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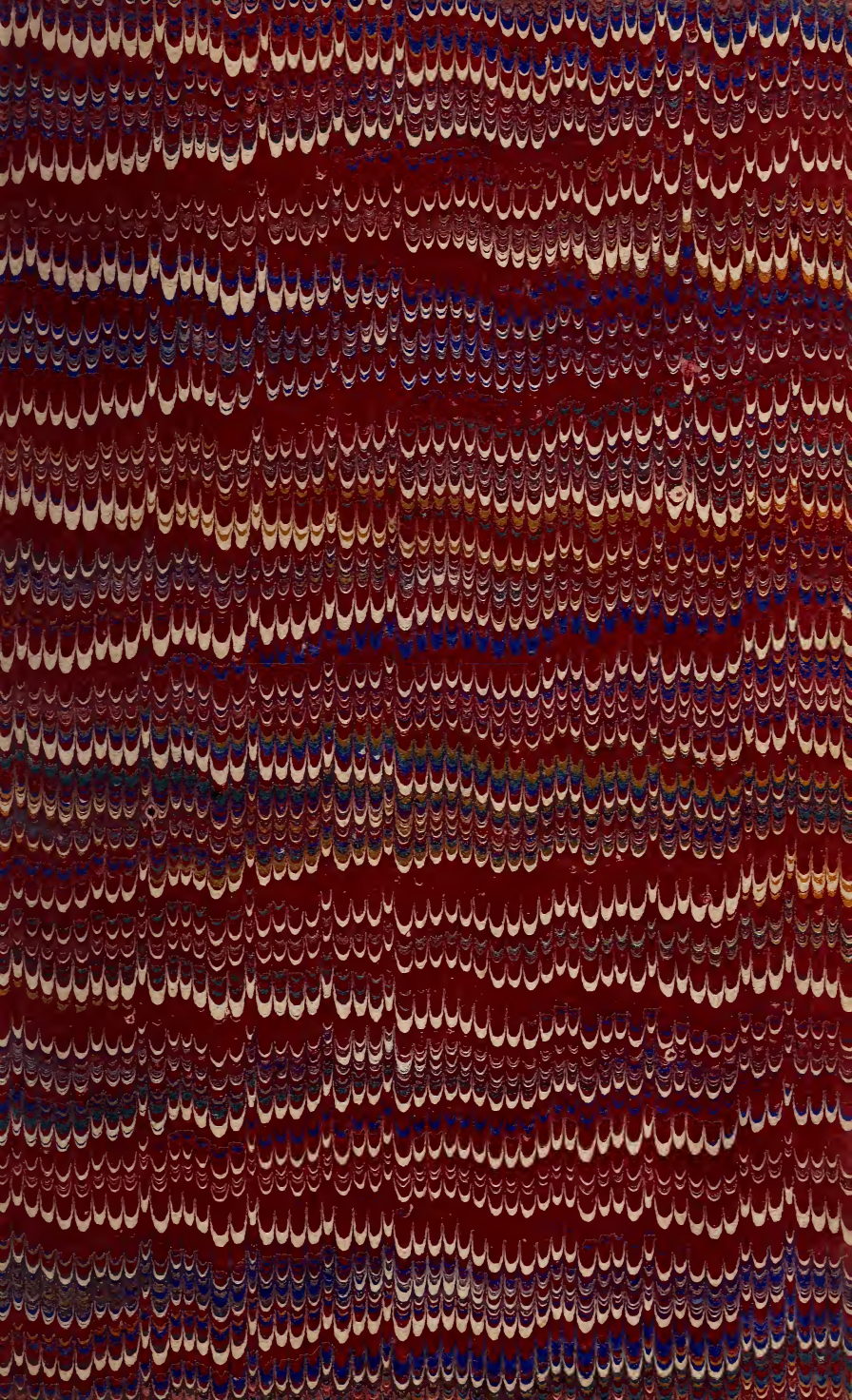
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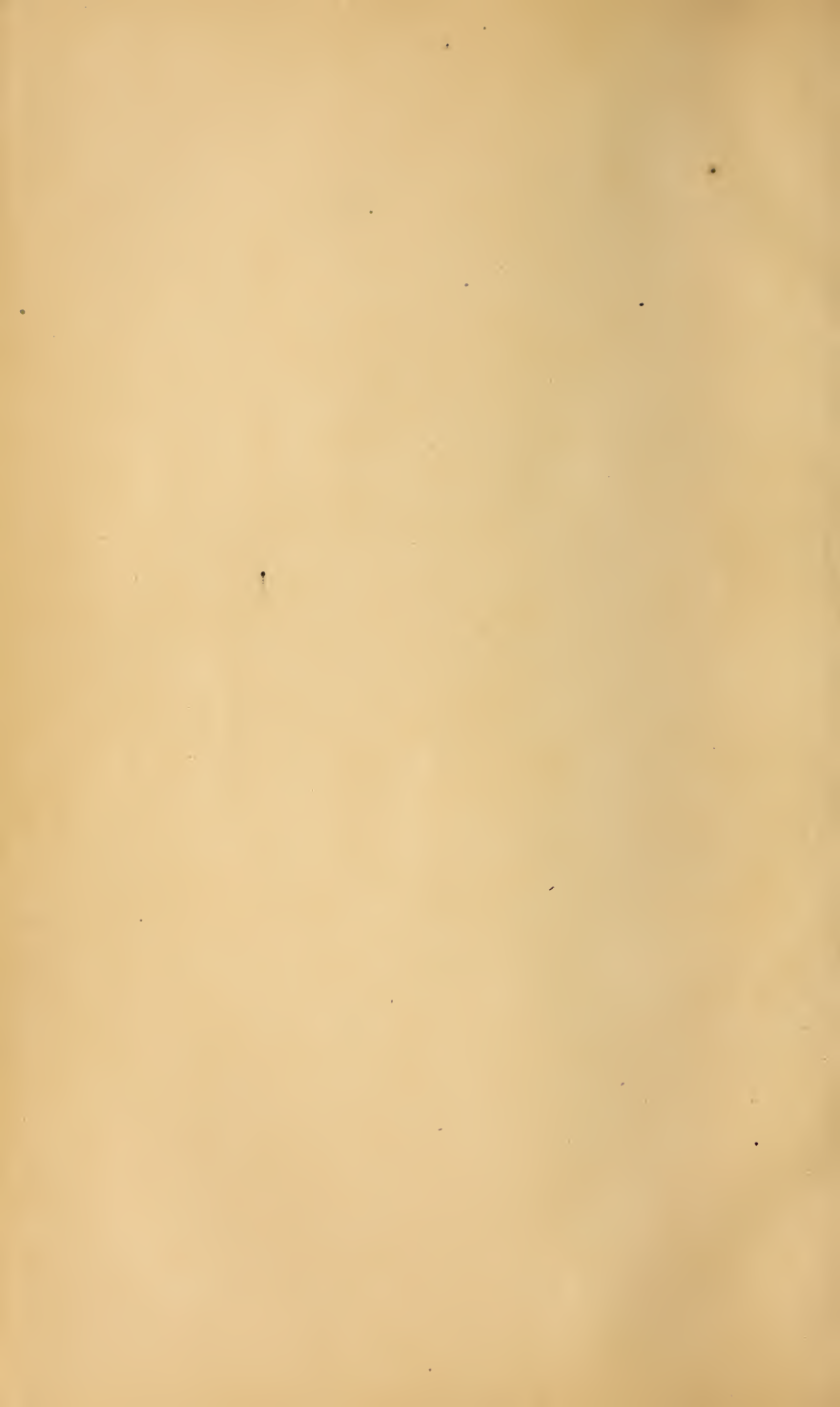
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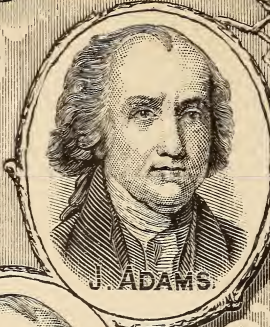
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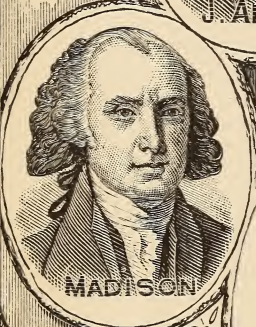




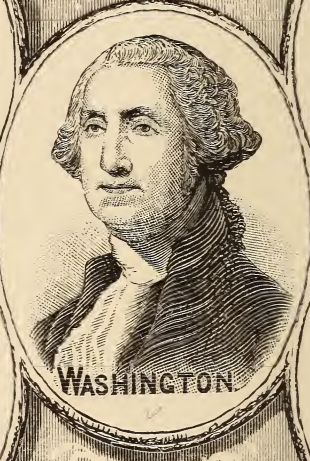
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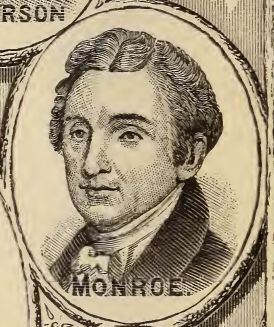
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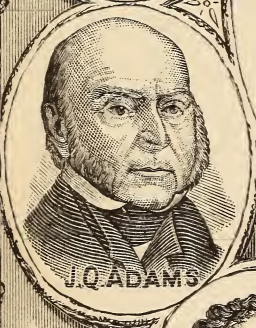
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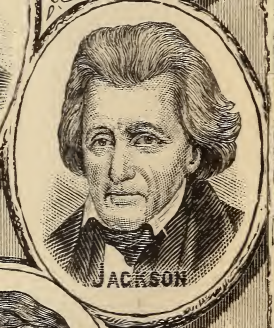
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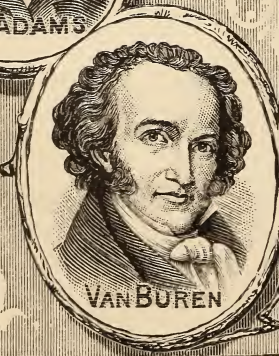
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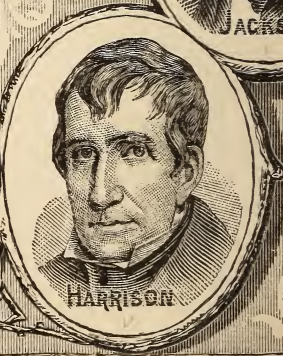
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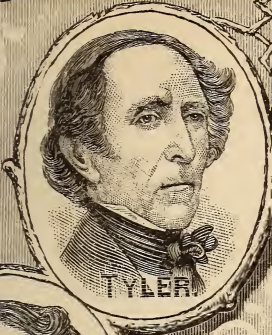
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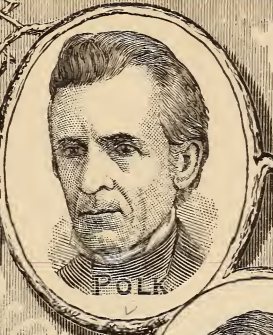
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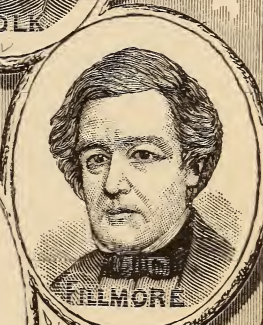
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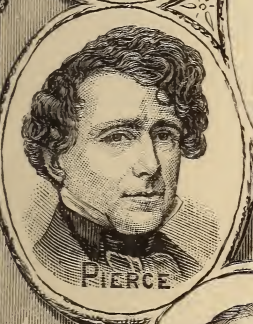
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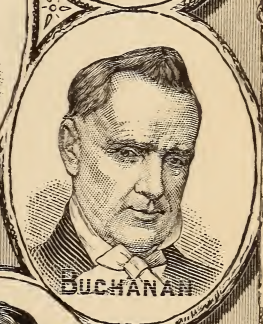
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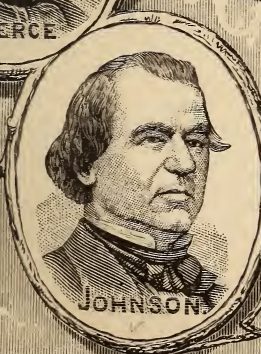
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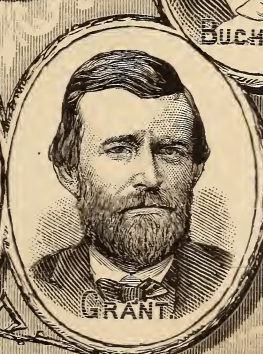
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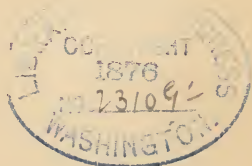
OF

ALL THE PRESIDENTS

FROM

WASHINGTON TO GRANT.

BY JOHN B. DUFFEY.



PHILADELPHIA:
T. S. ARTHUR & SON.

1876.

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A HUNDRED YEARS OF PROGRESS.

1776—1876.

ONLY a hundred years—less than two ordinary lifetimes—have elapsed since that eventful evening of the 4th of July, 1776, when the “Declaration of Independence,” in which “America planted herself between magnificence and ruin,” was read from the steps of Independence Hall, in Philadelphia; and when, from the cupola of that memorable structure, for two hours was heard, above the thunder of cannon, the roll of drums, and the shouts of the assembled multitude, the ringing voice of the great bell, joyfully obeying the fateful injunction which by some strange conjunction of circumstances had been cast upon it, to “proclaim liberty throughout the land unto all the inhabitants thereof.” Only a hundred years! and yet, what changes have been wrought in that brief period! Astonishing, marvellous changes, which have no parallel in the history of the world!

In contemplating these changes, the citizen of the United States, in this, the first centennial year of our national existence, cannot but feel his heart swell with pride and satisfaction, as his mind reverts to the beginning of that existence, and takes note of our wonderful material improvement since that period, of our progress in arts and sciences, of our surprising increase in territory, and of the glorious names we have already inscribed upon the record of the world's great men.

One hundred years ago, when our national independence was thought by many far-seeing men to be but a feverish dream, and cer-

tainly was a thing to be yet obtained, and that, too, at the cost of terrible toil and trial, not the wildest and most impracticable visionary of the time could have imagined the bright future of the babe just coming into the world. When that independence was, after seven years of struggle and endurance, finally secured to them, the colonies were still in a condition from which the most enthusiastic could with difficulty augur anything but evil. Their male population had been decimated by the fatalities of war. Poverty, discontent, apprehension in regard to the future, and uncertainty as to present action, overshadowed them with gloom. Stretching along the margin of the Atlantic, they showed no more than a narrow white edge on the vast blackness of wilderness and savagery behind them. A few military stations had been established as the extreme outposts of civilization west of the Alleghanies, and the sound of the pioneer's axe might have been heard in the valleys of the Susquehanna and the Mohawk; but, for the most part, the wilderness begun scarcely a hundred miles inland, and stretched across the continent to the shores of the Pacific—a land given up to beasts of prey and to the red man of the forest.

