syndicates acquired other tracts, and covered them with still more elegant structures. At last, in 1875, the English Government erected its beautiful Legation



RESIDENCE OF MRS. M. T. DAHLGREN.

building on Connecticut Avenue, and the status of the West End as the fashionable quarter was fixed. To-day the former hillocks and swamps are covered with miles and miles of elegant residences, with clean, smoothly-paved streets, public squares, flowers,

lawns, and statuary. One may go far in Europe and America and not find so attractive and desirable a quarter.

In concluding this chapter it is proper to state that Governor Shepherd's methods in effecting these improvements were sharply criticised, particularly by the assessed property owners. At length, in February, 1874, on the petition of certain tax-payers of Washington, a joint select committee was appointed by Congress, with Senator Alison as Chairman, to inquire whether unlawful contracts had been made for public improvements, and unlawful taxes and assessments laid, with other and cognate matters. The committee held many sessions, took voluminous testimony, filling two large volumes of Congressional reports, and reported June 16, 1874, in effect that the Board of Public Works had done in two years what should have required several years; that the Board adopted an erroneous and in its results vicious method of letting contracts; that it had expended a sum greatly in excess of the amount authorized by law; and concluded by recommending the abrogation of the territorial form of government, and the adoption of a government by a commission with well-defined and restricted powers instead.

Governor Shepherd had been heard by the committee. He denied that he had connived at any dishonesty in the letting of contracts, although he admitted that mistakes might have been made, as was but natural considering the magnitude of the work and the difficulties of the position. He admitted that more money had been spent than was

authorized ; but urged that it would have been impossible to carry out a comprehensive plan of improvement with the money provided, and he boldly told the committee that as the city received no taxes from the government buildings, although they comprised a large portion of the taxable property, and as those buildings had been greatly benefited by the improvements, he considered it but just that the government should assume the liabilities incurred above the amount authorized.



PART II.
THE MODERN CITY.



CHAPTER XIV.

THE CAPITOL.

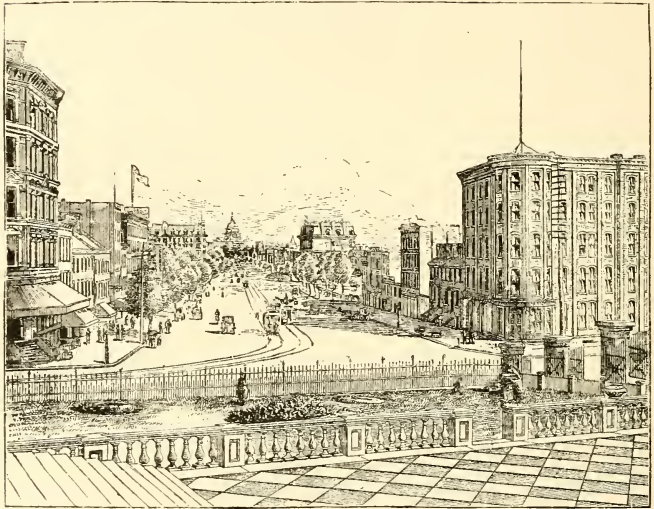
IN modern Washington the science and art of government is almost the only pursuit. There is very little commerce or manufacture. Here are situated the Capitol, the seat of legislative and judicial power; the White House, the centre of executive authority; the Departments, with their bureaus and offices, constituting ganglia of nerves whose influence extends to the farthest corners of the nation.

The Capitol is the Mecca of most visitors. The best approach to it is from the Treasury by way of Pennsylvania Avenue, which gives a fine view of the structure through the mile-long vista of that noble thoroughfare.

Few public buildings have the advantage of so open and commanding a situation, and of so noble an approach. There, surmounting its grassy terraces in the midst of beautiful gardens rises the noble edifice, beautiful in its outlines, massive and grand in its proportions,—dome, statue, column, pilaster, capital, niche, pediment, cornice, entablature, balustrade, contributing each its quota to the harmony and proportion of the whole. The dome is the most conspicuous and beautiful feature. As a work of art it is unsur-

passed and unsurpassable. It springs into the heavens, and rests there as lightly as a cloud. One finds it almost impossible to believe that there are four thousand tons of iron in so airy and ethereal a creation.

One can scarce comprehend at first glance the titanic proportions of the Capitol. It is in three por-



PENNSYLVANIA AVENUE FROM THE TREASURY.

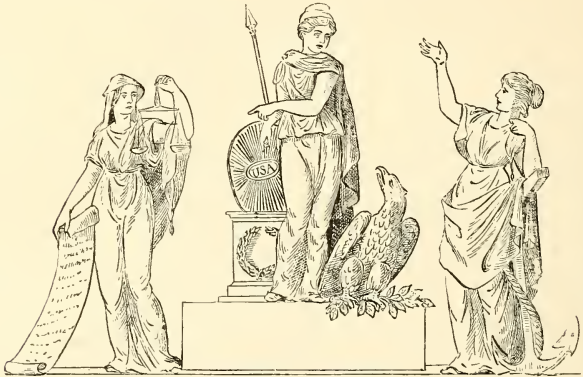
tions,—representing three distinct epochs of time,—a central body and two wings. The length of all is seven hundred and fifty-one feet—nearly a fifth of a mile,—and the width three hundred and twenty feet. The dome rises three hundred and seven feet above the foundation, and two hundred and eighteen feet

above the balustrade of the roof, and is surmounted by Crawford's colossal statue of Freedom. The old Capitol—the centre of the modern edifice—is three hundred and fifty-two feet four inches in length, with wings, each one hundred and twenty-one feet wide, and including the portico two hundred and ninety feet deep. The extensions, each three hundred and twenty-four feet long, and one hundred and fifty-two feet wide, are joined to the old Capitol by fine marble corridors, each forty-four feet in length and twenty-six feet in width, with outside colonnades of four columns, making a total width of fifty-six feet. The whole edifice rests upon a rustic basement, which supports an ordonnance of Corinthian pilasters. Adorning the centre on the east front is a noble portico one hundred and sixty feet in length, supported by a double row of columns, each thirty feet high—the forum in which most of the Presidents of



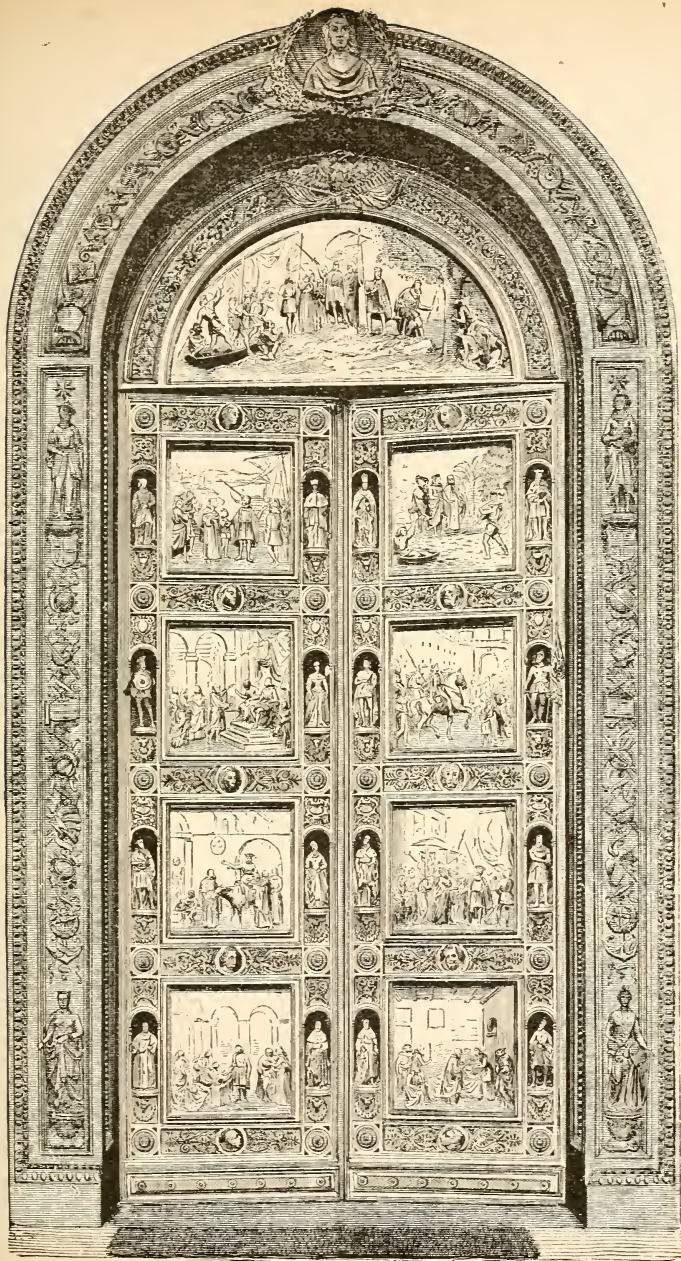
STATUE OF FREEDOM ON CAPITOL DOME.

the Republic have been inaugurated. This is really the main entrance to the Capitol, although the city, growing in a different direction from what the founders expected, lies mainly to the westward, in the rear of the edifice,—an anomaly that will be remedied when the improvements now being made on the western front are completed. A grand stairway leads to the portico. On the tympanum above is an allegorical group designed by John



ALLEGORICAL GROUP ON PORTICO OF THE CAPITOL,
DESIGNED BY JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

Quincy Adams, symbolical of the Genius of America. At the right and left of the main entrance, in niches, are two massive statues of Italian marble, representing Peace and War. A basso-relievo representing Washington as being crowned with laurel by Fame and Peace is seen over the door. The door itself is a triumph of art. It is of bronze, massive in form, and bears designs in high relief, intended to illustrate the career of Columbus—the work of the American



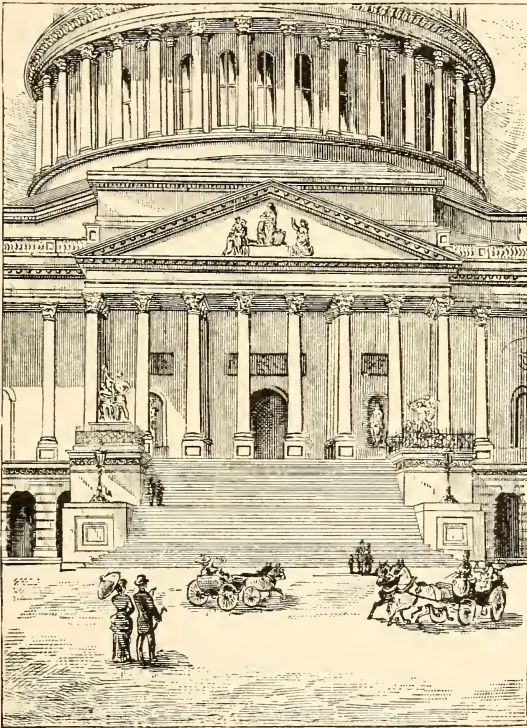
THE ROGERS BRONZE DOOR AT THE MAIN ENTRANCE OF THE CAPITOL.

sculptor Randolph Rogers. The Senate and House extensions have similar porticos, supported by massive marble columns, and on the tympanum of the Senate portico is a marble group sculptured by Thomas Crawford, representing American civilization and the decadence of the Indian races. There are also porticos on the north and south projections, and on the west front, and a series of pilasters and columns that extend quite around the edifice.

Such is the exterior of this grand temple of the people. Let us enter and see how the people's business is conducted within. There are here three great branches of government each worthy of our careful attention—the House of Representatives, the Senate, the Supreme Court. Here too is the people's library, originally designed for the sole use of members of Congress and other officers of government, but which has become such a vast storehouse and treasury of books that it is sought by students and literary men in general, and is soon to be removed to an edifice of its own.

If we enter by the east portico we shall pass first into the grand Rotunda which occupies the centre of the old Capitol, and has for a ceiling the great dome itself. The Hall of the Senate is on the right at the extreme north end of the building, the Hall of the House on the left or at the south end, the two occupying what are known as the Senate and House extensions. On the right, in the original building, between the Rotunda and the Senate, is the Chamber of the Supreme Court, formerly the Hall of the Senate; on the left, between the Rotunda and the

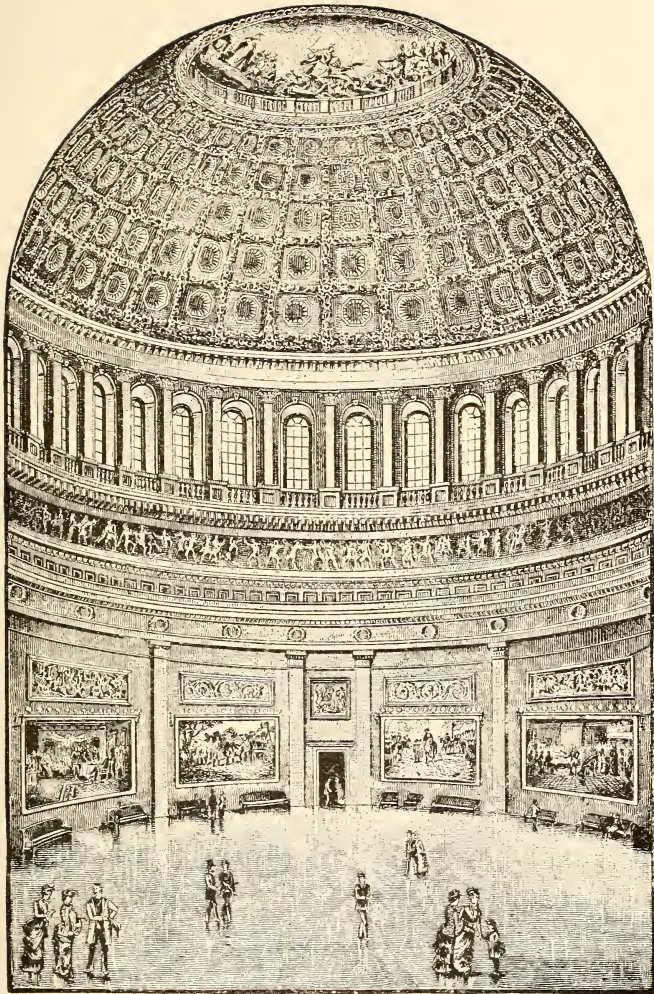
House, is the National Hall of Statuary, formerly the Chamber of the House. The Congressional Library is west of the Rotunda, filling the western projection of the main building.



MAIN ENTRANCE OF THE CAPITOL.

In the Rotunda we may well linger an hour ; it is in many respects the most imposing apartment of the Capitol. It is $95\frac{1}{2}$ feet in diameter, 300 feet in circumference, and 185 feet high. Its sandstone

floor rests on solid brick arches, which are supported by columns arranged in peristyles. The ceiling is of iron, being the interior of the great dome. The Rotunda is lighted by thirty-six windows placed in the ceiling. At its apex is a small opening known as "the eye," and around this a huge canopy of iron covered with stucco, in which is painted an allegorical fresco called the "Apotheosis of Washington," the work of an Italian artist. The frieze of the Rotunda is ten feet wide, and bears frescos of important events in the history of America. On the walls below the frieze are arabesque designs and panels and medallions of Raleigh, Columbus, Cabot, and La Salle, and above the entrance doors in oblong panels are designs in *alto-relievo* representing the Landing of the Pilgrims, and other events of national importance. The most noticeable feature of the Rotunda, however, is the series of paintings by American artists set in panels around the walls. The first, by John Vanderlyn, has for its subject the Landing of Columbus at San Salvador; the second, by William H. Powell, represents the Discovery of the Mississippi by De Soto, May, 1541; the third, by John G. Chapman, the Baptism of Pocahontas, 1613; and the fourth, by Robert W. Weir, the Embarkation of the Pilgrims from Delft Haven in Holland, July 21, 1620. The other four paintings relate to the Revolutionary War, and are the work of John Trumbull, himself an eye-witness of the scenes portrayed. This artist was the son of Jonathan Trumbull, Connecticut's famous "war governor," and served for some time on the staff of



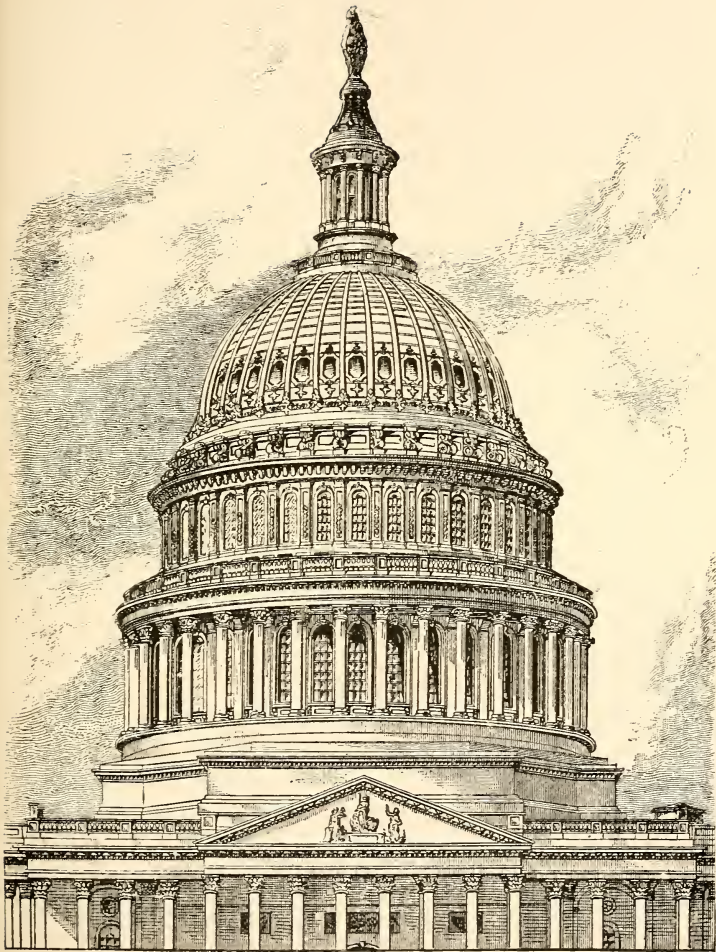
THE ROTUNDA.

General Washington. These paintings have therefore a special historic value, all of the many distinguished men portrayed in them being taken from life.

The first of the series is entitled "Signing of the Declaration of Independence, 1776." The second, "Surrender of General Burgoyne, Saratoga, October 17, 1777." The third, "Surrender of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown, October 19, 1781." The fourth and last, "Resignation of General Washington at Annapolis, December 23, 1783."

A door on the east side of the Rotunda gives admittance to a lobby, where one finds a circular iron stairway leading to the summit of the dome. Round and round the great iron structure it winds, the people below growing smaller and smaller as one ascends, and Brumidi's divinities on the canopy drawing nearer, until at last one passes through the shell of the dome, and is on the exterior, with the great spherical roof rising above. Creeping over this, one comes out at last upon the tholus or cupola, directly under the great statue of Freedom. From this point the whole city is spread out before one like a checkerboard, and the beauties and peculiarities of L'Enfant's plan may be studied at leisure.

The avenues radiating from the Capitol, the public gardens, parks, and shades, the noble public edifices, the great Washington Monument dominating all, the broad Potomac beyond, a ribbon of silver in a sea of green, and the eternal hills guarding the whole,—one cannot fairly realize the natural beauty of the capital until it has been viewed from this eyrie.



THE DOME OF THE CAPITOL.

We have time to notice here some of the mechanical details of the great dome on which we stand. It is formed, we find, of a series of ribs, to which sheets of iron are securely bolted, the whole being painted white every year to prevent rusting. Four thousand tons of iron, and eight years' time were required to construct it. It was designed by Thomas U. Walter, who in 1860-63 was architect of the Capitol, and was built under the direction of Charles F. Thomas. Nice engineering skill was required to provide for the expansion and contraction of the iron by heat and cold, and to withstand the tremendous force of the wind in gales. For the dome moves perceptibly in furious storms. In the great gale of December 10, 1864, for instance, it was observed to sway several inches. Mr. Walter, the designer, was also the author of a novel device for marking the expansion and contraction. From the tholus of the dome he suspended a wire which reached to the pavement of the Rotunda. At the end of this wire he arranged a delicate mechanism in such a way that the point of a pencil was carried over a sheet of paper exactly as far as the tholus moved under the expansion and contraction of summer and winter. In the *American Journal of Science and Art* for May, 1870, may be found a curious diagram showing the erratic movements of the pencil.

At this point, too, the great statue of Freedom is directly overhead, and may be studied more critically than from below. It is certainly a creditable work of art and we are proud that an American produced it. The goddess stands upon a globe whose motto,

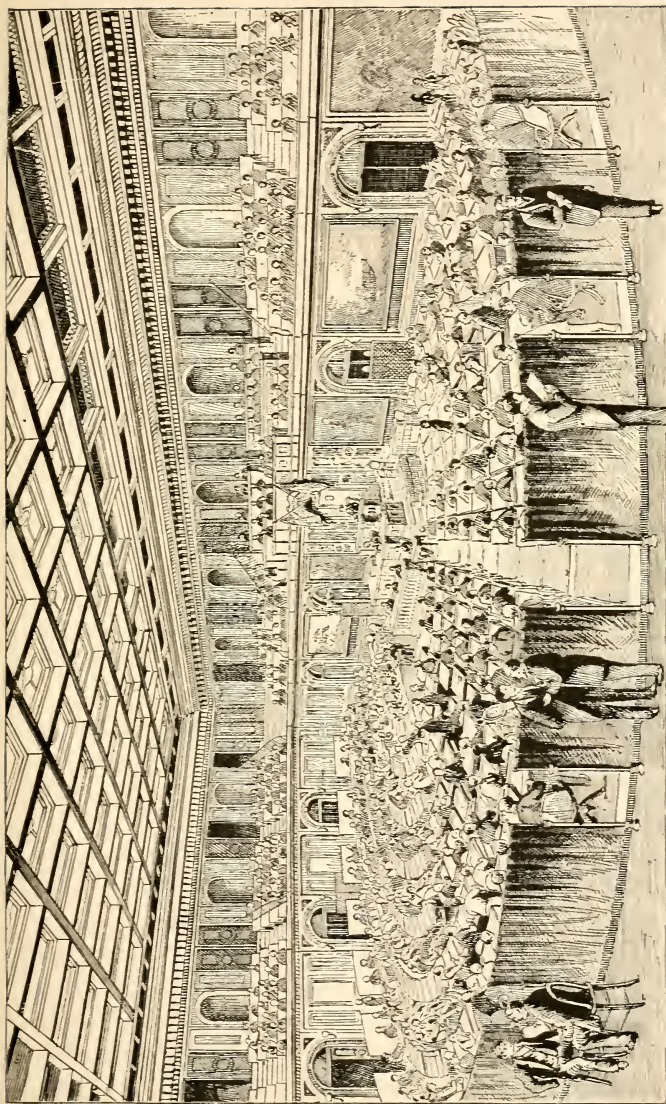
E pluribus unum, is the motto of the States. Her head is bound about with a circlet of stars and crowned with eagle's plumes. In the artist's original design the crown was a liberty cap, but when it was submitted to Jefferson Davis, then Secretary of War, he objected to it for the reason that it implied that Americans had once been slaves; the eagle feathers were therefore substituted. The statue was finally placed in position December 2, 1863. A vast multitude with eyes fixed upon the dome filled the avenues and open spaces. As the statue settled into place it was saluted by a park of artillery stationed in the East Capitol grounds, which was answered by a general salute from the forts around the city.

Descending to the floor of the Rotunda we will first visit the House of Representatives, the first-born of the Constitution. Passing south through the main corridor, jostling and being jostled by throngs of visitors from every section and of various nationalities, we enter presently the Hall of Statuary, which from 1808 to 1857—with a brief interregnum of three years from 1814 to 1817—was the Hall of the House of Representatives. It is a magnificent chamber, semicircular in form, and set with marble columns, copied in some respects from the famous theatres of the Athenian Acropolis. Its extreme length is ninety-five feet, and the domed ceiling rises fifty-seven feet above our heads. The floor is paved with mosaic. The Hall is one of the historic chambers of the Capitol. Here the battles of the giants were fought, and the great questions which convulsed the nation from 1808 to 1857 were debated, and some settled.

From a sketch by the artist, 1863
See also

If these old walls were phonographs what a charivari might they not produce for us—eloquence of Clay, Webster, Adams, Calhoun, Randolph, Wise, Corwin, Marshall, Lincoln, Davis, and others; questions of public policy that are ancient history now—embargoes, non-intercourse, slavery, Missouri compromise, tariff, nullification, United States Bank, internal improvements, fierce partisan wrangles, and strains of the purest patriotism, all mixed and woven together.

It was a happy thought of Congress to preserve the character of the old Hall by making it a Pantheon for the statues of the great and good men of the nation. That body in 1864 authorized the President to invite each State to contribute "the effigies of two of her chosen sons in marble or in bronze, to be placed permanently here." But seven States have thus far accepted the invitation. Rhode Island was the first, selecting as her two greatest men Roger Williams and General Nathaniel Greene; Connecticut came next, presenting the statues of Governor Jonathan Trumbull and Roger Sherman; New York chose Governor George Clinton and Chancellor Robert R. Livingston; Massachusetts, Governor John Winthrop and Samuel Adams; Vermont, Colonel Ethan Allen and Jacob Collamer; Maine, Governor William King; Pennsylvania, Robert Fulton and William Muhlenburg. Eleven of the statues are of marble and two of bronze; all, as compared with the earlier works of art exhibited here, show a creditable advance in taste and culture. When the remaining States have contributed their

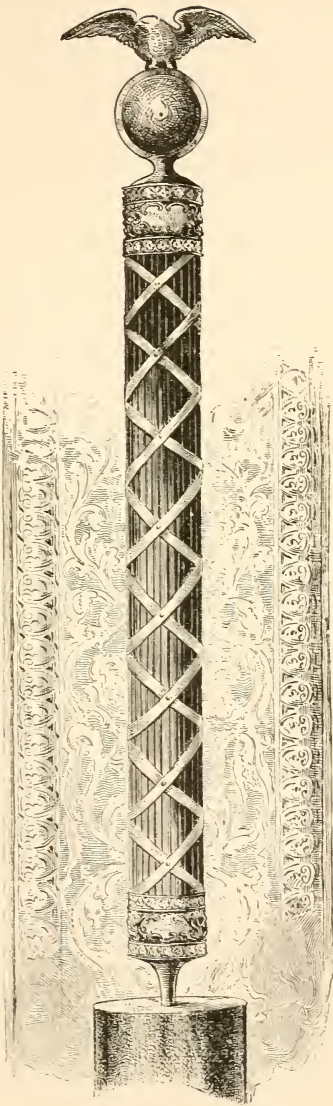


quota we shall have a National Hall of Statuary of which no American need be ashamed. Here also there are statues and works of art contributed by the national government worthy of mention. These comprise Vinne Ream Hoxie's marble statue of Lincoln, executed in 1870; a plaster copy of Houdon's statue of Washington; Horatio Stone's marble statue of Hamilton; and a bronze statue of Jefferson by D'Angers. There are also busts of Lincoln, Kosciuski, and Crawford; portraits of Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln, Carroll of Carrollton, and others.

From the Hall of Statuary we pass through the corridor before mentioned, connecting the House extension with the main Capitol, and are at the door of the House of Representatives. If the House is in session we shall find here an official—the Door-keeper,—who permits no one to enter except he be a member, or one of the privileged few who have the *entrée* of the House. If it is not in session, however, we can enter and study the chamber at our leisure. It is a spacious and beautiful auditorium, one hundred and thirty-nine feet long, ninety-three feet wide, and thirty-six feet high. The walls and ceiling are painted and decorated in gold and buff, and the glass panels bear the coats-of-arms of the States. Most of the floor space is covered by the desks and chairs of members, which are arranged in a semicircle around the Speaker's desk. This desk or table is of white marble, and is placed on a platform elevated about four feet above the floor. On the right of the desk is a pedestal, which, when the House is in session and under the Speaker's command, bears the famous mace, the symbol of author-

ity. When placed on the floor the mace denotes that the House is in Committee of the Whole. This mace was adopted by the House at the session of the First Congress in New York in 1789, and may be described as a bundle of black rods bound with bands of silver and surmounted by a silver globe bearing a silver eagle. The Sergeant-at-Arms in executing the orders of the Speaker is required to bear this mace aloft before him.

In ancient Rome the lictors were required to bear before the kings, as a symbol of their power over life and death, a bundle of rods, among which an axe was bound. It is curious to find, twenty centuries later, in this young Western republic, a survival of this old custom. Before and beneath

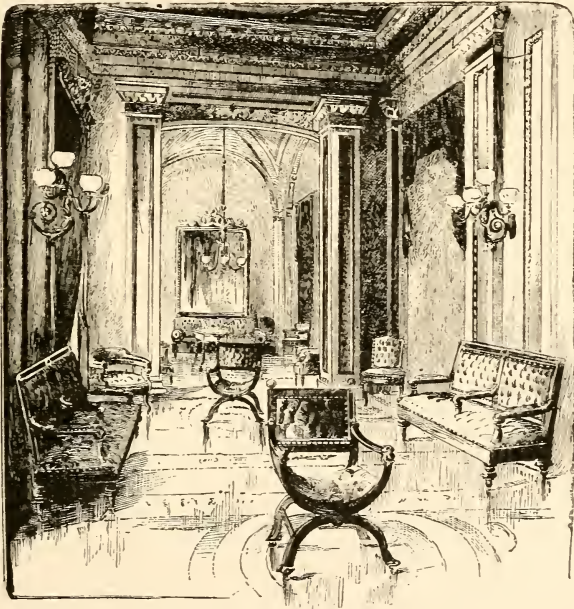


THE SPEAKER'S MACE.

the Speaker's chair are marble desks for the clerks and reporters of the House. There are some fine paintings on the walls—to the right of the Speaker, Bierstadt's magnificent work, the "Settlement of California," and on his left, the "Discovery of the Hudson River" by the same artist. There are also portraits of Washington by Vanderlyn, and of Lafayette by Ary Scheffer. Directly over the Speaker's desk is the press gallery for reporters, and ranged around the room are galleries for visitors, with a seating capacity of thirteen hundred. The first session of the House was held in this hall December 16, 1857. In the rear is the House lobby, elegantly furnished, its walls hung with portraits of former Speakers, and opening from this a large and handsomely furnished retiring-room.

Returning to the main corridor we shall find it lined with the rooms of various officers of the House, and with those assigned to the different Standing Committees, and at either side grand stairways with polished marble steps and massive pillars and balustrades, which give access to the House galleries. At the foot of the eastern staircase is the marble statue of Jefferson by Hiram Powers, and on the wall of the landing is the large painting by Frank G. Carpenter of President Lincoln Signing the Proclamation of Emancipation, which was presented to the government by Miss Mary E. Thompson. On the wall of the western staircase is the large chromo-silica of Emanuel Leutze, representing a party of emigrants crossing the Rocky Mountains, and below this a painting by Bierstadt of the Golden Gate.

Reaching the upper floor we will enter the press gallery which commands the entire floor of the House. It is nearly twelve o'clock. At high noon the Speaker's gavel will fall and the House will be declared in session. The members are gathering even now, some in knots talking earnestly, a few busy at their desks with books and papers.



REPRESENTATIVES' RETIRING-ROOM.

While they are assembling we will consider briefly the organization and methods of procedure of this branch of government. It had its origin in the very first section of the first article of the Constitution,

which reads: "All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives." The second section of this article tells us of whom the House was to be composed—of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States; and what were to be their qualifications, viz.: they were to be residents of the States which elected them, at least twenty-five years of age, and must have been seven years citizens of the United States. And since the House was to be the popular branch of the Congress—directly representing the people,—the members were to be apportioned among the States according to population, the entire number not to exceed one for every thirty thousand people, and each State to be entitled to at least one representative. To determine the number of people and therefore the representation, a census was ordered to be taken every ten years, and if there was an increase of population, a new apportionment was to be made. For convenience in voting, each State is divided into nearly equal portions (as respects population, not territory), which are called congressional districts. Each of the members before us therefore has been nominated by a district convention composed of delegates from the various towns, and has been elected by the freemen of his congressional district.

In the first Congress which sat in New York in 1789, New Hampshire had three representatives, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one,

Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina and South Carolina five each, and Georgia three,—sixty-five in all. In the present Congress—the Fiftieth—New Hampshire has two representatives, Vermont two, Maine four, Massachusetts twelve, Rhode Island two, Connecticut four, New York thirty-four, New Jersey seven, Pennsylvania twenty-eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, West Virginia four, North Carolina nine, South Carolina seven, Georgia ten, Alabama eight, Florida two, Mississippi seven, Louisiana six, Texas eleven, Arkansas five, Missouri fourteen, California six, Oregon one, Colorado one, Nevada one, Nebraska three, Iowa eleven, Kansas seven, Minnesota five, Wisconsin nine, Illinois twenty, Indiana thirteen, Kentucky eleven, Tennessee ten, Ohio twenty-one, Michigan eleven, and one delegate from each of the eight territories,—in all three hundred and twenty-five. The territorial delegates are present as advocates only—they can address the House in favor of their constituents, but have no vote. The ratio of representation has risen from one in 30,000 in 1789, to one in 154,325 in 1880.

The House unlike the Senate, has an existence of but two years. Every two years the terms of the members expire, and a new House is elected. This term of two years is called a Congress. Each Congress has two regular sessions—a long session beginning the first Monday in December of the first year, and usually lasting six months or more, and a short session in the second year, beginning the first Monday in December, and which by law must expire at

noon on the 4th of March following. There have been from the 4th of March, 1789, to the present time—1888—fifty Congresses.

By this time the House has come to order, and we have a fine opportunity for studying its methods and organization. The chief officer is the Speaker. His position as presiding officer gives him a certain influence in shaping legislation, but his greatest power lies in the privilege he has of appointing committees. Most of the work of legislative bodies at the present day is done by standing or special committees. Nearly every question coming before the House before receiving consideration is referred to its appropriate committee. This committee has power to send for persons and papers; it holds special meetings in a special room provided for it. It is supposed to make a careful and exhaustive study of the question submitted to it, and the House is apt to be guided largely by its report. If it wishes to kill a bill decently without attracting public attention, it may withhold its report until the last days of the session. The work of Congress is done chiefly in these silent committee rooms, and not by the great orators and debaters.

A majority of the committee is usually chosen from the party in power, and the chairman is also a member of the prominent party. It will be seen therefore that the Speaker by his power of selecting members of the more important committees can largely shape the legislation of the House.

The Speaker's salary—\$8,000—is larger by \$3,000 than that of the other members, and he is also

furnished at public expense with a private secretary, a Speaker's clerk, and a clerk to the Speaker's table. The other principal officers of the House are a chaplain with a salary of \$900 per year, a chief clerk who is paid \$4,500, nineteen assistant clerks with salaries ranging from \$3,000 to \$1,440, a sergeant-at-arms to execute the commands of the Speaker, who is paid \$4,000, and a doorkeeper who receives \$2,500. There are also a deputy sergeant-at-arms, several assistant doorkeepers, and a small army of messengers, committee clerks, pages, etc.

Let us note the course of business for an hour. The proceedings begin with a prayer by the chaplain. Then the clerk calls the roll of members. Then follows what is called the "morning hour," which is devoted to the reception of bills, petitions, and reports. After this bills which have been before received and ordered printed, are taken from the calendar, discussed, passed, defeated, or referred, as the case may be. All at once—while a member is speaking perhaps—business is suspended, and a gentleman with a paper in his hand enters, and stops at the bar of the House (the outer end of the centre aisle). The doorkeeper walks up the aisle, recognizes in the stranger the Clerk of the Senate, shakes hands with him, and, turning to the Speaker, bows, and announces "a message from the Senate." The following dialogue then ensues:

The Clerk (bowing): "Mr. Speaker!"

The Speaker (bowing): "Mr. Clerk!"

The Clerk: "I am directed by the Senate of the

United States to deliver to the House a message in writing." Whereupon the Senate official and the Speaker again exchange bows, and the former, giving his packet to the doorkeeper, retires. Much the same formality is observed on the reception of a message from the President.

The House is a large unwieldy body, noisy, and not *too* dignified. Visitors who come to Washington with exaggerated ideas of Congressional dignity and decorum are apt to go away from the House more or less shocked. During a debate members converse, read, put their feet upon the desk, write letters, perambulate the long aisle outside the red curtain which defines the bar of the House, and in this outer space can even smoke. Often in an exciting debate several members are on the floor at once seeking recognition, and the Speaker is obliged to rap vigorously with his gavel to enforce order. There are certain things a member may not do, however: he may not walk out of or across the hall while the Speaker is putting a question, or addressing the House, nor pass between a member and the Speaker while the former is talking, nor sit with his hat on, nor remain at the clerk's desk during roll-call or at the counting of ballots, nor smoke upon the floor of the House. On the other hand, there are some things he *must* do. If he wishes to speak, he must rise and respectfully address "Mr. Speaker," and if called to order for transgressing the rules of the House, he must immediately sit down, and not proceed unless, on motion of some member, he is permitted to explain. There are many other rules of

the House, some very tedious and apparently quite unnecessary, tending to retard rather than to expedite the public business.

Except in extreme cases the day's session closes at five o'clock. Sometimes toward the close of the term, when there is a press of business, the House holds a night session. At such times the Hall is lighted by fifteen hundred gas-jets placed back of the ceiling, and when both Houses are holding night sessions the Capitol presents a beautiful appearance indeed. The dome is lighted to show that Congress is sitting, and the whole grand outline of the noble building stands out in lines of light against the darkened sky. At a distance one might easily fancy it a castle in the clouds.

Several times in the history of the House there have been all-night sessions,—usually at the demand of some party exigency. One of the most notable of these occurred during President Van Buren's term, in the course of the debate over the issue of Treasury notes. The Democrats, led by Calhoun, favored this measure. The Whigs, under the leadership of Clay, opposed it. At length, after long debate, the Democrats determined to "sit out the bill," that is, to worry the Whigs by long sessions into voting for it. As the day drew on several motions to adjourn were made by the Whigs, which their opponents promptly negatived. As night fell, lamps and candles were brought in, the older and feebler members gathered up papers, wraps, and cloaks and withdrew, while the remaining members resigned themselves to a night of obstruction, filibustering, and other parliamentary devices.

“As midnight approached,” says an eye-witness, “it was curious to watch the various effects produced by the same cause on different temperaments. Some yawned fearfully; others cursed and swore; others shook their sides with merriment; others reasoned and remonstrated with their neighbors; some very composedly stretched themselves upon the sofas, having first borrowed chair-cushions enough to support their somnolent heads; others bivouacked on three chairs; while some, not finding other convenient couch, stretched themselves flat on the floor of the House, with perhaps a volume of the Laws of the United States as their pillow.

“At half past one a call of the House was ordered. The doors were closed, and one hundred and forty-nine members were found to be present. The House went into Committee of the Whole to come out of it again, and the yeas and nays were called until the clerk grew hoarse. Thus rolled the hours away. Candles burned down to their sockets, forming picturesque grottos of spermaceti as they declined; lamps went out in suffocating fumes; some insisted on having a window up, others on having it down. When the morning light began to dawn through the large south windows of Representatives Hall, it contrasted strongly with the glare of lights, the smoke of the lamps, and all the crowded tumult within. At four o'clock the sergeant-at-arms arrived with Corwin, Giddings, and a dozen other captured absentees, who were one by one required to account for their absence by the Speaker, who would say: ‘Mr. A. B., you have absented yourself from the House during its sittings, contrary to law, and without leave of the House; what excuse have you to offer?’ And then the unfortunate men made out the best story they could. Some had been sick. Others had had a

sick wife ; others had got a bad headache from the late session. Some had witnessed such night scenes on former occasions, and did not wish to see the like again, etc. . . . Many were excused altogether ; others discharged from custody on paying their fines (about two dollars each to the sergeant for his fee of arrest). One batch having thus been disposed of, the officer was despatched to make another haul, and in the meantime the old game was continued ; and as neither party would yield, the unprofitable contest was prolonged, not till broad daylight merely, but down to eleven o'clock, when, all propositions of compromise having been rejected, the debate was regularly renewed. Finally, at a quarter before five o'clock the House adjourned quite fagged out." *

There was another notable night session in January, 1855, at the formation of the Republican party, during the contest for Speaker ; and still another in 1857, over the exciting debates on the admission of Kansas.

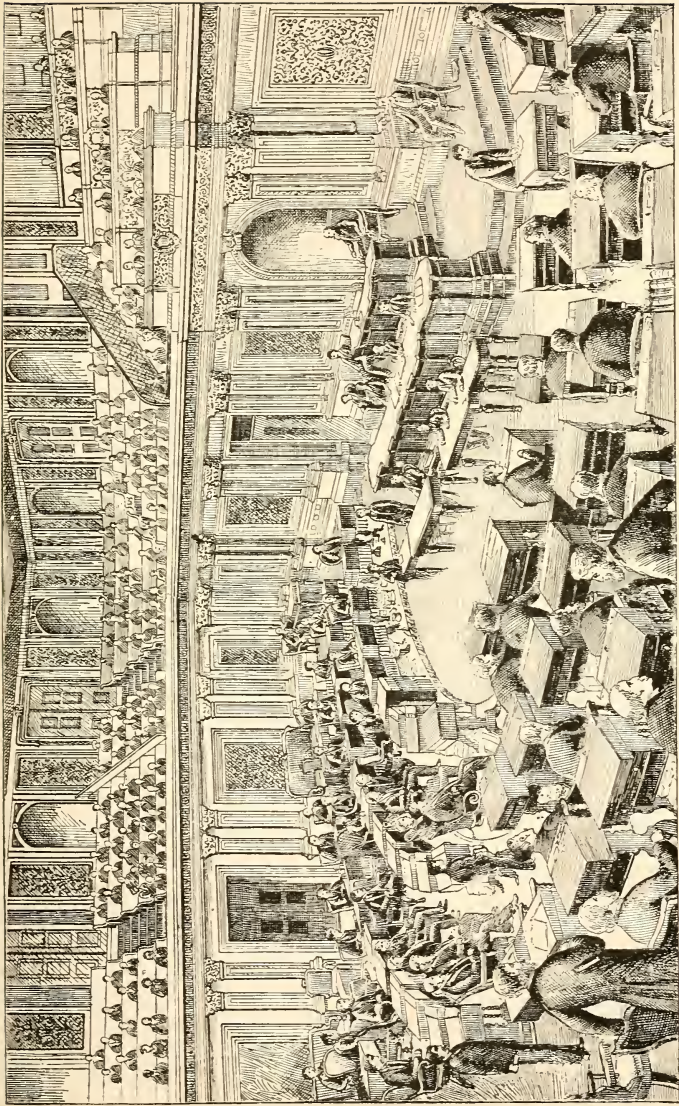
Let us next visit the Senate, which occupies a wing precisely like that of the House, but at the opposite end of the Capitol. It is an eighth of a mile thither, through the long-drawn corridor. We retrace our steps to the Rotunda, and then pass down the main corridor to the great bronze door which gives access to the Senate extension.

This door is of sufficient merit as a work of art to warrant a brief examination. It was modelled by Thomas Crawford, the famous American sculptor, cast at Chicopee, Massachusetts, and placed in posi-

* Reminiscences of Ben : Perley Poore.

tion as recently as 1868. It is fourteen and one half feet high, nine and one half feet wide, and weighs fourteen thousand pounds. On its eight panels, beginning at the top of the right side of the door, are representations of American historical scenes—Battles of Bunker Hill, Monmouth, and Yorktown; A Hessian Soldier in Death Struggle with an American; The Blessings of Peace; The Ovation to Washington at Trenton, 1789; The First Inauguration of Washington as President of the United States; and The Laying of the Corner-Stone of the Capitol of the United States.

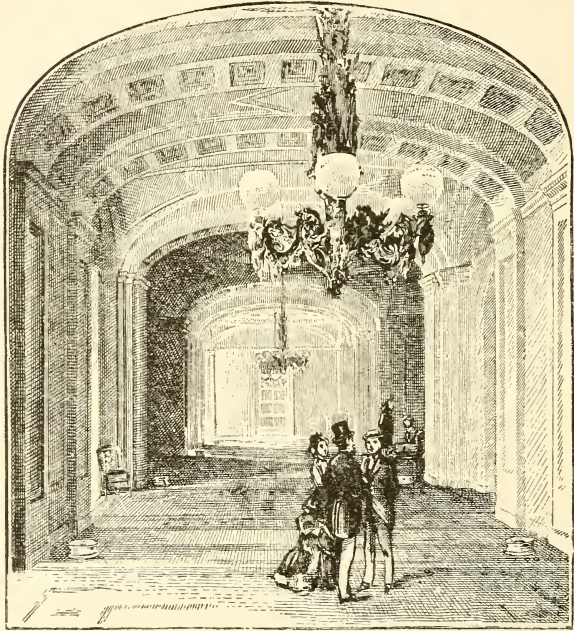
The Senate chamber is very much like that of the House, except that it is smaller, being one hundred and twelve feet long, eighty-two feet wide, and thirty feet high. The ceiling is formed of iron girders and beams with glass panels, on which are painted the national emblems. The walls are painted and decorated in gold and buff, and relieved with niches, pilasters, and wide panels. The floor is covered with an elegant carpet, and the desks and chairs of the Senators, which are arranged in concentric circles around the room, are of the finest mahogany. Some of them are from the old Senate chamber, and were once used by men whose lives are a part of our history. The presiding officer's chair is on a raised dais on one side of the room, with a wide table before it, and beneath this are the desks of the Senate clerks and tables of the official reporters. There are galleries capable of accommodating nearly one thousand persons, and arranged like those of the House. When questions of great



THE SENATE CHAMBER.

public interest are before the Senate, these galleries are well filled, but as a rule there is ample room in them, the general public taking much more interest in the debates of the House.

In the rear of the hall is a lobby, and opening



THE SENATE LOBBY.

upon this is "the beautiful marble room," used by Senators for receiving visitors and holding consultations. Every part—floor, walls, pillars, window casings—is of marble, and it is richly furnished. Near by is "the President's room," where the President remains during the closing hours of Congress,

to examine and sign bills that are passed at the last moment. This room is also richly furnished, and its walls decorated with frescos of President Washington and his Cabinet. The room of the Vice-President—who is by virtue of his office President of the Senate—is also at this end of the Capitol.

The grand staircases, which at either end of the Senate extension ascend to the galleries, are quite as imposing and beautiful as those of the House. At the foot of the eastern stairway stands Powers' marble statue of Benjamin Franklin, and on the wall above the first landing is one of the most stirring paintings in the Capitol, "Perry's Victory on Lake Erie," by W. H. Powell. At the foot of the western staircase is a marble statue of John Hancock by Horatio Stone, and on the wall above, a painting by James Walker of the Storming of Chapultepec.

The Senate also opens its sessions at twelve o'clock daily. In personnel it is very different from the House. Gravity, dignity, wisdom, deliberation, are the popular attributes of a Senator. In its powers, too, the Senate differs from the House. Without doubt the wise framers of the Constitution intended to preserve a just balance of power between the two bodies. If one has powers not shared by the other that other enjoys an equivalent. Thus the Senate has the exclusive right of ratifying the treaties and confirming the appointments made by the Executive. On the other hand, the House has the exclusive right of originating appropriation bills, so that the business of the government cannot go on

without its consent ; it has also the sole power of impeachment. The Senate is the patrician body, a faint reflex of the English House of Lords. It represents the sovereign States rather than the people. The same article of the Constitution which created the House also created it. Senators were to be chosen by the legislatures of the several States, and each State, whatever its size and population, was to be entitled to two Senators, so that in the Senate Rhode Island or Delaware wields as much power as New York. Unlike the House, the Senate knows no end. The term of office of its members is six years, and the Constitution provides that elections shall be so arranged that one third of the entire body shall be chosen every second year. The Senate, therefore, like the king, never dies. The salary of Senators and Representatives is the same—\$5,000 each, and the Speaker of the House and President of the Senate receive the same amount—\$8,000 yearly.

The routine of business here is very much like that of the House, although conducted with more decorum and deliberation. Senate proceedings are guided by forty "standing rules," as they are called, so long as to fill a pamphlet of twenty-five printed pages. On assembling at twelve o'clock the first business in order is the reading of the journal, unless such reading is suspended by unanimous consent. This "journal" is a record in which the proceedings of the Senate are "briefly and accurately entered by the clerk,"—"messages of the President in full, titles of bills and joint resolutions, and such parts

as shall be affected by proposed amendments; every vote, and a brief statement of the contents of each petition, memorial, or paper presented to the Senate, shall be entered, but the executive, legislative, and confidential legislative proceedings, and the proceedings when sitting as a court of impeachment, shall each be recorded in a separate book."

After the reading of the journal comes the "morning hour," as in the House. The presiding officer lays before the Senate messages from the President, reports and communications from heads of departments, and other communications addressed to the Senate, and such bills, joint resolutions, and other messages from the House as may remain upon his table from any previous day's session undisposed of. The presiding officer then calls for, in the following order: "The presentation of petitions and memorials," "Reports of standing and select committees," "The introduction of bills and joint resolutions," "Concurrent and other resolutions," which must be received and disposed of in the order called, unless unanimous consent is given. This is "new business," and until it is concluded, or the hour of one o'clock arrives no motion to proceed to consider any bill which has been read and put upon the calendar, or any other business upon the calendar, is in order, unless by unanimous consent. Every petition or memorial is referred without debate, unless objection is made. It is in order, however, for the presiding officer to lay before the Senate any bill or other matter sent in during this hour by the President, or by the House, or any Senator may make a

motion to take such action, in which case the pending question is suspended for that purpose.

But suppose the morning hour is passed, the Senate then proceeds to consider the bills and resolutions which have been placed upon the calendar, a copy of which is furnished each Senator. Then bills and resolutions are taken up in their proper order, if no objection is made; each Senator being allowed to speak once, and for five minutes only, on the question. Consideration of these cases being completed, which must be not later than two o'clock, "Special Orders" are taken up, and if there be none, the calendar of General Orders is taken up, beginning with the first subject on the calendar. A "Special Order," we may explain, is any subject which, by vote of two thirds of the Senators, is made a special order, and thus takes precedence of general business. Voting is done on a demand for the "yeas and nays," and every Senator is obliged to vote yea or nay, without debate, unless the Senate excuse him, which it will not do until he has assigned his reasons.

It sometimes happens on calling the roll that a quorum (a majority of all the members) is not present, and then the Senate may direct its sergeant-at-arms to arrest the delinquent members and compel them to come in.

While a question is being considered, no motion is in order, except to adjourn, to take a recess, to consider executive business, to lay on the table, to postpone indefinitely or to a certain day, to commit, and to amend. As in the House, much of the business of the Senate is done through "standing commit-

tees," of which there are forty-two, the most important being those on " Appropriations," " Foreign Relations," " Judiciary," " Finance," " Interstate Commerce," " Fisheries," " Indian Affairs," " Manufactures," " Military Affairs," " Naval Affairs," " Pensions," " Post Offices and Post Roads," " Privileges and Elections," " Public Lands," " Railroads," " Rules," " Territories," " Education and Labor," " Claims," and " Coast Defences." These committees are composed of from three to eleven Senators, and are expected to study thoroughly, and report to the Senate on the merits of, the questions confided to them.

There are very stringent rules as to the admission of persons to the floor of the Senate while it is in session. The persons who may be thus admitted are the officers of the Senate, Members of the House and the Clerk and Sergeant-at-Arms of that body, the President of the United States and his private secretary, the Heads of Departments, Commissioner of Agriculture, Ministers of the United States, Foreign Ministers, ex-Presidents and ex-Vice-Presidents of the United States, ex-Senators and Senators-elect, Judges of the Supreme Court, Governors of States and Territories, General of the Army, Admiral of the Navy, Commissioners of the District of Columbia, Members of National Legislatures of other countries, private secretaries of Senators, Librarian of Congress, the Assistant Librarian in charge of the law library, Hon. George Bancroft, Judges of the Court of Claims, the Architect of the Capitol, and the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution.

It often happens that the Senate sits with closed doors, and sometimes in "Executive session." Any Senator who considers that the discussion of a question requires secrecy, may move to close the doors of the Senate, and if this is seconded, it is the duty of the presiding officer to order the galleries cleared and the doors closed. Executive sessions are those in which the President meets the Senate for the consideration of executive business, and those in which the ratification of treaties, or the confirmation of nominations made by the President, are considered. During these sessions, the chamber is cleared of all persons except Senators, the secretary, chief clerk, executive clerk, minute and journal clerk, sergeant-at-arms, assistant doorkeeper, and such other officers as the presiding officer may think necessary, and grave penalties are prescribed for any one who discloses the secret or confidential business of the session—expulsion if a Senator, and dismissal and punishment for contempt if an officer.

There are also rules and regulations for the care of the Senate wing of the Capitol, and for the admission of visitors to the galleries. The latter are of so much interest to visitors that we give a summary. The gallery in the rear of the Vice-President's chair is devoted to reporters of daily newspapers. The south gallery over the main entrance to the use of the Diplomatic Corps. To this gallery none may be admitted except the Secretary of State, Foreign Ministers, their families and suites, and Senators. The galleries over the western entrance, and in the northeastern corner of the chamber are reserved for

the use of families of Senators, of Cabinet Ministers, and of Judges of the Supreme Court. The gallery extending from the eastern reserved gallery to the Diplomatic is set apart for ladies, and ladies accompanied by gentlemen. The galleries on either side of the western reserved gallery are for the use of the public. The front seat in the eastern reserved gallery next adjoining the ladies' gallery is reserved for the use of the President of the United States.

To perform all the duties of the Senate and enforce these rules and regulations, a small army of officials is necessary. There are a chaplain, a secretary, a chief clerk, and financial executive clerk, principal clerk, minute and journal clerk, enrolling clerk, sergeant-at-arms, and doorkeeper, with two assistants; a principal bookkeeper, with two assistants; postmaster, librarian, keeper of stationery, superintendents of folding-room and document-rooms, and many subordinate clerks, doorkeepers, messengers, pages, and other employés.

Many scenes of national and historical interest—chiefly those connected with the war and reconstruction periods—have occurred in the present Senate chamber; the great debates of the ante-bellum period were held in the old Senate hall, now the Supreme-Court room. Perhaps the most dramatic and interesting event of which it can boast was the impeachment trial in 1868 of Andrew Johnson, who on the death of President Lincoln had become President, by virtue of his office as Vice-President.

Congress was then Republican in both branches. The quarrel between it and the President arose from

a difference of opinion as to the treatment due the recently seceded States. The breach so widened that in 1867 more ultra members of the dominant party demanded the President's impeachment; but it was not until the session of 1868, after President Johnson had attempted the removal of Secretary-of-War Stanton, and had made some bitter and unwise speeches against Congress, that active steps for his impeachment were taken. On the 24th of February, 1868, by a vote of 126 yeas to 47 nays, a resolution was passed "that Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors while in office." It was the first time that such a resolution had passed, and one can fancy the suppressed excitement and breathless interest with which the trial was followed by the entire country. In prosecuting this trial, the House, acting without precedent, certainly acquitted itself creditably. Let us see how it was done. Its first step was to appoint a committee to notify the Senate; Thaddeus Stevens and Judge Bingham were appointed such committee: the second, to create a committee to frame articles of impeachment; seven members were appointed on this committee, Mr. Stevens being chairman. Seven "managers," comprising the ablest members of the House, were also appointed to conduct the trial.

These preliminaries settled, on the 25th of February Messrs. Stevens and Bingham appeared at the bar of the Senate to notify it of the action of the House. The sergeant-at-arms announced their presence. Everybody in the packed galleries bent to listen as Mr. Stevens said, impressively:

“In obedience to the orders of the House of Representatives we appear before you, and in the name of the House of Representatives and of all the people of the United States we do impeach Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, of high crimes and misdemeanors while in office, and we further inform the Senate that the House of Representatives will in due time exhibit articles of impeachment against him, and make good the same, and in their name we demand that the Senate shall take order for the appearance of the said Andrew Johnson to answer to said impeachment.”

There was a still more impressive spectacle on the 4th of March, when the Managers on the part of the House appeared at the bar of the Senate to present the articles of impeachment. The House resolved itself into a Committee of the Whole, and attended them. Promptly at one the sergeant-at-arms announced: “Managers from the House of Representatives with articles of impeachment,” and a procession of black-coated gentlemen, arm-in-arm, were seen advancing down the aisle—Judge Bingham and Mr. Boutwell in advance, Mr. Wilson and General Logan, General Butler and Mr. Williams, Mr. Stevens alone, followed by the Speaker, and the chairman of the Committee of the Whole, with the members two by two. The Speaker was invited to a seat beside the presiding officer of the Senate, and the Managers took seats provided in the area before the Chair, while the members arranged themselves in a semicircle behind them. The chief marshal then said: “Mr. President, the Managers on the part of the House of Representatives are ready to exhibit on the part of the House the Articles of Impeachment against

Andrew Johnson." "The sergeant-at-arms will make proclamation," said the President. That official arose, and cried: "Hear ye! Hear ye! Hear ye! All persons are commanded to keep silence, on pain of imprisonment, while the House of Representatives is exhibiting to the Senate of the United States articles of impeachment against Andrew Johnson, President of the United States." Judge Bingham, the chief manager, then read the articles of impeachment, which were quite long, occupying nearly an hour in the reading, and which alleged the President's failure to enforce the laws as regarded the un-reconstructed States, his violent denunciations of Congress, and especially his arbitrary acts in appointing and removing public officials in violation of the tenure-of-office act, as the impeached offenses. When he had concluded, the President of the Senate replied: "The Chair informs the House that the Senate will take proper order on the subject of impeachment, of which due notice shall be given the House of Representatives." The distinguished statesmen then withdrew to their own end of the Capitol, and the Senate proceeded with its usual order of business.

On the next day when the Senate was to be organized as a court even greater interest was manifested. The galleries were crowded with distinguished visitors, attracted from far and near by the trial, and with ladies brilliant in their gay toilets. At one o'clock—the hour set for the trial—the Committee appointed to notify Chief-Justice Chase, who was to preside over the court, appeared

below the bar escorting that gentleman, who was clad in his black official robes. The Senators rose to receive him, and he ascended to the chair of President Wade. The latter then rapped with his gavel, and said: "The hour of one having arrived, in pursuance of rule, the legislative and executive business of the Senate will be suspended, and the Senate will proceed to the consideration of the articles of impeachment exhibited by the House of Representatives against Andrew Johnson, President of the United States." He then ordered the sergent-at-arms to make proclamation, which he did as follows: "Hear ye! Hear ye! Hear ye! All persons are commanded to keep silence on pain of imprisonment while the Senate of the United States is sitting for the trial of the articles of impeachment exhibited by the House of Representatives against Andrew Johnston, President of the United States." Mr. Justice Nelson then administered the oath to the Chief Justice, and he in turn to the Senators, and the Senate was organized as a jury for the trial of the President.

A debate at once ensued as to whether President Wade (who would succeed to the Presidency if President Johnson were to be deposed) should be allowed his seat in the Senate, but the question was decided in his favor, and at half-past two on the 7th, the Secretary of the Senate was ordered to notify the house that the court was complete. In ten minutes the managers appeared, and Judge Bingham demanded in the name of the House that the Senate take order for the appearance of Andrew

Johnson in court to answer to the articles of impeachment preferred against him. Mr. Howard moved that a summons issue for the President, citing him to appear and answer at the bar of the Senate on Friday, March 13th, which was carried.

On the 13th there was another impressive scene, with the same august actors, and the same brilliant and interested audience. After certain Senators had been sworn, the return of the sergeant-at-arms was read as sworn to by that officer, and the Chief Justice commanded him to call upon the accused to appear and answer. In a loud voice that sounded still louder from the deep silence of the chamber, he called "Andrew Johnson," three times. Hundreds bent forward, expecting to see the President of the United States appear in answer to that stentorian challenge. He appeared, however, by his counsel—Attorney-General Stansbury, Judge B. R. Curtis of Boston, and Hon. Thomas Nelson of Tennessee, who came at the call from the President's room and took seats. The House was also notified and appeared. Judge Chase then remarked that it was next in order for counsel to put in an answer to the articles of impeachment. Attorney-General Stansbury rose, and in his gentle, bland, dignified way said that he appeared for the President, and read a paper authorizing him to act. William M. Evarts and Judge Jeremiah Black were also named in this paper as counsel, together with those before mentioned. The President's answer was an explicit, emphatic, detailed denial of every allegation of

every article of impeachment, reaffirmed the legality of all his acts, denied any intention of violating the tenure-of-office law, or of any other law, denied the correctness of the report of the speeches attributed to him, and affirmed his right to express his opinion as well as any private citizen. He asked forty days to prepare for his defense, but was given until Monday, the 30th of March.

On that day the trial really began. Manager B. F. Butler opened for the prosecution, speaking for two and one half hours, nearly one half of which was devoted to the 11th Article—the chief indictment,—that charging a violation of the tenure-of-office act. Speeches and examination of witnesses continued from day to day, the whole country following the proceedings with the deepest interest. On April 9th, Judge Curtis opened for the defense. On April 22d the defense rested, and the arguments began, Mr. Boutwell opening for the managers.

We will pass on to the final day—Saturday, May 16th,—when the Senators began voting “guilty,” or “not guilty.” Public interest had now reached its climax. Whether a President should be deprived of his high office, be disgraced, disfranchised, the first of an honorable line to meet such infamy, was to be determined by those little words, “guilty” or “not guilty.” The faces of the Senators were closely scanned as they sat imperturbable in their seats. There were historic names among them—Sumner, Conkling, Sherman, Morton, Edmunds, Holt, Anthony, Sickles, Bayard, Cameron, Chandler, Doolittle, Dixon, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Morrill,

Wade—an array of talent and learning rarely gathered in a legislative hall.

At twelve the court sat. At fifteen minutes past twelve the members of the House appeared, preceded by their managers, and were seated without the bar. It had been decided that the 11th Article, the most important, should be voted on first. The supreme moment at length arrives. The Chief Justice rises in his seat, and in grave tones enjoins the galleries to a strict observance of the order. The article is then read, and the clerk, roll in hand, calls the first name on the list :

“ Mr. Anthony.” That gentleman rises from his seat.

The Chief Justice demands :

“ Mr. Senator Anthony, how say you ? Is Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, guilty or not guilty of a high misdemeanor, as charged in this article ? ”

Mr. Anthony responds in clear, decided tones, “ Guilty,” and resumes his seat.

The roll-call goes on in this way through the entire list of fifty-four Senators, and at its close it is found that thirty-five have voted “ guilty,” and nineteen “ not guilty,”—seven Republicans and twelve Democrats among the latter,—less than the requisite two thirds, so that the President is acquitted, on that charge. But as this is a test vote, it is known that he is acquitted on all, and the nation is spared the disgrace of an impeachment of its President.

Very interesting scenes occur in the Senate during

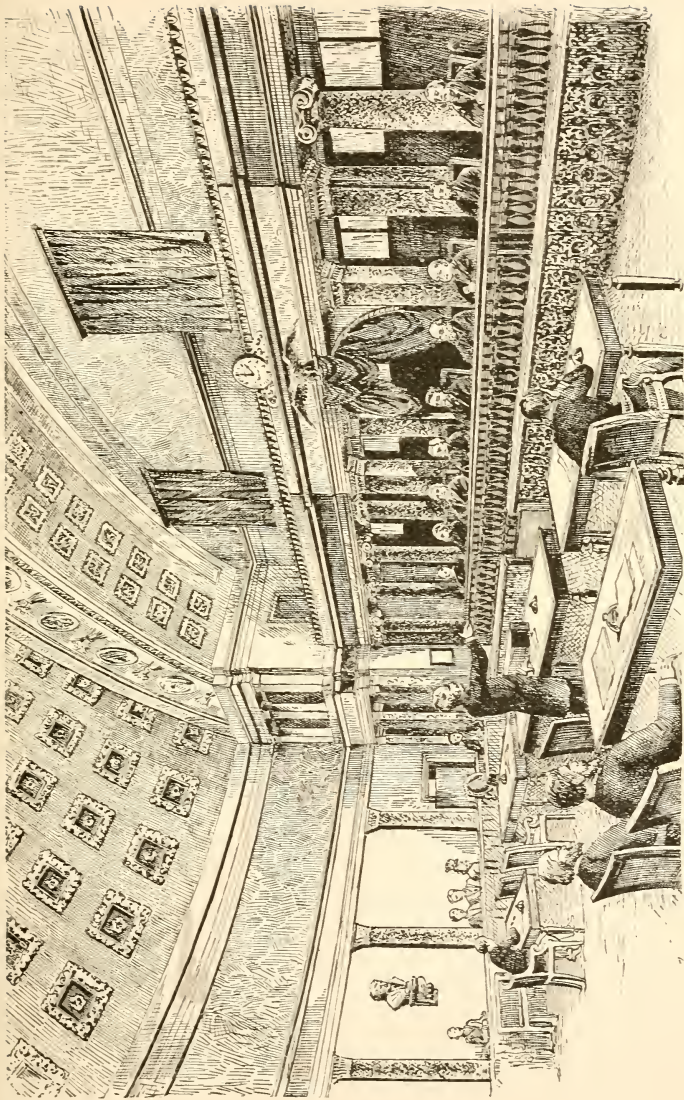
the closing hours of each Congress. By law it must end on the 4th of March at 12 o'clock noon. On Presidential years the Vice-President elect, the high dignitaries of government and of foreign courts, and a vast body of spectators await its closing in order to inaugurate the incoming President. But perhaps its business cannot be fully accomplished within the time specified. In that case, the venerable Captain Bassett, Doorkeeper of the Senate, steps forward, and lifting his stick sets the hands of the Senate clock back fifteen minutes, and if that be not sufficient another ten minutes is gained in the same manner. So that the Senate of the United States steals from Father Time, and asserts authority over the calendar.

Passing from the Rotunda to the Senate wing you enter first a vestibule, and glancing to the right see a two-leaved door, over which, emblazoned in gilt, are the arms of the United States. Here is the seat of the third great department of government—the Supreme Court. Entering you find yourself in a large semicircular chamber, with a lofty, dome-shaped ceiling. The walls are supported by marble pilasters, and adorned with busts of stately, distinguished-looking gentlemen—the deceased chief justices. At the rear of the room, facing the entrance, is the long judicial bench, where the judges sit. Over it is a wide arch, hung with looped velvet curtains, half concealing a deep recess, supported by a series of pillars of variegated marble, with white marble capitals. The central part of the room is occupied by the seats and desks of the lawyers who practise before

the court, and outside of this bar are tiers of seats upholstered in red velvet for the use of visitors.

This room is doubly interesting to Americans, from the fact that from 1800 to 1859 it was the chamber of the Senate of the United States. One's blood is stirred as he reflects that its walls have resounded with the eloquence of Webster, Clay, Calhoun, Hayne, Choate, Benton, and other splendid orators; that here the great battles of the anti-slavery contest were fought, and every great question, whether of finance or statesmanship, that agitated the country during this long period, debated, and in many cases decided. But in 1859 the north wing of the Capitol was so far completed that the Senate removed thither, and the next year the Supreme Court, which had before held its sessions in the room below, was brought here.

We will suppose the day of our first visit to be the second Monday of October, and the hour five minutes before twelve. We shall find in attendance at the door an elderly colored man, faultlessly clad in immaculate linen and black broadcloth, who, if there are ladies in the party, motions us to seats on the right, but to the left if there are none. The meeting edges of the two-leaved door are lined with rubber, to prevent the slightest sound from the impact. Promptly at twelve o'clock a procession of nine elderly, dignified gentlemen, in black silk robes, issues from the robing-room. At the same moment the marshal requests all present to rise, and then makes the announcement: "The Honorable, the Chief Justice, and Associate Justices of the Supreme



THE SUPREME-COURT ROOM.

Court of the United States." The justices range themselves on the bench in the order of seniority, with the Chief Justice in the centre, bow politely to the audience, and seat themselves in the comfortable arm-chairs provided. The crier then opens court with the old English formula: "Oyez! Oyez! Oyez! All persons having business before the Honorable Supreme Court of the United States are admonished to draw near and give their attention, for the court is now sitting. God save the United States and this honorable court." The business then proceeds with dignity and deliberation until the hour of four arrives, when the court adjourns for the day.

Chief-Justice Fuller, who was appointed in 1887 by President Cleveland, occupies the central seat on the bench. Next, on the right, is Mr. Justice Miller, the senior Justice, he having been appointed by President Lincoln in 1862; and first on the left sits Mr. Justice Field, who was appointed by Mr. Lincoln in 1863; and then in order of seniority Justices Bradley, appointed by President Grant in 1870; Harlan, appointed by President Hayes in 1877; Matthews, appointed by President Garfield in 1881; Gray and Blatchford, appointed by President Arthur in 1881 and 1882 respectively; and Lamar, appointed by President Cleveland in 1888.

The annual session of the court begins the second Monday in October, and lasts usually until the middle of May. Mondays are set apart for the reading of opinions. If we visit the chamber on other days we shall probably find an advocate addressing the

court. His speech is marked by a great deal of dry detail, with little rhetoric or eloquence, and is somewhat uninteresting to a layman. Facts, precedents, and points of law, arranged in orderly and logical sequence—argument,—are required by this august tribunal, and the advocate, however eloquent, who lacks the capacity for this fares ill. The judges are, however, very courteous and kind in their intercourse with the bar. Not unfrequently, when the pleader has not made a fact or point of law quite clear, he is interrupted by a judge, and a colloquy ensues in which sometimes the whole bench joins.

The Supreme Court is the youngest born of the Constitution, but in some important respects its powers exceed those of the executive and legislative branches. It is the expounder and interpreter of the Constitution, the "balance wheel" of the legislative machinery, the court of last resort, whether the complainant be private citizen, State or general government, or executive official. It decides whether acts of Congress are constitutional or otherwise, and thus sits in judgment on the proceedings of that body, and in case of impeachment of the President its Chief Justice presides at the trial.