Quite distinct in their government, though somewhat loosely held together by their articles of confederation, the different colonies, and especially those of the north and the south, were equally as distinct in the characters of their people, and in their special interests, and were prone to regard each other with sectional jealousy. Even after seven years of united struggle for their common independence had modified to a considerable degree their local prejudices, it required months and years to finally gather them into a union acceptable to all, and which was to ensure their ultimate prosperity. The question of slavery, a legacy of discord left them by the mother-country, was even then one which threatened to undo all the great work of the Revolution. The American who has but a slight acquaintance with his country's history, will remember how that question, the only one upon which to base a substantial doubt as to the perpetuity of the republic, year after year increased in virulence, and finally brought about a

contest which deluged the land in the blood of those who should have been brothers. Happily, even in this respect, progress has led us through manifold peril into the harbor of security, and the one great cause of fatal dissension being now removed, there need be little doubt but that, with ordinary prudence; the bonds of union will grow stronger with every year of our national existence.

At the beginning of the Revolution, the territorial limits of the colonies embraced a region containing, in round numbers, some 820,000 square miles. Now, our vast territory of nearly four millions of square miles, stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the St. Lawrence on the east, and from the Arctic Ocean, we may almost say, on the west, to Mexico, which forms our southern border. Our population, estimated, in 1776, at about two millions, numbers to-day more than forty millions, distributed through thirty-four states and ten organized and two unorganized territories. Such a vast expansion, and so rapid an increase in population, in so short a period, have no parallel in the history of the world. This wonderful increase is due, however, not to ordinary causes, but to the fact that our free institutions and fertile prairies have drawn to our shores so many of the poor and oppressed of every nation. Many of our western states, especially, owe to the constant in-pouring of immigrants their extraordinary transformation, within the memory of those who have scarcely passed the meridian of life, from howling wildernesses to populous republics, the seats of the most advanced civilization, where religion, art, and science seem almost as much at home as in the thousand-year-old states of Europe.

A hundred years ago, the mail between New York and Philadelphia was carried by men on horseback. Now, the mail system of the United States, of which Franklin was the founder, has become a complicated net-work of routes, to which the whole world can present no parallel for extent or efficiency. Mail-trains, sometimes three, four, and five a day, flash between our large cities, bearing tons of letters and newspapers. The era of the lumbering stage-coach, once

the supposed perfection of rapid transit, has come and departed within the last hundred years; and now a ceaseless stream of travel, by a method which the most ingenious of men, neither at that time, nor, indeed, for half a century later, could have even imagined, passes to and fro, in every direction, through the entire length and breadth of the land, over those wonderful roads that seem to bind the States together with bonds of steel. Time and distance are well-nigh annihilated by steam, of whose tremendous power scarcely anything was known at the date of the Declaration of Independence. Magnificent palace-boats ply our rivers and lakes, where then the rude canoe of the red man, or, perhaps, the ungainly keel-boat of the white, was the only mode of transit. Distances which it then took weeks to accomplish, are now passed over in a single day. In the matter of transmitting intelligence, still greater marvels have come to pass. We can now not only send messages on the wings of the lightning to the most distant and outlying points in our own land, but can also quietly sit down to breakfast, and read in our morning papers of events which transpired the previous day in London, or Paris, or even Calcutta. And it is the boast of the American people, that the first successful steamboat made her trial trip in American waters, and also that Morse, who gave to the electric telegraph its practical value, was a fellow-countryman.

In the matter of newspapers, too, what a mighty change has taken place within the centennial which we this year celebrate! In 1776, there were in all the colonies but thirty-seven newspapers, and among them, we believe, not one daily. To-day our newspapers are numbered by thousands, with at least one daily in every thriving and enterprising town.

The most noteworthy progress in the United States, it is to be observed, has thus far been in the line of mechanical ingenuity. Our agricultural implements, for instance, are everywhere acknowledged to be marvels of their kind, and by their novelty and perfect adaptability bid fair to revolutionize the agricultural labor-systems of the

world. The sewing-machine, that wonderful triumph of patience and ingenuity,—and the cotton-gin, another remarkable invention, which has exercised so weighty an influence on our material prosperity, by enabling us to command the cotton-supply of the world,—are both the offspring of American mechanical genius, and of the century just completed. These, with the telegraph, and the improvements made by our mechanics in other machinery, by which our locomotive builders, for example, are everywhere in demand, abundantly testify to the astonishing progress of America in this direction. Nor should we forget the unparalleled development exhibited in our manufactures, and in our mines of coal, iron, gold and silver, in which we rank among the leading nations of the earth.

But, great as has been our progress in this line, American art, literature, and science, have advanced with almost equal rapidity. The poetry of Bryant, Longfellow, Poe, Whittier; the prose of Irving, Prescott, Hawthorne, Emerson; the scientific discoveries of Morse, Morton, Henry, Maury; the paintings of Allston, Page, Cole, Church; the sculptures of Powers, Greenough, Story, Hosmer, and of hosts of others in every branch of literature, science and art,—have obtained a permanent reputation, not only at home, but also in the entire civilized world.

In education, too, what a marvellous advance the past century will show! Our almost countless institutions of learning, some of them such as any country might be proud of, and all developing with marvellous rapidity a perfection that promises soon to put them on an equality with the noblest of similar institutions, which in the old world have had a thousand years of growth, may nearly every one be claimed as the product of free and independent America. Our common schools, securing to every child born within our borders the elements of education, though their foundations were undoubtedly laid long before the Declaration of Independence, may also, in their present admirable, though, perhaps, still far from perfect development, be called the fruit of the first century of American progress.

Our limited space, however, forbids us from going further into the details of American advancement during the centennial which the current year brings to a close. We have briefly indicated some of the more striking features of that advancement, and it will require very slight reflection on the part of a person of ordinary intelligence to derive from our suggestions material with which to fill up the outline we have presented. Now that our beloved country has at length reached a point where the path to full and perfect unity lies plain before her, we do not see why the progress of the marvellous century through which she has just passed, may not be repeated, with even fourfold more wonderful results, in the next centennial of her existence. Let us hope and pray that it may be so, and that, to use the pregnant words of President Lincoln, in her continued progress, "government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth."



GEORGE WASHINGTON

FIRST President of the United States, was born in Westmoreland County, Virginia, on the 22d of February, 1732. His father died when he was in his eleventh year, leaving him in the care of his mother, a woman of marked strength of character. She was worthy of her trust. From her he acquired that self-restraint, love of order, and strict regard for justice and fair dealing, which, with his inherent probity and truthfulness, formed the basis of a character rarely equalled for its simple, yet commanding nobleness.

Apart from his mother's training, the youthful Washington received only the ordinary country-school education of the time. He had no inclination for any but the most practical studies. In these he was remarkably precocious. When barely sixteen, Lord Fairfax engaged him to survey his vast estates lying in the wilderness west of the Blue Ridge. So satisfactory was his performance of this task, that, on its completion, he was appointed Public Surveyor. This office he held for three years, acquiring considerable pecuniary benefits, as well as a knowledge of the country, which was of value to him in his subsequent military career.

When only nineteen, Washington was appointed Military Inspector of one of the Districts into which Virginia was then divided. In November, 1753, he was sent by Governor Dinwiddie on a mission to the French posts, near the Ohio River, to ascertain the designs of France in that quarter. It was a mission of hardship and peril, performed with rare prudence, sagacity and resolution. Its brilliant success laid the foundation of his fortunes. "From that time," says Irving, "Washington was the rising hope of Virginia."

Of Washington's services in the resulting war, we cannot speak in detail. An unfortunate military expedition to the frontier was followed by a campaign under Braddock, whom he accompanied as aid-de-camp, with the rank of colonel, in his march against Fort Duquesne. That imprudent general, scorning the advice of his youthful aid, met disastrous defeat and death. In the battle, Washington's coat was pierced by four bullets. His bravery and presence of mind, alone, saved the army from total destruction.

Washington, on his return, was appointed commander in chief of all the troops of the colony. This was in 1756, when he was but little more than twenty-six years of age. Having led the Virginia troops in Forbes' expedition, by which Fort Duquesne was captured, he resigned his commission, and, in January, 1756, married Mrs. Martha Custiss, and settled down at Mt. Vernon.

The fifteen years following his marriage, were, to Washington, years of such happiness as is rarely accorded to mortals. It was the halcyon period of his life. His home was the centre of a generous hospitality, where the duties of a busy planter and of a Judge of the County Court were varied by rural enjoyments and social intercourse. He managed his estates with prudence and economy. He slurred over nothing, and exhibited, even then, that rigid adherence to system and accuracy of detail, which subsequently marked his performance of his public duties.

In the difficulties which presently arose between Great Britain and her American colonies, Washington sympathized deeply with the latter, and took an earnest, though not specially prominent part in those movements which finally led to the War of Independence. In the first general Congress of the Colonies, which met in Philadelphia, on the Fifth of September, 1774, we find the name of Washington among the Virginia delegates. As to the part he took in that Congress, we can only judge from a remark made by Patrick Henry, also a delegate: "Colonel Washington," said the great orator, "was undoubtedly the greatest man on that floor, if you speak of solid information and sound judgment."

In the councils of his native province, we also get glimpses of his calm and dignified presence. And he is ever on the side of the colonies,—moderate, yet resolute, hopeful of an amicable adjustment of difficulties, yet advocating measures looking to a final appeal to arms.

At length the storm broke. The Battle of Lexington called the whole country to arms. While in the East the rude militia of New England beleaguered Boston with undisciplined but stern determination, Congress, in May, 1775, met a second time in Philadelphia. A Federal Union was formed, and an army called for. As chairman of the various committees on military affairs, Washington drew up most of the rules and regulations of the army, and devised measures for defence. The question now arose—By whom was the army to be led? Hancock, of Massachusetts, was ambitious of the place. Sectional jealousies showed themselves. Happily, however, Johnson of Maryland, rising in his seat, nominated Washington. The election was by ballot, and unanimous. Modestly expressing sincere doubts as to his capability, Washington accepted the position with thanks, but refused to receive any salary. "I will keep an exact account of my expenses," he said. "These I doubt not Congress will discharge. That is all I desire."

On the 12th of June he received his commission. Writing a tender letter to his wife, he rapidly prepared to start on the following day to the army before Boston. He was now in the full vigor of manhood, forty-three years of age, tall, stately, of powerful frame, and commanding presence. "As he sat his horse with manly grace," says Irving, "his military bearing delighted every eye, and wherever he went the air rung with acclamations."

On his way to the army, Washington met the tidings of the Battle of Bunker Hill. When told how bravely the militia had acted, a load seemed lifted from his heart. "The liberties of the country are safe!" he exclaimed. On the 3d of July he took command of the troops. It was not until March, 1776, that the siege of Boston ended, in the withdrawal of the British forces. Washington's admirable conduct of this siege drew forth the enthusiastic applause of the nation. Congress had a gold medal struck, bearing the effigy of Washington as the Deliverer of Boston.

Hastening to defend New York from threatened attack, Washington there received, on the 9th of July, 1776, a copy of the "Declaration of Independence," adopted by Congress five days previously. On the 27th of the following month, occurred the disastrous Battle of Long Island, the misfortunes of which were retrieved, however, by Washington's admirable retreat, one of the most brilliant achievements of the war. Again defeated at White Plains, he was

compelled to retire across the Jerseys. On the 7th of December he passed the Delaware, at the head of a dispirited army of less than four thousand effective men, many of them without shoes, and leaving tracks of blood in the snow. This was the darkest period of the war. But suddenly, as if inspired, Washington, in the midst of a driving storm, on Christmas night, re-crossing the Delaware, now filled with floating ice, gained in rapid succession the brilliant victories of Trenton and Princeton, thus changing the entire aspect of affairs. Never were victories better timed. The waning hopes of the people in their cause and their commander were at once restored as if by magic.

It is not possible, in this necessarily brief sketch, to give the details of the agonizing struggle in which Washington and his little army were now involved. Superior numbers and equipments often inflicted upon him disasters which would have crushed a less resolute spirit. Cheered, however, by occasional glimpses of victory, and wisely taking advantage of what his troops learned in hardship and defeat, he was at length enabled, by one sagacious and deeply-planned movement, to bring the war virtually to a close, in the capture of the British army under Cornwallis, at Yorktown, on the 15th of October, 1781.

The tidings of the surrender of Cornwallis filled the country with joy. The lull in the activity of both Congress and the people was not viewed with favor by Washington. It was a period of peril. Idleness in the army fostered discontents there, which at one time threatened the gravest mischief. It was only by the utmost exertion that Washington induced the malcontents to turn a deaf ear to those who were attempting, as he alleged, "to open the flood-gates of civil discord, and deluge our rising empire with blood."

In January, 1783, a treaty of peace was arranged at Paris, by which the complete Independence of the United States was secured. On the 23d of December following, Washington formally resigned his command. The very next morning, he hastened to his beloved Mt. Vernon, arriving there that evening, in time to enjoy the festivities of the occasion.

Washington was not long permitted to enjoy his retirement. Indeed, his solicitude for the perpetuity of the political fabric he had helped to raise, he could not have shaken off, if he would. Unconsciously, it might have been, by his letters to his old friends still in

public life, he continued to exercise a powerful influence on national affairs. He was one of the first to propose a remodeling of the Articles of Confederation, which were now acknowledged to be insufficient for their purpose. At length, a convention of delegates from the several States, to form a new Constitution, met at Philadelphia, in May, 1787. Washington presided over its session, which was long and stormy. After four months of deliberation was formed that Constitution, under which, with some subsequent amendments, we now live.

When the new Constitution was finally ratified, Washington was called to the Presidency by the unanimous voice of the people. In April, 1787, he set out from Mt. Vernon to New York, the seat of Government, to be inaugurated. "His progress," says Irving, "was a continuous ovation. The ringing of bells and the roaring of cannon proclaimed his course. Old and young, women and children, thronged the highways to bless and welcome him." His inauguration took place on the 13th, before an immense multitude.

The eight years of Washington's Administration were years of trouble and difficulty. The two parties which had sprung up—the Federalist and the Republican—were greatly embittered against each other, each charging the other with the most unpatriotic designs. No other man than Washington could have carried the country safely through so perilous a period. His prudent, firm, yet conciliatory spirit, aided by the love and veneration with which the people regarded him, kept down insurrection and silenced discontent.

That he passed through this trying period safely, cannot but be a matter of astonishment. The angry partisan contests, to which we have referred, were of themselves sufficient to dishearten any common man. Even Washington, was distrustful of the event, so fiercely were the partisans of both parties enlisted—the Federalists clamoring for a stronger government, the Republicans for additional checks on the power already intrusted to the Executive. Besides, the Revolution then raging in France became a source of contention. The Federalists sided with England, who was bent on crushing that revolution; the Republicans, on the other hand, sympathized deeply with the French people: so that between them both, it was with extreme difficulty that the President could prevent our young Republic, burdened with debt, her people groaning under taxes necessarily heavy, and with finances, commerce, and the industrial arts

in a condition of chaos, from being dragged into a fresh war with either France or England.

But, before retiring from the Presidency, Washington had the happiness of seeing many of the difficulties from which he had apprehended so much, placed in a fair way of final adjustment. A financial system was developed, which lightened the burden of public debt, and revived the drooping energies of the people. The country progressed rapidly. Immigrants flocked to our shores, and the regions west of the Alleghanies began to fill up. New states claimed admission, and were received into the Union,—Vermont, in 1791; Kentucky, in 1792; and Tennessee, in 1796; so that, before the close of Washington's second term the original thirteen states had increased to sixteen.