The Constitution ordained that its power should extend

"to all cases in law and equity arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made or which shall be made under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction; to controversies to which the United States

shall be a party ; to controversies between two or more States, between a State and citizens of another State, between citizens of different States, between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State or the citizens thereof and foreign states, citizens, or subjects."

A brief study of the history and organization of this authoritative body will be of interest. The first paragraph of the first section of Article III of the Constitution created it in the following words : "The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish." The very first Congress, which sat in New York in April, 1789, passed an act, September 24th, organizing this court with a Chief Justice and five Associate Justices, to be nominated by the President and confirmed by the Senate ; two inferior courts called Circuit Courts, each of which embraced several States, and were to be presided over by members of the Supreme Court ; and District Courts of more limited area and jurisdiction, to be presided over by district judges. President Washington appointed the great statesman John Jay to be the first Chief Justice, and William Cushing of Massachusetts, James Wilson of Pennsylvania, John Blair of Virginia, James Iredell of North Carolina, and John Rutledge of South Carolina, Associate Justices.

In the custody of the clerk of the Supreme court is an ancient volume, containing the minutes of the Court from its first session in 1790 down to 1827. The first entry is as follows :

“ At the Supreme Judicial Court of the United States, begun and held at New York (being the seat of the National Government) on the first Monday of February, and on the first day of said month, Anno Domini 1790, Present : The Hon. John Jay, Chief Justice, the Hon. William Cushing and the Hon. James Wilson, Associate Justices, this being the day assigned by law for commencing the first session of the Supreme Court of the United States, and a sufficient number of the justices not being convened, the Court is adjourned by the justices now present until to-morrow, at one of the clock in the afternoon.”

The next day the Hon. John Blair was present, and the court was formally opened by the crier. There were no cases before this court. Its first business was the reading of the justices' commissions, and their taking the oath required by law ; and the presentation of the commission of Hon. Edmund Randolph of Virginia, who had been appointed Attorney-General. John Tucker of Boston was appointed the first clerk. It next provided a seal for the court, which was the arms of the United States engraved on a circular piece of steel of the size of a dollar, with the words, “ Seal of the Supreme Court of the United States,” engraved on the margin. On February 5th, three councillors—Elias Boudinot of New Jersey, Thomas Hartley of Pennsylvania, and Richard Harrison of New York—



COURT SEAL.

were admitted to the bar, the requirements being that they should have practised in the State Supreme Courts three years, and that their private and professional character should be fair. Three days later ten more councillors were sworn in, among them three famous names—Theodore Sedgwick, Fisher Ames, and Robert Morris.

Not until the second session of the court was held in February, 1791, did a case present itself for trial. This was an admiralty case. Judge Duane, of the District Court of New York, came before it, saying that on complaint of the Collector of the Port, and proof on oath, he had committed Josiah Goreham, master of the sloop *Hiram*, for breach of revenue laws and perjury. Goreham's mate, Charles Seely, had been detected landing and storing a quantity of coffee before report or entry, and in the nighttime, and had been committed. Both men were importunate for trial, and as the District Court had no authority, Judge Duane prayed that a special Circuit Court might be held for their trial, which was granted.

The next important case is worthy of notice, since with others of like tenor it led to an amendment to the Constitution. Jacob and Nicholas Van Staphorst of Holland sued the State of Maryland, and applied for the requisite process to bring the State into court. The Supreme court accordingly issued its writ to the Marshal of the District of Maryland, to be served on the Governor and Executive Council, which was done. Luther Martin, the Attorney-General of the State of Maryland, appeared in court,

and directed John Caldwell, Esq., to enter an appearance for said State of Maryland. Edmund Randolph, Attorney-General, then moved that said appearance be entered, and the court ordered that the said State of Maryland should plead in two months from the second day of that term. This suit was subsequently (August, 1792) discontinued, although other suits of like character quickly followed. But this citing of a sovereign State before the court on the complaint of a private citizen was so destructive to its dignity, and led to such unseemly litigation, that in March, 1794, the Eleventh Amendment to the Constitution was passed, which declared that the judicial power of the United States should not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another state, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state. This amendment was sought to be evaded by certain citizens of New York, holders of Louisiana State bonds, who assigned their bonds to New York, and then induced that State to bring suit, but the case on coming before the Supreme Court was thrown out, on the ground that it was an evasion of the Amendment.

The August session of the Supreme Court for 1791 was held in the City Hall, Philadelphia, the government having been removed to that city, and continued to be held there until the first Monday in February, 1801, when, as we learn from the Minutes, it was "holden at the Capitol in the City of Washington, the same being the seat of the National

Government." The court-room of that day was in the basement story, directly beneath the present chamber.

There were but three circuits in the early days of the Court. To-day there are nine, one for each of the Justices, defined as follows: No. 1. Comprising Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, Justice Gray presiding. No. 2. New York, Connecticut, and Vermont, Justice Blatchford. No. 3. New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware, Justice Bradley. No. 4 is the circuit of the Chief Justice, and comprises Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, North and South Carolina. No. 5. Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas, Justice Lamar. No. 6. Ohio, Michigan, Kentucky, and Tennessee, Justice Matthews. No. 7. Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin, Justice Harlan. No. 8 comprises the remaining States this side of the Rocky Mountains, Justice Miller. No. 9. The Pacific Coast Circuit, Justice Field.

A great deal of the business of the Supreme Court is on appeal from the Circuit Courts.

Let us next see how this business is transacted. All the cases to come before it are entered in a large record book called the docket. Before the civil war scarcely a hundred cases composed the docket. Now a thousand may be entered by the time the court meets, and each is called in the order entered. Original cases—those not appealed from an inferior court—are placed on a separate docket. When a case comes on for trial the lawyers are each allotted two hours for argument, unless by request the court

allows them more. These lawyers must have printed arguments and printed briefs showing the principal points and references to law on which they base their plea, and if the case comes from a lower court all the proceedings before that court must have been printed and submitted also. One case having been heard, another is taken up, and sometimes several cases are tried in a day. Five days in the week are occupied in hearing argument. Saturday is set apart for consultation on the cases tried, the judges meeting at eleven in the morning and often sitting until six at night.

In the early days of the court at Washington, none of the judges resided there, and it was the custom for the entire bench to club together, hire a furnished house and caterer, and live together. This custom continued until the civil war, and it was the habit of the bench to sit late at dinner and discuss the cases tried during the day. Now, however, each judge takes home his printed briefs, and studies the case alone, often extending his labors into the small hours of the night. On Saturday as has been said, all meet for consultation. Each case is gone over again thoroughly, each judge offering his argument, until the case is argued often much more thoroughly and to the point than it was by the lawyers. Then the Chief Justice puts the case to vote. Beginning with the youngest, he asks him how he will vote. "I will affirm," he replies; another, "I will reverse," and so it continues until all have voted, and it returns to the Chief Justice perhaps four to four, in which case he decides it. The latter then assigns to some

member the task of writing the opinion, who thus becomes the mouthpiece of the court. This task is given to the member deemed most competent, one judge being especially proficient in chancery cases, others in admiralty and patent cases, and so on, but at the end of the term each has been given his fair share of the work. These opinions are read as the first order of business at the Saturday conferences, and are sharply criticised, one member objecting to the style, another to the use of words, etc. Sometimes the author is asked to rewrite it wholly. After being read and approved, the opinions are read in open court on the Monday following. The decision is then announced and the whole opinion printed and sent to the author for revision, after which it is inserted in the bound volumes of "Reports," to become, with others that have preceded it, an authority in law, and an arsenal of precedent for future times. These "Reports" now fill one hundred and twenty-seven volumes. Formerly they bore the name of the reporter, but are now entitled United States Reports, and numbered, beginning with the ninety-first report.

It is evident that decisions on questions of law and fact submitted to nine of the ablest judicial minds of the nation, and so thoroughly sifted, weighed, criticised, and studied as we have seen these to be, must and should be considered authoritative and final. From the decisions of this court there is no appeal, neither for the citizen, nor for the State, nor for Congress itself.

Behind the Rotunda, with its confused throngs and

loud reverberations, lies a very different region, a quiet and secluded cloister sacred to scholars and scholarly sightseers, and to the wise and great of all ages—the Congressional Library. It, too, has a beautiful chamber—three great halls in one; or, more strictly speaking, two great halls and a tran-



LIBRARY OF CONGRESS.

sept, with triple height of galleries and alcoves; ceilings of a soft green coloring, pricked with gold, and

wide, generous windows opening upon a landscape that is itself a study and an inspiration. In these alcoves the general student and man of letters may find rare treasures, and the mere dilettanti revel in rare old tomes,—*editions de luxe*, books of priceless engrav-

ings, works of natural history,—the original edition, for instance, of Audubon's "Birds," in which the humming-bird and pheasant seem alive with all the glory of their plumage upon them. Here, too, until recently hung those marvellous mosaic portraits of Lincoln and Garfield, produced with infinite labor and skill from an infinite number of atoms, and presented by Signor Salviati, of Venice, to this nation as a token of respect and appreciation of its martyred Presidents.

This library is said to be the only one in existence that is entirely fire-proof. The shelves, the supports, the fittings throughout are of iron; the rafters and decorated ceilings of the same material, and the roof of copper; so that from fire, whether accidental or applied by an incendiary, these rare world's treasures are measurably secure. Five hundred and ninety thousand books, and over one hundred and ninety-three thousand pamphlets, in almost every department of human knowledge, repose upon its shelves.

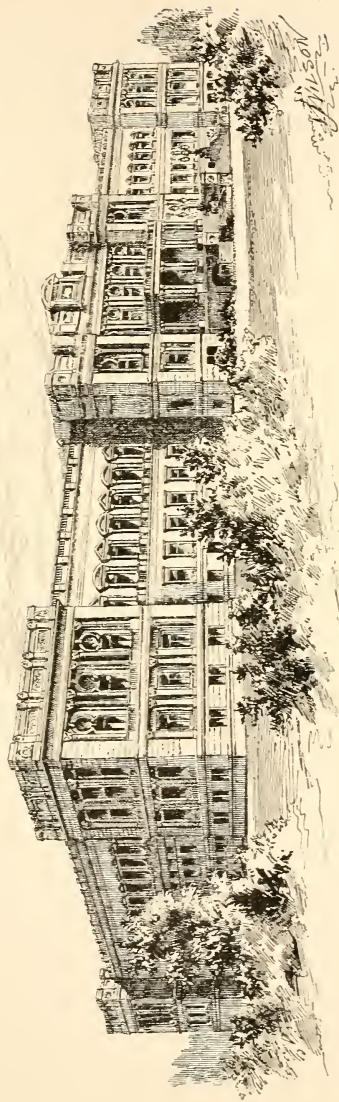
The library was founded in 1800 by an Act of Congress, which appropriated five thousand dollars for the purchase of such books "as may be necessary for the use of Congress at the City of Washington." Up to 1814, when the library and the Capitol were burned by the British, but three thousand volumes had accumulated. After the fire, in 1815, the library of ex-President Jefferson, comprising seven thousand carefully selected volumes, was purchased as the nucleus of a great national library.

At this time the library was lodged in the Post-

Office building pending the reconstruction of the Capitol, and remained there until the north wing was completed, in 1817, when it was removed to the rooms in the attic story now occupied by the Senate library. In 1824, the central portion of the Capitol approaching completion, it was again removed to the long hall occupying the whole western front of the Capitol, where it has ever since remained. In December, 1851, when 55,000 volumes had been collected, a fire, caused by a defective flue, unfortunately broke out in the library and destroyed 35,000 volumes. Congress at once appropriated \$72,500 for the restoration of the hall, which was rebuilt wholly of fire-proof material; and at the same time appropriated \$85,000 to replace the books destroyed. By 1866 the library had so increased that additional room became imperative, and two wings, each capable of containing 75,000 volumes, were added by absorbing certain supernumerary rooms in the Capitol. Yet, in the year succeeding, Congress, by accession and purchase, taxed the two additional wings to their utmost capacity. First, in 1866, by the transfer of the large scientific library of the Smithsonian Institution. Second, in 1867, by the purchase, for \$100,000, of the historical library collected by Mr. Peter Force, of Washington. Lastly, in 1870, by the transfer of the copyright business of the nation from the Patent Office to the Library of Congress. By the law of copyright, at least two copies of each publication copyrighted must be deposited with the Librarian of Congress, a provision that has added enormously to the treasures of the

library, the increase from this source alone amounting, in 1877, to 13,688 books and 21,494 other publications. For nearly a year Mr. Ainsworth R. Spofford, the librarian, has been laboring under the burden of an accumulation of books far beyond his ability to properly accommodate. A visitor to the library can but be impressed with the difficulties, due to the want of space, under which the business is carried on. The files of books and pamphlets upon the floor, for which there is no space upon the shelves, threaten, before long, entirely to bury the energetic librarian and his assistants. Congress has been importuned again and again during this period to do something for the relief of the library, but a series of important measures and events so engrossed its attention that it was prevented from taking the necessary steps properly to protect the people's literary treasures.

The project of a new library building has been before Congress in one form or another since 1873, at which time that body offered \$5,000 for the best plan for a new library hall. Twenty-eight plans were submitted in response, that of Mr. J. L. Smithmeyer, of Washington, after two years' delay, being accepted. The Senate has uniformly been in favor of the undertaking, and in 1886 the House, after strenuous exertions by the friends of the measure, was induced to appropriate \$500,000 to begin the construction of the building. The same bill limited the cost of the site to \$550,000. The building, an engraving of which we present, is estimated to cost \$4,500,000 in accordance with the revised Act of



ACCEPTED DESIGN FOR LIBRARY BUILDING.

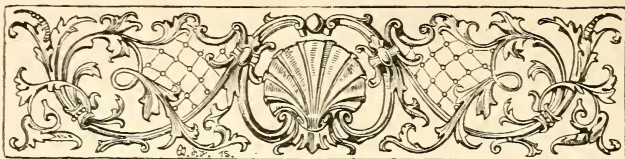
Congress passed in September, 1888. It will be of stone, iron, and concrete, thoroughly fire-proof, and will accommodate nearly 4,000,000 books. And as in January, 1887, there were but 581,678 books and 193,000 pamphlets in the library, many years, it is thought, must elapse before the shelf-room of the new building will be filled. In a gallery 350 feet long by 35 feet wide will be shown works of art. Maps, charts, Washingtoniana, the valuable Toner collection now stored in the crypt, and halls for copyright records and for the accumulations under the copyright laws will be provided for in convenient rooms and galleries. It is expected that in the new building the treasures of the library can be made more available to the general public. At the time of the present writing—September, 1888—the building seems no farther advanced than in 1887.

We have now completed our tour of the principal divisions of the Capitol. There still remain the basement story, in which are situated the post-offices, and a number of the committee rooms of Congress, the Law Library, now under the charge of Mr. C. W. Hoffman, which comprises 70,000 law books, the document- and folding-rooms, in which the books and pamphlets printed by government are stored; and the attic story, which is devoted mainly to committee rooms.

The sub-basement is well worthy a visit, if for nothing more than to inspect the apparatus by which the halls, corridors, and chambers of the Capitol are heated. Below this basement is a subterranean region, into which man rarely penetrates,

a no-man's land, full of long, dark, creepy corridors, and dim ghostly chambers, where are stored old models, half dismembered casts of statues, packing-boxes, and other rubbish.





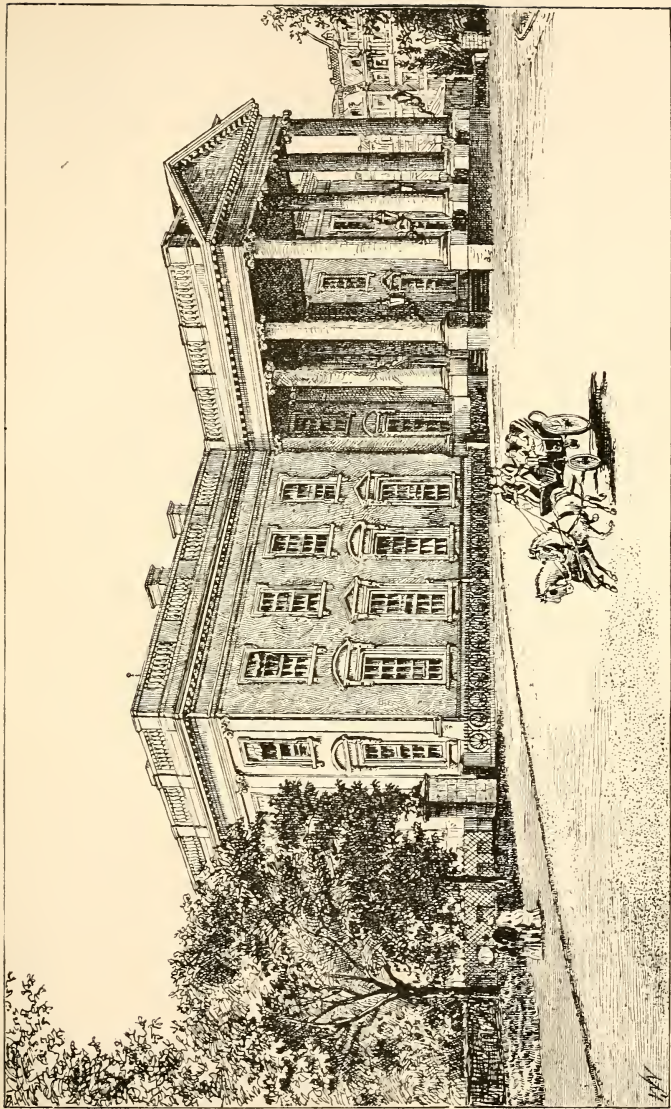
CHAPTER XV.

THE EXECUTIVE MANSION.

AT the other end of Pennsylvania Avenue, a mile distant from the Capitol, we shall find the President's House, the seat of the Executive, the third great co-ordinate branch of government. It is surrounded by the Department buildings, and, tradition avers, was placed at this distance from the Capitol, that the Executive might be far removed from the influence of the legislative branch—perhaps that the Legislature might be entirely free from the over-awing influence of the Executive. The President is the head of the Republic, charged with the execution of the laws made by Congress, and approved, if occasion requires, by the Supreme Court; it will be interesting, therefore, to inquire as to his powers and prerogatives, and as to the methods by which the people make choice of him to execute their behests.

The same constitution that enacted the legislative and judicial power called into being the executive. Article II, of that instrument, which immediately follows the article defining the legislative Branch, begins thus:

“The executive power shall be vested in a Presi-



dent of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows,"—and then goes on to describe the method of his election. We will first inquire into his powers and duties, which are defined in Sections II and III of this article, thus: He "shall be Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States when called into the service of the United States. . . . He shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in cases of impeachment. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. He shall have power to fill all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of the next session." His duties are "from time to time to give Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient." On extraordinary occasions "to convene both Houses, or either of them, and in case they cannot agree with respect to the time of adjournment, to adjourn them

to such time as he may think proper ; to receive ambassadors and other public ministers ; to take care that the laws be faithfully executed ; to commission all the officers of the United States."

Strangely enough, the greatest power the President possesses is not mentioned in the section defining and limiting his powers. We refer to the veto power. In Section VII of Article I it is provided that every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President. If he approve, he shall sign it ; if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that House in which it originated, which shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and shall proceed to reconsider the bill. If after such reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass it, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered ; and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a law. Most bills are passed in Congress by a majority vote. A majority is one more than half. Theoretically, therefore, the President by his veto wields a power equal to that of twelve senators and fifty-five representatives—the difference between a majority and a two-thirds vote. We say theoretically, because it does not always follow that the President is able to convince Congressmen by his objections, and a measure *may* be passed over his veto, but it is rarely done.

Every four years it becomes the duty of the American people to elect a President. There are many

wise and patriotic Americans who think this too often, and that the term of office should be lengthened to six, or even eight years, and the incumbent be made ineligible for re-election. When these reforms are made it is possible that our intricate and antiquated election machinery will also be swept away. This method, as defined by the Constitution, is as follows :

“ Each State shall appoint in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of Electors equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in Congress. . . . The Electors shall meet in their respective States and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. They shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed, to the seat of the Government of the United States directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed ; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers, not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President,

the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. . . . The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President."

The Electors are chosen on "the Tuesday next after the first Monday in November, in every fourth year succeeding every election of a President and Vice-President," on the same day and in the same manner as the people elect Representatives. The Electors meet on the first Monday of the January following, vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, and forward certificates of the votes given, to the President of the Senate, and also to the United States District Judge of the District in which they assemble. Congress then finishes these tedious proceedings by meeting in the Senate chamber on the second Wednesday of February following, when the Senate, with the House gravely regarding it, counts the votes.

It would seem much more simple and republican for the people to vote directly for the President and Vice-President, and thus do away with the clumsy Electoral College. One important objection to this plan, however is that in place of knowing on the day after election which candidate had been successful, the nation might have to wait days, and even weeks, until the count of the popular vote had been completed. Such delays would be not only very incon-

venient, but in times of heated contests even dangerous to the peace of the community,

The President resides in a mansion of classical simplicity placed in spacious and elegant grounds on Pennsylvania Avenue, opposite the beautiful Lafayette Park. As the home of all the Presidents since Washington, the building is an object of interest and even of veneration. "Executive Mansion," it is officially styled, but it is popularly known as the "White House." We have seen that it was designed by James Hoban in 1792. The corner-stone was laid on October, 13, 1792, and its construction went on side by side with that of the Capitol. It was finished before that famous structure, however, as President John Adams and his wife, on arriving here in November, 1800, found it habitable, although but six of its rooms were furnished, and the great East Room, the largest in the house, was littered over with lumber and carpenters' debris. In his design Hoban copied closely the plan of a notable Dublin palace, the seat of the Dukes of Leinster.

The White House is built of Virginia sandstone, so soft and porous that it is covered every year with a coat of white paint to prevent crumbling. The house stands on a rustic base, showing a façade of two stories on the north front and three on the south, and is surmounted by a balustrade. At the main entrance on the north front is a large portico, and on the south front a circular colonnade. The mansion is one hundred and seventy feet long and eighty-six feet deep. Adjoining the house on the west are large conservatories.

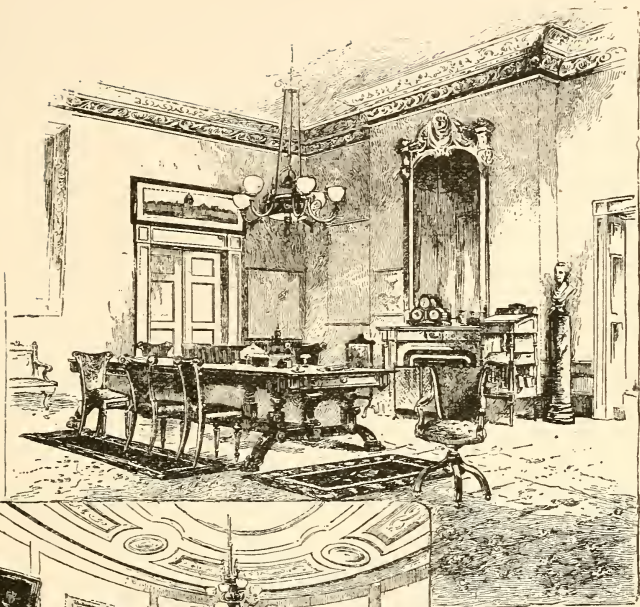
If we wish to pay the house—not the President—a visit we may do so almost any day between 10 A.M. and 3 P.M. The carriage rolls up a semicircular drive that sweeps through the spacious grounds between rows of noble oaks, poplars, and sycamores, and sets us down on the steps of the portico. We enter as we would any public edifice. The main door admits us to a spacious vestibule, from which, at the left, a passage conducts us to the East Room, the one public apartment of the White House. It is a large chamber eighty by forty feet, richly and tastefully fitted with furniture and hangings imported from France in the days of President Monroe. There are on the ground floor three other parlors known as the Green Room, the Blue Room, and the Red Room, and an apartment called the State Dining-Room, all of which are closed to visitors during the day, except that sometimes an usher, by special permission, conducts a party through them during the morning hours. The walls of the Green Room are covered with paper of a Nile-green color, threaded with sprays of gold, and its furniture is upholstered in green satin. In the Blue Room the President holds his state receptions. It is a large oval chamber, with walls of a pale-blue color, and furniture of gilt and blue silk. When the President receives he takes his station in this room; the guests enter from the cloak rooms, and are presented by the Marshal of the District of Columbia, or by some one designated to act in his place. After paying their respects the guests retire to the State parlors, which are open on such occasions. The Red Room, the

last of the State parlors, has crimson plush curtains at the windows and furniture upholstered with the same material. The walls are painted a Pompeian red, and bronze and copper stars decorate the ceiling. The names "Red Room," "Blue Room," etc., recall an old colonial custom, when the parlors and state chambers of mansions were named after the prevailing color of their appointments.

From the parlors we pass out into a long corridor, separated from the public vestibule only by a screen of glass, and from it enter the grand dining-room, where, once or twice a week during the season, are given the formal dinners to Justices of the Supreme Court, Cabinet officers, Senators and Representatives, foreign ministers, and other distinguished persons whom the President is expected officially to honor. This room is also elegantly furnished. On state occasions it is lighted by numerous gas-jets and wax candles, and with the glittering silver and china and floral embellishments of the table presents a bright and animated appearance.

The upper story of the mansion is devoted to the business offices and private apartments of the President. The apartments of public interest here are the Library, where the President receives callers during the day, and the Cabinet-room, where, each Tuesday and Friday, the President and his Cabinet meet for consultation.

The library is a very interesting apartment. The numerous book-cases around the room are filled with books said to have been selected by Mrs. Millard Fillmore, when her husband was President. The



ROOMS OF THE WHITE HOUSE.

I. CABINET ROOM.

2. PRESIDENT'S ROOM.

furniture is of mahogany upholstered in red leather. The massive desk which the Presidents use is of oak from the gallant ship *Resolute*, which the English Government sent to the Arctic zone, in 1852, to search for Sir John Franklin. The ship was abandoned in the ice by its crew in 1853, was found two years later in good condition and brought to New York by a New London whaler, and presented by the President to Queen Victoria, who had made from its timbers this famous desk, and then presented it to the United States for use in the White House.

One has only to recall the great state papers written upon the desk to perceive its historical importance and patriotic interest.

The principal feature of the Cabinet-room is a long table at which the President and his advisers sit for consultation on Cabinet days. If we could look in on them on such occasions we should find the President sitting at the head of the table, with the Secretary of State on his right hand and the Secretary of the Treasury on his left, these two gentlemen being considered the first and second in rank of the Cabinet officers.

All this that we have been recounting is of modern, every-day interest: the White House has also its romantic and historical interest, as when, ensconced in a quiet corner of the East Room, one recalls the distinguished men and beautiful and stately dames whose presence has lent it dignity. They come back at fancy's summons—John Adams and Mrs. Adams with their formal, courtly, colonial ways; Thomas Jefferson, the lonely widower, who thinks

he is inaugurating the rule of the people; the polished Madison, with his lovely, accomplished wife, in whose time the enemy overcame the city, and made of our stately pile a blackened ruin; Talleyrand, Chateaubriand, Thomas Moore, Volney, General Moreau, Joseph and Jerome Bonaparte, Dr. Priestley, the famous philosopher; Thomas Paine, the revolutionist; Baron Humboldt, who gave new worlds to science; Lewis and Clark, the explorers; Meley-Meley, the first Turkish Minister to America, whose elaborate head-dress and turban of plaster-of-Paris representing the finest muslin was the talk of the town; and Gilbert Stuart, the portrait-painter, who was nearly "worked to death," so eager were the ladies to have their beauty rendered immortal by his magic brush,—are some of the heroic figures of this era, closed by fire.

The work of restoring the mansion went on indefatigably under Hoban, the architect of the original building, and, on January 2, 1818, the *National Intelligencer* was able to say:

"The President's House for the first time since its restoration was thrown open yesterday for the general reception of visitors. It was thronged from 12 to 3 o'clock by an immensely large concourse of ladies and gentlemen, among whom were to be found the foreign ministers, heads of departments, Senators and Representatives, and others of our distinguished citizens, residents and strangers. It was gratifying to be able to salute the President of the United States with the compliments of the season in his appropriate residence."

The President thus saluted is the courtly soldier,

statesman, and diplomatist, James Monroe, who, nine months before, has been inaugurated fifth President of the United States. He has a lovely, interesting wife—the daughter of Lawrence Kortright, the former English army captain,—who, when he married her, in 1786, was the belle of New York society, but so great an invalid now that she mingles little in the social gayeties of the capital. In amends she gives weekly “drawing-rooms,” which the leading newspaper of the city thus describes—perhaps in exaggerated strains :

“The secretaries, senators, foreign ministers, consuls, auditors, accountants, officers of the army and navy of every grade, farmers, merchants, parsons, priests, lawyers, judges, auctioneers, and nothingarians, all with their wives, and some with their gawky offspring, crowd to the President’s House every Wednesday evening : some in shoes, most in boots, and many in spurs ; some snuffing, others chewing, and many longing for their cigars and whiskey-punches left at home. Some with powdered heads, others frizzled and oiled, with some whose heads a comb has never touched, half hid by dirty collars reaching far above their ears as stiff as pasteboard.”

It is still the reign of the people, you see. In March, 1820, there is a wedding here in the East Room, the first wedding in the White House, Maria Monroe, the youngest daughter of the President, being married to her cousin, Samuel L. Gouverneur, of New York. It is celebrated in what the gossips call the “New York style,” only the relatives and immediate friends of the bride being present.

Among the throng is a small, delicately-featured old

gentleman with wig awry—Lafayette, the friend of America and of humanity, whom, in 1824, President Monroe honors with a reception to which all the dignitaries of the nation are invited. To one of the state dinners of this period, too, comes James Fenimore Cooper, the novelist, whose “*Spy*,” “*Pioneers*,” and “*Pilot*,” recently published, have made him the popular literary idol.

The reign of John Quincy Adams succeeds,—not by the will of the people, whose idol is General Jackson, but by the decision of the House of Representatives, to which, in default of a majority in the Electoral College, the selection of a President has, under the Constitution, been referred. His is the most historic figure of these early days. Diplomat, senator, Harvard College professor, president, orator, poet, essayist, philosopher,—he is in all respects the best-graced actor that has appeared upon the scene. It is a charming and accomplished lady, too, who is now mistress of the mansion, the last of the ladies of the Revolution to reign here—Louisa Catherine Johnson, daughter of the United States Consul to London, born, brought up, and married in that city. Four years of the reign of the scholars, literati, and cultivated classes rather than of the people follow. The President, for once, is fond of letters and art, and loves to surround his hospitable board with scholars and travelled men, with whom he can discourse on poetry, music, painting, sculpture, and letters. Henry Clay, the Secretary of State, and William Wirt, the Attorney-General, are familiar figures in the White House during this period.

Here, too, in 1825, comes Lafayette to spend with his life-long friend the closing weeks of his stay in this country. We would like to know what was said and done by the two patriots in those last few weeks, but history is silent concerning it. At last the parting hour arrives. In the midst of a distinguished company Lafayette says farewell for the last time, and escorted by distinguished officers of government, and followed by the blessings of thousands who line the streets to see him pass, leaves the city.

At the next election, however, the people have their will, and General Jackson, the iron soldier, the popular hero, lonely and widowed, comes to the White House. His is an heroic figure, a strong soul that has left its impress here.

Martin Van Buren, the man of the world, who succeeds him, is also a widower, but the mansion soon finds a mistress in the charming South Carolina lady, Miss Singleton, who enters it in 1838 as the bride of Major Van Buren the President's son.

Van Buren's polished figure passes, and William Henry Harrison, another idol of the people, succeeds. Now death enters the mansion, and hallows it. On April 4, 1841, but one month after his triumphant entry, President Harrison dies here, and, pending the funeral, lies in state in the East Room. On the 7th impressive funeral ceremonies are held in the presence of President Tyler, Ex-President Adams, members of the Cabinet, of Congress, and other distinguished persons. Then the coffin, amid the booming of minute-guns, is carried to the Congres-

sional Cemetery and deposited in the receiving vault until preparations can be made for removing it to the family tomb at North Bend, Indiana. His successor, President Tyler, is the first to bring a bride to the mansion, having married at New York Miss Julia Gardiner of Gardiner's Island, in the summer of 1844. This honored lady is still living in Richmond, Virginia, and to a lady correspondent recently gave this pleasant and graceful account of the President's courtship and proposal.

"We met the President and became great friends, but I never thought of loving him then. I was not yet twenty and he was easily thirty-five years older than I, but I thought him very nice, and I was very gay and frivolous and of course was flattered by his friendship."

"How did he propose to you?"

"You will think me very foolish when I tell you about it," Mrs. Tyler said, her gray eyes beaming at the recollection. "I often think now how frivolous I was then. There was a grand reception held in the White House on Washington's Birthday. All the people of note were there, and it was very brilliant. I had been dancing with a young man who was not pleased with the attention the President had been paying me. We had just stopped and were walking about when the President came up, and drawing my arm through his, said to the young man: 'I must claim Miss Gardiner's company for a while.' The young man drew off and looked as if he would like to say, 'Well, you are impudent,' but he did n't. I walked around with the President and he proposed then. I had never thought of love, so I said, 'No, no, no,' and shook my head with each word, which flung the tassel of my Greek cap into his face at every move. It was undigni-

fied, but it amused me very much to see his expression as he tried to make love to me and the tassel brushed his face. I did not tell my father. I was his pet, yet I feared that he would blame me for allowing the President to reach the proposing point, so I did not speak of it to any one."

"How were you dressed the night the President proposed?"

"I wore a white-tarlatan. It was very pretty and very becoming. On my head I wore a crimson Greek cap. I was very gay and young or I never would have dared to toss the tassel in a President's face."

On the 28th of February, 1844, Commodore Stockton gave a grand party on board his flagship, the *Princeton*, then lying in the Potomac, to which the President and chief officers of state were invited. The frigate sailed down the river and on its return a gun fired in salute burst killing Secretary of State Upshur, Secretary of the Navy Gilmore, and several other prominent gentlemen, among them Miss Gardiner's father.

"After I lost my father," she continued, "I felt differently towards the President. He seemed to fill the place and to be more agreeable in every way than any younger man ever was or could be. He composed a very pretty song about me then—'Sweet Lady, Awake.' At last he proposed again and I wrote him I was willing this time, if my mother would consent. She told him that she would never consent to my marriage, but if I was determined she would not object.

"I was in deep mourning. So the President told only one member of his family, Gen. John Tyler, and I told

my immediate family. We were married very quietly on the 26th of June, 1844, in the Church of the Ascension, New York."

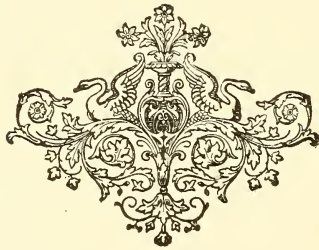
President Polk succeeds—a colorless figure, but his successor makes amends—Zachary Taylor, the hero of Palo Alto and of Buena Vista. His death on July 9, 1850, adds to the sadder chapters in the history of the mansion. Vice-President Fillmore fills out his unexpired term. The nebulous shape of Pierce succeeds, and then Buchanan comes in—a bachelor, but who provides a charming mistress for the mansion in his lovely and accomplished niece, Miss Harriet Lane. In her day the Prince of Wales, whom she had met at his mother's court, is for five days a guest at the President's mansion.

Buchanan is the last of the old régime. A stronger individuality succeeds, one of the Immortals—Abraham Lincoln, who alone has made the White House historic. One seems to see again the tall, slightly-bent figure, with the strong, patient face, standing by the west windows yonder, as at intervals for four long weary years it stood, looking off to the Virginia hills, awaiting tidings from the armies engaged in fratricidal strife.

Johnson, Grant—another historic figure,—Hayes, Garfield, Arthur—all save one passed into the land of shadows,—these have made the people's palace an American Valhalla, tenanted by the shades of the great and good of past generations.

Without doubt the White House is, as has been said, antiquated in appearance, deficient in sanitary requirements and modern conveniences, and should

be superseded by a President's house more in harmony with the wealth and dignity of the nation. But when this is done, another site should be chosen, and the present dwelling with its fittings and furniture be preserved intact—a second Mount Vernon—for the instruction and inspiration of the people.





CHAPTER XVI.

THE DEPARTMENTS.

THE President calls to aid him in his official duties seven administrative officers, who form collectively his Cabinet. These officers are: the Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Secretary of the Interior, the Postmaster-General, and the Attorney-General. Each of these officials, in addition to his advisory duties, is the head of a department in which a certain specified order of government business is transacted. We can most readily learn the nature and volume of this business by a tour of the departments themselves.

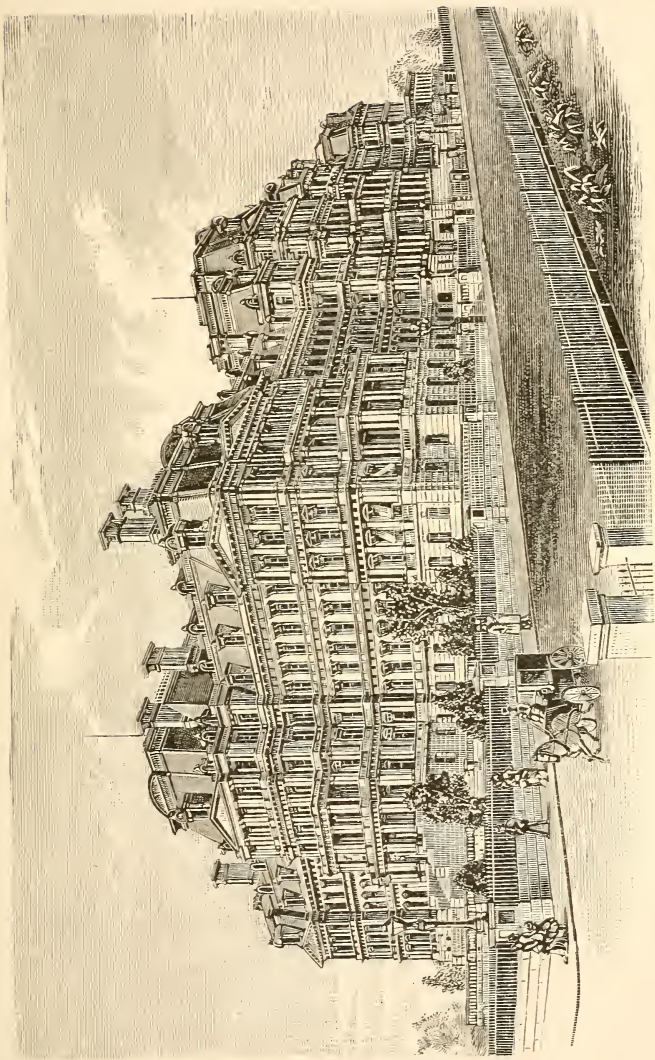
The State, War, and Navy Departments are lodged in the grand Renaissance building adjoining the White House on the west, which was begun in 1871, from designs of A. B. Mullett, supervising architect of the Treasury, and which is not yet entirely finished. In this building the State Department occupies the south front, the War Department the north front, and the Navy Department the east front.

We will first visit the State Department, which, as having charge of the entire foreign business of

government, is considered the most important. It is presided over, as we have seen, by the Secretary of State, who has to aid him in his duties three Assistant Secretaries, a Chief Clerk, and six Chiefs of Bureaus.

The duties of the Secretary of State, as officially defined, are: the conducting of correspondence with the public ministers and consuls of the United States, and with the representatives of foreign powers accredited to the United States; and to negotiations, of whatever character, relating to the foreign affairs of the United States. He is also the medium of correspondence between the President and the chief executive of the several States of the United States. He has the custody of the great seal of the United States, and affixes it to all state papers. He is also the custodian of the treaties made with foreign states, and of the laws of the United States. Further, he grants and issues passports, and exequaturs to foreign consuls in the United States must pass through his office. He publishes the laws and resolutions of Congress, amendments to the Constitution, and proclamations declaring the admission of new States, and he prepares certain annual reports to Congress, containing the commercial information which has been collected by consuls and other diplomatic agents.

The First Assistant Secretary becomes acting Secretary of State in case of the absence or disability of the Secretary, and he, with his subordinates, the Second and Third Assistant Secretaries, are charged with the supervision of the correspondence



STATE, WAR, AND NAVY BUILDING.

of the diplomatic and consular offices in the countries named in divisions A, B, and C of those bureaus, and in general with the preparation of the correspondence upon any questions arising in the course of public business. The Chief Clerk has the care of all the clerks and employés of the department. Of the six bureaus, it is the duty of the *Bureau of Indexes and Archives* to register and index daily the correspondence of the Department, to preserve the archives, and to be ready to produce at demand any letter or state paper that may be called for.

The *Diplomatic Bureau* has charge of the diplomatic correspondence with foreign countries, included in three divisions, A, B, and C, each under a responsible head.

The *Consular Bureau* conducts correspondence with consulates, and also has three divisions.

The *Bureau of Accounts* has the custody and disbursement of appropriations.

The *Bureau of Rolls and Library* has the care of the rolls, treaties, library, and public documents, including the very interesting revolutionary archives.

The *Bureau of Statistics* prepares the reports upon commercial relations.

The great volume of work thrown upon the department comes from the "foreign intercourse," as it is called, which is maintained by thirty-five legations and ten hundred and sixty-eight consular offices. There are also thirty foreign governments who have legations in this country.

The State Department was created in 1789 by the first Congress, and for some years had charge also of

the patent and copyright business, and of the affairs of the territories. The long corridors of the Department are paved with tiles, and its offices are decorated and handsomely furnished. The library, with its original copy of the Declaration of Independence and other interesting relics, is much frequented by visitors. Congress appropriates annually \$1,400,000 for the expenses of the State Department.

The Secretary of War, as every one knows, is charged with the care of the army. He has also other important duties—he has charge of the Signal Service, arranges the curriculum of the Military Academy, has charge of the public buildings and grounds in the District of Columbia, and of the national cemeteries; has direction of the construction of cribs or piers by owners of saw-mills on the Mississippi River; is required to keep in repair the Louisville and Portland Canal, must remove sunken vessels obstructing navigation, has control of the National Park on Mackinac Island in Michigan, and directs the expenditure of the appropriations for curbing and improving the Mississippi River.

He also submits an annual report to Congress of examinations and surveys of rivers and harbors made by the Engineer Corps, with a full statement of facts showing how such improvements will benefit the commerce of the country.

He has as assistants: a *Chief Clerk*, with duties like those of the Chief Clerk of the State Department; an *Adjutant-General*, who is really his secretary, and promulgates the orders and writes the letters

and reports of the Department; an *Inspector-General*, who inspects and reports upon the personnel and material of the army; a *Quartermaster-General*, who provides quarters and transportation for the army, and has charge of the national cemeteries; a *Commissary-General*, who provides food for men and animals; a *Surgeon-General*, who has charge of the medical department; a *Paymaster-General*, who pays the army; a *Chief of Engineers*, who has a variety of duties to perform—the care of forts and other defences, of military bridges, harbors and river improvements, military and geographical explorations and surveys, the survey of the lakes, and of any other engineering work that may be assigned him by the President or by Congress; a *Chief of Ordnance*, who has charge of the artillery, small-arms, and munitions of war of the army; a *Judge-Advocate-General*, who records proceedings of courts-martial, and furnishes reports and opinions on all questions of law that may be submitted to him; and a *Chief Signal Officer*, who instructs officers and men in signal duties, and has the reports from the numerous stations consolidated and published. Each of these officers is at the head of a Bureau, with a small army of clerks and employés, each with his prescribed duties to perform. There are in all about seventy-five clerks besides the heads of bureaus.

This force would require to be much larger if our army were kept upon a war footing like those of European countries. It is, however, against the spirit and letter of the Constitution to maintain a large standing army in time of peace, and our entire

military force at present comprises but forty regiments—ten of cavalry, five of artillery, and twenty-five of infantry—in all 2,143 officers and 23,335 enlisted men. About sixty millions annually are disbursed by the War Department.

The Navy Department, which we shall find on the east front, has “the general superintendence of the construction, manning, armament, equipment, and employment of vessels of war.” It has also its Chief Clerk, and the following heads of bureaus whose titles sufficiently indicate their duties: Chief of the Bureau of Yards and Docks, of Navigation, Ordnance, Provisions and Clothing, Medicine and Surgery, Construction and Repair, Equipment and Recruiting, Engineer-in-Chief, and Judge-Advocate-General. The naval force at present consists of 1,948 officers, 7,500 enlisted men, and 750 apprentices. There is also a Marine Corps of 2,028 men. About fifteen million dollars yearly are required to meet the expenses of the Navy Department.

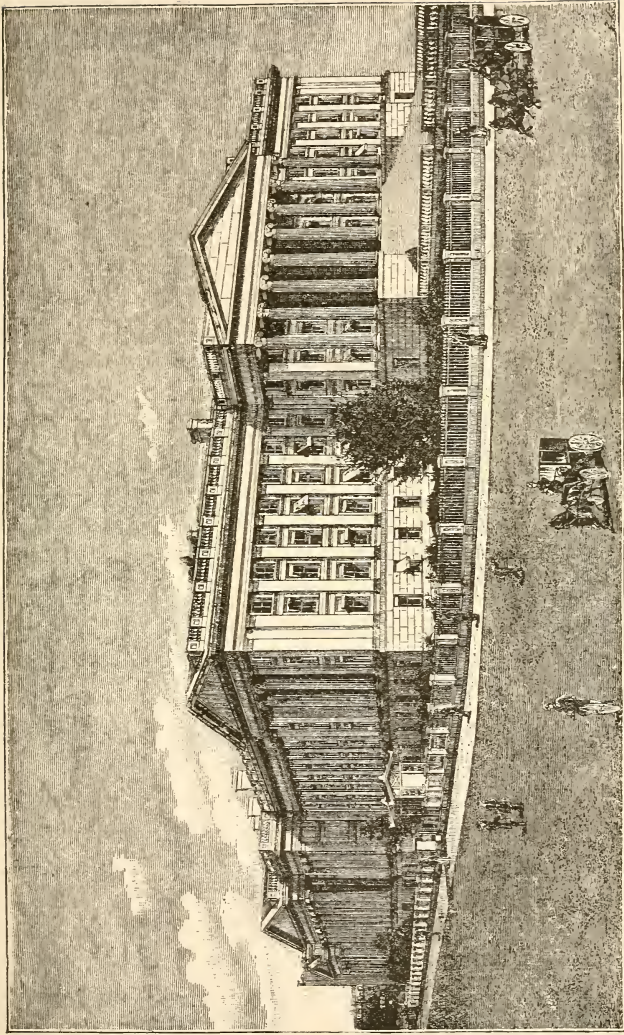
Having now finished our tour of the huge building—without, however, having stopped to notice, guide-book fashion, all its objects of beauty and interest,—we will go east along Pennsylvania Avenue to Fifteenth Street, and enter the immense freestone and granite building known as the Treasury—next to the Capitol the most conspicuous edifice in Washington, from the fact that it closes on the west the same vista—Pennsylvania Avenue—which the Capitol fills on the east.

The original building was designed by Robert Mills and was finished in 1841. The extensions,

designed by Thomas U. Walter, who was at that time architect of the Capitol, were completed in 1869. Next to the State Department the Treasury is the most important department of government, since it directs the financial policy of the nation, and is charged with the collection and, in a large degree, with the disbursement of the national revenues.

The Secretary of the Treasury has also cognizance of the construction of public buildings; the coinage and printing of money; the collection of statistics; the administration of the coast and geodetic survey, life-saving, light-house, revenue-cutter, steamboat-inspection, and marine-hospital branches of the public service. His force of employés—some three thousand in number—is larger than that of the other departments combined; the salary list amounts to some three million of dollars per annum.

If we stroll through the corridors of the mammoth building we may read over the doors the names of the various divisions by means of which its immense business is conducted in orderly and accurate fashion. They are—"Warrants, Estimates, and Appropriations," "Appointments," "Customs," "Public Moneys," "Loans and Currency," "Mercantile-Marine, and Internal Revenue," "Revenue-Marine," "Stationery, Printing, and Blanks," "Captured Property," "Claims and Lands," "Mails and Files," and "Special Agents." There are besides these the following "Offices," not all of which however are located in the building—"Supervising Architect," "Director of the Mint," "Superintendent of Engraving and Printing," "Supervising Surgeon-General of



Marine Hospitals," "General Superintendent of Life-Saving Service," "Supervising Inspector-General of Steamboats," "Bureau of Statistics," and "Light-House Board."

There are two Assistant Secretaries who share with the Secretary the general supervision of the Treasury, and a small army of high officials, whose duties, if specified, will give the general reader a good idea of the organization and methods of this great financial workshop.

There is, first, the Chief Clerk, who supervises, under the immediate direction of the Secretary and Assistant Secretary, the duties of the clerks and employés of the Department. Next comes the First Comptroller, who must countersign all warrants issued by the Treasurer, whether covering payments *into* the Treasury, or authorizing payments *out* of the Treasury. He must re-examine and revise all accounts audited by the First and Fifth Auditors, and by the Commissioner of the General Land Office, and recover all debts certified by him to be due the United States.

The Second Comptroller revises the accounts received from the Second, Third, and Fourth Auditors. The Commissioner of Customs revises and certifies accounts of revenues collected, and of disbursements for the collection of revenue, etc. The First Auditor receives and audits all accounts occurring in the Department, except those arising under internal-revenue laws. The Second Auditor examines various specified classes of accounts, such as arrears of pay and bounty due soldiers, accounts of

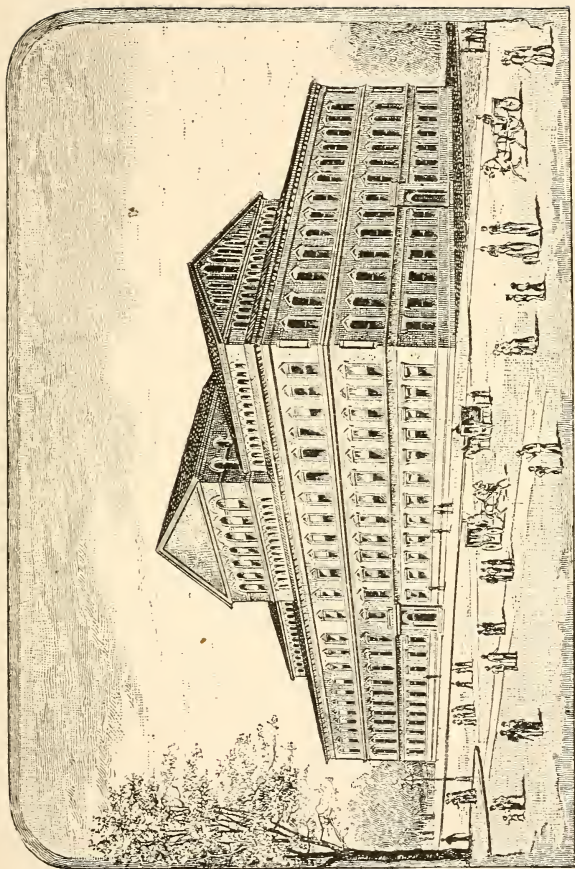
army paymasters, etc. The Third Auditor examines the remaining accounts of the army; the Fourth Auditor, those of the Navy; the Fifth Auditor, those relating to the Department of State, and the contingent expenses of the Post-Office Department; the Sixth Auditor, those of the Post-Office Department.

The Treasurer of the United States receives and disburses all public moneys deposited in the Treasury, the sub-treasuries at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, New Orleans, San Francisco, St. Louis, Chicago, and Cincinnati, and in the national banks; is trustee for bonds held to secure national-bank circulation, and custodian of Indian-trust-fund bonds; is agent for paying the interest on the public debt, and for paying the salaries of Representatives. The Register of the Treasury is the official bookkeeper of the United States. The Comptroller of the Currency has control of the national banks. The Director of the Mint has general direction of the mints and assay offices. The Solicitor of the Treasury takes cognizance of all frauds or attempted frauds on the government. The Commissioner of Internal Revenue assesses and collects all internal-revenue taxes. The titles of the remaining officials—Superintendent of Coast Survey, Surgeon-General of the Marine-Hospital Service, Inspector-General of Steam Vessels, Superintendent of the Life-Saving Service, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, and Chief of the Bureau of Engraving and Printing—sufficiently define their duties.

Visitors usually find the Treasury the most inter-

esting of the departments. A polite official is on duty after ten in the morning to escort visitors through the immense structure. The Redemption Bureau, the Treasury Vault, the Secret Service and Life-Saving-Service rooms, and the Bureau of Engraving and Printing are the most interesting. In the latter all the government engraving is done, and all the paper money issued by government is printed. This bureau occupies a separate building, placed on the public grounds at the foot of Fourteenth Street.

The Department of the Interior was established so recently as 1849. We shall find its large clerical force at work, a part of it in the great marble and granite building fronting on F Street, and covering the whole square embraced by F, Seventh, G, and Ninth Streets; and another large body in the new Pension Office on Judiciary Square. The Secretary of the Interior is a very important officer of government. He has charge of the public business relating to patents, pensions, and bounty lands; the public lands, including mines; the Indians; education; railroads; the public surveys; the census; the custody and distribution of public documents, and certain hospitals and eleemosynary institutions in the District of Columbia. He has to aid him two Assistant Secretaries; a Chief Clerk; a Commissioner of Patents, of Pensions, of the General Land Office, of Indian Affairs, of Education, and of Railroads; a Director of the Geological Survey, who has charge of the classification of the public lands, and the examination of the geological structure, mineral resources, and products of the national domain; a

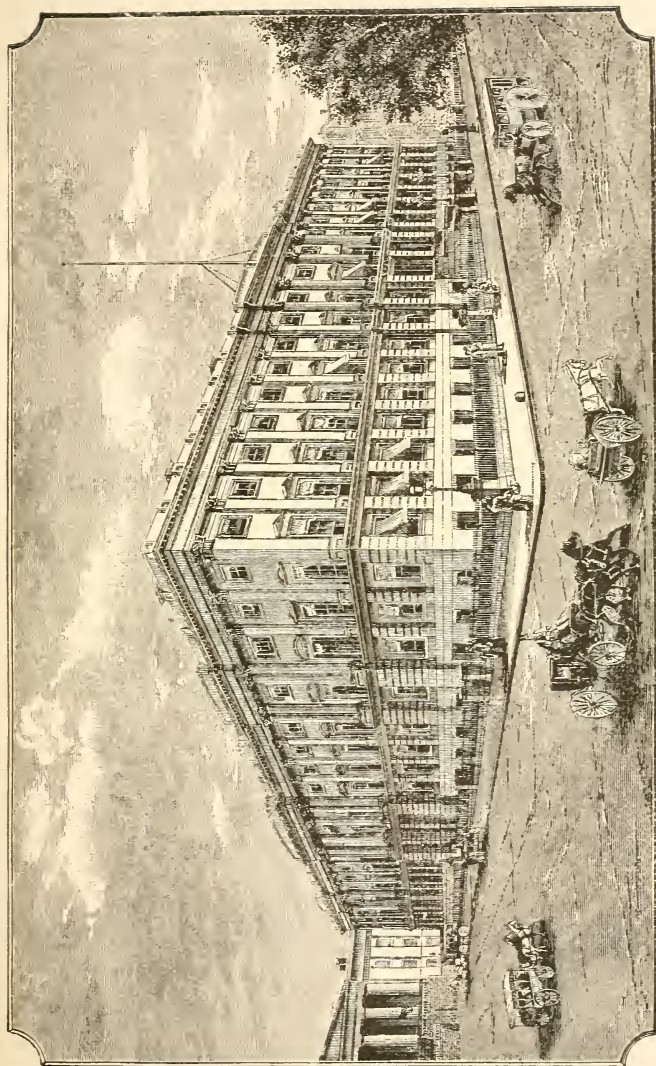


Commissioner of Labor, who collects information on the subject of labor, its relation to capital, the hours of labor, etc. ; and a Superintendent of the Census, who supervises the taking of each census of the United States.

The Post-Office Department is lodged in another of those white marble buildings of Grecian architecture, so popular with American architects a half century ago, which occupies the entire square bounded by Seventh, Eighth, E, and F Streets. It was erected in 1839 from designs by Robert Mills, and extensions were added in 1855, after designs of Thomas U. Walter, the total cost amounting to two millions of dollars.

The Postmaster-General has charge of the mail service of the United States. His subordinates comprise three Assistant Postmasters-General, a Superintendent of Foreign Mails, of the Money-Order System, and of the Dead-Letter Office. The Dead-Letter Office division is most interesting to visitors. Here all unmailable and undelivered matter is sent for disposition ; it examines and forwards or returns all letters which have failed of delivery, inspects and returns to the country of origin all foreign matter undelivered, records and restores to their owners letters and parcels which contain valuable enclosures, and cares for and disposes of all money, and negotiable paper found in undelivered matter.

The Department of Justice is another branch which the increasing needs of the country has recently called into being, it having been established in 1870. Its officers may be found in the

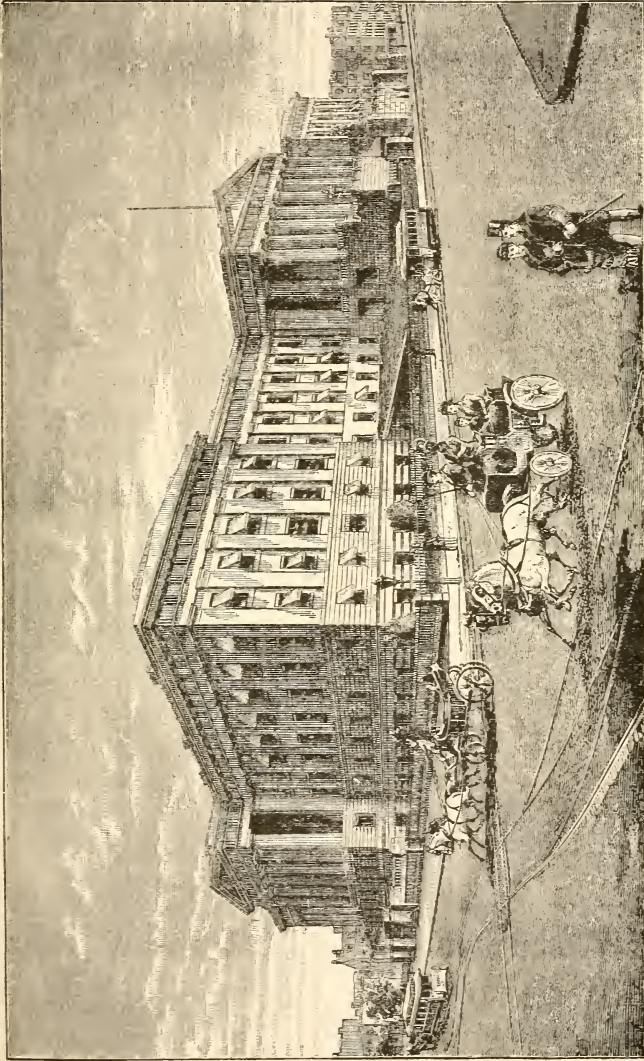


THE POST-OFFICE BUILDING.

brown-stone building on Pennsylvania Avenue near Fifteenth Street. Its head is the Attorney-General, who is the chief law officer of the government. He represents the United States in all matters involving legal questions, gives his advice and opinions on questions of law submitted by the President and heads of Departments, and exercises a general superintendence over United States attorneys and marshals, and all law business of the government. He is assisted by a Solicitor-General, and by two Assistant Attorneys-General.

The Department of Agriculture was established in 1862. Its building, just west of the Smithsonian Institution, was erected in 1868, and attracts attention from its perfect architectural finish and trimly cut grounds. It is the duty of its chief, the Commissioner of Agriculture, to collect and diffuse useful information on subjects connected with agriculture. Its chief officers and divisions are a Statistician, an Entomologist, a Botanist, a Chemist, a Microscopist, a Propagating Garden, a Seed Division, a Library, a Bureau of Animal Industry, a Forestry Division, and an Ornithological Division.

Such are the great departments of government. There is another arm of the service not yet noticed, in a measure distinct, yet which has a certain supervisory relation to all—the Civil-Service-Commission. This Commission has offices in the City Hall, and first began its duties in July, 1883. Its officers comprise three Commissioners, a Chief Examiner, a Secretary, and a Stenographer. It was created to secure a better class of officers in the civil service, and



THE PATENT OFFICE.

to inaugurate reforms in the methods of appointment to office. Before its day these appointments had been made largely on the score of party service or manipulation. The Commission is intended to secure them on the score of merit by competitive examinations. There are some 17,000 persons employed in the Departments which we have been considering, 6,000 of whom come within the provisions of the Civil-Service law. These provisions are, that clerkships in the eight executive departments at Washington paying not over \$1,800, and not less than \$900, with subordinate positions in the postal and customs service, shall be filled by a system of examinations intended to ascertain the capacity of the persons seeking such employment.

To detail the manner in which these examinations are made we will suppose that the reader is desirous of securing a government position under the Civil-Service Act. Instead of applying to his senator or other person of influence, he simply applies by mail—a postal card is sufficient—to the Commission at Washington, and receives by return mail an application paper telling him exactly what to do. All persons not under eighteen nor over forty-five, he learns, are eligible, but this limitation as to age does not apply to persons honorably discharged from the naval or military service of the United States. There are also blank spaces in the paper for the signing of his name, age, occupation, and residence. These statements must be sworn to, and confirmed by the vouchers of three persons. This paper is then forwarded to the Commission, which enters the

applicant's name upon its record, and in due time notifies him when and where the next examination will be held. These examinations are of three kinds, general, limited, and special—the two first-named being designed for clerkships and subordinate positions in the Departments, the last for positions in which technical and special knowledge is required. The limited examination is not at all formidable. It consists of writing from dictation and a printed form, and a few examples in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. The general examination includes the limited, and in addition questions on fractions, percentage, interest, discount, elements of bookkeeping and accounts, history, geography, grammar, and the government of the United States. The special examinations embrace a wide range of subjects and vary according to the branch for which they are held.

But suppose that you pass the examination, and that your name is so recorded on the list, then, when a vacancy occurs in a department, its head notifies the Commissioners, who immediately send him four names, taken from those who stand highest on the list, together with the examination papers. From these four names the official makes his choice, having regard to a just apportionment among the various States and Territories. It is self-evident that this is an excellent law, and that if honestly enforced it will do much to remove the idea that the civil service of the government is the property of one man, or of one party, to be used to reward political friends or punish political enemies.



CHAPTER XVII.

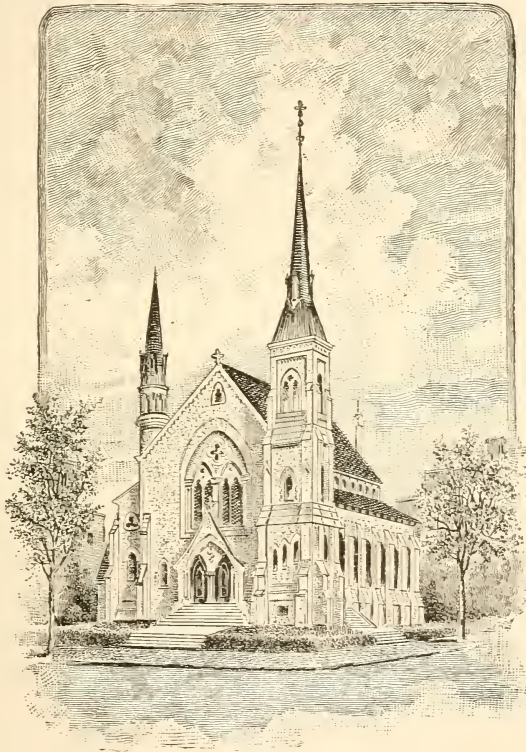
THE CHURCHES OF WASHINGTON.

WITHIN the past fifteen years much attention has been paid to church architecture, and the ecclesiastical edifices of this period will compare favorably with those of any American city. The Washington Directory gives the names of one hundred and eighty-three churches within the city limits.

A little outside of these limits is one of the oldest churches in the country—the pretty St. Paul's of Rock Creek Parish, on the borders of Georgetown. The early settlers of the district were of the Church of England, and had not been long established here when, under the leadership of one of their number—John Bradford,—they began the erection of this church. It was dedicated in 1719—forty-six years before the more famous Christ Church of Alexandria, and twenty-seven before the venerable St. Paul's of Norfolk. It is to be regretted that in the remodelling some years ago its ancient form was made to conform to modern requirements. Its old cemetery entombs many of the earlier inhabitants of Georgetown.

Another of these ancient and satisfactory church edifices, of which so many are scattered throughout

Maryland and Virginia, is Christ Episcopal Church, in the opposite quarter of Washington, near the Navy Yard. This church was erected in 1795, three



ASCENSION EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

years after the city had been laid out, and is the oldest church edifice within the corporate limits. For many years its handful of members had a hard

struggle to maintain their organization, but at last secured a firm and permanent foothold. In 1807, aided by citizens of the neighborhood, the church laid out, on the banks of the Eastern Branch, the "Washington Parish Burial Ground," which, a few years later, was selected by Congress for the interment of such of its members as should die in the city during their term of service, and hence was called the Congressional Cemetery.

The second Episcopal Church in the city was erected in 1816, in the north quarter, from designs by Benjamin H. Latrobe, one of the architects of the Capitol,—the present St. John's Church, on the corner of H and Sixteenth Streets, for many years the finest church edifice of the city. This church has been attended by many of the Presidents. President Madison worshipped there, and President Arthur, during his term, was a regular attendant. The third in order of erection was Trinity, on the corner of Third and C Streets. The other leading churches of this denomination are the Church of the Epiphany, on G Street Northwest, and the beautiful Church of the Ascension, on Massachusetts Avenue and Twelfth Street. There are twenty-five Episcopal churches in the city, twenty-two white and three colored.

The oldest Presbyterian church is the First Church on Four-and-One-Half Street, now attended by President Cleveland. The society was organized in 1795, and at first held its meetings in a temporary building on the White-House grounds, called the Hall. On the erection of the Capitol the society obtained

leave to hold its meetings in the Supreme-Court chamber, and later in the hall of the House. After the burning of the Capitol in 1814, the society continued without a place of worship for two years, but then built a small chapel south of the Capitol. This



FIRST PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH.

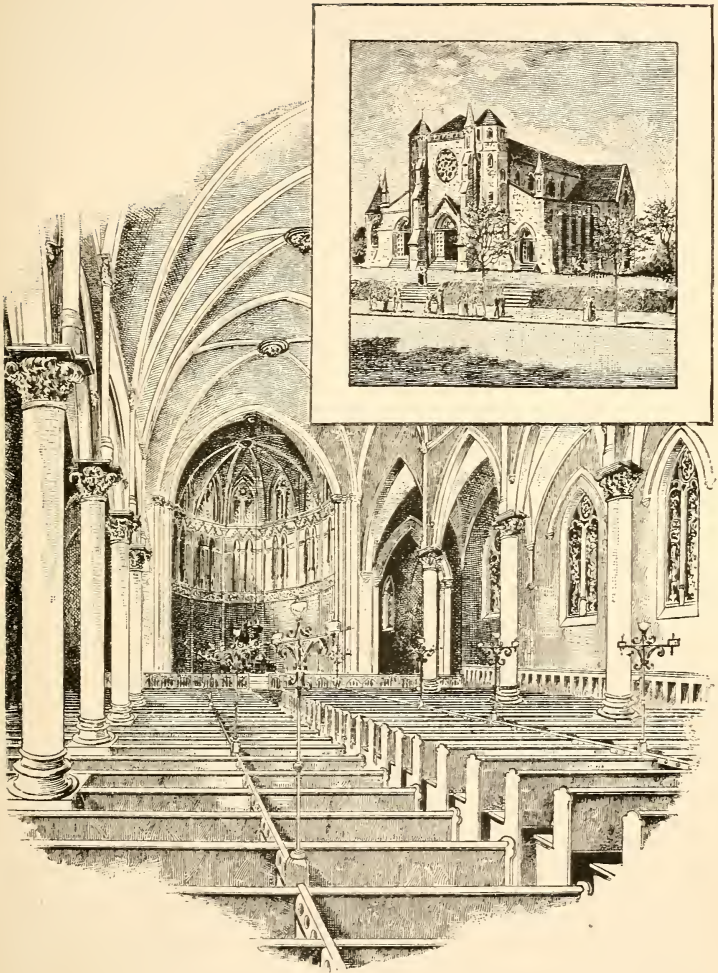
chapel remained in use until 1828, when the present site was secured and a church erected upon it, which gave place in 1859 to the present edifice. Presidents Jackson, Polk, and Pierce have been attendants

at its services. Another important church of this denomination is the New York Avenue, formerly known as the Second Presbyterian, in which President Jackson worshipped during his first term, and which was attended by Presidents Buchanan and Lincoln. There are fifteen Presbyterian churches in the city.

The Catholic Church has always been influential in Washington, both from having been early established here, and because many of the Diplomatic Corps have been members of its communion. Of its churches, St. Patrick's, on G Street Northwest,—dedicated in 1884—stands on the site of the pioneer church, which was built in 1804. Other prominent Catholic churches are St. Matthew's, St. Dominic's, and St. Aloysius'. St. Augustine's, on Fifteenth Street Northwest, is the largest colored church in Washington. There are fourteen churches of this communion in the city.