Having served two Presidential terms, Washington, declining another election, returned once more to Mt. Vernon, "that haven of repose to which he had so often turned a wistful eye," bearing with him the love and gratitude of his countrymen, to whom, in his memorable "Farewell Address," he bequeathed a legacy of practical political wisdom, which it will be well for them to remember and profit by. At Mt. Vernon he found constant occupation in the supervision of his various estates. It was while taking his usual round on horseback to look after his farms, that, on the 12th of December, 1799, he encountered a cold, winter storm. He reached home chill and damp. The next day he had a sore throat, with some hoarseness. By the morning of the 14th he could scarcely swallow. "I find I am going," said he to a friend. "I believed from the first that the attack would be fatal." That night, between ten and eleven, he expired, without a struggle or a sigh, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. Three days afterwards his remains were deposited in the family tombs at Mt. Vernon, where they still repose.

Washington left a reputation on which there is no stain. "His character," says Irving, "possessed fewer inequalities, and a rarer union of virtues than perhaps ever fell to the lot of one man. * * * It seems as if Providence had endowed him in a pre-eminent degree with the qualities requisite to fit him for the high destiny he was called upon to fulfill."



JOHN ADAMS,

SECOND President of the United States, was born at Braintree, now Quincy, Mass., October 19th, 1735. Graduating from Harvard in 1755, he studied law, defraying his expenses by teaching. In 1764, having meanwhile been admitted to the bar, he married Miss Abigail Smith, a lady whose energy of character contributed largely to his subsequent advancement.

As early as 1761, we find young Adams looking forward, with prophetic vision, to American Independence. When the memorable Stamp Act was passed, he joined heart and soul in opposition to it. A series of resolutions which he drew up against it, was adopted by more than forty towns in the Province. He took the advanced ground that it was absolutely void—Parliament having no right to tax the Colonies.

The rise of the young lawyer was now rapid. When, in 1774, the first Colonial Congress met, at Philadelphia, Adams was one of the five delegates from Massachusetts. In that Congress he took a prominent part. He it was who, on the 6th of May, 1776, boldly advanced upon the path to Independence, by moving "the adoption of such measures as would best conduce to the happiness and safety of the American people." It was Adams who, a month later, seconded the resolution of Lee, of Virginia, "that these United States are, . . . and ought to be, independent." He, too, it was, who, with Jefferson, Franklin, Sherman, and Livingston, drew up that famous "Declaration of Independence," which, adopted by Congress on the 4th of July, 1776, decided a question, "greater, perhaps, than ever was or will be decided anywhere."

After years of gloom and trial, on the 21st of January, 1783, he

assisted in the conclusion of a treaty of peace, by which Great Britain acknowledged the complete independence of the United States. On the previous October, he had achieved what he ever regarded as the greatest success of his life—the formation of a treaty of peace and alliance with Holland, which had a most important bearing on the negotiations leading to the final adjustment with England.

United States Minister to England from 1785 to 1788, and first Vice-President during the Administration of Washington, Mr. Adams was himself inaugurated President, on the 4th of March, 1797, having been elected over Jefferson by a small majority.

He came into office at a critical period. The conduct of the French Directory, in refusing to receive our ambassadors, and in trying to injure our commerce by unjust decrees, excited intense ill-feeling, and finally led to what is known as “the Quasi War” with France. Congress now passed the so-called “Alien and Sedition Laws,” by which, extraordinary and, it is alleged, unconstitutional powers were conferred upon the President. Though the apprehended war was averted, the odium of these laws effectually destroyed the popularity of Adams, who, on running for a second term was defeated by Mr. Jefferson. On the 4th of March, 1801, he retired to private life on his farm near Quincy.

By a singular coincidence, the death of Mr. Adams and that of his old political rival, Jefferson, took place on the same day, and almost at the same hour. Stranger still, it was on July the 4th, 1826, whilst bells were ringing and cannon roaring, to celebrate the fiftieth Anniversary of the Declaration of Independence, their own immortal production, that these two men passed away. Mr. Adams was asked if he knew what day it was. “Oh, yes!” he exclaimed, “It is the Fourth of July. God bless it! God bless you all! It is a great and glorious day!” And soon after quietly expired, in the ninety-first year of his age.

Mr. Adams possessed a vigorous and polished intellect, and was one of the most upright of men. His character was one to command respect, rather than to win affection. There was a certain lack of warmth in his stately courtesy, which seemed to forbid approach. Yet nobody, we are told, could know him intimately, without admiring the simplicity and truth which shone in all his actions.



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

THOMAS JEFFERSON, who succeeded Adams as President, was born at Shadwell, Albemarle County, Va., April 2d, 1743. Passing through college, he studied law, and, in 1767, commenced practice. In 1769, he was elected to the Virginia Legislature. Three years later, he married Mrs. Martha Skelton, a rich, handsome, and accomplished young widow, with whom he went to reside in his new mansion at Monticello.

For years the breach between England and her colonies had been rapidly widening. Jefferson earnestly advocated the right of the latter to local self-government, and wrote a pamphlet on the subject, which attracted much attention on both sides of the Atlantic. By the spring of 1775 the colonies were in revolt. We now find Jefferson in the Continental Congress,—the youngest member save one. His arrival had been anxiously awaited. He had the reputation “of a matchless pen.” Though silent on the floor, in committee ‘he was prompt, frank, explicit, and decisive.’ Early in June, 1776, a Committee, with Jefferson as chairman, was appointed to draw up a “Declaration of Independence.” Unanimously urged by his associates to write it, he did so, Franklin and Adams, only, making a few verbal alterations. Jefferson has been charged with plagiarism in the composition of this ever-memorable paper. Volumes have been written on the subject; but those who have investigated the closest, declare that the Mecklenburg Declaration, from which he was charged with plagiarism, was not then in existence. Jefferson distinctly denies having seen it. Probably, in preparing it, he used many of the popular phrases of the time; and hence it was, that it

seized so quickly and so irresistibly upon the public heart. It was the crystallized expression of the spirit of the age.

Chosen a second time to Congress, Jefferson declined the appointment, to labor in re-organizing Virginia. He therefore accepted a seat in the Legislature, where he zealously applied himself to revising the fundamental laws of the State. The abolition of primogeniture and the church establishment was the result of his labors, and he was justly proud of it. No more important advance could have been made. It was a step from middle-age darkness into the broad light of modern civilization.

In 1778, Jefferson procured the passage of a law prohibiting the further importation of slaves. The following year he was elected Governor, at the close of his official term seeking the retirement of Monticello. Hence, in 1782, shortly after the death of his beloved wife, he was summoned to act as one of the Commissioners to negotiate peace with England. He was not required to sail, however; but, taking a seat in Congress, during the winter of 1783, he, who had drawn up the Declaration of Independence, was the first to officially announce its final triumph. At the next session of Congress, he secured the adoption of our present admirable system of coinage. As chairman of a committee to draft rules for the government of our North-west Territory, he endeavored, but without success, to secure the prohibition of slavery therefrom forever. In May, 1784, he was sent to Europe, to assist Adams and Franklin in negotiating treaties of commerce with foreign nations. Returning home in 1789, he received from Washington the appointment of Secretary of the United States, which office he resigned in 1793. He withdrew, says Marshall, "at a time when he stood particularly high in the esteem of his countrymen." His friendship for France, and his dislike of England; his warm opposition to the aggrandizement of the central power of the Government, and his earnest advocacy of every measure tending to enlarge popular freedom, had won for him a large following, and he now stood the acknowledged leader of the great and growing Anti-federal party.

Washington declining a third term, Adams, as we have already seen, succeeded him. At the next election, Jefferson and Burr, the Republican candidates, stood highest on the list. By the election law of that period, he who had the greatest number of votes was to be President, while the Vice-Presidency fell to the next highest

candidate. Jefferson and Burr having an equal number of votes, it remained for the House of Representatives to decide which should be President. After a long and heated canvass, Jefferson was chosen. He was inaugurated, on the 4th of March, 1801, at Washington, whither the Capitol had been removed a few months previously. In 1804, he was re-elected by an overwhelming majority. At the close of his second term, he retired once more to the quiet of Monticello.

The most important public measure of Jefferson's administration, to the success of which he directed his strongest endeavors, was the purchase from France, for the insignificant sum of \$15,000,000, of the immense Territory of Louisiana. It was during his administration, too, that the conspiracy of Burr was discovered, and thwarted by the prompt and decisive action of the President. Burr's scheme was a mad one—to break up the union, and erect a new empire, with Mexico as its seat.

From the retirement into which he had now withdrawn, Jefferson never afterwards emerged. His time was actively employed in the management of his property, and in his extensive correspondence. In establishing a University at Charlottesville, Jefferson took a deep interest, devoting to it much of his time and means. He was proud of his work, and directed that the words "Father of the University of Virginia" should be inscribed upon his tomb. He died, shortly after mid-day, on the Fourth of July, 1826, a few hours before his venerable friend and compatriot, Adams.

Making no professions of Christianity, Jefferson, in all that constitutes true religion, was a thorough, practical Christian. His moral character was of the highest order. Profanity he could not endure, either in himself or others. He never touched cards, or strong drink in any form. He was one of the most generous of men, lavishly hospitable, and in everything a thorough gentleman. Gifted with an intellect far above the average, he had added to it a surprising culture, which ranked him among our most accomplished scholars. To his extended learning, to his ardent love of liberty, and to his broad and tolerant views, is due much, very much, of whatever is admirable in our institutions. In them we discern everywhere traces of his master spirit.



JAMES MADISON.

WHEN Mr. Jefferson retired from the Presidency, the country was almost on the verge of war with Great Britain. Disputes had arisen in regard to certain restrictions laid by England upon our commerce. A hot discussion also came up about the right claimed and exercised by the commanders of English war-vessels, of searching American ships and of taking from them such seamen as they might choose to consider natives of Great Britain. Many and terrible wrongs had been perpetrated in the exercise of this alleged right. Hundreds of American citizens had been ruthlessly forced into the British service.

It was when the public mind was agitated by such outrages, that James Madison the fourth President of the United States, was inaugurated. When he took his seat, on the Fourth of March, 1809, he lacked just one day of being fifty-eight years of age, having been born on the 5th of March, 1751. In his twenty-sixth year he had been a member of the Convention which framed the Constitution of Virginia; in 1780, had been elected to the Continental Congress, in which he at once took a commanding position; had subsequently entered the Virginia Legislature, where he co-operated with his friend and neighbor, Jefferson, in the abrogation of entail and primogeniture, and in the establishment of religious freedom; had drawn up the call in answer to which the Convention to Draught a Constitution for the United States met at Philadelphia, in 1787; and had been one of the most active members of that memorable assemblage, in reconciling the discordant elements of which it was composed. He had also labored earnestly to secure the adoption of the new Constitution by his native State; had afterwards entered

Congress ; and, when Jefferson was elected President, had been by him appointed Secretary of State. Some few years previously, he had married Mrs. Todd, a young widow lady, whose bright intelligence and fascinating manners were to gain her celebrity, as one of the most remarkable women who ever presided over the domestic arrangements of the Presidential mansion.

Of a weak and delicate constitution, and with the habits of a student, Mr. Madison would have preferred peace to war. But even he lost patience at the insults heaped upon the young Republic by its ancient mother ; and when, at length, on the 18th of June, 1812, Congress declared war against Great Britain, he gave the declaration his official sanction, and took active steps to enforce it. Though disasters in the early part of the war greatly strengthened the Federal party, who were bitterly opposed to hostilities, the ensuing Presidential canvass resulted in the re-election of Mr. Madison by a large majority. On the 12th of August, 1814, a British army took Washington, the President himself narrowly escaping capture. The presidential mansion, the capitol, and all the public buildings were wantonly burned. The 14th of December following, a treaty of peace was signed at Ghent, in which, however, England did not relinquish her claim to the right of search. But as she has not since attempted to exercise it, the question may be regarded as having been finally settled by the contest.

On the 4th of March, 1817, Madison's second term having expired, he withdrew to private life at his paternal home of Montpelier. During his administration, two new States had been added to the Union, making the total number at this period nineteen. The first to claim admittance was Louisiana, in 1812. It was formed out of the Southern portion of the vast Territory, purchased, during the Presidency of Jefferson, from France. Indiana—the second State—was admitted in 1816.

After his retirement from office, Mr. Madison passed nearly a score of quiet years at Montpelier. With Jefferson, who was a not very distant neighbor, he co-operated in placing the Charlottesville University upon a substantial foundation. In 1829, he left his privacy to take part in the Convention which met at Richmond to revise the Constitution of the State. His death took place on the 28th of June, 1836 in the eighty-fifth year of his age.



JAMES MONROE.

MADISON'S successor in the presidential chair was James Monroe, whose administration has been called "the Era of Good Feeling," from the temporary subsidence at that time of party strife. He was born on his father's plantation in Westmoreland County, Va., on the 28th of April, 1758. At the age of sixteen he entered William and Mary College; but when, two years later, the Declaration of Independence called the colonies to arms, the young collegian, dropping his books, girded on his sword, and entered the service of his country. Commissioned a lieutenant, he took part in the battles of Harlem Heights and White Plains. In the attack on Trenton, he was wounded in the shoulder, and, for his bravery promoted to a captaincy. Subsequently he was attached to the staff of Lord Sterling with the rank of major; and fought by the side of Lafayette, when that officer was wounded at the battle of Brandywine; and also participated in the battles of Germantown and Monmouth. He was afterwards given a colonel's commission; but, being unable to recruit a regiment, began the study of law in the office of Jefferson, then governor of Virginia. In 1782, when only twenty-three years old, he was elected to the Virginia legislature. The next year, he was sent to congress. On the expiration of his term, having meanwhile married, in New York, Miss Kortright, a young lady of great intelligence and rare personal attractions, he returned to Fredericksburg, and commenced practice as a lawyer. In 1789, he was elected to the United States Senate. In 1794, he was appointed minister-plenipotentiary to France, but recalled from his mission two years later.

Shortly after his return, Monroe was elected governor of Virginia.

On the expiration of his official term, he was sent to co-operate with Livingston in negotiating the treaty by which the territory of Louisiana was secured to the United States. In 1809, he was again elected governor of Virginia; but presently resigned to become Madison's Secretary of State.

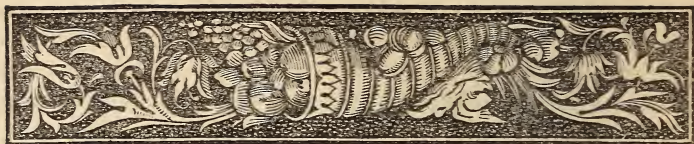
When Madison's second term expired, Monroe was chosen to succeed him. He was re-elected in 1821, with but one dissenting vote out of the 232 cast by the electoral college. On the 4th of March, 1825, he retired to the quiet and seclusion of his estate at Oak Hill, in London County, Virginia.

During Monroe's administration, the boundaries of the United States were considerably enlarged by the purchase of Florida from Spain. Five new States were also admitted into the Union: Mississippi, in 1817; Illinois, in 1818; Alabama, in 1819; Maine, in 1820; and Missouri, in 1821.