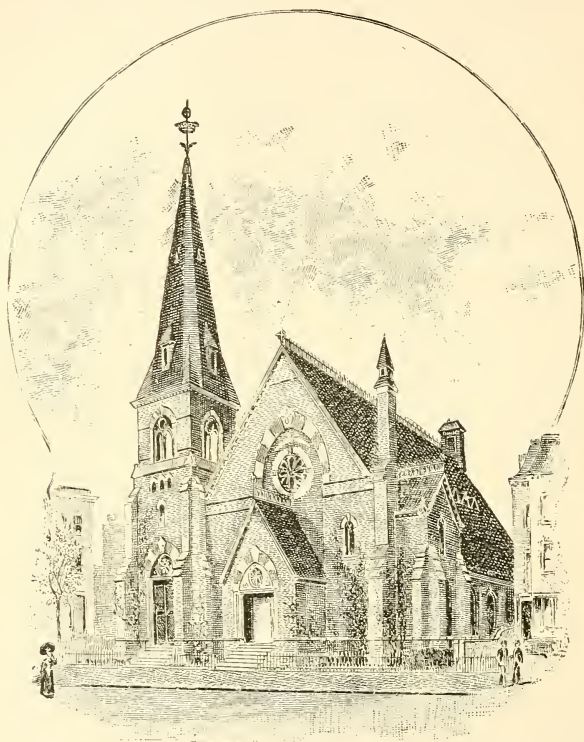
In numbers the Methodists and the Baptists lead. The oldest Methodist society in the city is the Dumbarton Avenue, which was organized in 1795. The Metropolitan, on the corner of Four-and-One-Half and C Streets, is the national church of the Methodists, and was attended by Presidents Grant and Hayes during their terms of office. The Methodists have sixty-two churches.

The first Baptist church was erected in 1803 on Thirteenth Street, between G and H. The denomination now numbers forty-six churches. There are six Congregational churches, ten Lutheran, one Unitarian — All Souls', — one Universalist, two



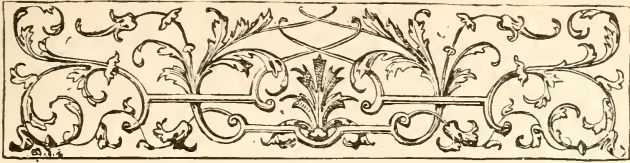
ST. PATRICK'S CATHEDRAL.

Friends, two Hebrew synagogues, one Swedenborgian, and two German Reformed. The beautiful Garfield Memorial Church on Vermont Avenue,



ALL SOUL'S UNITARIAN CHURCH.

erected in honor of President Garfield, is interesting to visitors as occupying the site of the little chapel of the Disciples' Church, in which he worshipped during his official residence in Washington.



CHAPTER XVIII.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

TWO years after the granting of a city charter—December 5, 1804—the City Council of Washington passed an act to establish “a permanent institution for the education of youth in the city of Washington.” This act provided for a board of thirteen trustees to superintend the public schools, and for the support of such schools appropriated the proceeds of taxes on slaves and dogs, the excise fees, etc., in amount not to exceed fifteen hundred dollars yearly. President Jefferson was elected president of the first board (which was organized on August 5, 1805), and in a letter dated at Monticello August 14th of that year gracefully accepted the position.

The original plan of this board was not for a system of public schools but for a great national university, the primary department of which was to be “schools for teaching the rudiments of knowledge necessary to the common purposes of life,” and this plan seems to have been followed by subsequent boards and by the corporation for forty years. An academy was organized, to consist of as many schools as circumstances should require, and which for a number of years consisted of but two—one in

the eastern quarter near the Capitol, and the other in the western district near the White House. These schools recognized two classes of scholars: "pay pupils," who paid five dollars per quarter for tuition, and in addition to the ordinary branches were instructed in geography and the Latin language; and the children of indigent parents, who were educated free. There was a principal teacher for each school, who received a salary of five hundred dollars per year with the "tuition money" until the number of pay pupils should exceed fifty; out of this sum he was to pay the salaries of assistant teachers, rent of school-house, fuel, and other expenses. For many years succeeding boards of trustees and the corporation endeavored to conduct the public schools upon this basis—with but indifferent success. There was the fatal distinction between "pay pupils" and "pauper pupils," and there was, too, the indifference of the people and of Congress to the necessity of popular education, which was shown in the reluctant and parsimonious appropriations of the City Council, and in the entire absence of appropriations by Congress.

By 1840, however, the increase of children of school age in the city was so great that the people became aroused on the subject. Mayor Seaton even made the subject a topic of discussion in his message of that year to the city councils—without result. He returned to the subject in his message of 1841, and startled the city by the statement that of the 5,200 white children of school age, but 1,200 were attending either public

or private schools. The discussion excited by this action resulted, in 1844, in the adoption of a much more liberal policy by the city. The annual appropriations were increased from an average of \$1,511 to over \$5,000, the money, after 1848, being raised in part by a tax of one dollar on every free white male citizen in Washington. In 1848 the old system was finally done away with by an act providing for the abolition of all tuition fees. It appears by a report of a committee to the Common Council that in 1842 there were but two public schools in the city, with an average attendance of one hundred scholars each, and that the two school-houses were uncomfortable and unsuitable. The schools from this time forward were placed on a much better footing. By act of November 1, 1848, the trustees were authorized to establish a High School, which however was not done. In 1860, under the amended city charter, an act was passed levying a tax of ten cents on every hundred dollars for the support of public schools, which was cheerfully acquiesced in by all classes of citizens. Under the operation of this law new school-houses were rapidly built, and furnished with improved apparatus. Up to 1866 the citizens of Washington had expended \$918,090.89 on their public schools.

In 1869 the office of Superintendent of Public Schools was created, and Mr. Zalmon Richards was appointed the first incumbent. He was succeeded in 1870 by Mr. James Ormond Wilson, who resigned in 1885, and was succeeded by Mr. William B. Powell the present incumbent. In September, 1873, a

normal school was opened with Miss Lucilla E. Smith as principal, which has done an excellent work in training teachers for the city and District schools. The present high school was organized in 1882. Meantime a system of common schools for the colored children of the city had been organized. There were schools for the education of the children of free colored persons in the District before the war. Mr. George F. Y. Cook, the present superintendent of colored schools, estimates that in 1859 1,200 colored children were being educated in the private schools of Washington and Georgetown. But in 1862 the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia, with the great number of contrabands arriving from the seceded States, added largely to the list of those demanding to be taught, and the first free school for colored children was organized under the auspices of the American Tract Society. This first school was opened in the buildings known as Duff Green's Row, north of the Capitol grounds. A month later a second was opened as a night-school, in the basement of the Union A. M. E. Church, on M Street North, which, in a few months, became a day-school also. During the autumn of 1863, and the first few months of 1864, five more similar schools were established by the Freedmen's Relief Association of the District of Columbia. In response to appeals various religious and benevolent societies and charitable individuals at the North forwarded such pecuniary aid that the managers were able to report in the spring of 1864, 11 schools with 21 teachers and 1,000 pupils; in 1864-5, 27 schools with 61 teachers

and 1,000 pupils ; in 1865-6, 40 schools with 72 teachers and 3,930 pupils ; in 1866-7, 55 schools with 75 teachers and 3,427 pupils ; in 1867-8, 21 schools with 21 teachers and 1,200 pupils. After 1867-8, all the societies except one, withdrew their aid, and the existence of the schools as charitable institutions practically ceased. They were, however, soon merged in the public schools. During their existence \$150,000 had been contributed for their support, and hundreds of devoted men and women had given their services as instructors.

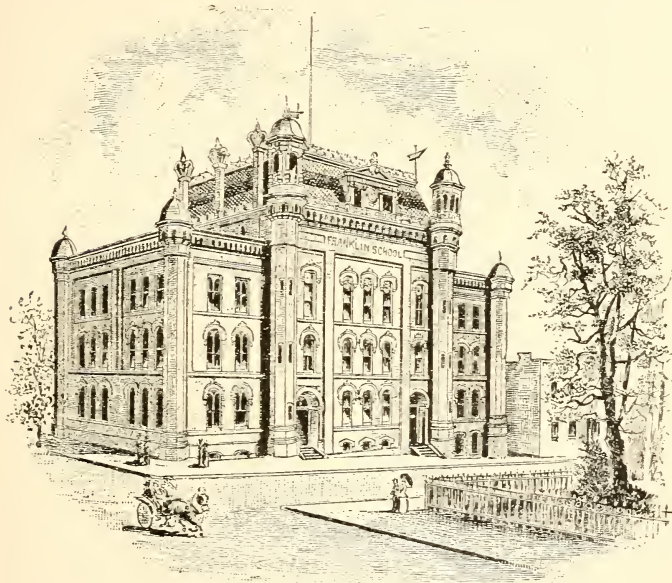
In this same year, 1867-8, there were in the cities of Washington and Georgetown 41 public schools for colored children, with 41 teachers and 2,300 scholars, which had grown up under a law of Congress, enacted May 21, 1862, which provided that ten per cent. of the taxes collected in the two cities from people of color should be set apart for the purpose of initiating a system of primary schools for the education of colored children. This act was amended by another which passed Congress in June, 1864, providing that such a proportion of the entire school fund of the two cities should be set apart for colored schools, as the whole number of colored children of school age bore to the whole number of children in the two cities, thus putting them on the same footing with the whites. In 1874-5 the colored schools had grown under this provision to 75, with 89 teachers and 5,489 scholars, and in 1886-7, to 168 schools and 176 teachers and 10,345 scholars.

With this historical summary of the public school system of Washington, it will be interesting to make

a brief inquiry as to its present status and personnel. This is believed to be equal to that of any city of the Union. Washington City (and County) has now 568 schools, in which 33,418 children, white and colored, are enrolled, under the care of 614 teachers. The system comprises, first, a normal school, for the education of teachers; second, a high school; third, grammar schools, of four grades, from the eighth to the fifth, inclusive; and fourth, primary schools, of four grades, from the fourth to the first. The normal school has 5 instructors and 40 pupils, and is largely recruited from the high school graduates. The high school has 827 pupils and 29 instructors. Of the grammar schools there are 150 in the city, and of primary schools 194. For convenience in supervising, the entire territory is divided into six districts, called divisions, each division being in charge of a supervising Principal, and the whole under the direction of a Superintendent of Public Schools. The colored schools have their own superintendent, their normal school with 20 pupils, a high school with 276 students, and grammar and primary schools organized in the same manner as the white schools.

During the school year ending June 30, 1887, manual training was introduced, and has become a marked feature of the system. In 1887, Congress appropriated \$5,000 for this work, which was supplementary to a small appropriation made as an experiment the preceding year. With this, schools of woodwork have been established in several localities for boys of the seventh and eighth grades, and

cooking-schools for the instruction of girls of the same standing; and in the high-school building a school of metal-working, including iron and steel-forging, molding, and turning, is in successful operation at the present writing—November, 1888. All



FRANKLIN SCHOOL BUILDING.

girls of the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades receive instruction in sewing, 1,300 girls of the seventh and eighth grades in cooking, 1,800 boys of the seventh and eighth grades in woodwork, and 125 boys of the high school in ironwork.

Six night-schools—three white and three colored

—form a part of the system. In school accommodations the city is sadly deficient. For the 400 schools under Superintendent Powell, there are but 331 rooms, and 55 of these are pronounced to be dark, small, and inconvenient, without proper means of ventilation, and entirely unfit for school purposes. In the colored schools the rooms are equally inadequate. This is due partly to the rapid growth of the city, but largely to the culpable negligence or refusal of Congress to pass the necessary appropriation bills. Some of the school buildings erected in recent years are models of their class. Jefferson, on Sixth and D Streets Southwest, has 24 rooms, and desks for 1,200 pupils. Franklin, on the corner of Thirteenth and K Streets Northwest, cost \$225,000, and took the prize as a model school-building at the Vienna Exposition. The Sumner (colored), corner of Seventeenth and M Streets Northwest, was erected at a cost of seventy thousand dollars. At its session of 1887 Congress provided for seven new buildings, four of which were filled by the increase in population during that year. And at its session of 1888 it provided for the erection of eleven additional school-buildings, all of which are models of convenience and in their provisions for light and ventilation.



CHAPTER XIX.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.

IN the number, variety, and extent of its public institutions Washington is fast assuming a position worthy of the capital city. These institutions are of three kinds,—governmental, city, and those of private origin. Of the first named the Smithsonian Institution is easily chief. The visitor will easily recognize it in the red sandstone building of Norman architecture standing in the Mall south of the Botanical Gardens. It had a singular and romantic origin. In 1829 an English scientist named James Smithson, died in Genoa, Italy, and bequeathed his entire estate “*to the United States of America, to found at Washington, under the name of the Smithsonian Institution, an establishment for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men.*” The American government did not learn of this legacy until 1835, when President Jackson in a message informed Congress of its existence. Hon. Richard Rush was at once sent to England to secure it, and in 1838 succeeded after a hard struggle. The estate was shipped in British gold to the United States Mint at Philadelphia, and being recoined there, was found to amount to the sum of \$508,318.46, which was at

once put aside as a special fund. In 1864 a residuary legacy of \$26,210.63 was received. By saving the income of the original fund, investing the interest profitably, etc., an addition of \$108,620.37 was made in 1867 to the principal, which was still further increased in 1881 by the sale of certain Virginia stock, so that the permanent fund of the institution now held by the government is \$703,000, which yields an interest of \$42,180—the annual income of the institution.

At first the members of Congress were greatly puzzled how best to apply this fund "*for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men.*" Many theorists came forward with their projects; at last, in August, 1846, a bill was passed formulating a plan which was largely a compromise between conflicting theories.

That plan in its general scope was to initiate and prosecute original methods of abstruse research especially in lines not occupied by other organizations. First, by "stimulating scientific inquiry, initiating and developing interest in various branches of knowledge, calling forth the latent energy of the nation and of individuals, directing it into profitable channels, publishing to the world new discoveries, and bringing about an interchange of thought between scientists everywhere; and second, the establishing at Washington of (1) an immense collection of books unique in character, and found nowhere else to so great an extent, viz., the transactions of learned societies and the records of discovery and invention, and (2) of an unrivalled national museum

of objects of nature and art, with special reference to the illustration of the animal, vegetable, mineral, and industrial resources of the continent of North America."

To learn how admirably this plan has been carried out one has only to stroll through its own Museum of Natural History, through the National Museum



THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTE.

adjoining, with its multitudinous objects and relics of historical, ethnological, and industrial interest, study its collection of one hundred thousand rare and valuable books deposited in the Congressional Library, and examine its three series of portly quarto and octavo volumes known collectively as "The Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge."

This success is due not a little to its managers, the "Board of Regents." This body is composed of fourteen persons—the Vice-President, the Chief-Justice, three Senators, three Representatives, and six persons elected by Congress, no two being chosen from the same State. Many of the most eminent men of the United States have been members of this board. The most eminent for his services to the Institution was Professor Joseph Henry of the College of New Jersey (Princeton), who was elected its secretary and chief executive officer in 1846, and discharged the duties of that office with rare ability and success until his death in 1878.

There is also an honorary board, "The Establishment," composed of the President and Vice-President of the United States, members of the Cabinet, the Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court, and the Commissioner of Patents, which visits the institution annually, and has advisory powers.

The Smithsonian building is in itself a pleasing study. It is built of the lilac-gray freestone found in the new red sandstone formation of the Potomac, in the old Romanesque style of architecture current in Normandy in the twelfth century, when the rounded style was about merging into the early Gothic. The entire length of the building from east to west is 447 feet, and its greatest breadth 160 feet. There are nine towers, the highest rising 150 feet. The corner-stone of the building was laid on the first of May, 1847, and it was completed in 1855.

The National Museum, to which reference has been made, stands on the Smithsonian grounds, and

is a part of that institution. Its noble edifice, built of brick in variegated courses, covers two and one half acres, and was completed in 1876. Included in its immense collection are the art treasures presented to the United States by the nations which exhibited at the Centennial Exposition of 1876, the Washington relics, the swords and other gifts presented to General Grant at various times, and other mementos of national heroes.

Just east of the National Museum is the new Army and Navy Medical Museum, which is of interest chiefly to physicians and surgeons; and a short distance to the north, through the same great public reservation—the Mall,—the Botanical Gardens. These grounds comprise ten acres, beautifully laid out, and the large conservatory is filled with the rarest plants and flowers from all parts of the world.

Another government institution of national reputation is the Naval Observatory, whose spacious grounds, of some twenty acres, may be found at the foot of Twenty-fourth Street, bordering on the Potomac. It was founded by government in 1842 for the prosecution of scientific and astronomical and meteorological researches. It has a library of six thousand volumes, chiefly of meteorological and astronomical discoveries and researches; a chronometer room, where all the chronometers used in the navy are tested, and whence at noon daily the exact time is telegraphed over the country; and the famous equatorial telescope, made by Alvin Clark & Sons, of Cambridgeport, Massachusetts, in 1873, the largest in the world. This instrument is 32 feet in

length, and has an object-glass with a clear aperture of 26 inches.

The Columbian University, on the corner of H and Fifteenth Streets, is the leading educational institution of the city. It is the outcome of the plan of a great national university so strenuously advocated by Washington, Jefferson, Joel Barlow, Fulton, and other fathers of the Republic; it was incorporated by Act of Congress of February 9, 1821, as Columbian College, but in 1873 was re-incorporated as a university. It has regular collegiate, law, and medical departments, and is in a flourishing condition.

Howard University, located on a commanding site, near the northern boundary, is devoted to the higher education of the colored race. It has a large, well arranged building, extensive grounds, and schools of theology, law, and medicine, as well as collegiate departments, and an average attendance of three hundred students. It was founded in 1867, and named after its first president, General Oliver O. Howard.

Beyond it, adjoining the National Military Cemetery, is the Soldiers' Home, a beautiful place, with its seven miles of drives and five hundred acres, attractively laid out in lawns, meadows, gardens, and lakes. The Home was founded through the efforts of General Scott as a military asylum, but when, after the civil war, the national homes for indigent soldiers were established, it was transformed into one of these excellent institutions. It was the favorite summer home of Presidents Lincoln and Grant, and is now a favorite resort for citizens of Washington.

If one drives out over the northeastern boundary line of the city a short distance, he comes to Kendall Green, a tract of some one hundred acres, beautifully laid out. In the midst of this park stands another worthy government beneficiary—the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and National Deaf-Mute College. This institution was founded by Congress in 1857 for the primary instruction of deaf-mutes in the District of Columbia, but in 1864 its scope was greatly enlarged by the establishment of a National Deaf-Mute College, to which students from all parts of the country were to be admitted. This institution had its origin in a small school for deaf-mutes established on the green by Amos Kendall, who from 1835 to 1840 was Postmaster-General. He employed as teacher Edward M. Gallaudet, a son of the Dr. Gallaudet of Hartford, so well known for his efforts in behalf of deaf-mutes, and in 1859 erected a brick building for the use of the school and also set apart ten acres of his estate as a play-ground and gardens. His work attracted public attention, and several scholarships were founded and other aid extended. In 1872, three years after Mr. Kendall's death, Congress was induced to purchase the entire Kendall Green, and has since assumed charge of the schools. No similar institution in the country is said to bear so high a character. Its college is the only one in the world where deaf-mutes may obtain a collegiate education. Many of its graduates have attained distinguished success in the professions. There is a primary department in which pupils are taught sign-language,

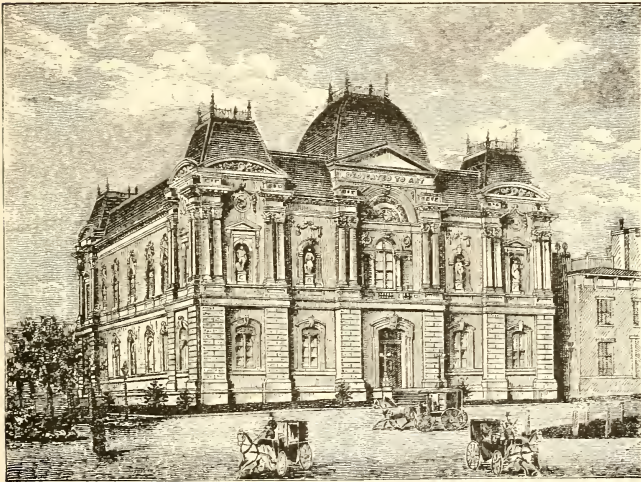
articulation, and lip-reading. The college curriculum embraces Latin, French, and German, the higher mathematics, the natural sciences, ancient and modern history, etc. The French method—sign language—is generally followed, although the German methods—articulation and lip-reading—are used to some extent. The very efficient President is Dr. Edward Gallaudet, who has had the care of the institution from the beginning.

Another very important government institution is the Hospital for the Insane, which occupies an elevated site on the eastern bank of the Anacostia, about a mile from the city limits. It has grounds of about five hundred acres in extent, attractively laid out. Its hospital buildings, erected in 1855, will accommodate about one thousand patients. It is devoted to the care of the insane of the army and navy and of the District of Columbia.

Of institutions of private origin the most important and interesting is the Corcoran Gallery of Art on Pennsylvania Avenue and Seventeenth Street, opposite the War department. This institution with its noble building, its endowment fund of \$900,000, its collection of paintings, statues, and other works of art, is the free gift to the public of a citizen of Washington, the late Mr. William W. Corcoran.

In his deed to the trustees dated May 10, 1869, the generous donor defined the object of the institution to be "the perpetual establishment and encouragement of Painting, Sculpture, and the Fine Arts generally," and appended the condition that it should be open to visitors without charge two days

in the week, and on other days at moderate and reasonable charges, to be applied to the current expenses of procuring and keeping in order the building and its contents." The building is of the Renaissance style; it was designed by Mr. James Renwick of New York, and was completed in 1871.



CORCORAN GALLERY OF ART.

The institution was chartered by Congress in May, 1870, and the initiatory "private view" was given on the 19th of January, 1874. Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays are "pay days." On other days the admission is free. The entrance from the avenue is into a wide vestibule, from which a broad staircase ascends to the picture galleries, which occupy the second story. On either side the stair-

way are corridors leading to the vestibule of the main hall of sculpture, which communicates with the latter by means of three arched entrances. In the various galleries are some mediocre works, and many of rare interest and value. Most of the leading artists of the world are represented. The Gallery has also a complete collection of portraits of Presidents of the United States and of many other distinguished Americans, many fine bronzes, and large collections of ceramic ware. The cost of the building and ground was \$250,000. The endowment fund is \$900,000. The gift of Mr. Corcoran in pictures and statuary was estimated at \$50,000; so that the total benefaction amounted to \$1,200,000.

Mr. Corcoran was born in Georgetown, within the present city limits, on December 27, 1798, and resided during his active and honorable career as a banker in the city of his birth. His benefactions were not limited to the Gallery of Art. In 1871 he founded the Louise Home for reduced gentlewomen, bestowing upon it an elegant and spacious building on Massachusetts Avenue near Fifteenth Street, and an endowment of \$250,000. His payment of a debt of gratitude,—a debt properly due from the nation,—by restoring the dust of John Howard Payne to its kindred dust, is still fresh in the public mind; and many other benefactions might be recorded. Mr. Corcoran died in Washington on February 24, 1888.

The Masonic fraternity has been strong and influential in the city since the day it aided General Washington to lay the corner-stone of the Capitol,

and has participated in all celebrations of civic or national character. By 1816 there were two lodges in the city. Its present membership is computed at three thousand. Its fine temple, on the corner of F and Ninth Streets Northwest, built in 1868 of granite and Nova Scotia freestone, is one of the institutions of the city. Some of the most brilliant balls and assemblies of recent years have been held in its hall.

The Congressional Cemetery, to which reference has been made, is interesting from the number of distinguished men that sleep there.

Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, is buried there beneath a monument erected to his memory by Congress. Near by is the tomb and monument of William Wirt, the orator and jurist. General McComb, the predecessor of General Scott as Commander-in-Chief of the army, General Jacob Brown, A. P. Upshur, Secretary of State under President Tyler, and Commodore Isaac Chauncey are also buried there. In the public vault in the centre of the ground, the remains of President Taylor and of John C. Calhoun were laid pending their interment in native soil. A number of lots are reserved for the interment of Congressmen who may die in the discharge of their official duties, in return for donations made by government; but otherwise Congress has no control over it, ownership being vested in Christ Church, as narrated in Chapter XVI.

One hundred and forty cenotaphs, erected by Congress to the memory of such of its members as have died during their term of service, are a feature of the grounds.

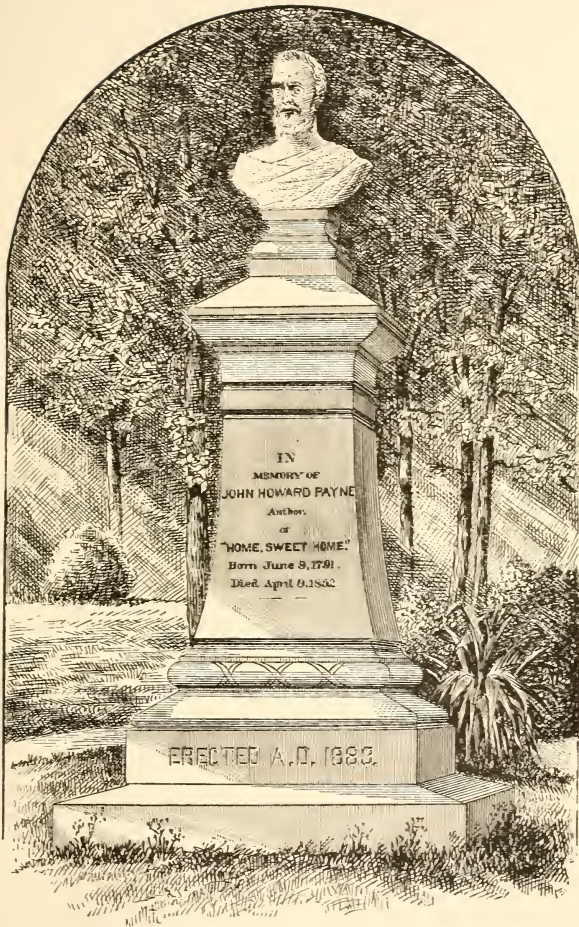
Oak Hill Cemetery, equally interesting, lies in the opposite quarter of the city, along the banks of Rock Creek, within the former limits of Georgetown. It was incorporated so recently as 1849, one half of its twenty-five acres, with some \$90,000 for improvements, being donated by Mr. Corcoran. The Corcoran family tomb is here, with the Van Ness mausoleum, which formerly stood on H Street, and many distinguished dead, among them Chief-Justice Chase, Secretary Stanton, Professor Joseph Henry, and General Eaton, who achieved no little prominence in the Barbary troubles.

The chief object of interest to visitors is the mausoleum, beneath which repose the remains of John Howard Payne, which in 1883 were brought to this country from Tunis, Africa, where he died in 1852 while in the service of government, and deposited here with appropriate ceremonies.

Of eleemosynary institutions the city directory gives thirty-three, most of which receive aid from Congress. The City Asylum, on the banks of the Anacostia, was erected in 1859 for the poor of the District.

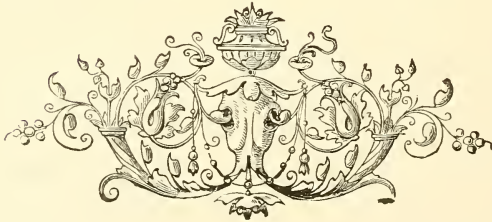
The Freedman's Hospital, in the northern part of the city, was erected by government for the needs of freedmen, but of late has admitted white patients. The Providence Hospital, in southeast Washington, in charge of the Sisters of Charity, was erected in 1867 largely by national aid, and it receives each year appropriations from the national treasury.

The City Orphan Asylum, the Columbia Hospital for Women, the Garfield Memorial Hospital, the



GRAVE OF JOHN HOWARD PAYNE AT OAK HILL CEMETERY.

Children's Hospital, the St. John's Hospital, the Home for the Aged, the National Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphan Home, the St. Ann's Infant Asylum, the St. Joseph Male Orphan Asylum, the St. Vincent Female Orphan Asylum, and the Epiphany Church Home are important and beneficent institutions.





CHAPTER XX.

THE MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

THE city government of Washington is in many respects an anomaly in municipal governments, and in its machinery and results may well challenge the attention of students of political science. In its system three commissioners, appointed by Congress, are the source and fountain of power. Washington was formally chartered in 1802 with a municipal government on the old English plan—Mayor and Common Council,—which remained in force until 1871, when it was succeeded by a territorial form of government, with a governor and delegate in Congress. But this, after a few years' trial, proved unsatisfactory, and by act of Congress, approved June 11, 1878, the present city and District government was created. This is so novel in its provisions and has proved so satisfactory, that it should be described in detail.

The first section of the act provides that all the territory ceded to the Congress of the United States by the State of Maryland for the permanent seat of government should continue to be known as the District of Columbia, and should continue to remain a municipal corporation, the commissioners there-

after provided for to be deemed and taken as officers of such corporation. These commissioners were to be three in number: two to be appointed from among the citizens of the District by the President and confirmed by the Senate; the third to be an officer of the Corps of Engineers of the United States Army, whose lineal rank should be above that of captain, and to be detailed by the President. These three commissioners virtually constitute the District and city government, performing both legislative and executive functions. Their duties, as defined by the act, are: to apply revenues; to take charge of District records and moneys; to annually investigate and report upon charitable institutions; to make police, building, and coal regulations; to report number of inspectors and overseers; to locate and change hack stands; to abolish and consolidate offices; appoint to, and remove from office; prescribe time for payment of taxes, etc., and settlement and adjustment of accounts; sign all contracts; approve bonds of contractors; and to perform the duties of the Board of Police, Board of Health, and of school trustees; to cause water, gas, and sewer services to be adjusted before street improvements are made; to exact just and reasonable rates for gas; to report drafts of additional necessary laws; and to annually report an account of their proceedings to Congress.

One of their number is, by virtue of his office, trustee of the Columbia Hospital and of the Reform School. All revenues collected by them are turned into the Treasury of the United States; and their

accounts, after being approved by their own auditor, are passed upon by the auditor of the United States Treasury. The fire, police, school, street-cleaning, building, and sanitary regulations, departments of the ordinary municipality, are merged in this one responsible head. As a consequence, the citizen of Washington enjoys cleaner, better regulated streets, greater immunity from crime, better schools (so far as the power of the commissioners extends), more and better kept parks and public gardens, than the citizen of any city of equal size in the country. His taxes are comparatively low—one and one half per cent. ; he escapes the extortions of gas companies ; he buys wholesome provisions in five large, clean, airy markets ; he can ride from one end of the city to the other on different lines by the payment of a four cent fare ; and he is certain that the taxes he pays are devoted to the public good. Then he is not subjected to the worry and turmoil of annual elections. That pleasant land heretofore deemed in Utopia, where local politics and politicians never trouble the citizen, is to be found only at the capital. The municipality is divided into eight school districts—six white and two colored.*

There are three departments: A police depart-

* The first, second, third, fourth, and fifth school districts embrace the white schools of Washington and Georgetown ; the sixth district the white and colored schools of the District outside of the limits of the cities mentioned ; the seventh and eighth divisions embrace the colored schools in Washington and Georgetown. There are no wards in the cities recognized now—the only divisions are the police and fire districts, which are made to correspond, and the school divisions before mentioned.

ment, with eight precincts; a fire department, of nine companies; and a health department,—all under the eye of the commissioners.

The District judiciary is a distinct and independent organization. Its official title is "The Supreme Court of the District of Columbia." It has six judges—a chief-justice and five associate justices, and occupies what was formerly the City Hall, the government having purchased the entire building from the former corporation. The Supreme Court of the District holds special terms, one each for probate, chancery, circuit, and criminal business; and also sits in general term to hear cases on appeal from the lower courts, at which all the justices preside except the justice who has heard the case on appeal.



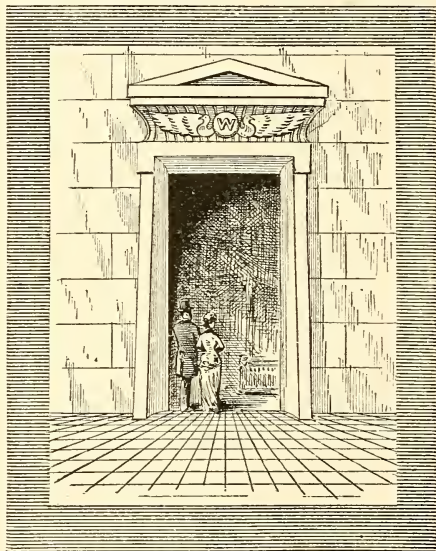


CHAPTER XXI.

THE WASHINGTON MONUMENT.