The discussion in Congress over the admission of Missouri showed the existence of a new disturbing element in our national politics. It was the question of the further extension of slavery; not so much in regard to its moral aspects, as to its bearing on the question of the balance of political power. For a brief period, two parties, one in favor of and the other against admitting any more slave states, filled Congress and the country with angry discussion. This was quieted for the time by what is known as "the Missouri Compromise," which restricted slavery to the territory lying south of the southern boundary of Missouri.

The somewhat celebrated "Monroe Doctrine" is regarded as one of the most important results of Monroe's administration. It was enunciated in his message to Congress on the 2d of December, 1823, and arose out of his sympathy for the new Republics then recently set up in South America. In substance it was, that the United States would never entangle themselves with the quarrels of Europe, nor allow Europe to interfere with the affairs of this Continent.

In 1830, the venerable ex-president went to reside with his son-in-law in New York, where he died, in the seventy-fourth year of his age, on the 4th of July, 1831, being the third of our five revolutionary presidents to pass from earth on the anniversary of that memorable day, which had contributed so largely to the shaping of their destinies.



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS,

THE son of John Adams, our second president, and himself the sixth chief executive of the Union, was born at Quincy, Mass., on the 11th of July, 1767. While yet a mere boy, he twice accompanied his father to Europe. Graduating from Harvard, in 1787, he studied law, and commenced practice in Boston, in 1790. In 1794, he was appointed by Washington minister to Holland, and in 1797, his father, who was then president, gave him the mission to Berlin. On the accession of Jefferson to the presidency, Mr. Adams was recalled from Berlin. Soon after his return, however, he was elected to the United States Senate, where he speedily won a commanding position, ardently supporting Jefferson's measures of resistance against the arrogance and insolence of England, in her encroachments upon our commerce, and in her impressment of our seamen. The legislature of Massachusetts having censured him for his course, Adams resigned his seat: but, in 1809, was selected by Madison to represent the United States at St. Petersburg. On the 24th of December, 1814, he, in conjunction with Clay and Gallatin, concluded the Treaty of Ghent, which closed "the second War of Independence." In 1817, he was recalled to act as Secretary of State for President Monroe. At the election for Monroe's successor, party spirit ran high. The contest was an exciting one. Of the two hundred and sixty electoral votes, Andrew Jackson received 99, John Quincy Adams 84, Wm. H. Crawford 41, and Henry Clay 37. As there was no choice by the people, the election devolved upon the House of Representatives. Here, Mr. Clay gave the vote of Kentucky to Adams, and he was elected.

The Administration of the younger Adams has been characterized

as the purest and most economical on record. Yet, during his entire term, he was the object of the most rancorous partisan assaults. In his official intercourse, it was said, he often displayed "a formal coldness, that froze like an iceberg." This coldness of manner, along with his advocacy of a high protective tariff and the policy of internal improvements, and his known hostility to slavery, made him many bitter enemies, especially in the South, and, at the close of his first term, he was probably the most unpopular man who could have aspired to the Presidency.

On the 4th of March, 1829, General Jackson having been elected President, Mr. Adams retired to private life; but, in 1831, was elected to the House of Representatives of the United States, where he took his seat, pledged, as he said, to no party. He at once became the leader of that little band, so insignificant numbers, in but powerful in determination and courage, who, regarding slavery as both a moral and a political evil, began, in Congress, to advocate its abolition. By his continual presentation of petitions against slavery, he gradually, yet irresistibly, led the public mind to familiarize itself with the idea of its final extinction. To the fiery onslaughts of the Southern members, he opposed a cold and unimpassioned front. In 1842, to show his consistency in upholding the right of petition, he presented to Congress the petition of some thirty or forty over-zealous anti-slavery persons, for the dissolution of the Union. This brought upon the venerable ex-President a perfect tempest of indignation. Resolutions to expel him were introduced; but, after eleven days of stormy discussion, they were laid on the table. The intrepidity displayed by "the old man eloquent," was beginning to tell. Even those who most bitterly opposed his doctrines, were learning to respect him. When, after a season of illness, he re-appeared in Congress, in February, 1847, every member instinctively rose in his seat, to do the old man honor. On the 12th of February, 1848, Mr. Adams was struck down by paralysis on the floor of the House of Representatives. He was taken, senseless, into an ante-room. Recovering his consciousness, he looked calmly around, and said: "This is the last of earth: I am content." These were his last words. In an apartment beneath the dome of the capitol, he soon after expired, in the eighty-first year of his age.



ANDREW JACKSON,

SEVENTH President of the United States, was born in Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, on the 15th of March, 1767.

His father dying a few days before his birth, he, with two older brothers, was left to the care of his mother. The boys had little schooling. Andrew was a rude, turbulent lad, at once vindictive and generous, full of mischief, but resolute, of indomitable courage, and wonderfully self-reliant. When but thirteen, fired by the death of his oldest brother, who had perished from heat and exhaustion, at the Battle of Stono, he shouldered a musket and took part in the War of Independence. He and his remaining brother were made prisoners by the British, but presently released through the exertions of their mother. Both were brought home with the small-pox, of which the elder died. Andrew himself barely escaped. The mother went next, dying of ship fever, contracted while attending upon the patriot prisoners at Charleston. Thus left an orphan, Andrew worked a short time in a saddler's shop. He then tried school-teaching, and finally studied law, being admitted to practice when but twenty years old.

In 1791, Jackson married, at Nashville, where he had built up a lucrative practice, Mrs. Rachel Robards, the divorced wife, as both he and the lady herself supposed, of Mr. Lewis Robards. They had lived together two years, when it was discovered that Mrs. Robards was not fully divorced at the time of her second marriage. As, however, the divorce had subsequently been perfected, the marriage ceremony was performed anew, in 1794. In after years, this unfor-

tunate mistake was made the basis of calumnious charges against Jackson by his partisan enemies.

Tennessee having been made a state in 1796, Jackson was successively its representative and senator in congress, and a judge of its Supreme Court. Resigning his judgeship in 1804, he entered into and carried on for a number of years an extensive trading business. He was also elected at this period major-general in the militia. In 1806, he was severely wounded in a duel with Charles Dickenson, who had been making disparaging remarks against his wife, something which Jackson could neither forget nor forgive. Dickenson fell mortally wounded, and, after suffering intense agony for a short time, died. This sad affair, in which Jackson displayed much vindictiveness, made him for awhile very unpopular.

When, in 1812, war was declared against England, Jackson promptly offered his services to the general government. During the summer of 1813, he had another of those personal rencontres into which his fiery temper was continually leading him. In an affray with Thos. H. Benton, he received a pistol-shot in the shoulder, at the hands of Benton's brother, from the effects of which he never fully recovered. He was still suffering from the immediate consequences of this wound, when tidings were received at Nashville of the massacre of Fort Mimms, by Creek Indians. Jackson, regardless of his hurts, at once took the field. An energetic campaign, in which, winning victory after victory, he established his reputation as one of our best military chieftains, ended the Creek war, and broke forever the power of the Indian races in North America.

In May, 1814, Jackson was made a major-general in the regular army, and became the acknowledged military leader in the Southwest. New Orleans being threatened by the British, he hastened to defend it. There, on the 8th of January, 1815, with less than five thousand men, mostly untrained militia, he repulsed the attack of a well-appointed army, of nearly 14,000 veteran troops, under some of the most distinguished officers in the English service. Ten days later, the enemy withdrew, leaving many of their guns behind them. The full glory of Jackson's triumph at New Orleans, partisan rancor subsequently sought to dim. But high military authorities, even in England, have sustained the popular judgment, that it was a brilliant victory, achieved by rare foresight, wise conduct, and undoubted warlike genius.

Jackson's success at New Orleans gave him immense popularity. He received a vote of thanks from Congress, was made commander-in-chief of the southern division of the army, and even began to be talked of as a candidate for the presidency. President Monroe offered him the post of secretary of war. In the Seminole war, which commenced about the close of 1817, he took the field in person. He was successful, with but little fighting. His execution of Arbuthnot and Armbrister, two British subjects, found guilty by a military court, of inciting the Indians to hostilities, caused an angry discussion between England and the United States, which at one time threatened to end in open rupture. In congress, also, it excited a warm debate; but resolutions censuring the general were rejected by the house, and came to no conclusion in the senate.

When Spain ceded Florida to the union, Jackson was appointed governor of the territory. In 1823, he was elected to the United States Senate by the legislature of Tennessee, which, at the same time, nominated him for the presidency. This nomination, though ridiculed, on account of Jackson's alleged unfitness for the office, nevertheless resulted, at the ensuing election, in his receiving more votes than any other single candidate; but the choice devolving on the house of representatives, Adams, as we have seen, was elected. In the next campaign, however, Jackson achieved a decided triumph, having a majority of 95 out of 261 electoral votes.

In retaliation for the bitter personal attacks he had received during the campaign, Jackson commenced a wholesale political proscription of his partisan opponents. Adopting the war-cry of his secretary of state, Marcy, of New York, that "to the victors belong the spoils," he initiated that system, ever since pursued, of turning out of office every man not on the side of the winning party. His veto of the bill re-chartering the United States bank, which for a time caused quite a panic in commercial circles, and his determined stand against the "nullifiers," under the lead of Calhoun, who, with threats of armed resistance, demanded a reduction of the tariff, excited a warm opposition to the President. But, in spite of every effort, the election of 1828 brought him ~~again~~ into the Presidential chair, with an overwhelming majority. On the 10th of December, 1832, Jackson was compelled by the conduct of South Carolina, to issue a proclamation, threatening to use the army in case of resistance to the execution of the tariff laws; but, fortunately, Mr. Clay succeeded in

bringing about a compromise, by which the tariff being modified, the South Carolinians were enabled to recede from their position with becoming dignity.

Jackson's removal of the deposits, in 1833, caused an intense excitement throughout the country. In congress, his course was censured by the senate, but approved by the house. A panic existed for some time in business circles; but, before the close of his second term, the great mass of the people were content with the president's course.

Jackson's foreign diplomacy had been very successful. Useful commercial treaties were made with several countries, and renewed with others. Indemnities for spoliations on American commerce were obtained from various foreign countries. The national debt was extinguished, the Cherokees were removed from Georgia, and the Creeks from Florida, while the original number of the states was doubled by the admission into the union of Arkansas, in 1836, and of Michigan, in 1837. On the other hand, the slavery dispute was renewed with much bitterness, and the Seminole war recommenced.

On the 4th of March, 1837, Jackson retired from public life forever. He returned to "the Hermitage," his country seat, where he remained until his death, on the 8th of June, 1845. The immediate cause of his death was dropsy; but, through the greater part of his life he had been a sufferer from disease in one form or another.

General Jackson has been described as a man of unbounded hospitality. He loved fine horses, and had a passion for racing them. "His temper," writes Col. Benton, "was placable as well as irascible, and his reconciliations were cordial and sincere." He abhorred debt, public as well as private. His love of country was a master passion. "He was a thoroughly honest man, as straightforward in action as his thoughts were unsophisticated." Of book-knowledge he possessed little,—scarcely anything; but his vigorous native intelligence and intuitive judgment carried him safely through, where the most profound learning, without them, would have failed.



MARTIN VAN BUREN,

THE eighth chief executive of the union, was the son of a thrifty farmer in the old town of Kinderhook, in Columbia county, New York, where he was born on the 5th of December, 1782. Early evidencing unusual mental vigor, a good academic education was given to him. Finishing this at the age of fourteen, he then began the study of the law. After seven years of study, he was admitted to the bar, and commenced to practice in his native village. His growing reputation and practice warranting him in seeking a wider field, in 1809 he removed to Hudson. In 1812, he was elected to the senate of New York; and, in 1815, appointed attorney-general of the state, he removed to Albany. In 1821, he was elected to the United States Senate, and was also a member of the convention to revise the constitution of New York. He speedily rose to distinction in the national senate, and, in 1827, was re-elected to that body; but, the year following, resigned his seat to take the position of governor of New York. In 1829, General Jackson, whose election to the presidency was no doubt due in a great measure to the shrewd political management of Van Buren, offered him the post of secretary of state. In 1831, circumstances making it necessary for Jackson to re-organize his cabinet, Van Buren resigned his secretaryship; but was immediately named minister to England. The senate, however, greatly to the president's dissatisfaction, refused to confirm the nomination, though Van Buren had already reached London. This rejection of his friend aroused all of Jackson's determined spirit, and he at once began to work zealously to obtain Van Buren's nomination as his successor in the presidency. He triumphed: his friend received

the Democratic nomination, and was elected by a handsome majority, taking his seat in the presidential chair on the 4th of March, 1837.

Shortly after Van Buren's inauguration, a financial panic, ascribed to General Jackson's desire to make specie the currency of the country, and his consequent war upon the banks, brought the country to the very verge of ruin. Failures came fast and frequent, and all the great industries of the nation were paralyzed. At the same time, the war in Florida against the Seminoles lingered along, without the slightest apparent prospect of coming to an end, entailing enormous expenses on the government; while the anti-slavery agitation, growing steadily stronger, excited mobs and violence, and threatened to shake the Republic from its foundations. Rightly or wrongly, these troubles were attributed to President Van Buren and his party, as resulting from the policy they had pursued. His popularity waned rapidly, and, at the presidential election in 1840, in which he was a candidate for re-election, he was overwhelmingly defeated.

Retiring to Lindenwald, his fine estate near Kinderhook, Van Buren, in 1844, endeavored to procure a re-nomination for the presidency, but was unsuccessful. In 1848, however, he was brought forward for that office by the Free-soil Democrats. Though not elected, the party which had nominated him showed unexpected strength, three hundred thousand votes having been cast in his favor.

Mr. Van Buren now retired from public life forever. Four years later, at the age of eighty, on the 24th of July, 1862, he died at Lindenwald. He was a man of more than ordinary ability, of cultivated manners, and genial disposition. Though a shrewd, he was not a dishonest politician. His private character was beyond reproach. He deserves a conspicuous position among those who have been worthy successors of our immortal first president.



WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON, ninth President of the United States, was born at Berkeley, on the banks of the James River, in Virginia, on the 9th of February, 1773. His father, Benjamin Harrison, was one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, and for several years governor of Virginia. Having received a good education at Hampden Sidney College, young Harrison began the study of medicine; but the barbarities of the savages on our north-western frontier having excited his sympathies in behalf of the suffering settlers, he determined to enter the army, as being a place where he could do good service. Accordingly, in 1791, shortly after St. Clair's defeat, he obtained from President Washington a commission as ensign in the artillery. Though winter was coming on, he at once set out on foot across the wilderness to Pittsburg, whence he descended the Ohio to Fort Washington, now Cincinnati. He soon became a favorite with his superiors, and by his bravery in battle speedily attained the rank of captain. In 1797, when but twenty-four years old, having recently married, he resigned his commission, to accept the secretaryship of the north-west territory. In 1800, he was appointed governor of "the Indiana territory," comprising the present states of Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin. This office he filled satisfactorily to both whites and Indians, for twelve years.

During the summer of 1811, the Indians of the north-west, under the lead of the celebrated Tecumseh, and instigated, it is thought, by the emissaries of England, with whom we were upon the point of going to war, broke out into open hostility. Collecting a considerable force of militia and volunteers, Harrison took the field. On the 7th

of November, he encountered and defeated Tecumseh, on the banks of the Tippecanoe River. This was one of the most hotly contested battles ever fought between the Indians and the whites. Its victorious result added greatly to Harrison's already high reputation; and, in 1812, after Hull's ignominious surrender of Detroit, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the army of the north-west. Invested with almost absolute power, he displayed an energy, sagacity, and courage, which justified the confidence reposed in him. By almost superhuman exertions, he managed to collect an army. Perry, on the 10th of September, 1813, having defeated the British fleet on Lake Erie, Harrison, who had been waiting the course of events, now hastened to take the field. Crossing into Canada, he repossessed Detroit, and, pushing on in pursuit of the flying enemy, finally brought them to a stand on the banks of the Thames. Here, after a brief but sanguinary contest, the British and their savage allies were defeated with heavy loss. Tecumseh, the leading spirit of the Indians, was left dead on the field. Harrison's triumph was complete and decisive.

Shortly after this victory, which gave peace to the north-west, Harrison, having had some difficulty with the secretary of war, threw up his commission; but was appointed by the president to negotiate a treaty with the Indians. In 1816, he was elected to the lower house of congress, where he gained considerable reputation, both as an active working member and as an eloquent and effective speaker. In 1824, he was sent from Ohio to the United States senate. In 1828, he was appointed by John Quincy Adams minister to Colombia; but President Jackson, who bore him no good-will, the following year recalled him. On his return home, he retired to his farm at North Bend, on the Ohio River, and was presently elected clerk of the Hamilton county court. In 1836, he was one of the four candidates who ran against Van Buren for the presidency. Jackson's favorite, as we have seen, came out ahead in this race. But, though Harrison was not elected, there was such evidence of his popularity as to warrant the Whigs in uniting upon him as their candidate in the campaign of 1840.

That campaign was a memorable one. It was, perhaps, the most exciting, yet, at the same time, one of the freest from extreme partisan bitterness, of any presidential canvass ever known. As "the hero of Tippecanoe," and "the log-cabin candidate," which latter phrase was

first used in contempt, Harrison swept everything before him, securing 234 out of the 294 electoral votes cast, and this, too, in spite of all the efforts of Jackson to prevent his success. His journey to be inaugurated was one continued ovation. His inauguration, which took place on the 4th of March, 1841, was witnessed by a vast concourse of people from all parts of the union. His address, by the moderation of its tone, and by its plain, practical, common-sense views, confirmed his immense popularity. Selecting for his cabinet some of the most eminent public men of the country, he began his administration with the brightest prospects. But, in the midst of these pleasing anticipations, he was suddenly attacked by a fit of sickness, which, in a few days terminated in his death, on the 4th of April, just one month after his inauguration. His last words, spoken in the delirium of fever, were characteristic of the conscientiousness with which he had accepted the responsibilities of the presidential office. "Sir," he said, as if, conscious of his approaching end, he were addressing his successor, "I wish you to understand the principles of the government. I wish them carried out. I ask nothing more."

The sudden and unexpected death of President Harrison threw the whole country into mourning. Much had been hoped from him, as one who had the best interests of every portion of the union at heart. His death, therefore, was regarded as a national calamity, and, never since the death of Washington, had there been witnessed such tokens of profound and sincere grief as were called forth on this occasion. There was a noble simplicity in his character which had won all hearts. Without being brilliant, his was an intellect of solid, substantial worth. He was a frank, guileless-hearted man, of incorruptible integrity, and stands forth among our presidents, brief as was his official term, as a noble representative of the plain, practical, honest yeomanry of the land. "Not one single spot," says Abbott, "can be found to sully the brightness of his fame; and, through all the ages, Americans will pronounce with love and reverence the name of William Henry Harrison."



JOHN TYLER.

IN the death of General Harrison, April 4, 1841, for the first time in our history the administration of the government devolved on the vice-president. The gentleman thus elevated to the presidency was John Tyler, the son of a wealthy landholder of Virginia, at one time governor of that state. Born in Charles City County, March 29, 1790, young Tyler, at the age of seventeen, graduated from William and Mary College with the reputation of having delivered the best commencement oration ever heard by the faculty. When only nineteen, he began to practice law, rising to eminence in his profession with surprising rapidity. Two years later, he was elected to the legislature. After serving five successive terms in the legislature, he was, in 1816, in 1817, and again in 1819, elected to congress. Compelled by ill-health to resign his seat in congress, he was, in 1825, chosen governor of the state. In 1827 he was elected to the United States Senate over the celebrated John Randolph.

During the whole of his congressional career, Mr. Tyler was an earnest advocate of the strict construction doctrines of the then Democratic party, opposing the United States bank, a protective tariff, internal improvements by the general government, and, in short, all measures tending to the centralization of power. He was also an ardent opponent of any restrictions upon slavery, and avowed his sympathies with the nullification theories of Calhoun. On this last subject he finally came into the opposition against Jackson. In the session of 1833-'34, he voted for Clay's resolutions censuring Jackson for his removal of the deposits. In 1836, when the Virginia legislature instructed its representatives in congress to vote for the rescinding of these resolutions, Mr. Tyler, who had early committed

himself to the right of instruction, could not conscientiously comply with the request of the legislature, nor hold his seat in disregard of its mandate, and accordingly resigned. In 1838 he was again sent to the legislature, and, in 1839, we find him a delegate to the Whig national convention, which, at Harrisburg, nominated Harrison and himself as candidates for president and vice-president. Of the campaign which followed, and of the subsequent death of Harrison, we have already given an account in our sketch of the life of the latter.

On receiving tidings of the president's death, Mr. Tyler hastened to Washington, and, on the 6th of April was inaugurated. Three days later, he issued an inaugural address, which was well received, both by the public and by his partisan friends, who, knowing his antecedents, had been somewhat dubious as to what policy he would pursue. But this was only the calm before the storm. Tyler's veto of the bill for a "fiscal bank of the United States" led to a complete rupture with the party by which he had been elected, who charged him with treachery to his principles. Attempting conciliation, he only displeased the Democrats, who had at first shown a disposition to stand by him, without regaining the favor of the Whigs. During his administration, however, several very important measures were adopted. Among them, the act establishing a uniform system of bankruptcy, passed in 1841; the tariff law of 1842; and the scheme for the annexation of Texas, which, by the vigorous efforts of the president, was brought to a successful issue by the passage of joint resolutions in congress, on the 1st of March, 1845, just three days before the close of his term. The formal act of annexation, however, was not passed until a later period. One new state—Florida—was also admitted into the union, in 1845.

After his retirement from the presidency, on the 4th of March, 1845, Mr. Tyler remained in private life at his beautiful home of Sherwood Forest, in Charles City County, till in 1861 he appeared as a member of the peace convention, composed of delegates from the "border states," which met at Washington to endeavor to arrange terms of compromise between the seceded states and the general government. Of this convention, which accomplished nothing, he was president. Subsequently he renounced his allegiance to the United States, and was chosen a member of the Confederate congress. While acting in this capacity, he was taken sick at Richmond, where he died after a brief illness, on the 17th of January, 1862.



JAMES KNOX POLK.

MECKLENBURG County, North Carolina, has the distinction of being the birth-place of two Presidents of the United States—Andrew Jackson, and James Knox Polk, the latter of whom was born there on the 2d of November, 1795. Like his friend and neighbor, General Jackson, Mr. Polk was of Scotch-Irish descent. It was his great-uncle, Col. Thomas Polk, who, on the 19th of May, 1775, read from the steps of the court-house at Charlotte, that famous "Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence," to which reference has been made in our sketch of Jefferson. James at a very early age manifested decided literary tastes. After a vain attempt to induce him to become a store-keeper, his father finally consented to his entering the University of North Carolina, at Chapel Hill, from which, in his twenty-third year, he graduated with the highest honors. Studying law at Nashville, Tennessee, where he renewed a former acquaintance with General Jackson, he was admitted to the bar, and commenced practice at Columbia. In 1823 he was elected to the legislature of Tennessee, and, during the following year, was married to Miss Sarah Childress, a beautiful and accomplished young lady, of refined manners, and rare social gifts. In the fall of 1825 he was elected to congress, where he remained the next fourteen years, during five sessions occupying the responsible and honorable position of speaker of the house, the duties of which he performed with a dignity and dispassionateness which won for him the warmest encomiums from all parties. In 1839 he was chosen governor of Tennessee. Again a candidate in 1841, and also in 1843, he was both times defeated,—a result due to one of those periodical revolutions in politics, which seem inseparable from repub-

lican forms of government, rather than to Mr. Polk's lack of personal popularity.

As the avowed friend of the annexation of Texas, Mr. Polk, in 1844, was nominated by the Democrats for the presidency. Though he had for his opponent no less a person than the great and popular orator and statesman, Henry Clay, he received a majority of 65 votes in the electoral college. He was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1845. Three days previously, his predecessor, John Tyler, had signed the joint resolutions of congress favoring the annexation of Texas to the United States. Consequently, at the very beginning of his administration, Mr. Polk found the country involved in disputes with Mexico, which, on the formal annexation of Texas, in December, 1845, threatened to result in hostilities between the two countries. General Taylor was sent with a small army to occupy the territory stretching from the Neuces to the Rio Grande, which latter stream Texas claimed as her western boundary. Mexico, on the other hand, declaring that Texas had never extended further west than the Neuces, despatched a force to watch Taylor. A slight collision, in April, 1846, was followed, a few days later, by the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, in which Gen. Taylor was victorious. When the tidings of these battles reached Washington, the president, on May 11, sent a special message to congress, declaring "that war existed by the act of Mexico," and asking for men and money to carry it on. Congress promptly voted ten million dollars, and authorized the president to call out fifty thousand volunteers. Hostilities were prosecuted vigorously. An American army, under Gen. Scott finally fought its way to the capture of the city of Mexico. On the 2d of February, 1848, the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo was signed, and ratified by the senate on the 10th of March following, by which New Mexico and upper California, comprising a territory of more than half a million square miles, were added to the United States. In return, the United States agreed to pay Mexico fifteen millions of dollars, and to assume the debts due by Mexico to citizens of the United States, amounting to three and a half millions more.

Besides Texas, two other states were admitted into the union during Mr. Polk's administration. These were Iowa and Wisconsin; the former in 1846, and the latter in 1848.

When the war with Mexico first broke out, negotiations were pending between England and the United States, in regard to

Oregon, which we had long deemed a portion of our own territory "Fifty-four forty [54° 40'] or fight!" had been one of the Democratic battle-cries during the canvass which resulted in Mr. Polk's election, and he, in his inaugural, had maintained that our title to Oregon was unquestionable. England, however, still urged her claim to the whole country. After considerable negotiation, the president finally, as an amicable compromise, offered the boundary of the parallel of 49°, giving Vancouver's Island to Great Britain. His offer was accepted, and war, perhaps, avoided. Another important measure of Mr. Polk's administration, was a modification of the tariff, in 1846, by which its former protective features were much lessened.

On his nomination, in 1844, Mr. Polk had pledged himself to the one term principle. Consequently he was not a candidate for reelection in 1848. Having witnessed the inauguration of his successor, Gen. Taylor, he returned to his home near Nashville. "He was then," says Abbott, "but fifty-four years of age. He had ever been strictly temperate in his habits, and his health was good. With an ample fortune, a choice library, a cultivated mind, and domestic ties of the dearest nature, it seemed as though long years of tranquillity and happiness were before him." But it was not so to be. On his way home he felt premonitory symptoms of cholera, and when he reached there his system was much weakened. Though at first able to work a little in superintending the fitting up of his grounds, he was soon compelled to take to his bed. He never rose from it again. Though finally the disease was checked in him, he had not strength left to bring on the necessary reaction, and commenced to sink away, slowly and insensibly. "He died without a struggle, simply ceasing to breathe, as when deep and quiet sleep falls upon a weary man," on the 15th of June, 1849, a little more than three months after his retirement from the presidency.



ZACHARY TAYLOR,

TWELFTH President of the United States, was born in Orange County, Virginia, November 24, 1784. His father, Colonel Richard Taylor, was a noted Revolutionary officer. His mother, as is usually the case with the mothers of men who have risen to distinction, was a woman of great force of character. Whilst he was yet an infant, his parents removed to the then wilderness near the present city of Louisville. Here, in the depths of the forest, swarming with hostile savages, young Taylor found few educational advantages, though the training he received was no doubt one to develop those military qualities he subsequently displayed. He grew up a rugged, brave, self-reliant youth, with more of a certain frank, almost blunt off-handedness, than exterior polish.

In 1808, he received a lieutenant's commission in the army. His military career fairly opened in 1812, when he was sent to the defense of our western border. While in command of Fort Harrison, on the Wabash, with a garrison of but fifty-two men, he was suddenly attacked by a band of Indians, who succeeded in setting fire to the fort. But the young captain, with his handful of men, extinguished the flames, and forced the enemy to retreat. For this gallant exploit, he received a brevet-major's commission.

Nothing remarkable occurred in his life for many years subsequent, until, in 1837, we find him a colonel in Florida, operating against the Seminoles. On Christmas day of that year, he won the battle of Okechobee, one of the most fiercely contested actions in the annals of Indian warfare. The Seminoles never rallied again in formidable numbers. For his signal services in this affair, Taylor was made a brigadier, and appointed commander-in-chief. This post he retained

till 1840, when, having purchased an estate in Louisiana, he was, at his own request, placed in command of the department of the south-west.

While still holding this command, in the spring of 1845, congress having passed joint resolutions for the annexation of Texas, Gen. Taylor was sent with 4,000 troops to Corpus Christi, on the west bank of the Neuces, and in territory claimed by both Mexico and Texas. It has been said, that it was the secret object of our government to provoke a conflict with Mexico, yet so that the responsibility of it should appear to rest upon Gen. Taylor. If such was the object, the scheme signally failed. Taylor made no move without explicit orders. It was by the president's positive command, that, on the 8th of March, 1846, the wary old general began his march into the disputed district lying between the Neuces and the Rio Grande. Reaching the latter stream on the 28th, he built Fort Brown, immediately opposite the Mexican town of Matamoras. On the 12th of April, the Mexican commander peremptorily ordered Taylor to retire beyond the Neuces. A refusal to do this, he said, would be regarded as a declaration of war. General Taylor replied that his instructions would not permit him to retire, and that if the Mexicans saw fit to commence hostilities he would not shrink from the conflict. Six thousand Mexicans at once crossed the Rio Grande. With less than 3000 troops, Taylor, on the 8th of April, attacked and defeated them at Palo Alto. Rallying in a strong position at Resaca de la Palma, the Mexicans were again attacked, and, after a stubborn fight, driven back across the river with great loss. These victories were hailed with the wildest enthusiasm throughout the country, and Taylor was promoted to a major-generalship.

Moving rapidly forward to Monterey, he took that strongly fortified city, after a desperate fight of three days. Making it his headquarters, the victor was preparing for an important move, when Gen. Scott, who was about to lead an expedition against Vera Cruz, took away the best part of his troops, leaving him with only 5,000 men, mostly raw volunteers. Hearing of this, Santa Anna, undoubtedly the ablest of the Mexican generals, with 20,000 picked men, pushed rapidly down the Rio Grande, with the design of overpowering Taylor's little army. The latter, on the 21st of February, 1847, took position at Buena Vista, and awaited the approach of his antagonist, who made his appearance the following day, and at once began a

fiery attack. Never was battle fought with more desperate courage or greater skill. Three times during the day, victory seemed with the Mexicans; but finally, the stubborn valor of Taylor's little band won the field.