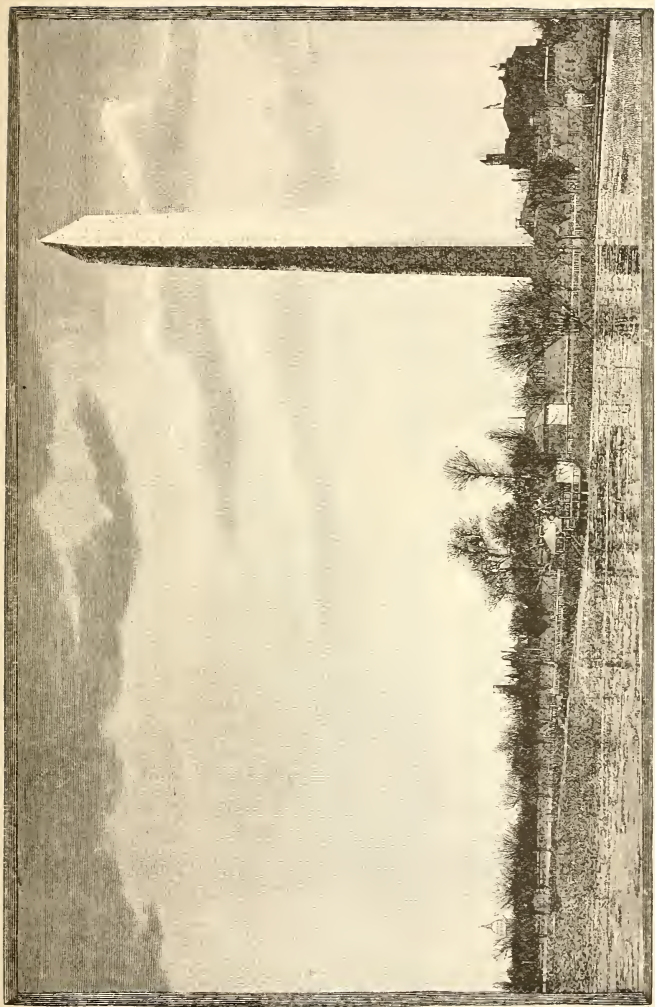
ONE of the great features of the capital city is the Washington Monument, the highest artificial elevation in the world. From the city streets it is seen closing all vistas. Wherever one wanders, even into the deep valleys of the Potomac's affluents, one sees its white tip rising over the hills. The huge obelisk was ninety-three years in the building. In L'Enfant's original plan of the capital there is mention of an equestrian figure of George Washington, which had been voted in 1783 by the Continental Congress, and of an historic column, "also intended for a mile or itinerary column, from whose station, at a mile from the Federal House, all distances and places through the continent are to be calculated." The present pillar stands on the site designated for the equestrian statue, and is evidently a combination of the plans of a monument to Washington, and of an historic column. Its site is half a mile due south of the Executive Mansion, and at the intersection of the meridian line of Washington with a line running east and west through the centre of the Capitol, in the midst of the beautiful government park known as the Mall. Nothing was done concerning the pro-

ject until December, 1799, soon after the death of Washington, when Congress resolved "that a marble monument be erected at the city of Washington to commemorate the great events of the military and political life of General Washington." But the country was poor, burdened with the enormous debt of the Revolution, and no appropriation was made



ENTRANCE TO THE MONUMENT.

for carrying out the provisions of the resolution. So far as Congress was concerned, the matter slumbered for seventy-eight years; but in September, 1833, a number of patriotic citizens of Washington, under the leadership of the venerable Chief-Justice Marshall and of George Watterson, then Librarian of



331 WASHINGTON MONUMENT FROM THE FISH COMMISSIONERS' DIKE.

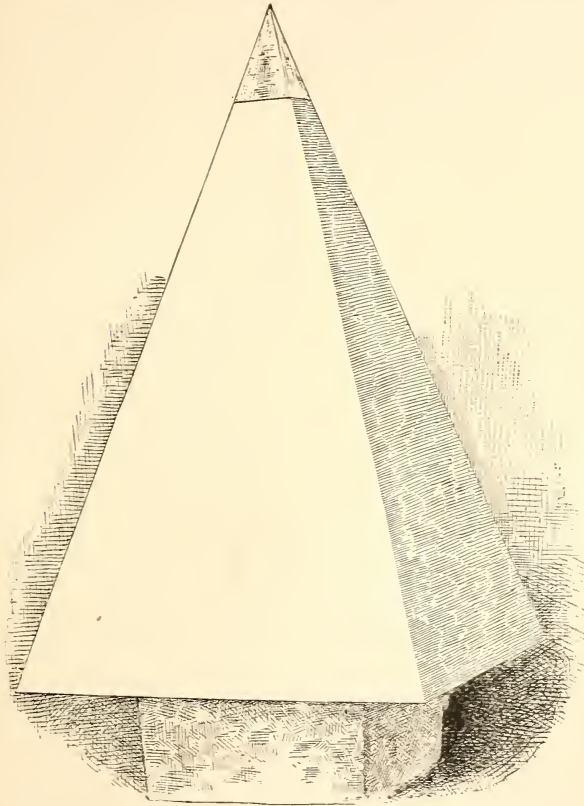
Congress, met in the old City Hall and organized the Washington National Monument Society. Subscriptions were asked for from the country at large, and when, in 1847, \$87,000 had been contributed, the work of construction began. The design was executed by Robert Mills of South Carolina, who was at the time United States Architect, and comprised a granite shaft faced with white marble, "600 feet high, 55 feet square at the base, 30 feet square at the top, surrounded at its base by a circular colonnade or pantheon, in which to place statues of the nation's illustrious dead, with vaults beneath for the reception of their remains." The foundation—carried down but 8 feet below the surface—was built up of irregular blocks of blue gneiss set in lime, to a height of 25 feet, where it was 55 feet square. On this very insecure foundation the corner-stone of the great shaft was laid on the fourth day of July, 1848. The occasion was attended by quite imposing ceremonies. President Polk and his Cabinet, members of both Houses of Congress, the Diplomatic Corps, and distinguished officials and citizens of the country attended. The Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, the Speaker of the House, was orator of the day, and the Masonic fraternity conducted the ceremonies with the same gavel that General Washington had used in laying the corner-stone of the Capitol in 1792. Beneath the corner-stone were deposited copies of the Constitution and of the Declaration of Independence; Messages of the Presidents, beginning with Washington; the portrait and inaugural address of each President; daguerreotypes of General

and Mrs. Washington ; a copy of the Bible ; astronomical observations by M. Fontaine Maury, U. S. N., for 1845 ; journals of the Senate and House of Representatives of the Thirtieth Congress ; list of the judges of the Supreme Court ; an American flag ; coat-of-arms of the Washington family ; a set of United States coins, with specimens of Continental money ; Harper's illustrated catalogue ; and copies of newspapers from each State relating to Washington and the monument.

Among the notable guests present were Mrs. Dolly Madison, Mrs. Alexander Hamilton then ninety-one years of age ; Mrs. John Quincy Adams, Chief-Justice Taney, and Abraham Lincoln then a member of Congress. The monument was pushed forward rapidly until 1855, when the funds of the society were exhausted. Congress was appealed to in vain, and as all efforts to obtain further contributions were unavailing, the work was stopped. The monument at this time had reached a height of 152 feet above the foundation. The civil war soon engaged the attention of the people, and nothing more was done until 1878, when Congress, spurred by the new spirit of improvement that had taken possession of the city, authorized the expenditure of \$36,000, if deemed advisable, in giving greater stability to the foundation. This action was taken because grave doubts had been expressed by engineers as to the ability of the foundation to sustain the completed structure. A commission was appointed, and reported that the foundation was insufficient. To increase its strength the base was underpinned with

concrete masonry—this work, as well as that of completing the unfinished shaft, being entrusted to Colonel Thomas L. Casey, of the Engineer Corps. In May, 1880, the underpinning was reported finished and the foundation secure. During the summer an iron stairway and elevator shaft was carried up within the walls. On August 7, 1880, work on the unfinished shaft was begun, President Hayes laying the first stone, and on the 6th of December, 1884, the huge capstone, weighing 3,300 pounds, was declared ready to be placed in position. The 6th dawned dark and stormy; at two o'clock, the hour fixed for the ceremony, the rain had ceased, but the wind was blowing at the rate of sixty miles an hour. A few minutes before two the many observers who watched the huge shaft with their glasses saw a company of persons file out upon the small platform that hung at the base of the capstone, 550 feet in air. Each member of the group spread a few trowels full of cement upon the bed of the capstone, and the massive block was then lowered upon it. At the same moment a flag was waved from the platform, and booming cannon and pealing bells announced the completion of the memorial to Washington, ninety-nine years after its inception. It will be interesting to examine the completed structure. It differs from the original design of Mr. Mills in that the circular colonnade at the base has been omitted, and it is a pure obelisk, the final fifty-five feet being a pyramidion (pyramid-shaped). The extreme point is a solid block of aluminum, nine inches in height, four and one half inches at the base, and weighing six

pounds and a quarter. The total height, from base-line to tip, is 555 feet,* and the weight 80,000 tons.



CAPSTONE OF THE MONUMENT, SHOWING THE ALUMINUM TIP.

* The reader may wish to compare this with the following table of elevated points.

Washington National Monument.....	555 feet.
Dome, Municipal Building, Philadelphia.....	535 “

The total cost has been \$1,200,000, of which \$300,000 have been raised by contributions from the people. One may ascend the Monument by a stairway of 900 steps, imposing a climb of twenty minutes, or by elevator, which lifts one in seven minutes. As one ascends he sees in the rubble-stone masonry of the lower interior walls a number of memorial stones contributed by various States, corporations, and societies, both foreign and domestic, each inscribed with the name of the donor, and some bearing also the date when given. There are about a hundred stones not yet set. The most significant inscriptions are: "From the Temple of Esculapius, Island of Paros"; "Oldest Inhabitants, District of Columbia, 1870"; "The Free Swiss Confederation, 1870"; "Engine Company Northern Liberty, Philadelphia"; "Fire Department, Philadelphia, 1852"; "Georgia Convention, 1850"; "Grand Lodge of Pennsylvania, 1851"; "Grand Division, Sons of Temperance, of Illinois, 1855"; "The Sons of New England in Canada"; "Deseret Holiness to the Lord"; "From Braddock's Field"; "Battle-Ground, Long Island"; "Charlestown, the Bunker Hill Battle-Ground"; Cherokee Nation, 1855"; "Michi-

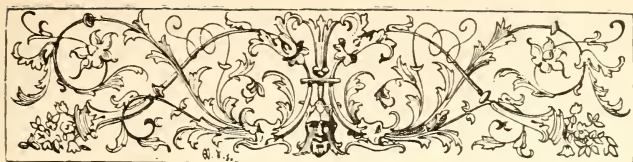
Spires, Cologne Cathedral.....	511 feet.
Pyramid of Cheops.....	480 "
Strasburg Cathedral.....	468 "
Pyramid of Chepheron.....	454 "
St. Peter's, Rome.....	448 "
St. Paul's, London.....	365 "
United States Capitol, Washington.....	360 "
Bunker Hill Monument, Boston.....	221 "
Pisa Leaning Tower.....	179 "
Egyptian Obelisk, Central Park, New York.....	76 "

gan"; "Vermont"; "Kansas"; "Salem"; "Brazil"; "Arabia"; "China"; "Nevada, 1881." A sandstone block from Switzerland has this inscription: "This block of stone is from the original chapel built to William Tell in 1338, on Lake Lucerne, Switzerland, at the spot where he escaped from Gesler." One of the blocks sent was the gift of the Pope, and was inscribed "Rome to America." In March, 1854, during the Know-Nothing excitement, the lapidarium where the blocks were stored was broken into, and this stone was taken, and, it is supposed, thrown into the Potomac. The four faces of the metal apex bear these inscriptions: North face—"Joint Commission at setting of capstone, Chester A. Arthur, W. W. Corcoran, M. E. Bell, Edw'd Clark, John Newton, Act of August 2d, 1876." West face—"Corner-stone laid on bed of foundation July 4, 1848, first stone at height of 152 feet, laid August 7, 1880, capstone set December 6, 1884." South face—"Chief Engineer and Architect, Thos. L. Casey, Corps of Engineers; assistants, George W. Davis, Capt. 14th Infantry; Bernard R. Green, Civil Engineer; Master Mechanic P. H. McLaughlin." East face—"LAUS DEO." The outlook from the summit is grand and far-reaching enough to satisfy the most exacting. One finds himself in a small chamber with eight windows under the roof-stones, 517 feet above the city, and looks down on the broad streets, lawns, roofs, and spires, spread out beneath, as on the canvas of some great landscape painter; then enlarging his range of vision, his glance takes in the wooded Georgetown heights,

the Potomac stretching its serpentine length miles below, and far off to westward, like a mist upon the horizon, the mighty masses of the Blue Ridge.

On the completion of the memorial, Congress passed a resolution providing for suitable dedicatory ceremonies. These were very appropriately held on Washington's birthday, 1885, at the base of the Monument, and later in the House of Representatives, the orator of the occasion, by an equally happy inspiration, being the Hon. Robert C. Winthrop, who thirty-seven years before had performed a similar service at the laying of the corner-stone.





CHAPTER XXII.

WASHINGTON JOURNALISM.

THE local press of Washington is contemporary with the birth of the city. On the removal of the government in 1802, two small tri-weekly newspapers, the *National Intelligencer* and the *Washington Federalist* were established there, the former as the administration organ. Its editor was Samuel Harrison Smith, who had previously published at Philadelphia a journal of some literary pretensions, known as the *Universal Gazette*. The *Federalist* did not long survive, but the *Intelligencer*, being the court journal, became prosperous and influential. In 1809, Mr. Smith admitted as a partner Joseph Gales, of North Carolina, who had been a year in his employ as stenographer, and in 1810 relinquished the paper entirely to his young associate. Mr. Gales then associated with himself his brother-in-law, Mr. W. W. Seaton, and from this time forward the *Intelligencer* became one of the leading newspapers of the country, acquiring a national reputation. It was published under the firm name until the death of the surviving partner, Mr. Seaton, in 1865, when it was purchased by Messrs. Snow, Coyle, & Co. That firm continued it until 1869, when it was suspended.

The newspaper ventures since 1800 would form a long and tedious list. The Congressional Directory for 1888 gives the names of thirty-four newspapers and journals published in the city, two being in the German language. The leading dailies are the *Post*, morning and evening, and the *Star*, an evening paper. The leading weeklies are the *Capital*, *Public Opinion*, the *National Tribune*, and the *Army and Navy Register*.

It is not, however, from its local press, that Washington is to be considered the journalistic centre of the continent, but from its metropolitan correspondents—the great bureaus which every journal of importance both in this country and Europe maintains for the collection and transmission of news. Not all of these correspondents are known—those who are entitled to the privileges of the press galleries, and whose names are given in the Congressional Directory, number one hundred and twenty-seven. Before describing their personnel and duties, let us examine briefly the origin and development of this unique branch of American journalism. Practically, Washington correspondence began when the national capital was established on the banks of the Potomac. James Cheetham, an English radical of marked personality, who conducted the New York *Citizen*, and who figured largely in the quarrels and intrigues of the Burr-Hamilton-Virginia factions, was one of the first of these correspondents to attract attention. He established himself here during the sessions of Congress, and wrote editorial correspondence for his paper, which, from

his intimacy with Jefferson came soon to have the force of official utterance. James Duane of the Philadelphia *Aurora*, and Joseph Gales, of the *National Intelligencer*, were other editorial correspondents of note. John Agg, a small, delicate-featured man, with bright, blue eyes and musical voice, who wrote agreeable *vers de société* during the reign of Mrs. Dolly Madison, and was a great favorite with the ladies; Lund Washington, a relative, some degrees removed, of the father of his country; Joseph L. Buckingham, a sarcastic Bostonian, and James Montague, a gifted Virginian, covered the period between 1812 and 1822. The first person to establish himself permanently as a professional correspondent at the capital was Elias Kingman, of Rhode Island. He is to be considered, therefore, as the founder of the present guild. Mr. Kingman was graduated at Brown University in 1816, and after teaching in the South for several years, in 1822 established himself at Washington as a newspaper correspondent. During his long and honorable service of nearly forty years, Mr. Kingman corresponded with such journals as the *Commercial Advertiser* and *Journal of Commerce* of New York, the Charleston *Courier*, the Baltimore *Sun* and New Orleans *Picayune*. Colonel Samuel F. Knapp, of Massachusetts, came next in point of seniority, having passed several winters in the capital as correspondent of the Boston *Galaxy* and Charleston *Courier*. Nathaniel Carter, of the New York *Statesman*, who later published two volumes of well-written letters from Europe, and Daniel L. Child, of the

Boston *Advertiser*, were regular Washington correspondents from 1824 to 1829. James Brooks, of the Portland *Advertiser*, who has been said to have been the father of Washington correspondence, did not write his first letter from the capital until 1832.

The letters of these old-school correspondents were accurate, scholarly, dignified chronicles of political events, written for the day of stage-coaches, but giving no hint of the social gossip and personal happenings of the day.

In the beginning Congressmen seem to have displayed as great animosity toward the literary bureau as in later times. In 1812, for instance, Nathaniel Rounsavelt, of the Alexandria *Herald*, was brought to the bar of the House and imprisoned for contempt in refusing to tell who had given him information of the action, in secret session, on the embargo. And a letter in the Philadelphia *Press* of about the same date, charging John Randolph with having been bribed with British gold to oppose the war, provoked from that eccentric genius a bitter diatribe against the guild in general.

James Gordon Bennett, from 1827 to 1832 correspondent of the New York *Courier*, introduced what may be called the era of social gossip and personal description and anecdote.

One of the most truculent correspondents of this era was Matthew L. Davis, the friend and biographer of Aaron Burr, who wrote under the *nom de plume* of "The Spy in Washington," but who was known to the guild as "The Old Boy in Specs." Mr. Davis lived to be eighty-four years of age, and during the

last fifteen years of his life was the regular correspondent of the London *Times*. His letters, under the signature of "The Genevese Traveller," are said to have been the best ever written from the capital. A remark of his "that he would vote for Henry Clay for President as long as he (Clay) lived, and after that for Clay's executor," was one of the *bon-mots* of the day. It was this gentleman who wrote the letter that led to the unfortunate duel between Representatives Graves and Cilley. Nathan Sargent, of the Philadelphia *Press*, is remembered as another "thorn in the flesh" of the Congressmen of that period. His spirited and truculent letters rarely failed to raise a storm in the Capitol. During one of these tempests the offended member—Hon. C. J. Ingersoll, of Pennsylvania—moved his expulsion from the desk that had been assigned to him, "in order that the honor and dignity of the House might be maintained," but John Quincy Adams arose, and remarked quietly that the author of the letter "was as respectable as the honorable member from Pennsylvania himself," and the motion was not pressed. The letters of Sylvester S. Southworth, signed "John Smith, Jun., of Arkansas," of Major James M. Rae, Mr. Harriman, Dr. Thomas M. Brewer, Edward Hart, E. L. Stevens, A. G. Allen, Edmund Burke, Francis J. Grund, and Jesse E. Dow were notable for their pith and point. James E. Harvey, later Minister to Portugal, and Ben Perley Poore, who wrote his first letter from Washington in 1838, were also among their contemporaries. In 1833, Messrs. Hale and Hallock, of the New York *Journal of*

Commerce, established the "pony express" between New York and Philadelphia, which by means of eight relays of horses enabled them to secure their Washington news one day in advance of their competitors. This feat inaugurated the era of newspaper enterprise. Their rivals of the morning press first united to form an opposition line, and then induced the Post-Office Department to take charge of it, whereupon Messrs. Hale and Hallock extended their express to Washington, and still continued to be a day in advance of their rivals. But Professor S. F. B. Morse, in 1844, sent the first message by magnetic telegraph from Washington to Baltimore, and in a very short time revolutionized the entire method of transmitting news. The New York Associated Press was organized, and the present methods of news gathering went into operation. The special correspondents now turned their attention more to social and political gossip, and to the securing of news in advance of the Associated Press, for the sole use of their respective journals. They were especially enjoined to maintain a keen scent for corruption in high places, and in this work they unquestionably rendered great service to the nation. It may be considered as some offset to this service that in certain cases partisan charges of corruption have been made on inadequate or incorrect evidence, and such charges, quoted and circulated throughout the breadth of the land, are of course not only an almost irreparable injustice to officials whose good names are brought into question, but are a grave injury to the community whose respect for its gov-

ernment is thus wantonly impaired. Mr. James W. Simonton, so long the efficient head of the Associated Press, was the first Washington correspondent to expose Congressional corruption. In 1857, as Washington correspondent of the *New York Times*, he wrote a letter to that journal framing grave charges against certain members of the House in regard to land grants that had been made to railroads. When the paper containing the charges was received there were stormy scenes in the House, and the implicated members demanded the punishment of the offender. But while the matter was being debated, a reputable Representative arose and said that he had been approached with an offer of \$1,500, if he would vote for a certain measure. An investigation, therefore, became necessary, and the guilty members, to escape expulsion, resigned. The House, however, in revenge, held Mr. Simonton a prisoner during the remainder of the session, because he would not disclose the name of his informant.

The "editorial correspondence," as a means of shaping public opinion, especially on political subjects, was continued down to the period of the civil war. James Watson Webb of the *New York Courier and Engineer*, George D. Prentice, of the *Louisville Journal*, Thurlow Weed, of the *Albany Evening Journal*, Henry B. Anthony, of the *Providence Journal*, Richard Yeadon, of the *Charleston Courier*, Thomas Ritchie, of the *Richmond Enquirer*, and at a later day, Horace Greeley, Henry J. Raymond, and James and Erastus Brooks, made use of this arm of

strength in fighting their political battles. The civil war necessitated the establishment at Washington of large offices or "bureaus," in which the reports received from various correspondents in the field could be received, made up, and transmitted; these bureaus are still in operation. During the war most of them were located on Fourteenth Street, opposite Willard's Hotel, which was called from the circumstance Newspaper Row; but the present tendency is to scatter more widely. The bureau of a great newspaper has its suite of apartments, comprising ante-room, reading-room, and reporters' room; and beyond these the private room of the chief correspondent, which is guarded as jealously as the office of the managing editor of a metropolitan daily. At the head of the bureau is the chief correspondent, who is answerable only to the home authority. This gentleman occupies a responsible position, and must possess special gifts to discharge its duties acceptably. He must be a man of comprehensive mind, as well as a master of detail; be not only industrious and ubiquitous himself, but see that his subordinates are so. His duties are varied and onerous. He is expected to master the important matters of business before both Houses of Congress, keep the run of the committees, be on the watch for executive communications and nominations, and fill his seat in the press gallery whenever a debate of public interest takes place. He is also expected to visit the White House daily, call in at the Departments, haunt the hotels, dine with diplomats, call upon friendly Congressmen at their rooms, chat with

promenaders on the avenue, and keep his ears open for chance conversations in car or herdic. Ask a chief correspondent how he gains his daily budget of news, and he would be troubled to tell you. A good deal comes by intuition, putting this and that together; some of it is bought. News naturally gravitates to a long-established bureau. Then there are always in the Capitol two parties, and the members of one are usually ready to give to the press items which will damage the other. Much is gained—to use the argot of Newspaper Row—by “pumping” “leaky” Congressmen. For instance, the correspondent engages a senator in conversation on a certain topic; he forgets it, the correspondent remembers it. In a week he talks with him again, and remembering that two negatives make an affirmative, examines his diary and finds that he has an important fact. The faces of Congressmen as they emerge from the committee room have also their story to tell. Having gathered his material during the day, at nine o'clock the correspondent's busy hours begin. His daily budget of news is rapidly put into shape and flashed over the wires to the home office, where the night editors seize it, perhaps “cutting” paragraphs that have cost hours of labor, hurry it off to the composing room, where it is put into cold type, and sent to the proof-readers and to the stereotypers; then it rattles away on the “turtles” of the rotary press and appears in the great daily next morning as Washington news, without having had the least revision from the author.

As a rule the correspondent's day ends at mid-

night, although the wire is open until 3 A.M. The New York *Tribune* and *Herald* have each their special wire and operator. So have the Chicago *Tribune* and *Inter-Ocean*, the St. Louis *Republican*, and Cincinnati *Enquirer*. The Cincinnati *Commercial's* New York line runs through Washington, thus giving it equal facilities. The New York *Tribune* was the first journal to establish a special wire, and the Cincinnati *Gazette* the first Western journal to take this step. The cost of maintaining a large well-equipped Washington office amounts to about \$20,000 annually, which, however, is often shared among several papers. The present dean of the press corps is General H. V. Boynton, who succeeded to the position on the death of Ben Perley Poore, in 1887. Mr. Poore, at the time of his death, had been nearly fifty years a Washington correspondent. General Boynton has now been twenty-three years in the service.





CHAPTER XXIII.

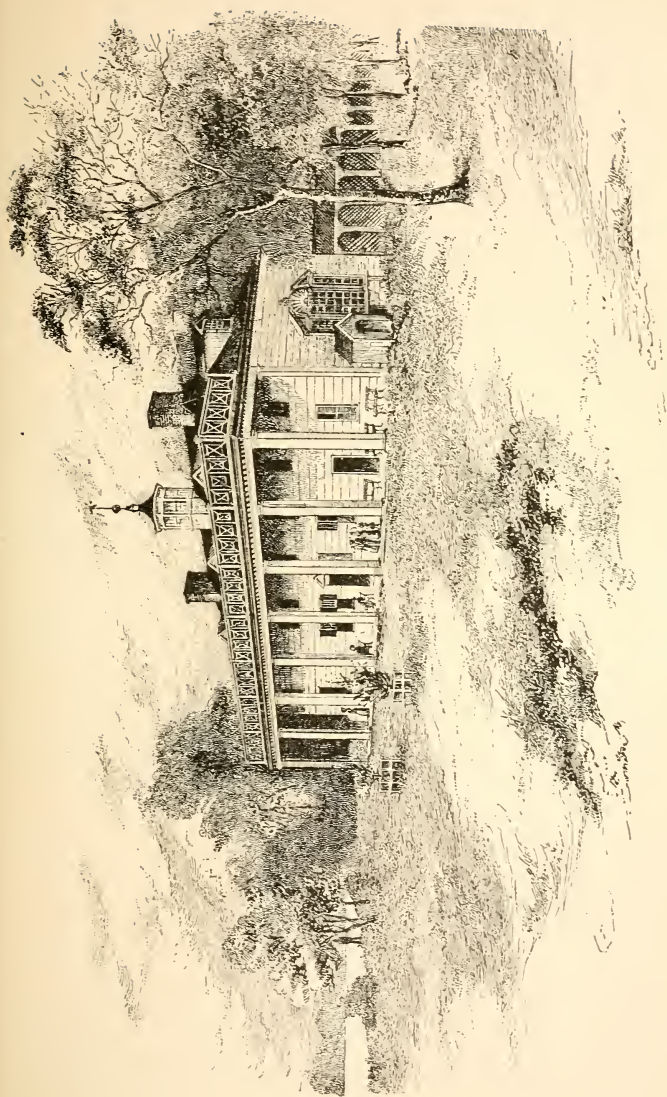
SUBURBAN WASHINGTON.

WITH the possible exception of Boston, no American city has more charming suburbs, or more interesting, historically, than Washington. There is Mount Vernon, a world's shrine; quaint Alexandria, which, of late, has received so much attention from the magazines; historic Arlington; Georgetown, the original seat of Catholic power in this country; Kalorama, a poet's haunt; Rock Creek, which, within the city limits, presents many scenes of sylvan loveliness; the numerous parks and government reservations; Bladensburg, with its warlike and artistic memories; the Great Falls, fifteen miles up the Potomac; and many other places of quiet beauty and retirement. Of Mount Vernon and Alexandria so much has been written that further description seems superfluous.

The former lies sixteen miles down the river on its western shore, in Fairfax County, Virginia, and is reached daily by the Association steamer *W. W. Corcoran*. It is the property of the Mount Vernon Association, which was incorporated in 1866 for the purpose of purchasing and holding the estate in perpetuity. The association is composed of the ladies

of the United States, and is ably managed by a Board of Lady Regents. By 1860 it had collected sufficient funds, by popular contributions from all the States, to meet the sum asked for the estate, \$200,000, which thereupon became its property. Mount Vernon descended to General Washington when he was about twenty-one years of age from his half-brother, Lawrence Washington, and from that time until his death, on the 14th of December, 1799, was his home. It is a beautiful spot, high up on the bank of the river, and the resort of throngs of visitors both in summer and winter.

Alexandria is six miles below Washington, and is reached hourly by steam-ferry. It was founded in 1748 under the name of Bellhaven, and soon came to prominence and wealth as the shipping-port of Virginia planters. It is to-day a quaint city of some fifteen thousand inhabitants, in which the buildings and manners of the colonial era may still be studied. Christ Church, which was dedicated in 1765, and of which Washington was a vestryman, is an object of interest to visitors. Georgetown, on the Maryland shore, six miles above Alexandria, was similarly the shipping port of the Maryland planters. It forms now a part of the capital city, being known officially as West Washington. It is still practically a suburb, however, its shaded drives and fine old country-seats set in the midst of spacious lawns, being very attractive to visitors. On a rugged height overlooking the Potomac stands Georgetown College, the earliest educational institution of the Catholic Church in America. It was founded by Bishop John Carroll,



MOUNT VERNON MANSION.

in 1789, and was incorporated as a university in 1815, with collegiate, law, and medical departments.

Below it the Aqueduct Bridge, built to carry the Chesapeake and Ohio canal across the Potomac, supports a broad, smooth highway which, after leaving the bridge, winds away over the brow of the Virginia hills and brings one, in the course of a mile and a half, to beautiful and picturesque Arlington. Before the war it was the property of the famous Confederate leader, Robert E. Lee.

The large classic columns that support the lofty portico of the mansion are a prominent feature of the landscape viewed from the Capitol or from Georgetown, and the view from the portico itself, which comprises the broad sweep of the river and the beautiful capital city beyond, is one of the finest in the world. General Lee came into possession of the estate from having married Mary, the only daughter of its owner, George Washington Parke Custis, the adopted son of General Washington. His family, consisting of a wife and six children—three boys and three girls—lived an ideal life in the old mansion, surrounded by every comfort and luxury that wealth could supply. But early in the war they were forced to leave their home, which was seized and held by government. When the Union soldiers took possession in the spring of 1861 there were a number of Washington relics in the mansion, which may now be seen in the National Museum.

Arlington, being entailed property, could not be confiscated, but was sold for taxes in 1864, and purchased by the nation for the sum of \$23,000, and in

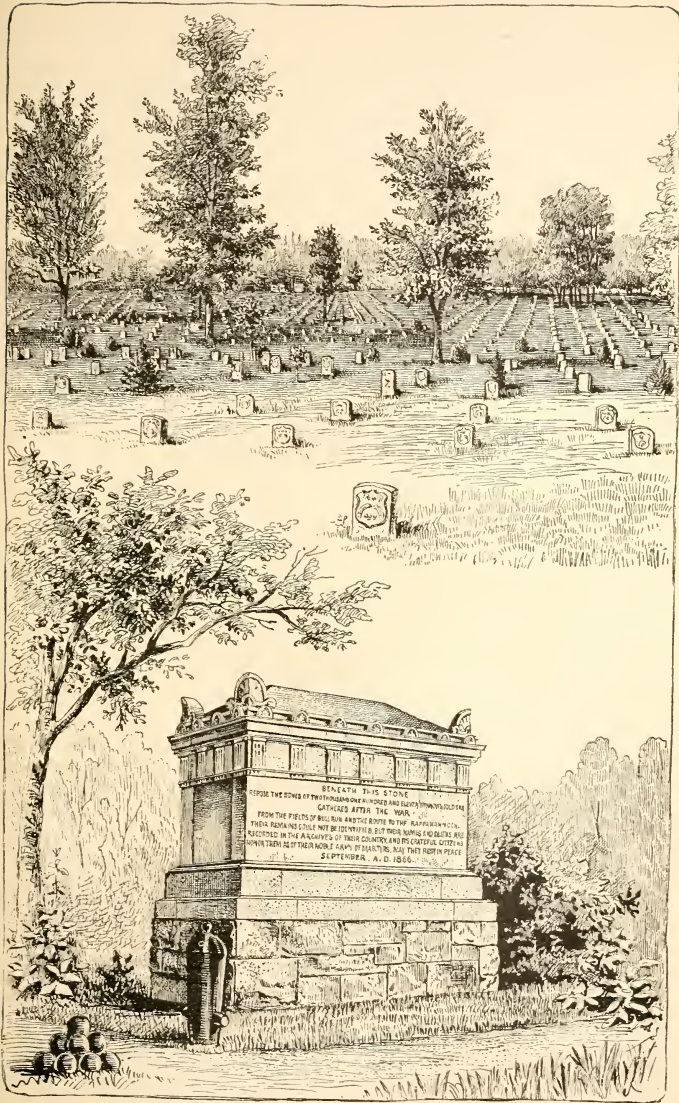


ARLINGTON MANSION.

the succeeding May was established as the first and largest of the eighty-two military cemeteries which the government has set apart as the last resting-places of the heroic dead who died in the war for the Union. Some years after, Mr. George W. C. Lee, the eldest son of the General, brought suit to recover the estate on the ground that it had been illegally sold, and after long litigation established his claim. He then conveyed it to the government for the sum of \$150,000. Two hundred acres, enclosed by a low wall of masonry, now comprise Arlington Cemetery. It would be difficult to find a more beautiful, or eloquent spot. Magnificent oaks of two hundred years' growth shade its glades and knolls, amid which drives and walks wind picturesquely, leading the visitor through beautiful green lawns, parterres of flowers and variegated plants, and past stately monuments of the dead.

The dead are all about one here. In lowly graves, marked each by a white marble headstone, sleep sixteen thousand two hundred and sixty-four soldiers of the Union.

The most interesting monument in the ground is the large granite tomb erected over the remains of two thousand one hundred and eleven unknown soldiers gathered from the fields of Bull Run and the route to the Rappahannock. As the inscription upon the tomb states: "their remains could not be identified, but their names and deaths are recorded in the archives of their country, and its grateful citizens honor them as of their noble army of martyrs."



Approaching by way of Georgetown and the Aqueduct Bridge, the visitor enters at the rear of the cemetery, and may ride through it, and out at the arched main entrance, whence a country road leads down to the city of Alexandria. This is the route projected for the great national highway from Washington to Mount Vernon, known as the Mount Vernon Avenue, to construct which a corporation called the Mount Vernon Avenue Association was incorporated by the Virginia Assembly in February, 1888. There is now no good and direct land route to Mount Vernon, and this road is intended to supply the deficiency. The avenue is to be two hundred feet wide, of which sixty or perhaps ninety feet will be given to the road, and the remainder will be a parkway, devoted to lawns, shades, and statues of national heroes. To lend a national character to the work it is proposed to divide it into as many sections as there are States, and allot a section to each State.

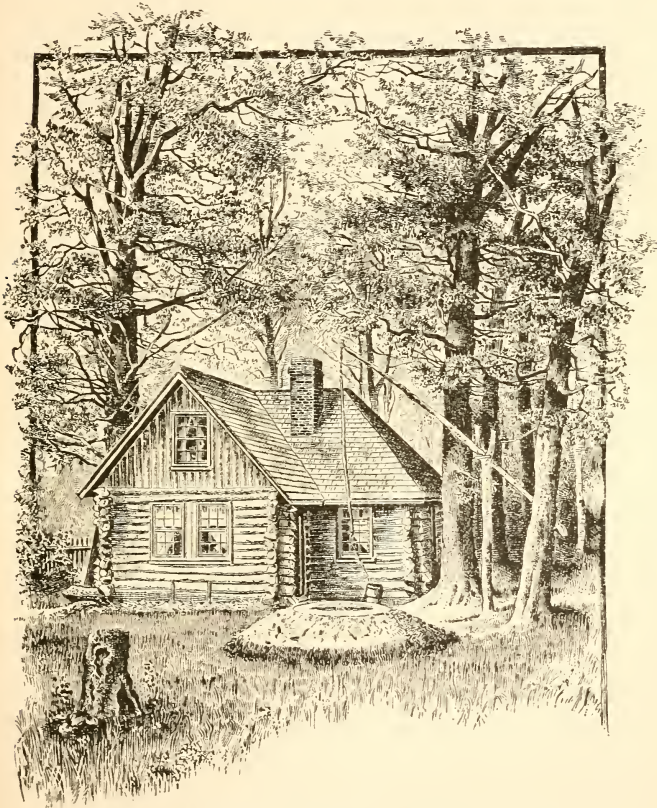
In returning to Washington by way of Georgetown we pass within a block or two of Kalorama, now being graded and staked out into city lots, but until its purchase by a syndicate in 1887, one of the most charming and rural retreats within the city's environs. The old estate was one of the landmarks of the city. Anthony Holmead, a canny Scotchman, bought the estate of the Indians at an early day, and about 1750 erected of English bricks the old-fashioned farm-house that formed the nucleus of the modern mansion. After passing through several hands the estate was bought in 1807 by Joel Bar-

low, the poet and statesman, who had returned to America in 1805, after a seventeen-years' absence. Mr. Barlow enlarged and improved the mansion and grounds, and named it Kalorama, from the Greek, signifying "fine view." The poet lived there four happy years, dispensing an elegant hospitality, enjoying the friendship of Jefferson, and Madison, and others high in authority, his house the common meeting-place of poets, scholars, authors, inventors, and visiting strangers of distinction, but in 1811 President Madison insisted on his accepting the mission to France, with which country our relations had become so inimical as to threaten open rupture. Mr. Barlow therefore leased Kalorama to the French Minister, and sailed in the *Constitution* frigate for France, and lost his life late in December, 1812, while seeking to return from Wilna in Poland, whither he had gone, on invitation, to meet Napoleon and sign a treaty, the latter being then absent on his Russian campaign. The old estate has since seen vicissitudes. It was left by will to Mrs. Barlow, who resided there until her death in 1818, when by the provisions of her will it fell to Thomas Barlow, the nephew of her deceased husband. He sold it in 1819 to Judge Henry Baldwin, of the Supreme Court, brother of Mrs. Barlow; and the latter in 1831 to Colonel George Bomford of the Ordnance Department, who had married Mrs. Barlow's sister Clara. Colonel Bomford was the intimate friend of Commodore Decatur, and on the sad death of that gentleman in a duel with Commodore Barron in March, 1821, his remains were deposited in the fam-

ily vault at Kalorama, and remained there for several years, until finally deposited in the vaults of St. Peter's Church at Philadelphia. Colonel Bomford conveyed the estate in 1846 to George R. Lovett as trustee of Louisa Fletcher, in whose hands it remained until sold to the syndicate in 1887.