The tidings of this brilliant victory excited the greatest enthusiasm, and gained an imperishable renown for the triumphant general. On his return home, in November, "old rough and ready," as his soldiers familiarly called him, was greeted everywhere by the warmest demonstrations of popular applause. Even before this he had been nominated at public meetings for the presidency; and now, the Whigs, casting about for a popular candidate, made him their party nominee. Notwithstanding the defection from their ranks of Henry Wilson and others, who were opposed to Taylor as being a slaveholder, he was elected by a respectable majority. His inauguration took place on Monday, March 5, 1849.

Though he selected an excellent cabinet, the old soldier found himself in a trying position. A vehement struggle had commenced in congress about the organization of the new territories, the admission of California, and the settlement of the boundary between Texas and New Mexico, all these questions being connected with the great and absorbing one of the extension or non-extension of slavery. Taylor, in his message to congress, recommended the admission of California as a free state, and that the remaining territories should be allowed to form state constitutions to suit themselves. Nothing could have been more distasteful to the extremists of the south, many of whom made open threats of secession, in case of the adoption of the president's suggestions. To adjust the difficulty, Mr. Clay, in the senate, introduced his "compromise measures," which were still under debate, when, on the 4th of July, 1850, Gen. Taylor was seized with bilious fever, of which he died on the 9th, at the presidential mansion. His last words were: "I have tried to do my duty."



MILLARD FILLMORE.

IN the death of General Taylor, his successor, according to the constitution, was the vice-president. The gentleman then filling that position was Millard Fillmore, an eminent lawyer of New York. He was comparatively a young man, having been born on the 17th of January, 1800, at Summer Hill, Cayuga County, New York. His father being poor, his means of education had been limited. Apprenticed at the age of fourteen to a clothier, he found time during his evenings to gratify an insatiable thirst for knowledge, by reading. His studious habits, fine personal appearance, and gentlemanly bearing, having attracted the attention of a lawyer in the neighborhood, that gentleman offered to receive him in his office, and besides assist him pecuniarily, until he should be admitted to the bar. This offer young Fillmore, then in his nineteenth year, thankfully accepted. With this help, and by teaching during the winters, he was enabled to prosecute his studies to a successful issue, and, in 1823, was admitted to the bar, opening an office in the village of Aurora, in New York.

Mr. Fillmore steadily rose in his profession. In 1829, he was elected to the state legislature, and soon afterwards removed to Buffalo. In 1832, he was chosen a member of congress; and again, in 1837, but declined running a third time. He now had a wide reputation, and, in the year 1847, was elected state comptroller, and removed to Albany. The following year, he was placed in nomination as vice-president, on the ticket with General Taylor. When, on the 5th of March, 1849, Taylor took the presidential chair, Mr. Fillmore, by virtue of his office, became speaker of the United States Senate. Here, the first presiding officer to take so firm a step, he

announced his determination, in spite of all precedents to the contrary, to promptly call senators to order for any offensive words they might utter in debate.

When, after the death of Gen. Taylor, the office of chief executive devolved upon Mr. Fillmore, he found his position no easy or pleasant one. The controversy on the slavery question had intensely embittered public feeling, and it required a skilful pilot to guide the ship of state safely through the perils by which she was environed. The compromise measures of Mr. Clay, to which we have already referred in our sketch of General Taylor, were finally passed, and received the approving signature of Mr. Fillmore. One of these measures was the admission of California as a free state; another was the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia. These were thought to be concessions to the cause of freedom; while, on the other hand, to satisfy the pro-slavery agitators, a bill was passed to give the owners of slaves power to recapture fugitive slaves in any part of the free states, and carry them back without a jury trial. But, though enacted in the hope of allaying sectional animosity, these measures brought about only a temporary calm to the general agitation, while they aggravated the violence of extremists both north and south.

The compromise measures, and the fitting out of the famous Japan expedition, were the principal features of Mr. Fillmore's otherwise uneventful administration. On the 4th of March, 1853, he retired from office, and immediately afterward took a long tour through the southern states, where he met with a cordial reception.

In 1855, Mr. Fillmore visited Europe. He was everywhere received with those marks of attention which, according to European ideas, are due to those who have occupied the most distinguished positions. On his return home, in 1856, he was nominated for the presidency by the so-called "Know-nothing," or Native-American party; but, being defeated, he retired to private life. He died at Buffalo, New York, on the 8th of March, 1874.



FRANKLIN PIERCE,

FOURTEENTH President of the United States, was born at Hillsborough, N. H., November 23d, 1804. His father, a soldier of the Revolution, was a man of considerable local repute. Graduating from Bowdoin College in 1824, Mr. Pierce studied law with the celebrated Levi Woodbury, and commenced practice in his native town. He early entered the political field, and, in 1833, after having previously served several terms in the state legislature, was elected to congress. Here he showed himself an earnest state-rights Democrat, and was regarded as a fair working member. In 1837, when but thirty-three years of age, he was elected to the national senate, and, during the following year, removed to Concord, where he at once took rank among the leading lawyers of the state.

Though Mr. Pierce had declined the office of attorney-general of the United States, offered to him by President Polk, he nevertheless, when hostilities were declared against Mexico, accepted a brigadier-generalship in the army, successfully marching, with twenty-four hundred men, from the sea-coast to Puebla, where he re-inforced General Scott. The latter, on the arrival of Pierce, immediately prepared to make his long-contemplated attack upon the city of Mexico. At the battle of Contreras, on the 19th of August, 1847, where he led an assaulting column four thousand strong, General Pierce showed himself to be a brave and energetic soldier. Early in the fight, his leg was broken by his horse falling upon him; yet he kept his saddle during the entire conflict, which did not cease till eleven o'clock at night. The next day, also, he took part in the still more desperate fight at Churubusco, where, overcome by pain

and exhaustion, he fainted on the field. At Molino Del Rey, where the hottest battle of the war was fought, he narrowly escaped death from a shell which bursted beneath his horse.

The American army triumphantly entered the city of Mexico on the 13th of September, 1847. General Pierce remained there until the following December, when he returned home, and resumed the practice of his profession. Nominated for the presidency by the Democratic national convention, which met at Baltimore, on the 1st of June, 1852, he was elected by an overwhelming majority, and inaugurated chief magistrate, on the 4th of March, 1853.

Though both the great parties of the country had adopted platforms favoring the recent compromise measures of Clay, and deprecating any renewal of the agitation of the slavery question, General Pierce's administration, by reason of the bringing up of that very question, was one of the most stormy in our history. Douglas' bill for the organization of Kansas and Nebraska, by which the Missouri compromise act of 1820 was repealed, allowing slavery to enter where it had been forever excluded, and which, having the support of the president, became a law on the last day of May, 1853, excited the most intense indignation in the free states, and greatly increased the strength of the anti-slavery power. In Kansas a bitter contest, almost attaining the proportions of civil war, began between the partisans of the south and the north. This contest was still raging when Mr. Pierce's term drew to a close. His friends sought to obtain his nomination for a second term, but did not succeed. On the 4th of March, 1857, therefore, he retired to his home at Concord. That home, already bereaved by the loss of three promising boys,—his only children,—was now to have a still greater loss,—that of the wife and afflicted mother, who, grief-stricken at the sudden death, by a railroad accident, of her last boy, sunk under consumption, leaving Mr. Pierce alone in the world—wifeless as well as childless.

The sorrowing ex-president presently took a trip to Madeira, and made a protracted tour in Europe, returning home in 1860. During the civil war, he delivered in Concord a speech, still known as "the Mausoleum of Hearts speech," in which he is regarded as having expressed a certain sympathy for the confederates. He died at Concord, on the 8th of October, 1869.



JAMES BUCHANAN,

FIFTEENTH President of the United States, was born in Franklin County, Pa., April 22, 1791. His father, a native of the north of Ireland, who had come eight years before to America, with no capital but his strong arms and energetic spirit, was yet able to give the bright and studious boy a good collegiate education, with which he began the study of law at Lancaster, and, after a three years' course, was admitted to practice, in 1812. He rose rapidly in his profession, the business of which increased with his reputation, so that, at the age of forty, he was enabled to retire with an ample fortune.

Mr. Buchanan early entered into politics. When but twenty-three years old, he was elected to the legislature of Pennsylvania. Though an avowed federalist, he not only spoke in favor of a vigorous prosecution of the war of 1812, but likewise marched as a private soldier to the defense of Baltimore. In 1820, he was elected to the lower house of congress, where he speedily attained eminence as a finished and energetic speaker. His political views are shown in the following extract from one of his speeches in congress: "If I know myself, I am a politician neither of the west nor the east, of the north nor of the south. I therefore shall forever avoid any expressions, the direct tendency of which must be to create sectional jealousies, and at length disunion—that worst of all political calamities." That he sincerely endeavored in his future career to act in accordance with the principles here enunciated, no candid mind can doubt, however much he may be regarded to have failed in doing so, especially during the eventful last months of his administration.

In 1831, at the close of his fifth term, Mr. Buchanan, having de-

clined a re-election to congress, was sent as minister-plenipotentiary to St. Petersburg, where he concluded the first commercial treaty between the United States and Russia. On his return home in 1833, he was elected to the national senate. Here he became one of the leading spirits among the supporters of President Jackson. His last act as a senator was to report favorably on the admission of Texas, he being the only member of the committee on foreign relations to do so.

On the election of Polk to the presidency, Mr. Buchanan was selected to fill the important position of secretary of state. At the close of Polk's term, he withdrew to private life; but was subsequently sent by President Pierce as our minister to England. It was while acting in this capacity, that he united with Mason and Soulé in the once celebrated "Ostend Manifesto," in which strong ground was taken in favor of the annexation of Cuba to the United States, by purchase, if possible, but, if necessary, by force.

Returning home in 1856, he was nominated as the Democratic candidate for the presidency, and, after a stormy campaign, elected, receiving 174 out of 296 electoral votes. He was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1857. With the exception of a slight difficulty with the Mormons in Utah, and of the admission into the union of Minnesota in 1858, and of Oregon in 1859, the chief interest of Mr. Buchanan's administration centered around the slavery controversy. At the time of his inauguration, it is true, the country looked confidently forward to a period of political quiet. But, unhappily, the Kansas difficulty had not been settled. The free-state party in that territory refused obedience to the laws passed by the local legislature, on the ground that that legislature had been elected by fraudulent means. They even chose a rival legislature, which, however, the president refused to recognize. Meanwhile the so-called regular legislature, which congress had sanctioned, passed a bill for the election of delegates by the people to frame a state constitution for Kansas. An election was accordingly held; the convention met, and, after a stormy and protracted session, completed its work. The Lecompton constitution, as it was called, when laid before congress, met with strong opposition from the Republicans, on the ground that it had been fraudulently concocted. The president, however, gave it all his influence, believing that it would bring peace to the country, while not preventing Kansas from being a free state, should its peo-

ple so desire; and, finally, after a struggle of extraordinary violence and duration, it received the sanction of congress.

But quiet was not restored. In the north, the feeling against the president and his party became intense. The election in 1860 resulted in the triumph of Abraham Lincoln, the Republican candidate for the presidency. The period between Lincoln's election and his inauguration was one of peculiar trial to President Buchanan. An attempt to incite a slave insurrection, made at Harper's Ferry, in 1859, by John Brown, of Kansas, for which he was hanged by the authorities of Virginia, had created a profound sensation in the south, where it was regarded by many as indicative of the fixed purpose of the north to destroy slavery at all hazards. The election of Lincoln following so soon after this event, added strength to their apprehensions. As soon as the result of the canvass became known, South Carolina seceded from the union. Mr. Buchanan, apparently regarding the fears and complaints of the south as not without some just grounds, seems to have endeavored to bring about a peaceful solution of the difficulties before him by attempts at conciliation. But however good his intentions may have been, his policy, which has been characterized as weak, vacillating, and cowardly, so signally failed, that, when, on the 4th of March, 1861, he retired from the presidency, he handed over to his successor an almost hopelessly divided union, from which seven states had seceded.

Remaining in Washington long enough to witness the installation of Mr. Lincoln, Mr. Buchanan withdrew to the privacy of Wheatland, his country home, near Lancaster, in Pennsylvania. Here he spent the remainder of his days, taking no prominent part in public affairs. In 1866, he published a volume entitled "Mr. Buchanan's Administration," in which he explained and defended the policy he had pursued while in the presidential office. He died at Wheatland, on the 1st of June, 1868.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN,

SIXTEENTH President of the Union, was born in Hardin County, Kentucky, on the 12th of February, 1809. His parents were extremely poor, and could give him but scant opportunities of education. He was taught to read and write by his mother, a woman of intelligence far above her humble station. When he was in his eighth year, the family removed to the then wilderness of Spencer County, Indiana, where, in the course of three or four years, the boy Abraham, who was quick and eager to learn, had a chance to acquire the rudiments of the more ordinary branches of such a common school education as was to be obtained in that rude, frontier district. At the age of nineteen, he, with another youth of about the same age, set out, in a flat-boat, containing a cargo of considerable value, on a voyage to New Orleans. While passing down the Mississippi, they were attacked by a thieving band of negroes, but courageously beat off the robbers, and succeeded in reaching their destination safely.

In 1830, the elder Lincoln removed to Decatur County, Illinois. Here Abraham assisted his father in establishing himself in his new home. It was on this occasion that he split the famous rails, from which, years after, he received his partisan name of "the rail-splitter." During the severe winter which followed, by his exertions and skill as a hunter, he contributed greatly in keeping the family from starvation. The next two years he passed through as a farm-hand, and as a clerk in a country store. In the Black-Hawk war, which broke out in 1832, he served creditably as a volunteer, and, on his return home, ran for the legislature, but was defeated. He next tried store-keeping, but failed; and then, having learned something of surveying,

worked two or three years quite successfully as a surveyor for the government. In 1834, he was elected to the legislature, and soon after took up the study of law, being finally admitted to the bar in 1837, when he removed to Springfield, and began to practice. He rose rapidly in his profession, to which, having served a second term in the legislature, he devoted himself assiduously till 1844, during which year he canvassed the state in behalf of Mr. Clay, the Whig candidate for the presidency. In 1847, he took his seat in the lower house of congress, where he was the only Whig from the whole state of Illinois. Serving but a single term in congress, Mr. Lincoln, in 1848, canvassed the state for Gen. Taylor, and, the following year, was an unsuccessful candidate for a seat in the United States senate. He now renewed his devotion to his legal pursuits, yet still retained a deep interest in national politics.

The repeal of the Missouri compromise, which created a profound sensation throughout the entire north, brought about a complete political revolution in Illinois, and the state went over to the Whigs.

In this revolution Mr. Lincoln took a most active part, and gained a wide reputation as an effective stump-speaker. In 1856, he was brought prominently before the first Republican national convention, and came very near being nominated as its candidate for the vice-presidency. In 1858, as Republican candidate for United States senator, he canvassed Illinois in opposition to Judge Douglas, the Democratic nominee. Douglas was, perhaps, one of the most effective public speakers of the time, yet it is generally conceded that Lincoln, though he failed to obtain the senatorship, was fully equal to his distinguished and no doubt more polished opponent.

During the next eighteen months, Mr. Lincoln visited various parts of the country, delivering speeches of marked ability and power; and when, in May, 1860, the Republican national convention met at Chicago, he was, on the third ballot, chosen as its candidate for the presidency. In consequence of a division in the Democratic party, he was elected, receiving 180 out of 303 electoral votes. In the popular vote, the result was as follows: Lincoln, 1,887,610; Douglas, 1,291,574; Breckenridge, pro-slavery Democrat, 880,082; Bell, Constitutional-union party, 646,124: thus leaving Lincoln in the minority of nearly a million.

The election of Lincoln was at once made by the extreme pro-slavery agitators of the south a pretext for dissolving the union.

Though he had repeatedly declared his intention not to interfere with the existing institutions of the south, and to hold inviolate his official oath to maintain the constitution, all was of no avail to dissuade them from what seems to have been their pre-determined purpose. A month before he was inaugurated, six southern states, having solemnly withdrawn from the union, met in convention, and framed the constitution of a new and independent confederacy.

The president elect left his home in Springfield on the 11th of February, 1861, and proceeded by a somewhat circuitous route to Washington, delivering short, pithy addresses in the larger towns and cities through which he passed. He also visited the legislatures of several northern states, everywhere reiterating his purpose, while not disturbing the domestic relations of the south, to maintain the union intact at all hazards. Though informed at Philadelphia that a plot had been formed for his assassination, he reached Washington without molestation, and on the 4th of March was duly inaugurated, in the presence of an immense assemblage from all parts of the country.

In his inaugural address the new president, assuring the people of the south that he had taken the oath to support the constitution unreservedly, and that there were no grounds for any fear that "their property," peace, or persons, were to be endangered, he yet declared it to be his firm intention to execute the laws, collect duties and imposts, and to hold the public properties in all the states, with no bloodshed, however, unless it should be forced upon the national authority.

On entering upon the duties of his office, Mr. Lincoln found the condition of affairs far from encouraging. Seven states had already withdrawn from the union, and others were preparing to follow their example. The credit of the government was low; the army and navy not only small and inefficient, but scattered all through our wide domain; and the greater part of the public arms, through the treachery of certain officials, in the possession of the seceded states. Still, he was hopeful and buoyant, and believed that the pending difficulties would soon be adjusted. Even when, on the 14th of April, 1861, the bombardment and capture of Fort Sumter, by a confederate army, roused the north to intense action, though he immediately issued a call for 75,000 volunteers, it was seemingly with but a faint idea that they would be needed. The fact that they were

summoned for only three months—a period far from long enough for the organization of so large a body of men—is of itself sufficient evidence of the delusion under which he was laboring.

The battle of Bull-run, on the 21st of July, 1861, which resulted in the total route of the government forces, in a great measure dispelled this delusion. The real magnitude of the contest now began to show itself to Mr. Lincoln. Yet his courage never faltered, nor was he less hopeful of the final triumph of the union. Cheerfully accepting the burden of cares and responsibilities so suddenly thrown upon him, he put his whole heart in the work before him, and not even the disasters of 1862, that gloomiest year of the war, could for a moment shake his confiding spirit. People were not wanting who found fault with the buoyant temper he displayed at that period; but his apparent cheeriness was of as much avail as our armies in bringing about the triumph which at last came.

Of the history of the struggle which resulted in this triumph, we shall here give no details, only referring briefly to some of the more important actions of the president. The most momentous of these, without doubt, was the emancipation proclamation, issued on the 22d of September, 1862, and to take effect on the first of January, 1863, by which slavery was at once and forever done away with in the United States. In his message to congress, the president thus explains this act: "In giving freedom to the slave, we assure freedom to the free, honorable alike in what we give and what we preserve. We shall nobly save, or meanly lose, the last best hope of earth. . . The way is plain, peaceful, glorious, just—a way, which, if followed, the world will forever applaud, and God must forever bless."

In 1864, by a respectable majority in the popular vote, and a large one in the electoral college, Mr. Lincoln was re-elected to the presidency. At the period of his second inauguration, the complete triumph of the federal authority over the seceded states was assured. The last battles of the war had been fought. War had substantially ceased. The president was looking forward to the more congenial work of pacification. How he designed to carry out this work, we may judge from the following passage in his second inaugural: "With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow and his orphans, to do

all which may achieve and cherish a just and a lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations.”

Unfortunately the kind-hearted Lincoln was not to carry out the work of pacification to which he looked forward with such bright anticipations. But a little more than a month after his second inauguration—on the night of the 14th of April, 1865—John Wilkes Booth, one of a small band of desperate conspirators, as insanely foolish as they were wicked, fired a pistol ball into the brain of the president, as he sat in his box at the theatre. The wound proved fatal in a few hours, Mr. Lincoln never recovering his consciousness.

The excitement which the assassination of the president occasioned was most intense. The whole country was in tears. Nor was this grief confined to our own people. England, France, all Europe, and even the far-off countries of China and Japan, joined in the lamentation. Never was man more universally mourned, or more deserving of such wide-spread sorrow.

The funeral honors bestowed upon the murdered president were grand and imposing. His body, having been embalmed, was taken to his home at Springfield, Illinois, passing through Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, Albany, Buffalo, Cleveland, Chicago, and other large towns and cities. The entire road seemed to be lined with mourners, while in the chief cities the funeral ceremonies were equally solemn and magnificent.

At Philadelphia, the body lay in state in Independence Hall, where it was visited by an immense concourse of people, the line extending from the Delaware to the Schuylkill, a distance of nearly three miles, and thousands of persons waiting for three or four hours their turn to pass through the hall. Similar scenes were witnessed at the other great cities, as well as at Springfield, where, during the night previous to the final interment of his remains, nearly a hundred thousand people paid the last solemn tribute of respect to the fallen president.



ANDREW JOHNSON,

THE constitutional successor to President Lincoln, was born in Raleigh, N. C., Dec. 29, 1808. Prevented by the poverty of his parents from receiving any schooling, he was apprenticed, at the age of ten, to a tailor. On the expiration of his apprenticeship, he went to Greenville, Tenn., where he married. By his wife he was taught to write and to cypher, having already learned to read. Taking considerable interest in local politics, he formed a working-man's party in the town, by which he was elected alderman, and afterwards mayor. In 1835, he was elected to a seat in the legislature. Failing of re-election in 1837, he was again successful in 1839; and, in 1841, was elected to the state senate. His ability was now recognized, and, in 1843, he was sent to congress. Having served five successive terms in congress, he was, in 1853, elected governor of the state, and again, in 1855. Two years later, he was called upon to represent Tennessee in the United States senate, where he speedily rose to distinction as a man of great native energy. The free homestead bill, giving 160 acres of the public land to every citizen who would settle upon it and cultivate it a certain number of years, owes its passage to his persistent advocacy. On the slavery question he generally went with the Democratic party, accepting slavery as an existing institution, protected by the constitution.

In the presidential canvass of 1860, Mr. Johnson was a supporter of Breckinridge; but took strong grounds against secession, when that subject came up. His own state having voted itself out of the union, it was at the peril of his life that he returned home in 1861. Attacked by a mob, on a railroad car, he boldly faced his assailants, pistol in hand, and they slunk away. On the 4th of March, 1862,

he was appointed military governor of Tennessee. He entered upon the duties of his office with a courage and vigor that soon entirely reversed the condition of affairs in the state. By March, 1864, he had so far restored order, that elections were held for state and county officers, and the usual machinery of civil government was once more set in motion.

On the 4th of March, 1865, Mr. Johnson was inaugurated as vice-president of the United States. The assassination of President Lincoln a little more than a month afterwards, placed him, as we have seen, in the vacant chief executive chair. Though Mr. Johnson made no distinct pledges, it was thought by the tone of his inaugural, that he would pursue a severe course towards the seceded states. Yet the broad policy of restoration he finally adopted, met the earnest disapproval of the great party by which he had been elected. The main point at issue was, "whether the seceded states should be at once admitted to representation in congress, and resume all the rights they had enjoyed before the civil war, without further guarantees than the surrender of their armies, and with no provision for protecting the emancipated blacks."

Johnson, opposed to making any restrictive conditions, therefore, vetoed the various reconstructive measures adopted by congress. Though these measures were finally passed over the president's vetoes, his determined opposition to their policy, on the ground that it was unconstitutional, gave congress great offence. This feeling finally became so intense, that the house of representatives brought articles of impeachment against him. The trial—the first of its kind known in our history—was conducted by the United States senate, presided over by the chief justice of the Supreme Court. The impeachment failed, however; yet only lacked one vote of the two-thirds majority requisite to the president's conviction.

From this period to the close of his term, March 4, 1869, the president was allowed to pursue his own policy with but little opposition. Retiring to his home at Greenville, he began anew to take an active part in the politics of his state. It required several years, however, for him to regain anything like his earlier popularity; but finally, in January, 1875, he succeeded in securing his election once more to the senate of the United States; but died on the 30th of the following July.



ULYSSES S. GRANT.

HISTORY has recorded few instances of the rapid and unexpected rise of individuals in humble circumstances to the highest positions, more remarkable than that afforded by the life of Ulysses S. Grant, the eighteenth President of the United States. Fifteen years ago, he was an obscure leather-dealer in Galena, Illinois, with, probably, no ambition beyond that of becoming one day the head of the business, in which he was then a mere partner by courtesy, or by paternal favor. Moreover, he was already past the period of life in which men usually make their upward way in the world. Born on the 27th of April, 1822, at Point Pleasant, Ohio, the son of a well-to-do and thrifty tanner, he had passed, by a conjunction of favoring circumstances, from the bark-mill of his father's tannery to the military academy at West Point. Graduating from that institution in 1843, the 21st in a class of 39, he had signalized himself by his bravery in the Mexican war, being rewarded therefor by a captain's commission; had married, and, after spending several years with his regiment in California and Oregon, had left the service; tried farming and the real-estate business with moderate success, and, finally, had been taken by his father as a partner in a leather store, at Galena.

He was yet thus humbly employed, when President Lincoln issued his call for 75,000 three months' men. Marching to Springfield at the head of a company of volunteers, his military knowledge made him useful to Governor Yates, who retained him as mustering officer, until he was commissioned colonel of the 21st regiment of Illinois volunteers, on the 17th of June, 1861. The following August, hav-

ing been made a brigadier-general, he took command at Cairo, where he displayed much activity, and attracted some attention. On the 7th of November he fought the battle of Belmont, where he had a horse shot under him. His capture of Fort Donelson, with all its defenders, on the 15th of February, 1862, after a severe battle resulting in the first real and substantial triumph of the war, at once gave Grant a national reputation. For this brilliant victory, he was rewarded by a commission as major-general of volunteers.

Soon after the capture of Donelson, General Grant was placed in command of an important expedition up the Tennessee River. At Pittsburg Landing, while preparing for an attack on Corinth, a part of his army was surprised, at daybreak of the 6th of April, by an overwhelming force of confederates, and driven from their camp with severe loss. Rallying his men that evening under the protection of the gun-boats, Grant, having been re-enforced during the night, renewed the battle the following morning, and, after an obstinate contest, compelled the enemy to fall back upon Corinth.

In July, General Grant was placed in command of the department of West Tennessee, with his headquarters at Corinth, which the confederates had evacuated in the previous May. On the 19th of September he gained a complete victory over the confederates at Iuka, and then removed his headquarters to Jackson, Tennessee. Vicksburg, on the Mississippi, having been strongly fortified and garrisoned by the enemy, the duty of taking that place devolved upon Grant. After several attempts against it from the north, all of which resulted more or less disastrously, he finally moved his army down the west bank of the river, and, crossing to the east side, at a point below the city, began, on the 18th of May, 1863, a formal siege, which lasted until the 4th of the ensuing July, when the place was surrendered, with nearly thirty thousand prisoners, and an immense amount of military stores.

Grant's capture of Vicksburg, the result of that tenacity of purpose which is a marked trait in his character, was hailed with unbounded delight by the whole country. He was immediately commissioned a major-general in the regular army, and placed in command of the entire military division of the Mississippi. Congress also, meeting in December, ordered a gold medal to be struck for him, and passed resolutions of thanks to him and his army. Still further, a bill reviving the grade of lieutenant-general was passed,

and, on the 1st of March, 1864, Grant was appointed by President Lincoln to the position thus created.

Having now been placed at the head of an army of 700,000 men, Grant, announcing that his headquarters would be in the field, "at once planned two movements, to be directed simultaneously against vital points of the confederacy." One of these, with Richmond for its point of attack, he commanded in person; the other, against Atlanta, in Georgia, was headed by General Sherman.

On the 3d of May, Grant began the movement against Richmond, crossing the Rapidan, and pushing determinedly into the "wilderness," where, met by Lee, a bloody battle was fought, foiling his first attempt to place himself between the confederate army and their threatened capital. Advancing by the left flank, he was again confronted by Lee, at Spottsylvania, and compelled to make another flank movement, resulting in his again being brought to a stand by his wary antagonist. Declaring his determination "to fight it out on this line, if it took him all summer," Grant still pushed on by a series of flank movements, each culminating in a sanguinary battle, in which his losses were fearful, and, finally, passing Richmond on the east, crossed the James, and laid siege to the city of Petersburg, the capture of which now became the great problem of the war.

Grant crossed the James on the 15th of June, 1864. It was not until the beginning of April, 1865, after a series of desperate assaults, coming to a crisis in the battle of Five-Forks, in which Grant gained a crowning triumph, that Petersburg finally succumbed. The fall of Petersburg compelled Lee to evacuate Richmond, with the meagre remnant of his army. He retreated westward towards Danville, followed closely by Grant. At the same time, Sherman, who had met with almost unparalleled success in his part of the concerted movement, marching triumphantly through Alabama and Georgia to the sea-coast, along which he swept northward, was threatening Lee from another quarter, so that, placed between two large armies, both flushed with victory, no other resource was left him than to surrender the thin remnant of his force. This he did, to Grant, at Appomattox Court House, on the 9th of April, 1865, and the "Great Rebellion" was thus virtually brought to a close.

On the conclusion of the war, Grant made Washington his headquarters, and was, in July, 1866, commissioned General of the United States army—a rank which had been specially created to do him

honor. In August, 1867, he for awhile acted as secretary of war, *ad interim*, under President Johnson; but, notwithstanding the latter's earnest request to the contrary, restored the position to Mr. Stanton, from whom it had been taken, when the senate refused to sanction that gentleman's removal.

In the Republican national convention, held at Chicago, on the 21st of May, 1868, General Grant was on the first ballot unanimously nominated as the candidate of that party for the presidency. His Democratic competitor was Horatio Seymour, of New York. The election resulted in his receiving 214 out of 294 electoral votes. He was inaugurated on the 4th of March, 1869. Though brought into conflict with some of the prominent men of his party, by his determined effort to bring about the annexation of San Domingo to the United States, President Grant's first official term gave satisfaction to the mass of his Republican adherents, by whom, in their national convention at Philadelphia, on the 5th of June, 1872, he was nominated for a second term by acclamation. His opponent on this occasion was Horace Greeley, who was supported by both the Democrats and the so-called Liberal Republicans. The election resulted in the success of General Grant, who received 268 out of the 348 electoral votes cast. He was inaugurated a second time on the 4th of March, 1873, and consequently, his term of office will not expire until the 4th of March, 1877.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

[Went into operation on the first Wednesday in March, 1789.]