Another poet's haunt is found on Meridian Hill, at the end of Sixteenth Street, in the log cottage which the poet of the Sierras, Joaquin Miller, erected on first coming to Washington, and which continued to be his home during his sojourn. There the eminence on which it is placed commands a beautiful view of the city and its environs. Of the quaint attractions of Bladensburg, five miles to the eastward, we have before spoken. To ride over the smooth pike to the ancient village, alight at the old Washington tavern there, and in its wide, bare ordinary partake of cakes and ale, is very much like being transported back to Washington's day. In another quarter, the southeastern, a pleasant drive from the hotels or White House, lie the Arsenal and the Navy Yard. The latter was established in 1799, and contains two ship houses and nearly all the workshops necessary for the construction of a sailing vessel. For many years it was a scene of great activity, many of the finest vessels of the navy in early days having been constructed there. At present little but repairing is done. There is a museum which contains a collection of old cannon and munitions of war of more than ordinary interest,—the Spanish cannon, for instance, cast in 1490, and used by Cortez in the conquest of Peru; a mortar captured from Corn-

wallis, and many relics of the late war. The Navy Yard is situated on the Eastern Branch. About half a mile below, occupying the point made by the



JOAQUIN MILLER'S LOG CABIN ON MERIDIAN HILL.

junction of this branch with the Potomac, are the beautiful grounds of the Arsenal, a grisly spot for all its beauty, for here stood the old penitentiary in

which the trials of the assassins of President Lincoln and Secretary Seward were held, and in the yard of which they were hanged and buried. The assassin Booth is said to have been buried for a time beneath one of its cells. There is no hint of those terrible days in the rich greensward and nicely kept walks and drives of to-day, although the conical heaps of cannon-balls and black-throated columbiads looking out upon the river remind one of the times when war seemed the city's normal condition.





CHAPTER XXIV.

SOCIAL LIFE 1800-1888.

FROM the beginning Washington has enjoyed a social life more or less courtly in tone and stately and graceful in manner. Up to the time of the civil war she was a slave-holding town, distinctively a Southern city, and society other than official was based on the old English colonial plan, which continued in the South long after it had been banished from the more progressive North. Nothing is more charming than the naïve diaries and letters of the period, from the contents of whose pages the above deduction is made. Sir Augustus Foster, an attaché of the British Embassy during Mr. Jefferson's term, gives the earliest picture. He says:

“There were a great number of rich proprietors in the State of Maryland. In the district around Washington . . . I was assured there were five hundred persons possessing estates which returned them an income of £1,000. Mr. Lloyd, a member of Congress on the Eastern Branch, possessed a net revenue of between £6,000 and £7,000, with which he had only to buy clothes for himself and family, wines, equipage, furniture, and other luxuries. . . . Mr. Tayloe also whose whole income exceeded £15,000 per annum . . . held 3,000 acres which his father bought

for £500. He possessed 500 slaves, built brigs and schooners, worked iron mines, converted the iron into ploughshares—and all this was done by the hands of his own subjects. He had a splendid house at Mount Airy, with a property around it of 8,000 acres, and a house at the Federal City. . . . Mr. Carroll of Annapolis, grandfather of Lady Wellesby, the Duchess of Leeds, and Lady Stafford, was said to be still more wealthy, having, besides great accumulations in the funds, 15,000 acres of the best land in Frederick County, and several other estates.” Of the members of Congress, most of them, he says, “keep to their lodgings, but still there are a sufficient number of them who are sociable, or whose families come to the city for a season, and there is no want of handsome ladies for the balls, especially, at Georgetown; indeed, I never saw prettier girls anywhere. As there are but few of them, however, in proportion to the great number of men who frequent the places of amusement in the Federal City, it is one of the most marrying places in the whole continent—a truth which was beginning to be found out and became by and by the cause of vast numbers flocking thither, all round from the four points of the compass.”

He has this description of our grandmothers :

“Maugre the march of intellect so much vaunted in the present century, the literary education of these ladies is far from being worthy of the age of knowledge, and conversation is apt to flag, though a seat by the ladies is always much coveted. Dancing and music served to eke out the time, but one got to be heartily sick of hearing the same song everywhere, even when it was ‘Just like Love is yonder Rose.’ No matter how this was sung the words alone were the men-traps; the belle of the evening was

declared to be just like both—and people looked around as if the listener was expected to become on the instant very tender and to propose—and sometimes such a result does in reality take place ; both parties when betrothed use a great deal of billing and cooing.” Some of the ladies used powder. “ Others I have known to contract an aversion to water, and as a substitute, cover their faces and bosoms with hair-powder in order to render their skin pure and delicate.”

He turns to other matters :

“ In going to assemblies one had sometimes to drive three or four miles within the city bounds, and very often at the great risk of an overturn, or of being what is termed ‘ stalled,’ or stuck in the mud, when one can neither get backward nor forward, and either loses one’s shoes or one’s patience. . . . Cards were a great resource of an evening, and gaming was all the fashion, at brag, especially, for the men who frequented society were chiefly from Virginia, or the Western States, and were very fond of this, the most gambling of all games, as being out of countenance as well as of cards. Loo was the innocent diversion of the ladies, who when they were ‘ looed ’ pronounced the word in a very mincing manner. . . . Church service can certainly never be called an amusement ; but from the variety of persons who were allowed to preach in the House of Representatives, there doubtless was some alloy of curiosity in the motives which led one to go there. Though the regular chaplain was a Presbyterian, sometimes a Methodist, a minister of the Church of England, or a Quaker, and sometimes even a woman, took the Speaker’s chair ; and I do not think there was much devotion among the majority. . . . The New Englanders, generally speaking, are very religious ; but though there

are many exceptions, I cannot say so much for the Marylanders, and still less for the Virginians."

But in spite of its inconveniences and desolation, he thought Washington the most agreeable town to reside in for any length of time.

"The opportunity of collecting information from Senators and Representatives from all parts of the country, the hospitality of the heads of the government and the corps diplomatique of itself supplied resources such as could nowhere else be looked for."

Let us next see how Congressmen lived, and what were their duties and diversions. Among the "religious New Englanders" in Congress at this time, 1804-1806, was the Rev. Dr. Manasseh Cutler, of Massachusetts, a gentleman about sixty years of age, an eloquent divine, a skilled diplomat, a leading character in the settlement of Ohio, but whose chief distinction is that he was the pioneer botanist of America, having first discovered and classified some three hundred and fifty species of the flora and fauna of New England. Dr. Cutler kept a copious diary, and wrote many gossipy letters during his official life, from which we gain an accurate and vivid idea of the lives of Congressmen of that period. He was a staunch Federalist, and honestly believed that the government having come into the hands of the Democrats (or "Jacobins," as he termed them), must soon go to pieces, and be succeeded by an empire, of which John Randolph of Virginia, would be the Bonaparte. His scientific acquirements made him a prime favorite with President Jefferson, de-

spite his politics. In a letter to his daughter, dated Washington, December 21, 1801, he thus describes his domestic arrangements :

“The block in which I live contains six houses four stories high, and very handsomely furnished. It is situated east of the Capitol, on the highest ground in the city. Mr. King, our landlord, occupies the south end (except one room in front, which is our parlor for receiving company and dining) and one room back, occupied by Mr. King’s family ; the kitchen is below. The four chambers are appropriated to the eight gentlemen who board in the family. In each chamber are two narrow field beds and field curtains, with every necessary convenience for the boarders.”

Their host’s only daughter, Miss Anna, played with great skill on the “forte piano,” “which,” says Dr. Cutler,

“she always accompanies with a most delightful voice, and is frequently joined in the vocal part by her mother. Mr. King has an excellent forte piano, which is connected with an organ placed under it, which she fills and plays with her foot, while her fingers are employed upon the forte piano. The gentlemen generally spend a part of two or three evenings in a week in Mr. King’s room, where Miss Anna entertains us with delightful music. After we have been fatigued with the harangues of the Hall in the day, and conversing on politics in different circles (for we talk about nothing else) in the evening, an hour of this music is truly delightful. On Sunday evenings she constantly plays psalm tunes, in which her mother, who is a woman of real piety, always joins.”

Of the first New-Year's reception at the White House (January 1, 1802), we have this pleasant account:

"Although the President has no levees, a number of Federalists agreed to go from the Capitol in coaches to the President's house, and wait upon him with the compliments of the season. We were received with politeness, [and] entertained with cake and wine. The mammoth cheese having been presented this morning, the President invited us to go, as he expressed it, 'To the mammoth room, and see the mammoth cheese.' There we viewed this monument of human weakness and folly as long as we pleased, then returned." *

On this same New-Year's day, Dr. Cutler, with "seven fellow Congressmen," set out for Mount

* This mammoth cheese had caused more comment, favorable and unfavorable, than any local incident of the campaign. On hearing of Jefferson's election, Elder John Leland, pastor of the Baptist church in Cheshire, Mass., called the members of his flock together, and proposed to celebrate the event by making and presenting to the new President the largest cheese ever known in the history of cheesemongery. Every man and woman who owned a cow was invited to give for the cheese all the milk produced in a single day—but no *Federal cow* was allowed to contribute. A great cider press was secured for its manufacture, and on the appointed day a multitude of men, women, and girls, clad in their best, came to the appointed place, each laden with pails, pots, and tubs of curd. The cheese was put to press with prayer and the singing of hymns. When dried and eatable it weighed 1,600 pounds; and was then loaded on to a sleigh which, bedecked with ribbons and flags, was driven by Elder Leland all the way from Cheshire to Washington, his pathway being lined with the multitudes who came out to see and hail the mammoth cheese. Driving down Pennsylvania Avenue this New Year's morning he had met with a perfect ovation, while the President had received the gift with a fitting tribute to the honest, sturdy, and patriotic class which had produced it.

Vernon to pay his respects to Mrs. Washington. They went in the ferry-boat to Alexandria, and lodged at Gadsby's, "said to be the first public-house in America, and equal to most in Europe." That night they supped on canvas-back ducks. Next morning they rose and dressed at four, and at seven set out for Mount Vernon in coaches, travelling through dense forest with the exception of a few openings formed by cultivated fields, and reached the mansion at ten.

"When our coaches entered the yard," he continues, "a number of servants immediately attended, and when we had all stepped out of our carriages, a servant conducted us to Madam Washington's room, where we were introduced by Mr. Hillhouse, and received in a very cordial and obliging manner. Mrs. Washington was sitting in rather a small room with three ladies, granddaughters, one of whom is married to a Mr. Lewis, and has two fine children. The other two are single. Mrs. Washington appears much older than when I saw her last at Philadelphia, but her countenance is very little wrinkled, and remarkably fair for a person of her years. She conversed with great ease and familiarity, and appeared as much rejoiced at receiving our visit as if we had been of her nearest connections. She regretted that we had not arrived sooner, for she always breakfasted at seven, but our breakfast would be ready in a few minutes. In a short time she rose, and desired us to walk into another room, where a table was elegantly spread with ham, cold corn-beef, cold fowl, red herring, and cold mutton; the dishes ornamented with sprigs of parsley and other vegetables from the garden. At the

head of the table was the tea and coffee equipage, where she seated herself, and sent the tea and coffee to the company. We were all Federalists, which gave her particular pleasure. Her remarks were frequently pointed, and sometimes very sarcastic on the new order of things and the present administration. She spoke of the election of Mr. Jefferson, whom she considered one of the most detestable of mankind, as the greatest misfortune our country had ever experienced. Her unfriendly feelings towards him were naturally to be expected from the abuse he has offered to General Washington while living, and to his memory since his decease."

After breakfast the party rambled about the house and gardens, "which were not in so high a style" as they expected to find them, and took boughs from the trees as precious relics of their own and their country's best friend. Mrs. Washington urged them to stay and dine, but they were obliged to return to Washington.

"She was likewise pressing in her invitation to make her another visit before the close of the session, and was so complaisant as to assure me, after offering any of the shrubbery and young trees, if I would come again toward the spring I should find a very different appearance, and be furnished with whatever I wished to send home.

"We tarried till about half after two, and then took our leave."

Another of these Congressional outings was to the Great Falls of the Potomac.

A state dinner is thus described,—February 6, 1802:

“Dined at the President’s. Messrs. Foster, Hillhouse, and Ross, of the Senate, General Bond, Wadsworth, Woods, Hastings, Tenney, Read, and myself. Dinner not as elegant as when we dined before. Rice soup, round of beef, turkey, mutton, ham, loin of veal, cutlets of mutton or veal, fried eggs, fried beef, a *pie called macaroni*, which appeared to be a rich crust filled with strillions of onions or shallots, which I took it to be, tasted very strong, and not agreeable. Mr. Lewis told me there was none in it; that it was an Italian dish, and what appeared like onions was made of flour and butter with a particularly strong liquor mixed with them. Ice-cream very good, crust wholly dried, crumbled into thin flakes; a dish somewhat like a pudding, inside white as milk or curd, very porous and light, covered with cream sauce very fine; many other jimcracks; a great variety of fruit; plenty of wines, and good. President social. We drank tea and viewed again the great cheese.”

Several times during the winter the members of Congress were called upon to attend the obsequies of their fellow-members. Writing on March 14th, Dr. Cutler thus describes one of these occasions:

“Yesterday we attended the funeral of one of our House, Mr. Hunter of the Southwestern or Mississippi Territory. The members of the House were put in mourning by wearing black crape on the left arm. The two Houses of Congress and their officers and the heads of departments walked in procession from the house where he died in the city to Georgetown, where he was buried. General Shepard of Massachusetts is very low. . . . Hunter died of bilious fever, and General Shepard is a bilious case. Many members were so unwell yesterday as not to attend the funeral.”

The one fascinating amusement of the capital, however, was horse-racing. Dr. Mitchell of New York makes frequent mention of the races in his letters. Dr. Cutler, on returning for his third session, October 14, 1803, found himself in time to attend them. They were under the patronage of an association of wealthy gentlemen known as "The Jockey Club," and began Tuesday, November 8th. Both Houses of Congress adjourned in order to attend. On Wednesday Dr. Cutler was present, and records that Colonel Holmes' horse (of Virginia) gained the purse, said to be about 900 dollars. He was present again on Saturday, and thus described the affair :

"The race ground is on an old field with somewhat of a rising in the centre. The race path is made about fifty feet wide, measuring just one mile from the bench of the judges round to the stage again. In the centre of this circle a prodigious number of booths are erected, which stand upon the highest part of the ground. Under them are tables spread much like the booths at commencement (at Cambridge), but on the top, for they are all built of boards on platforms to accommodate spectators. At the time of the racing these are filled with people of all descriptions. On the western side and without the circus is rising ground, where the carriages of the most respectable people take their stand. These, if they were not all *Democrats*, I should call the *noblesse*. Their carriages are elegant, and their attendants and servants numerous. They are from different parts of the Southern and Middle States, and filled principally with ladies, and about one hundred

in number. . . . While the horses were running, the whole ground within the circus was spread over with people on horseback stretching round full speed to different parts of the circus to see the race. This was a striking part of the show, for it was supposed there were about 800 on horseback, and many of them mounted on excellent horses. There were about 200 carriages and between 3,000 and 4,000 people—black, and white and yellow ; of all conditions, from the President of the United States to the beggar in his rags ; of all ages, and of both sexes, for I should judge one third were females. . . . it was said the toll collected from carriages and horses (people on foot passed free) was 1,200 dollars. Mr. Tayloe of this city . . . had five horses run one on each day. . . . It is said Holmes has sold one of his winning horses for 3,500 dollars.”

Vast sums, we are told, were bet by individuals, one Congressman was said to have lost in private bets \$700.

Of distinguished visitors during this early period, the city seems to have had no lack. Thomas Paine, the man who did so much to precipitate the Revolution of 1776, and who had returned to America from France in 1802, spent nearly the whole winter at the capital, lodging at Lovell's Hotel. Dr. Mitchell, who met him at Mrs. Gallatin's, gives this pen-portrait of him :

“ He has a red and rugged face which looks as if it had been much hackneyed in the service of the world. His eyes are black and lively, his nose somewhat aquiline and pointing downward. It corresponds in

color with the fiery appearance of his cheeks. He is fond of talking and very full of anecdote."

Baron Humboldt, the famous scientist and traveller, was a visitor in the spring of 1804.

"We have lately had a great treat," wrote Mrs. Madison to a friend, "in the company of a charming Prussian Baron. All the ladies say they are in love with him, notwithstanding his lack of personal charms. He is the most polite, modest, well informed, and interesting traveller we have ever met, and is much pleased with America. I hope one day you will become acquainted with our charming Baron Humboldt. . . . He had with him a train of philosophers, who, though clever and entertaining, did not compare to the Baron."

Captains Lewis and Clarke, whom Jefferson had sent in 1803 to discover the sources of the Missouri and find a path to the Pacific, were the heroes of the hour on their return, successful in their noteworthy undertaking. Another genius much petted by society, was Gilbert Stuart, the famous portrait-painter. "Stuart is all the rage," said a letter-writer of the day; "he is almost worked to death, and every one afraid that they will be the last to be finished." He says: "The ladies come and say: 'Dear Mr. Stuart, I am afraid you will be very much tired; you really must rest when my picture is done.'" Both Mr. and Mrs. Madison sat for their portraits.

Companies of Indians in war paint and blankets gravely stalking through the streets were not uncommon spectacles in that day. A dinner party

at the house of the British Minister, Mr. Merry, is thus described :

“Company 28—13 members of Congress. Table superb ; the plate in the centre, and in the last service the knives, forks, and spoons were gold. Six double-branched silver candlesticks, with candles lighted. A very pleasing entertainment. Coffee in the drawing-room immediately after dining ; retired about nine.”

During the administration of Mr. Madison which succeeded—1809-1817,—the town was even gayer. Among the stately personages who then formed the court circle, we have President and Mrs. Madison, Mr. and Mrs. James Monroe, Albert Gallatin and his wife, Marquis de Lafayette, John C. Calhoun, Henry Clay, Joel Barlow and his wife, and General William Van Ness and his lovely wife. Van Ness had married Marcia Burns the beautiful heiress of the old Scotch proprietor, David Burns, who had given General Washington so much trouble in buying the site of the Federal City. Burns was now dead, and the General and his wife lived in elegant style in the then fine mansion, now quite dilapidated, which stands at the foot of Seventeenth Street in front of the rude cabin that David Burns occupied during his lifetime. There were also Daniel Carroll of Duddington Manor, Captain Hull the naval hero, Madame Jerome Bonaparte wife of the brother of the First Consul, Mr. and Mrs. William Seaton (the former, editor of the powerful *National Intelligencer*), foreign diplomats, visiting nobles, officers of government, poets, artists, scholars, and travelled men from the

ends of the earth. One of the leaders of this circle was a writer of charming letters, and also kept a minute diary of events, from which we quote.

In 1812, the races continued to be the fashionable as well as popular diversion. In October, 1812, having just come to Washington to reside, she writes :

“Yesterday was a day of all days in Washington, hundreds of strangers from Maryland and Virginia in their grand equipages to see a race. Governor Wright with his horses to run, Col. Holmes with his, and people of every condition straining at full speed, Mr. and Mrs. Madison, the departments of government, all, all for the race. Major L., who is hand and glove with every grandee, and perfectly in his element, called for William while I accompanied Dr. and Mrs. Blake, and old Governor Wright of Maryland, in their handsome carriage to the field. It was an exhilarating spectacle even if one took no interest in the main event of the day ; and such an assemblage of stylish equipages I never before witnessed. A large number of agreeable persons, residents and strangers were introduced to us.”

Another day Mrs. Madison's first drawing-room of the season was held :

“Joseph and R. started in fine style, the latter sporting *five* cravats, Joseph contenting himself with *three*. William was much solicited to accompany them, but as I have not yet been presented to her majesty, and it not being etiquette to appear in public until that ceremony be performed, he preferred remaining with me. Mrs. Madison told Joseph that she anticipated much pleasure in my acquaintance.”

She was presented early in November :

“On Tuesday William and I repaired to the palace between four and five o'clock, our carriage letting us down *after* the first comers and *before* the *last*. It is customary on whatever occasion to advance to the upper end of the room, pay your obeisance to Mrs. Madison, courtesy to his Highness, and take a seat ; after this ceremony being at liberty to speak to acquaintances or amuse yourself as at another party. The party already assembled consisted of the Treasurer of the United States, Mr. Russell the American Minister to England, Mr. Cutts brother-in-law to Mrs. Madison, Gen. Van Ness and family, Gen. Smith and daughter of New York, Patrick Magruder's family, Col. Goodwyn and daughter, Mr. Coles the private Secretary, Washington Irving the author of 'Knickerbocker' and 'Salamagundi,' Mr. Thomas an European, a young Russian, Mr. Poindexter, William R. King, and two other gentlemen ; and these with Mr. and Mrs. Madison, and Payne Todd, their son, completed the select company.

“Mrs. Madison very handsomely came to me and led me nearest the fire, introduced Mrs. Magruder, and sat down between us, politely conversing on familiar subjects, and by her own ease of manner making her guests feel at home. Mr. King came to our side *sans cérémonie*, and gayly chatted with us until dinner was announced. Mrs. Magruder by priority of age was entitled to the right hand of her hostess, and I, in virtue of being a stranger, to the next seat, Mr. Russell to her left, Mr. Coles at the foot of the table, the President in the middle, which relieves him from the trouble of serving guests, drinking wine, etc. The dinner was certainly very fine ; but still I was rather surprised, as it did not surpass some

I have eaten in Carolina. There were many French dishes, and exquisite wines, I presume, by the praises bestowed on them ; but I have been so little accustomed to drink wine, that I could not discern the difference between sherry and rare old Burgundy or Madeira. Comment on the quality of the wine seems to form the chief topic after the removal of the cloth and during the dessert, at which, by the way, no pastry is countenanced. Ice-creams, maccaroons, preserves, and various cakes are placed on the table, which are removed for almonds raisins, pecan nuts, apples, pears, etc. Candles were introduced before the ladies left the table ; and the gentlemen continued half an hour longer to drink a social glass.

“ Meantime Mrs. Madison insisted on my playing on her elegant grand piano a waltz for Miss Smith and Miss Magruder to dance, the figure of which she instructed them in. By this time the gentlemen came in, and we adjourned to the tea-room, and here, in the most delightful manner imaginable, I shared with Miss Smith, who is remarkably intelligent, the pleasure of Mrs. Madison’s conversation on books, men, and manners, literature in general, and many special branches of knowledge. I never spent a more rational or pleasing half hour than that which preceded our return home. On paying our compliments at parting we were politely and particularly invited to attend the levee the next evening. . . .

“ I would describe the dignified appearance of Mrs. Madison, but I could not do her justice. ’T is not her form, ’t is not her face, it is the woman altogether I should wish you to see. She wears a crimson cap that almost hides her forehead, but which becomes her extremely, and reminds one of a crown from its brilliant appearance contrasted with the white satin folds and her

jet black curls ; but her demeanor is so far removed from the hauteur generally attendant on royalty, that your fancy can carry the resemblance no further than the head dress. . . . Mr. Madison had no leisure for the ladies, every moment of his time is engrossed by the crowd of male visitors."

On one occasion several hundred ladies and gentlemen—our annalist among them—were invited to a *fête* on board the *Constellation*, Captain Stewart,—a frigate famous for her great beauty and size.

"This, of all the sights I ever witnessed," she says "was the most interesting, grand, and novel. William, Joseph, R., and I went together, and as the vessel lay in the stream off the point, there were several beautiful little yachts to convey the guests to the scene of festivity. On reaching the deck we were ushered immediately under the awning, composed of many flags, and found ourselves in the presence of hundreds of ladies and gentlemen. The effect was astonishing. Every color of the rainbow, every form and fashion, nature and art, ransacked to furnish gay and suitable habiliments for the belles, who, with the beaux in their court dresses, were gayly dancing to the inspiring strains of a magnificent band. The ladies had assumed youth and beauty in their persons, taste and splendor in their dress, thousands of dollars having been expended by dashing fair ones in preparation of this *fête*. . . . At the upper end of the quarter-deck sat Mrs. Madison, to whom we all paid our respects, and then participated in the conversation and amusements with our friends, among whom were Mrs. Monroe, Mrs. Gallatin, etc. I did not dance (though 't was not for want of asking), being totally unacquainted with the present style of cotillons, which were danced in the

interstices, that is, on a space of four feet square. There was more opportunity to display agility than grace, as an iron ring, coil of rope, or gun-carriage would prostrate a beau or belle."

A number of gentlemen were introduced to her, among them the gallant Captain Hull and Lieutenant Morris, who "so nobly fought the foe" on board the *Constitution*.

"We naturally, in imagination," she continues, "frame the figure of any character of celebrity; and I must confess to being considerably disenchanted in my fancied hero's appearance. A little sturdy, fat-looking fellow, with a pair of good black eyes, but not 'like Mars to threaten or command.' I should never have suspected the gallant Captain Hull and the jolly little man to be one and the same person. Lieutenant Morris has a more interesting appearance; is pale and thin. . . . The banquet consisted of every delicacy that the District could produce—claret, Burgundy, and every vintage that could be wished for by connoisseurs. . . . We rose from table at dark, and returned home with an interest in the fate of every brave sailor on board. . . . It is customary (here) to breakfast at nine o'clock, dine at four, and drink tea at eight. . . . I am more surprised at the method of taking tea here than at any other meal. In private families if you step in of an evening, they give you tea, and crackers, and cold bread, and, if by invitation,—unless the party is very splendid—you have a few sweet cakes—maccaroons from the confectioners. This is the extent. Once I saw a ceremony of preserves at tea; but the deficiency is made up by the style at dinner, with extravagant wines, etc. Pastry and puddings going out of date and wine and ice-creams coming in does not suit

my taste, and I confess to preferring Raleigh hospitality. I have not even *heard* of warm bread at breakfast. . . . On Tuesday last was the grand naval ball given in honor of Captains Hull, Morris, and Stewart. The assembly was crowded with more than the usual portion of the youth and beauty of the city, and was the scene of an unprecedented event—two British flags unfurled and hung as trophies in an American assembly by American sailors—*Io Triumphe.*”

The party rode through the brightly illuminated city, and on entering the assembly room,

“heard such a loud noise and huzzahing below, and such running and confusion as I cannot describe. Lieutenant Hamilton had arrived with the flags. My first dancing essay was checked, every man deserting his partner, and in a few moments those who hoped the news to be true were gratified by ocular evidence of its certainty. . . . Young Hamilton appeared, preceded by General Cushing, Hull, Morris, his father, and many old naval and field officers, and in a moment was encircled in the arms of his mother and sisters. . . . I cried excessively, and could not check my tears, at which I was considerably abashed, but on looking around I recovered in the conviction that I was far from being singular.”

We have also in the letters an entertaining account of Mr. Gallatin’s first ball:

“The assembly was more numerous . . . more select, more elegant, than I have yet seen in the city, ladies of fifty years of age were decked with lace and ribbons, wreaths of roses and gold leaves in the false hair, wreaths of jessamine across their bosoms, and no kerchiefs,

. . . Do you remember a frontispiece to one of the plays in the British theatre, Bridget in the 'Chapter of Accidents'? I can only think of this picture in beholding such incongruity of dress; while that of young girls is equally incompatible with general propriety. . . . Madame Bonaparte is a model of fashion, and many of our belles strive to imitate her . . . but without equal éclat, as Madame Bonaparte has certainly the most transcendently beautiful back and shoulders that ever were seen. . . . It is the fashion for most of the ladies a little advanced in age to *rouge* and *pearl*, which is spoken of with as much *sang froid* as putting on their bonnets. Mrs. Monroe paints very much and has besides an appearance of youth which would induce a stranger to suppose her age to be thirty: in lieu of which she introduces them to her *granddaughter*, eighteen or nineteen years old, and to her own daughter, Mrs. Hay of Richmond. Mrs. Madison is said to rouge; but not evident to my eyes, and I do not think it true, as I am well assured I saw her color come and go at the naval ball, when the *Macedonian* flag was presented to her by young Hamilton. . . . But I have digressed from the entertainment. I am sure not ten minutes elapsed without refreshments being handed: 1st, coffee, tea, all kinds of toasts and warm cakes; 2d, ice-creams; 3d, lemonade, punch, burgundy, claret, curacoa, champagne; 4th, bonbons, cakes of all sorts and sizes; 5th, apples and oranges; 6th, confectionery; 7th, nuts, almonds, raisins; 8th, set supper, composed of tempting solid dishes, meats, savory pastries garnished with lemon; 9th, drinkables of every species; 10th, boiling chocolate. The most profuse ball ever given in Washington. . . . Young Swartwout, who was so unfortunately entangled in Burr's web, was introduced to me, and I like him much."

This year, for the first time, Washington had a daily paper—the *National Intelligencer* appearing as a daily. “The President admires it,” wrote our diaryist, “and, indeed, every one who has seen it, with this remark—‘but I am afraid it cannot be supported in such handsome style.’” Of the inauguration of Mr. Madison for his second term, March 4, 1813, she thus writes :

“Escorted by the Alexandria, Georgetown, and city companies, the President proceeded to the Capitol. Judge Marshall and the Associate Judges preceded him and placed themselves in front of the Speaker’s chair, from whence the Chief Magistrate delivered his inaugural address ; but his voice was so low and the audience so very great that scarcely a word could be distinguished. On concluding, the oath of office was administered by the Chief-Justice, and the little man was accompanied on his return to the palace by the multitude, for every creature that could afford twenty-five cents for hack-hire was present. . . . You will regret to hear that your good friend Joel Barlow is dead. I send the notice of the event from foreign papers. Although of too tender an age to appreciate the generous and brilliant qualities of this eminent man when the recipient of his kindness in Germany, I still retain a vivid remembrance of his appearance and manners.”

In 1813 General Jackson, the hero of New Orleans, is in the city. His visit, she remarks,

“has excited a great commotion. Dinners, plays, balls throughout the District. . . . Immediately on Mrs. Jackson’s arrival a dilemma was presented, and a grand debate ensued as to whether the ladies would visit her.

. . . Colonel Reid and Dr. Goodlet, the friend for years of General Jackson, having settled the question of propriety satisfactorily, all doubts were laid aside. I have seen a good deal of General Jackson and his wife, who both received me with great attention and civility. He is not striking in appearance. His features are hard-favored, his complexion sallow, and his person small. Mrs. Jackson is a totally uninformed woman in mind and manners, but extremely civil in her way."

The great event of the autumn, however, was the exhibition of some fifty paintings by the old masters at the mansion of a Mr. Calvert, of Bladensburg. This gentleman, years before, had gone to reside in Antwerp, "where he married a Miss Steers, whose father, a descendant of Rubens, and an enthusiastic devotee of art, became possessed of several masterpieces of the great Fleming, to which were added Titians, Vanderlyns, and other undoubted originals—in all about forty specimens of the old masters. During Bonaparte's absolute sway in France, and his lawless thirst for the acquisition of paintings with which to adorn the Louvre, he instituted a search for these same gems, well known in the art world, which, Mr. Steers apprehending, he secreted, and subsequently brought his treasures to his daughter in America for safe-keeping."

The Bourbons being now reinstated, Mr. Steers was about reclaiming his paintings, and Mr. Calvert, thinking that another such opportunity might never be presented to the citizens of Washington, invited all connoisseurs and amateurs to come for five days

and gratify their taste and curiosity. Everybody at all known in society went.

“Peale from Philadelphia, King and Wood from Baltimore, were transported with admiration. The Grecian Daughter, as it is called, Euphrasia—by Rubens, excited the most lively emotions of admiration; but The Unbelieving Priest, by Titian, was decided by them to be incomparably the most splendid effort of genius in that superb collection.”

In 1818, the Calhouns came to reside in their neighborhood.

“You could not fail to love and appreciate, as I do, her charming qualities: a devoted mother, tender wife, industrious, cheerful, intelligent, with the most perfectly equable temper. Mr. Calhoun is a profound statesman and elegant scholar, you know by public report, but his manners in a private circle are endearing as well as captivating, and it is as much impossible not to love him at home as it would be to refuse your admiration of his oratorical powers in the Hall of Representatives.”

The opening of Monroe's administration—1818—brings us to our own times, for there are several well preserved old ladies and gentlemen in the city who remember very well the inauguration of President Monroe on March 4, 1818.

“At that time,” said one of these raconteurs, “Pennsylvania Avenue was unpaved and unlighted, and set with double rows of Lombardy poplars. I well remember the inaugural procession plodding through the mud to the Capitol. Union Hotel in Georgetown was the prominent hotel, and much frequented by Congressmen. There

was a stage called the Royal George that carried them to and from the Capitol. Many of the wealthier members kept their own equipages. I have often seen Senator Rufus King of New York riding to and from the sessions in his coach and four, and John Randolph on horseback with a colored man behind him. Colonel Benton, the famous Missouri senator, rode in the same way."

In Jackson's day official society became very democratic in tone. Everybody, including the servants, flocked to the levees, and even to the Cabinet receptions. There is a story of a cartman who left his vehicle in the street, and entered the White House in frock and overalls to shake hands with the President. This easy, provincial state of affairs seems to have obtained in official society quite to the period of the civil war. At least during the closing years of that period, we find a British Minister giving in a home journal—*Once a Week*—this picture of society in his time. Making due allowance for insular prejudice, it may be regarded as a truthful description. He says :

"The first social duty was a presentation at the White House, or Executive Mansion, as it had been re-named.

"The President appointed the evening as the time when I was to have the honor of introduction to his presence, and it was a rude shock to British feelings, accustomed to pomp and grandeur as the natural accessories to power, to find the President of the Republic of the United States living in the palace of the nation much as a bankrupt merchant might, by kind permission of his creditors, occupy the scene of his past glories until his affairs were wound up. Certainly the highest in the land

gave example of the strictest economy ; one wavering lamp just enabled us to trace the outline of the handsome Greek portico, while awaiting the tardy answer to the bell. At last peered through the door a dirty Irishman, who, having satisfied himself as to our identity, reluctantly half-opened the door to let us through, and then preceded us along some dim passages to the presence-chamber. During this rather lengthy walk I had leisure to admire the Republican simplicity of his attire, which was not only dingy and greasy, but boasted of sundry rents and patches.

“ This functionary, who united in his ragged person the offices of chamberlain and usher of the white rod, having retired, we amused ourselves by criticising the tawdry furniture and decorations, and studying the by no means prepossessing features of the great Washington, founder of the Immortal Republic.

“ At length in shambled a tall, uncouth figure, arrayed much in the fashion of Dominie Sampson, in ill-made morning clothes, and with huge feet encased in muddy boots ; to my surprise, all around me were doing obeisance to the President. With head on one side he advanced, shook hands with ungainly courtesy, and begged us to be seated. His venerable gray locks, hanging in waving masses on his shoulders, and his high, bossy forehead, lent him an air of pseudo-benevolence which his sly mouth belied. The audience soon ended, his extreme caution and reserve freezing all efforts at conversation.

“ The same awkwardness with which he had made his entrance, marked his exit as he shuffled off the scene.

“ The winter time is the season of gayety at Washington, and well the Americans economize every moment. They wisely prefer seeing their friends, to being merely

acquainted with the outside of their doors, as so frequently happens in London. Instead, therefore, of packs of cards being exchanged—most fruitless folly,—each lady proclaims to her acquaintances which day of the week she will receive from twelve till four, and in that way has the pleasure, not only of really meeting her friends weekly, but also has the option of six days to herself unmolested by visitors.

“To give an idea of the working of this system—Monday, all the government ministers’ wives receive; Tuesday, all the senators’ wives; Wednesday, the houses of the diplomats are thrown open; Thursday, the judges’ wives’ entertain; and so on, from one week’s end to another, all the winter.

“In this way those who wish can pay eight or ten visits a day in proportion to the time they wish to kill.

“Let me briefly describe a morning reception in the height of the season:

“At the door stands the lady of the house, resplendent in the last ultra-French fashions, ready with a compliment for every new-comer, who must return the same, both capital and interest, and besides assuring her she looks ‘quite lovely,’ must titillate her vanity by insinuating how superior her reception is to the eight or ten he has already visited.

“Gratified pride and vanity increased the good lady’s complacency, and being profusely bespattered with compliments, and satiated with flattery, she swims about the room like a peacock on a sunny day, with all its plumes spread for admiration. The visitor, having discharged his volley of pretty nothings, then rushes boldly into the busy talking throng, which gives the salon the appearance of an auction-room, as the talkers seldom sit down. Such a buzz as there is, such significant little groups,

canvassing with the utmost volubility and vehemence the current topics of the day, the last duel murder, row in the House of the Representatives, or savage onslaught in the Senate.

“The young ladies generally cluster round the inevitable refreshment table, and, while distributing broiled oysters, chocolate, cakes, and wine, keep at least six or eight ‘beaux’ each in full talk. Sometimes, in the largest houses—such as that of the late Senator Douglas, the well-known ‘little giant,’—the shutters would be shut, the gas lighted, the musicians summoned, and a dance got up, which would last with unflagging energy till six in the evening, when the exhausted dancers found a ball-supper prepared to revive them. To see the pretty girls whirling about, some with bonnets and cloaks on, reminded one too much of Cham’s illustrations of the ‘Jardin des Fleurs.’

“Once married, the girls—particularly the Southern ones—settle into grave and staid matrons, household cares and duties supplant those of society, and, unless the husband holds some public office necessitating hospitality, the gay belle of a few seasons ago becomes a most ‘domestic’ character, and looks back on her past gayety and whirl of excitement without regret. In Baltimore, marriage almost excludes from society the flattered beauty of yesterday, transformed into Mrs. Greenleaf Parrott; or Mrs. Powhattan Ellis finds herself deserted, and gives up a society where she has no longer a place.

“What is in the men meagreness and punyness, becomes littleness and delicate outline in the women. Their figures are very graceful, their complexion pure alabaster, their eyes large and expressive, their mouths well shaped. Classical outline of features is seldom or never seen; their voices are their only defects; perhaps

it may be said, as in Gay's fable, 'the smallest speck is seen in snow.' I think especially of one 'vision of delight,' whose short life was cut short by cold caught at her first ball. Only child and daughter of Captain Dahlgren, the American Armstrong, her sad fate thrilled every heart with sorrow. On the whole, the social condition of Washington is, or was, simpler than in England—to my mind happier. You say frivolous—granted; but compare frivolity with frivolity, and is it worse than a London season?

"Balls and routs, which are almost the same in every capital, had there an element of originality, as the men came frequently in morning coats and checked trousers, and an Orson, such as 'Sam Houston,' is not to be seen every day. His adopted daughter, the child of a Cherokee or Sioux chief, was also unique in her way.

"But there is one entertainment which can be seen nowhere else—a Presidential Reception. Such a motley crew throng in at the door,—rowdies, cab-drivers, belles, beaux; diplomats, like the new discovered fossil, half golden-scaled lizard, half-crested bird; last, not least, a troop of Red Indians in war paint, with their best necklaces of bears' claws, come to do honor to their great father. Having first shaken hands with the President, who stood in the centre of a large salon, we waited to watch the behavior of the crowd. One and all insisted on vigorously shaking the poor old President's hand, holding up afterwards their dirty brats to be kissed. The next day the President had rheumatism in his arm, and no wonder.

"A fancy ball at Washington was right good fun. The costumes were so queer, the notions about Italian peasants, marquises, knights, and crusaders being of the most indefinite nature.

“Characters in satirical novels were taken up, and well supported, especially by the women, who have in large measure the ‘gift of the gab.’ Their repartees were somewhat Elizabethan in freedom, but they had true wit none the less.

“No one had greater command of withering sarcasm, or fired off more pungent jokes, than Mrs. Jefferson Davis. Tall and handsome, her flashing black eyes seemed destined to command, and the South, once free, will feel she owes at least half her triumph to the energy and character of the wife of the President.

“Jefferson Davis did not mix much in general society; his health was delicate, his mind incessantly occupied on graver matters than the idle chit-chat of society, of which, doubtless, the cream was served up to him by his clever wife.

“I am surprised to see the newspapers represent the Southern President as tall; he is merely of middle height, certainly shorter than his majestic partner, very sallow and fragile looking, with the sight of one eye gone—but spirited, daring, and nervously energetic in his appearance.

“Mason, Cass, and Crittenden were notable exceptions to the generality of politicians. Political life in the States involved so much that was utterly abhorrent to the mind of a refined and well-educated man, that the arena was too much abandoned to an inferior class, whose sensibility to honor was callous, and who cared not for upholding the dignity and integrity of the nation, so long as they could, in the general scramble which occurred every four years, secure some comfortable post for a friend or relation. The politicians, are, therefore, no fair sample of the American gentleman. They are of all grades of society, have generally tried their hands in

every profession, and been country lawyers, school-masters, and backwoodsmen, turn about. They are as self-sufficient as they are ignorant; violence in their speeches and vituperation against England make up in their own eyes, and those of their colleagues, for calm reasoning and enlightened views. England was invaluable political capital to them. Did any man dread his popularity waning in his own State, straight he poured forth in the Capitol a frantic harangue against the 'Britishers,' and all hearts were his again; that is to say, the hearts of the 'rowdies,' his supporters."

During the war society was in a chaotic state, and for several years thereafter there was a formative or re-formative period. Of the people in war time, a volatile *Atlantic* writer has this description:

"If the beggars of Dublin, the cripples of Constantinople, and the lepers of Damascus should assemble in Baden-Baden during a Congress of Kings, then Baden-Baden would resemble Washington. Presidents, Senators, Honorables, Judges, Generals, Commodores, Governors, and the Exs of all these, congregate here as thick as pickpockets at a horse race, or women at a wedding in church. Add Ambassadors, Plenipotentiaries, Lords, Counts, Barons, Chevaliers, the great and small fry of the Legations, Captains, Lieutenants, Claim-Agents, Negroes, Perpetual-Motion-Men, Fire-Eaters, Irishmen, Plug-Uglies, Hoosiers, Gamblers, Californians, Mexicans, Japanese, Indians, and Organ-Grinders, together with females to match all varieties of males, and you have a vague notion of the people of Washington."

He describes the "three circles" of society as follows:

“The Circle of the Mudsill includes Negroes, Clerks, Irish Laborers, Patent and other Agents, Hackmen, Faro-Dealers, Washerwomen, and Newspaper-Correspondents. In the Hotel Circle the Newest Strangers, Harpists, Members of Congress, Concertina-Men, Provincial Judges, Card-Writers, College-Students, Unprotected Females, ‘Star’ and ‘States’ Boys, Stool-Pigeons, Contractors, Sellers of Toothpicks, and Beau Hickman, are found. The Circle of the White House embraces the President, the Cabinet, the Chiefs of Bureaus, the Embassies, Corcoran and Riggs, formerly Mr. Forney, and until recently George Sanders and Isaiah Rynders. The little innermost circle is intended to represent a select body of residents, intense exclusives, who keep aloof from the other circles and hold them all in equal contempt. This circle is known only by report; in all probability it is a myth. It is worthy of remark that the circles of the White House and the hotels rise higher and sink lower than that of the Mudsill, but whether this is a fact, or a mere necessity of the diagram is not known.”

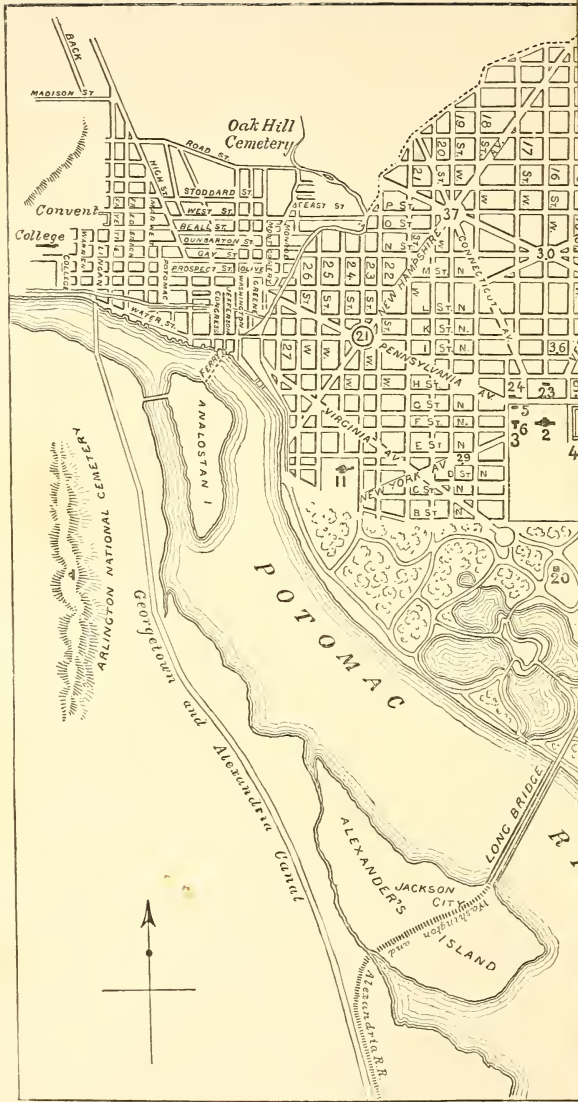
The decade between 1870-1880 was an era of extravagant display and profuseness. Everybody seemed to be rich—made so by the war,—and each householder vied with his neighbor in the magnificence of his house and appointments and the costliness of his entertainments. The following account of a society ball in those days—1874—might be regarded as overdrawn, were it not found in so staid and reputable a magazine as *Lippincott's* then was :

“It is like an Aztec revel for its flowers: the great stairways, leading up and down between the rooms that

glow with light and resound with the tones of flute and violin, are wound with shrubs where art conceals every thing but the branch and blossom ; doors are arched with palms and long banana leaves ; flowers swing from lintel and window and bracket, stream from the pictures, crown the statues ; sprays of dropping vines wreath the chandeliers that shed the soft brilliance of wax-lights around them ; mantels are covered with moss ; tables are bedded with violets ; tall vases overflow with roses and heliotropes, with cold camellias and burning geraniums ; the orchestra is hidden with latticed bloom and bud ; and yellow acacias and scarlet passion-flowers and a great white orchid with a honeyed breath encircle the fern-filled basin, where a fountain plays. The murmur of music the wealth of perfume, make the atmosphere an enchantment. A crowd of gorgeous hues and tissues, bare bosoms and blazing jewels, ascend and descend the stairs : here are women the fame of whose beauty is world-wide, wearing lace whose intricate design, over the pale shimmer of some perfectly tinted silk beneath, represents the labor of a lifetime, wearing necklaces and tiaras of diamonds, where the great stones set in a frosty floral splendor seem to throb with a spirit of their own. There of course is the President ; yonder is the Chief-Justice ; here again the general of all our armies ; here flash the glittering insignia of soldiers ; here the fantastic array of diplomats ; down one vista the dancers float through their mazes ; down another shine the crystal and gold and silver of the tables, red with Burgundy and Bordeaux, tempting with terrapin and truffle, with spiced meats and salads, pastries, confections, and fruits ; and close by is the punch-room. You have your choice of the frozen article or of that claret concoction to hold whose glowing ruby a bowl has been hollowed in the ice

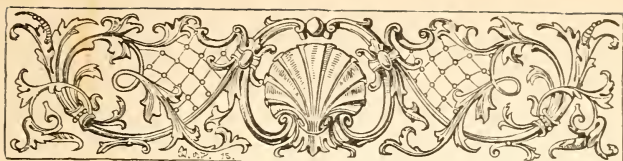
itself, or of the champagne punch, where to every litre of the champagne a litre of brandy, a litre of red rum, a litre of green tea are given, and where you see a flushed and fevered damsel dipping a ladle and tossing off her jorum as coolly as though she had not had her three wines at dinner that day, and had not, in half the houses of her dozen morning calls, sipped her sherry or set down her little punch-glass empty of its delicious mixture of old spirits and fermenting fruit-juices. Perhaps that sight sets you to thinking. You may have been attracted earlier in the night by her delicate toilette and her face pure as a pearl : you saw her later, warm from the dance, eating and drinking in the supper-room ; then her partner's arm was round her waist, her head was on his shoulder, and she was plunging into the German, whirling to maddening measures, presently caught in a new embrace, flying from that man's arms to another's, growing wild with the abandon of the figure, hair flying, dress disordered, powder caked, face burning, till, pausing an instant for the champagne in a servant's hands, your girl with the face as pure as a pearl seemed nothing but a bacchante. And you ask yourself, 'What is to be the end for her, of these midnights rich in every delight of vanity—the thin slipper, the bare flesh, the brain loaded with false tresses, the pores stopped with the dust of white and pink ball, the heated dance, the indigestible banquet, the scanty sleep to get which she doses herself nightly with some tremendous drug?' You wonder what emotions are stimulated by the whirling dances, the rich dainties, the breath of the exotics, the waltz-music, the common contact, the emulation of dress, the unseasonable hours, the twice-breathed air, the everlasting drams. 'I saw Florimonde going the round of her half-dozen parties the other night,' wrote a 'looker-on in

Venice,' toward the close of the last season. 'What a resplendent creature she was, the hazel-eyed beauty, with the faintest tinge of sunset hues on her oval cheeks! Her dress was of that peculiar tarnished shade of pink—like yellow sunshine suffusing a pale rose—which made the white shoulders rising from it whiter and more polished yet; the panier and scarf were of yellowest point lace; and a necklace of filigree and of large pale topazes, each carved in cameo, illuminated the whole. Maudita went out with Florimonde, too, that night, as she had gone every night for two months before. Skirt over skirt of fluffy net flowed round Maudita, and let their misty clouds blow about the trailing ornaments of long green grasses and blue corn-flowers that she wore, while puffs and falls half-veiled the stomacher of Mexican turquoise and diamond sparks, whose device imitated a spray of the same flowers; and in among the masses of her glittering, waving auburn hair rested a slender diadem of the turquoise again—that whose nameless tint, half blue, half green, makes it an inestimable treasure among the Navajoes, as it was once among the Aztecs, who called it the *chalchivitl*; each cluster of Maudita's turquoises set in a frost-work of finest diamonds—a splendid toilette, indeed, as fresh and radiant as the morning dew upon the meadows. When they set out on the love-path, that is. When they came home from it, and from all the fatigues and fervors of the German, a metamorphosis. The gauzy dress was so fringed and trodden on and torn that it seemed to hold together like many an ill-assorted marriage, by the cohesion of habit alone; the hair—Madge Wildfire's was of more respectable appearance; the powder had fallen on arms and shoulders; and to my critical eyes, if to no others, the sunset hues remained on only one of Florimonde's cheeks.' "



TO MAP OF
NGTON.

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- Barracks.
- House.
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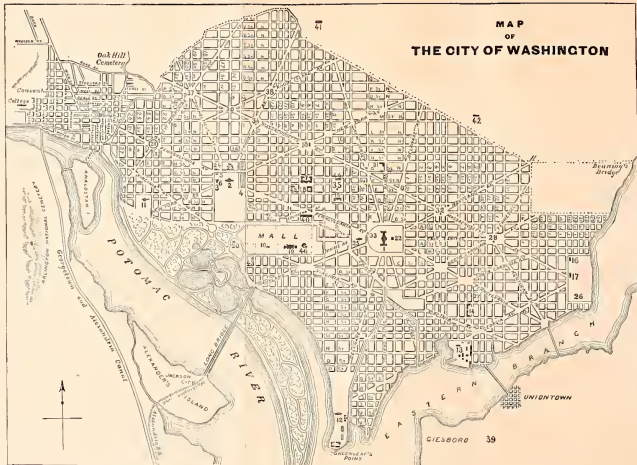
CHAPTER XXV.

MODERN SOCIAL PHASES—CLUBS—LETTERS—ART.

MODERN Washington society is composed of three classes, with separating lines quite distinctly drawn: The official class, the old Southern element, very exclusive, and said to be very charming; and the newer people of wealth and leisure from the North and West. Official society is composed of the officers of government, Senators and Representatives, army and navy officers, and their families. In this circle social customs obtain quite the opposite of those observed elsewhere. The stranger, for instance, is expected to call first, and in the case of the higher officers of government, the person called upon is under no obligation to return the call.

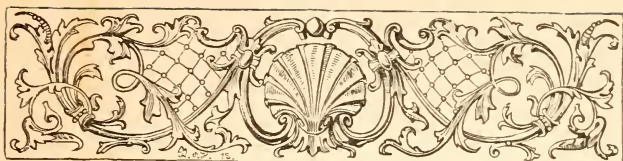
The routine of official society comprises stated receptions at the White House,—which every one is privileged to attend,—Cabinet receptions, and state dinners to the justices of the Supreme Court, members of the Cabinet, members of the Diplomatic Corps, Senators and Representatives, given by the President at the White House, and to stated receptions by ladies of Cabinet Ministers, Senators, and Representatives at their homes. Members of the Diplomatic Corps also receive and entertain during the season.

MAP
OF
THE CITY OF WASHINGTON



REFERENCES TO MAP OF
WASHINGTON.

1. The Capitol.
2. White House.
3. Department of State.
4. Treasury Department.
5. War Department.
6. Navy Department.
7. Patent Office.
8. Post-Office Department.
9. Department of Justice.
10. Department of Agriculture.
11. Naval Observatory.
12. United States Arsenal.
13. Navy Yard.
14. Marine Corps Barracks.
15. District Court-House.
16. District Jail.
17. City Asylum.
18. Mount Vernon Square.
19. Smithsonian Institution.
20. Washington Monument.
21. Washington Circle.
22. State of Washington.
23. Lafayette Park.
24. Corcoran Gallery of Art.
25. National Botanical Garden.
26. Congressional Cemetery.
27. Naval Hospital.
28. Lincoln Park.
29. Rawlins Square.
30. Scott Square.
31. Government Printing-Office.
32. Green Square.
33. Naval Monument.
34. Thomas Circle.
35. Judiciary Square.
36. McPherson Square.
37. Dupont Circle.
38. Iowa Circle.
39. Government Hospital for Insane.
40. Centre Market.
41. Howard University.
42. National Deaf-Mute College.
43. Bureau of Engraving and Printing.
44. New Pension Building.
45. Army Medical Museum.
46. National Museum.
47. Potomac River Park.



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That factor of modern social life, the club, is fairly well developed in Washington. The directory gives eighteen purely social clubs. Of these one of the most notable is the Metropolitan, whose membership is drawn chiefly from the Army and Navy, the Diplomatic Corps, and the officers of government. This club was organized on the 15th of March, 1882, "for literary, mutual improvement, and social purposes," and now numbers some five hundred and eighty-two members, including permanent and non-resident. It has an elegant club-house on H Street, in the fashionable quarter, furnished with restaurant, reading-room, library, and all other necessary conveniences. Perhaps the club of most marked individuality is the Gridiron, a dining club composed solely of Washington journalists and correspondents. Its membership is limited to forty members. It was organized in January, 1885, by several journalists, who had been in the habit of meeting daily at dinner, at first casually, and later by design, with so much pleasure and profit, that they decided to organize a club of their fellow-workers, with the object of uniting them in closer bonds of friendship, and for the promotion of good fellowship. That veteran journalist, Ben: Perley Poore, was the first president; the second was Fred. Perry Powers, of the *Chicago Times*; the third, Major John M. Carson, of the *Philadelphia Ledger*. Mr. Powers is now president. The club gives stated dinners at Welcker's or Chamberlain's—usually six or eight in the course of the season, to which members are privileged to bring guests; these guests are usually

their friends among senators, representatives, and high officers of government. All the members of the present Cabinet, Speaker Carlisle, Max O. Rell, Henry Watterson, and the brilliant Clover Club of Philadelphia, have been numbered among the guests of the club. Recently the club has provided that ten members may be chosen outside of the journalistic profession, but they have not as yet been elected.

The Cosmos Club has also a national reputation. It is composed of the scientists, artists, and literary men of the capital, and was incorporated December 13, 1878, as the successor of the old Washington Scientific Club.

Its particular objects, as stated in its articles of incorporation, are "the advancement of its members in science, literature, and art, their mutual improvement by social intercourse, and the acquisition and maintenance of a library." A specialist in any branch of physics, art, or letters introduced at the Cosmos usually finds men there proficient in and able to talk intelligently upon his special theme. A review of the more prominent members shows how completely Washington has become the scientific centre of the country. In astronomy are such specialists as Professors J. R. Eastman of the Naval Observatory, S. P. Langley, Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, William Harkness and Simon Newcomb, the latter also able to inform one as to the latest experiments in psychology, or to write an exhaustive essay on the wages question. In geology there is Major J. W. Powell, of the United States Geological Survey, an authority on all matters relating to the

earth's crust, with S. F. Emmons, G. K. Gilbert, Arnold Hague, Marcus Baker, and Captain C. E. Dutton. In ethnology Major Powell, who is also a specialist in that science, with Colonel Garrick Mallory (author and defender of the theory that there are now more Indians on the North American continent than there were when Columbus discovered it), Dr. J. S. Billings, Director of the Army Medical Museum, W. H. Holmes, whose studies of aboriginal art in pottery have been reinforced by clever sketches of his subjects, H. W. Henshaw, Otis T. Mason, Dr. Washington Matthews, who attended General Sheridan in his last illness, and Dr. H. C. Yarrow, the present president of the club, who as an ethnologist is noted for his knowledge of the mortuary customs of the world. Among explorers and geographers are General Greely, whose polar expedition reached a higher latitude than any that had preceded it, Henry Gannett, Chief Topographer of the Geological Survey, George Kennan, the famous Siberian explorer, Commander J. R. Bartlett, of the Navy, William T. Hornaday (both familiar to the reading public from their tales of travel and adventure), and Gardiner G. Hubbard, who is at the head of one of the great geographical societies of the world. In chemistry there are Dr. J. H. Kidder, of the *Swa-tara* expedition, H. W. Wiley, F. W. Clarke, and Dr. Carl Barus. Among naturalists, Colonel McDonald, United States Commissioner of Fisheries, Professor G. Brown Goode, Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, Professor C. V. Riley, entomologist of the Agricultural Department, Lester F. Ward,

the botanist, Dr. C. Hart Merriam, and William H. Dall, zoölogists, and Dr. B. E. Fernow, the leading forestry expert of the country, Prof. A. Graham Bell, one of the inventors of the telephone, Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, the instructor of deaf-mutes, A. R. Spofford, the librarian, and scores of others notable for excellence in some department of learning, are usually to be seen in the club rooms. The clubhouse, which stands on the corner of H Street and Madison Place, overlooking Lafayette Park, is a mansion of historic fame. In its spacious drawing-rooms the lovely Dolly Madison once held her Republican court. Here also dwelt the heroic Admiral Wilkes. Since the club bought it a large assembly hall has been added, which is used for the monthly business meetings of the club, and is also given, rent free, to the meetings of the biological, philosophical, and other scientific societies of the city. During the social season the Cosmos gives loan exhibitions, at one time of Japanese curios, again of Navajo blankets, a third of architectural plans and drawings, etc., to which admission may be had by securing cards from members. There is also once a year a general art exhibition, in which not alone professional but advanced students in the art schools are asked to participate.

There is a pleasant group of literary workers at the capital. Hon. George Bancroft, the Nestor of American historical writers, Henry Adams, George Kennan, Charles Nordhoff, Messrs. Hay and Nicolay, who are writing here their great work, "The Life of Abraham Lincoln," Mrs. Frances Hodgson

Burnett, who has a charming home on Seventeenth Street, Mrs. Admiral Dahlgren, Worthington C. Ford, the writer on statistics and political economy, who is now engaged in editing the letters of Washington, and others. The literary life of the town centres in the Literary Society, an organization limited to forty persons, and which meets fortnightly during the season, at the homes of its members. On these occasions an original paper or translation by some member is read, there is music and social intercourse, and a simple collation is served. The membership is composed of twenty-five literary members, ten artists, and five musicians. A lady member is privileged to invite an escort, a gentleman to bring his wife, and the hostess may invite as many guests as her parlors will accommodate.

The fine arts cannot be said to have obtained a foothold as yet in the capital. There are artists and art schools of local celebrity, but none of national fame. The Corcoran Gallery is a museum of art. There should be in connection with it, as its founder designed and, as its trustees hope soon to institute, an academy of the fine arts, to become the centre of an artist colony, which all public-spirited citizens would like to see formed at the national capital. Nor has music that development here which has been attained in New York, Boston, Cincinnati, and other capitals.

APPENDIXES.



APPENDIX A.

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

NAMES	TERM OF OFFICE
George Washington	1789-1797
John Adams	1797-1801
Thomas Jefferson	1801-1809
James Madison	1809-1817
James Monroe	1817-1825
John Quincy Adams	1825-1829
Andrew Jackson	1829-1837
Martin Van Buren	1837-1841
William Henry Harrison,	1841 ; died April, 1841
John Tyler	1841-1845
James K. Polk	1845-1849
Zachary Taylor	1849 ; died, 1850
Millard Fillmore	1850-1853
Franklin Pierce	1853-1857
James Buchanan	1857-1861
Abraham Lincoln	1861 ; killed, 1865
Andrew Johnson	1865-1869
Ulysses S. Grant	1869-1877
Rutherford B. Hayes	1877-1881
James A. Garfield	1881 ; killed, 1881
Chester A. Arthur	1881-1885
Grover Cleveland	1885-1889
Benjamin Harrison	1889-

APPENDIX B.

CHIEF JUSTICES OF THE UNITED STATES.

FROM 1789 TO 1888.

NAME.	BORN.	DIED.	TERM OF SERVICE.		WHENCE APPOINTED.	BY WHOM APPOINTED.
John Jay.	1745	1829	1789-1795	Resigned.	New York.	Washington.
John Rutledge.	1739	1800	1795-1795	Not Confirmed.	South Carolina.	Washington.
Oliver Ellsworth.	1745	1807	1796-1799	Resigned.	Connecticut.	Washington.
John Marshall.	1755	1835	1801-1835	Died.	Virginia.	John Adams.
Roger Brooke Taney.	1777	1864	1836-1864	Died.	Maryland.	Jackson.
Salmon Portland Chase.	1808	1873	1864-1873	Died.	Ohio.	Lincoln.
Morrison R. Waite.	1816	1888	1874-1888	Died.	Ohio.	Grant.
Melville W. Fuller.	1834		1888-		Illinois.	Cleveland.

ASSOCIATE JUSTICES.

The Associate Justices and their terms of service have been: John Rutledge, 1789-1791; William Cushing, 1789-1810; James Wilson, 1789-1798; John Blair, 1789-1796; Robert R. Harrison, 1789-1790; James Iredell, 1790-1799; Thomas Johnson, 1791-1793; William Patterson, 1793-1806; Samuel Chase, 1796-1811; Bushrod Washington, 1798-1829; Alfred Moore, 1799-1807; William Johnson, 1804-1834; Brockholst Livingston, 1806-1823; Thomas Todd, 1807-1826; Gabriel Duval, 1811-1836; Joseph Story, 1811-1845; Smith Thompson, 1823-1843; Robert Trimble, 1826-1828; John McLean, 1829-1861; Henry Baldwin, 1830-1846; James M. Wayne, 1835-1867; Phillip P. Barbour, 1836-1841; John Catron, 1837-1865; John McKinley, 1837-1852; Peter V. Daniel, 1841-1860; Samuel Nelson, 1845-1872; Levi Woodbury, 1845-1851; Robert C. Grier, 1846-1870; Benjamin R. Curtis, 1851-1857; John A. Campbell, 1853-1861; Nathan Clifford, 1858-1881; Noah H. Swayne, 1862-1881; Samuel F. Miller, 1862-; David Davis, 1862-1877; Stephen J. Field, 1866-; Edwin M. Stanton, 1869-1869; William Strong, 1870-; Joseph P. Bradley, 1870-; Ward Hunt, 1872-1882; John M. Harlan, 1877-; William B. Woods, 1881-1888; Stanley Matthews, 1881-; Horace Gray, 1882-; Samuel Blatchford, 1882-; Lucius Q. C. Lamar, 1888-.

APPENDIX C.

MAYORS OF WASHINGTON DURING THE MUNICIPAL
GOVERNMENT, 1802-1871.

NAMES	TERM OF OFFICE
Robert Brent	1802-1812
Daniel Rapine	1812-1813
James H. Blake	1813-1817
Benjamin G. Orr	1817-1819
Samuel M. Smallwood	1819-1822
T. Carberry	1822-1824
Roger C. Wrightman	1824-1827
Joseph Gales, Jr.	1827-1830
John P. Van Ness	1830-1834
W. A. Bradley	1834-1836
Peter Force	1836-1840
W. W. Seaton	1840-1850
Walter Lenox	1850-1852
John W. Maury	1852-1854
John T. Towers	1854-1856
W. B. Magruder	1856-1858
J. G. Berrett	1858-1862
Richard Wallach	1862-1868
S. J. Bowen	1868-1870
M. G. Emery	1870-1871

APPENDIX D.

SALARIES OF CHIEF OFFICIALS OF GOVERNMENT.

President	\$50,000
Vice-President	8,000

Chief Justice	\$10,500
Speaker of the House	8,000
Members of Congress	5,000
Cabinet Officers	8,000
Associate Justices, Supreme Court	10,000
Justices of Circuit Courts	6,000
Treasurer	6,000
Register of the Treasury	4,000
Commissioner of Customs	4,000
Superintendent of Naval Observatory	5,000
Superintendent of Census	5,000
Superintendent of Bureau of Engraving and Printing	4,500
Public Printer	4,500
Superintendent of the Signal Service	4,000
Director of Geological Surveys	6,000
Director of the Mint	4,500
Commissioner of General Land Office	4,000
Commissioner of Pensions	3,600
Commissioner of Agriculture	3,000
Commissioner of Indian Affairs	3,000
Commissioners of Education	3,000
Commander of Marine Corps	3,500
Superintendent of Coast and Geodetic Survey	6,000
Supervising Agents Internal Revenue	\$12.00 per day.
Assistant Postmasters-General	3,500
Chief Clerk	2,200

Postmasters :

New York City	8,000
All others of First Class	3,000 to 4,000
Second Class	2,000 to 3,000
Third Class	1,000 to 2,000
Fourth Class	under 1,000

Diplomatic :

Ministers to Germany, Great Britain, France, and Russia, each	\$17,500
Brazil, China, Austria, Italy, Mexico, Japan, Spain	12,000
Chili, Peru, Central America	10,000
Argentine Confederation, Hawaii, Bel- gium, Hayti, Colombia, Netherlands, Sweden, Turkey, and Venezuela	7,500
Switzerland, Denmark, Paraguay, Bolivia, Portugal	5,000
Liberia	4,000

Officers of the Army :

General	13,500
Lieut.-General	11,000
Major-General	7,500
Brigadier-General	5,500
Colonel	3,500
Lieutenant-Colonel	3,000
Major	2,500
Captain, Cavalry, \$2,000 ; Infantry	1,800

Navy Officers :

Admiral	13,000
Vice-Admiral	9,000
Rear-Admiral	6,000
Commodore	5,000
Captain	4,500
Commanders	3,500
Lieut.-Commanders	2,800
Lieutenants	2,400
Masters	1,800
Ensigns	1,200
Midshipmen	1,000

Fleet Surgeons, Paymasters, and Engineers	\$4,400
Chaplains	2,500

APPENDIX E.

ANNUAL EXPENSES OF THE WHITE HOUSE, FOR WHICH
PROVISION IS MADE BY CONGRESS.

Private Secretary	\$3,250
Assistant Secretary	2,250
Two Executive Clerks	2,000
Six Other Clerks	from \$1,800 to 1,200
Stenographer	1,800
Steward	1,800
Two Day Ushers	\$1,400 and 1,200
Five Messengers, Two Door-keepers, One Night Usher	1,200
Watchman	900
Fireman	864
Books, Stationery, Carriage Hire, etc.	8,000
Lighting House and Grounds	15,000
Green-houses	6,000

APPENDIX F.

THE CAPITOL IN BRIEF.

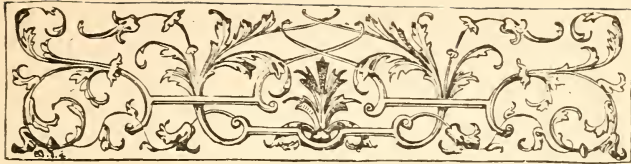
Designers of the Capitol : Stephen L. Hallett, of France, and William Thornton of New York ; Architects of the Capitol : Stephen L. Hallett, of France, 1792-1794 ; George Hadfield, of England, 1794-1798 ; James Ho-

ban, of Ireland, 1798-1803; Benjamin H. Latrobe, of England, 1803-1817; Charles Bullfinch, of Boston, 1817-1830; Thomas U. Walker, of Philadelphia, 1851-1865; Edward Clark, of Philadelphia, 1865-.

The corner-stone of the Capitol was laid by President Washington September 8, 1793; north wing finished 1800; south wing, 1811; wings destroyed by British, 1814; rebuilt, 1817; central portion begun, 1818; original building finished, 1827; cost, \$2,433,844.13; corner-stone of extensions laid July 4, 1851; finished, 1867; present dome completed, 1863; total cost of present building, \$15,599,656.

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