PREAMBLE.

WE, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.

OF THE LEGISLATIVE POWER.

SECTION 1. 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.

OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

SEC. 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

No person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one Representative; and, until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

OF THE SENATE.

SEC. 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the Senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year, of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year, and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one-third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice-President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and have a President *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two-thirds of the members present.

Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust or profit, under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment and punishment according to law.

MANNER OF ELECTING MEMBERS.

SEC. 4. The times, places and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

CONGRESS TO ASSEMBLE ANNUALLY.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

POWERS.

SEC. 5. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and, with the concurrence of two-thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may, in their judgment, require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one-fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

COMPENSATION, ETC., OF MEMBERS.

SEC. 6. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No Senator or Representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States, shall be a member of either house during his continuance in office.

MANNER OF PASSING BILLS, ETC.

SEC. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If, after such reconsideration, two-thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two-thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sunday excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment), shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be re-passed by two-thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

POWER OF CONGRESS.

SEC. 8. The Congress shall have [power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post-offices and post-roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offenses against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

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, dockyards and other needful buildings; and

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Con-

stitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

LIMITATION OF THE POWERS OF CONGRESS.

SEC. 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

No capitation, or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince or foreign State.

LIMITATION OF THE POWERS OF THE INDIVIDUAL STATES.

SEC. 10. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make anything but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.

EXECUTIVE POWER.

SEC. 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

MANNER OF ELECTING.

Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant with the same State as themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list 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 shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal

number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list the said House shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.

TIME OF CHOOSING ELECTORS.

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

WHO ELIGIBLE.

No person except a natural born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

WHEN THE PRESIDENT'S POWER DEVOLVES ON THE VICE-PRESIDENT.

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

PRESIDENT'S COMPENSATION.

The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

OATH.

Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation: "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

POWERS AND DUTIES.

SEC. 2. The President shall be Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences 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; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SEC. 3. He shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such mea-

tures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

OFFICERS REMOVED.

SEC. 4. The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office, on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.

OF THE JUDICIARY.

SEC. 1. The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the Supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SEC. 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority; to all cases affecting ambassadors, 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.

JURISDICTION OF SUPREME COURT.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be a party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

OF TRIALS FOR CRIMES.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

OF TREASON.

SEC. 3. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open Court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.

STATE ACTS.

SEC. 1. Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may, by general laws, prescribe the manner in which such acts, records and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

PRIVILEGES OF CITIZENS.

SEC. 2. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

A person charged in any State with treason, felony or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of

the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

RUNAWAYS TO BE DELIVERED UP.

No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

NEW STATES.

SEC. 3. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

TERRITORIAL AND OTHER PROPERTY.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting, the territory, or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SEC. 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and, on application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.

AMENDMENTS.

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution; or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by Congress; provided, that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth Section of the first Article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.

DEBTS.

All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution as under the Confederation.

SUPREME LAW OF THE LAND.

This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof, and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, anything in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

OATH.—NO RELIGIOUS TEST.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office, or public trust, under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.

The ratifications of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in Convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present,

the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America the twelfth. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

New Hampshire—John Langdon, Nicholas Gilman. *Massachusetts*—Nathaniel Gorham, Rufus King. *Connecticut*—William Samuel Johnson, Roger Sherman. *New York*—Alexander Hamilton. *New Jersey*—William Livingston, David Brearley, William Patterson, Jonathan Dayton. *Pennsylvania*—Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Mifflin, Robert Morris, George Clymer, Thomas Fitzsimmons, Jared Ingersoll, James Wilson, Gouverneur Morris. *Delaware*—George Read, Gunning Bedford, Jr., John Dickinson, Richard Bassett, Jacob Broom. *Maryland*—James M'Henry, Daniel of St. Tho. Jenifer, Daniel Carroll. *Virginia*—John Blair, James Madison, Jr. *North Carolina*—William Blount, Richard Dobbs Spaight, Hugh Williamson. *South Carolina*—John Rutledge, Chas. Cotesworth Pinckney, Charles Pinckney, Pierce Butler. *Georgia*—William Few, Abraham Baldwin.

Attest

WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION.

[The first ten amendments were proposed by Congress at their first session, in 1789. The eleventh was proposed in 1794, and the twelfth in 1803.]

ARTICLE I.

FREE EXERCISE OF RELIGION.

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II.

RIGHT TO BEAR ARMS.

A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III.

NO SOLDIER TO BE BILLETED, ETC.

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV.

UNREASONABLE SEARCHES PROHIBITED.

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated; and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V.

CRIMINAL PROCEEDINGS.

No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service, in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be put twice in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled, in any criminal case, to be a witness against himself; nor be deprived of life, liberty or property without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI.

MODE OF TRIAL.

In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor; and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII.

RIGHT OF TRIAL BY JURY.

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved; and no fact tried by jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any Court of the United States than according to the rules of the common law.

ARTICLE VIII.

BAIL.—FINES.

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX.

RIGHTS NOT ENUMERATED.

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.

POWERS RESERVED.

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively or to the people.

ARTICLE XI.

LIMITATION OF JUDICIAL POWER.

The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign State.

ARTICLE XII.

ELECTION OF PRESIDENT.

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 list 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 a 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. But in choosing the President, the vote shall be taken by States, the representatives from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as

in the case of the death or other Constitutional disability of the President.

The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice.

But no person Constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

[Ratified in 1865.]

ARTICLE XIII.

SEC. 1. Neither Slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SEC. 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

[Ratified in 1868.]

ARTICLE XIV.

SEC. 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States, and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States. Nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SEC. 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed; but whenever the right to vote at any election for electors of President and Vice-President, or United States Representatives in Congress, executive and judicial officers, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crimes, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in that State.

SEC. 3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, elector of President and Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof; but Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each House, remove such disability.

SEC. 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States authorized by law, including debts incurred for the payment of pensions and bounties for service in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned; but neither the United States nor any State shall assume to pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave, but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be illegal and void.

SEC. 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

[Ratified in 1870.]

ARTICLE XV.

SEC. 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color or previous condition of servitude.

SEC. 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this Article by appropriate legislation.

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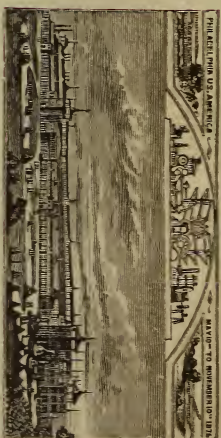
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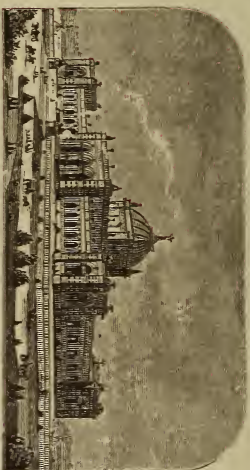
Main Exhibition Building.

Centennial



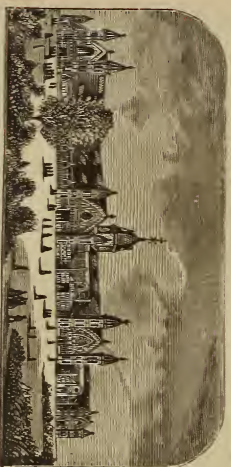
Machinery Hall.

Exposition

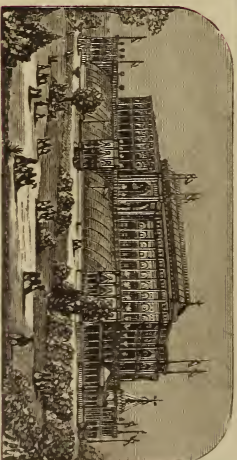


Memorial Hall.

Buildings.

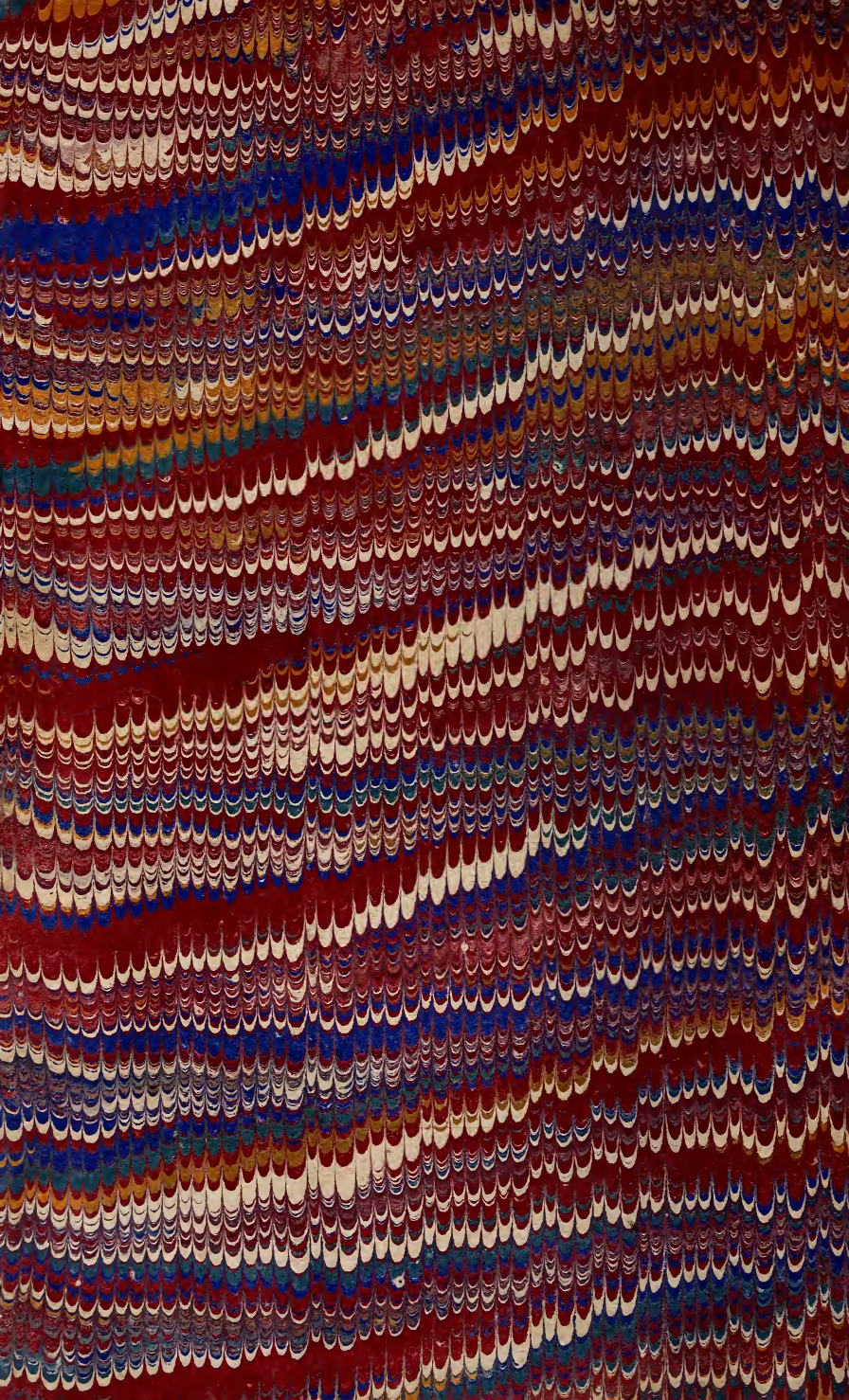


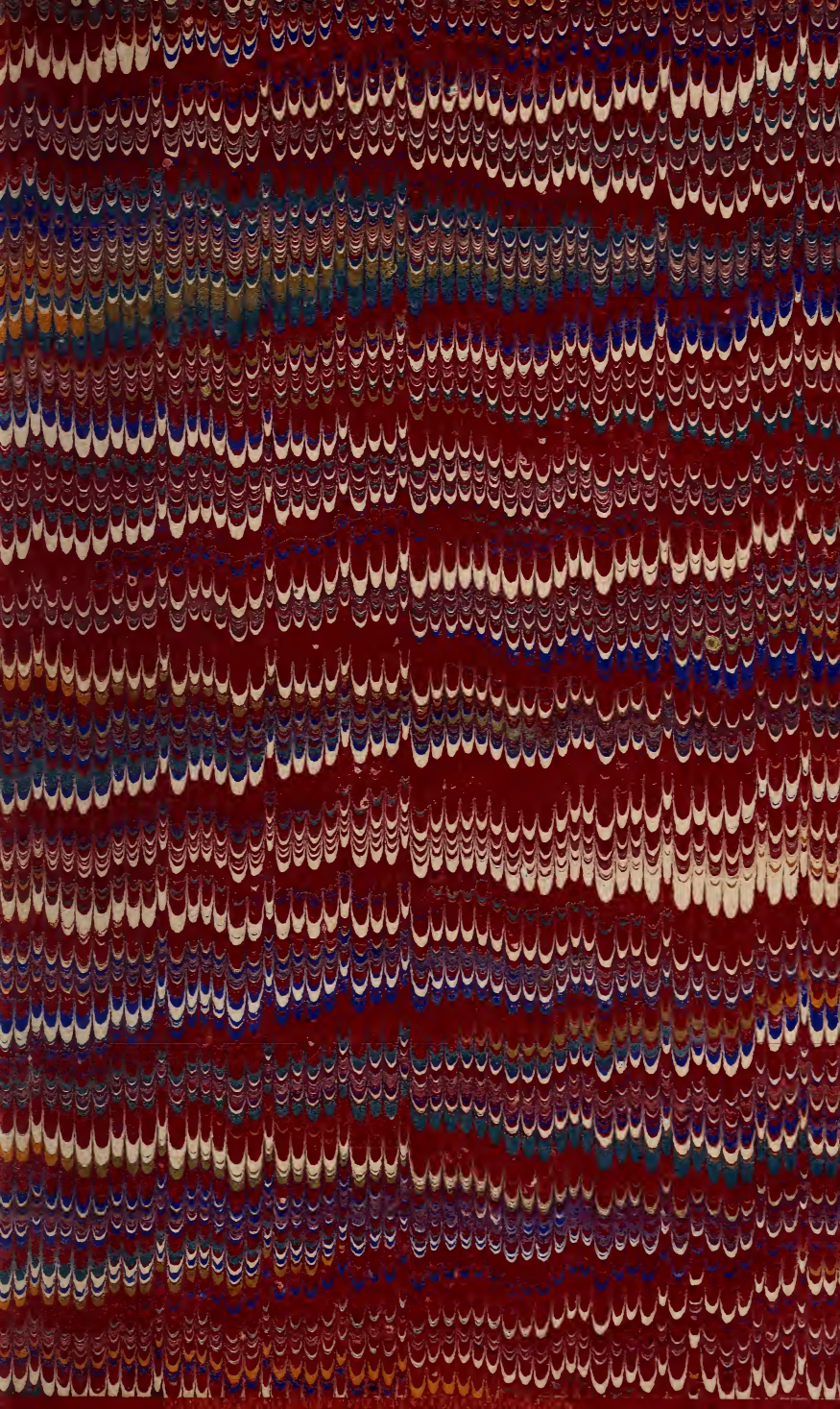
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