When Congress convened in December, the whole question of the disputed presidency came at once before that body for adjustment. The situation was seriously complicated by the political complexion of the Senate and the House of Representatives. In the former body the Republicans had a majority sufficient to control its action; while in the House the Democratic majority was still more decisive and equally willful. The debates began and seemed likely to be interminable. The question at issue was as to whether the electoral votes of the several States should, at the proper time, be opened and counted by the presiding officer of the Senate, in accordance with the immemorial and constitutional usage in such cases, or whether, in view of the existence of duplicate and spurious returns from some of the States, and of alleged gross irregularities and frauds in others, some additional court ought to be constituted to open and count the ballots. Meanwhile the necessity of doing *something* became more and more imperative. The great merchants and manufacturers of the country and the boards of trade in the principal cities grew clamorous for a speedy and peaceable adjustment of the difficulty. The spirit of compromise gained ground; and after much debating in Congress it was agreed that all the disputed election returns should be referred to A JOINT HIGH COMMISSION, consisting of five members to be chosen from the United States Senate, five from the House of Representatives, and five from the Supreme Court. The judgment of this tribunal should be final in all matters referred thereto for decision. The Commission was accordingly constituted. The counting was begun as usual in the presence of the Senate and the House of Representatives. When the disputed and duplicate returns were reached they were referred, State by State, to the Joint High Commission, and on the 2d of March, *only two days before the time for the inauguration*, a final decision was rendered. The Republican candidates were declared elected. One hundred and eighty-five electoral votes were cast for Hayes and Wheeler, and one hundred and eighty-four for Tilden and Hendricks. The greatest political crisis in the history of the country passed harmlessly by without violence or bloodshed.

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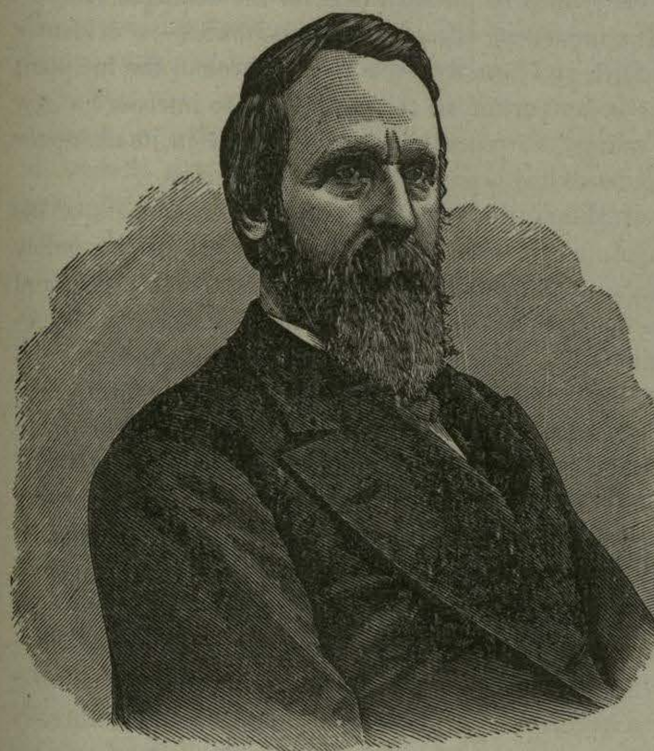
CHAPTER LXIX.

HAYES'S ADMINISTRATION, 1877–1881.

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES, nineteenth President of the United States, was born in Delaware, Ohio, on the 4th day of October, 1822. His ancestors were soldiers of the Revolution. His primary education was received in the public schools. Afterwards, his studies were extended to Greek and Latin at the Norwalk Academy; and in 1837 he became a student at Webb's preparatory school, at Middletown, Connecticut. In the following year, he entered the Freshman class at Kenyon College, and in 1842 was graduated from that institution with the highest honors of his class. Three years after his graduation, he completed his legal studies at Harvard University, and soon afterward began the practice of his profession, first at Marietta, then at Fremont, and finally as city solicitor, in Cincinnati. Here he won distinguished reputation as a lawyer. During the Civil War he performed much honorable service in the Union cause, rose to the rank of major


PRESIDENT HAYES.

general, and in 1864, while still in the field, was elected to Congress. Three years later he was chosen governor of his native State, and was reëlected in 1869, and again in 1875. At the Cincinnati convention of 1876, he had the good fortune to be nominated for the presidency over several of the most eminent men of the nation.

In his inaugural address, delivered on the 5th of March,* President Hayes indicated the policy of his administration. The patriotic and conciliatory utterances of the address did much to quiet the bitter spirit of partisanship which for many months had disturbed the country. The distracted South was assured of right purposes on the part of the new chief-magistrate; a radical reform in the civil service was avowed as a part of his policy; and a speedy return to specie payments was recommended as the final cure for the deranged finances of the nation. The immediate effect of these assurances—so evidently made in all good faith and honesty—was to rally around the incipient administration the better part of all the parties and to introduce a new "Era of Good Feeling" as peaceable and beneficent in its character as the former turbulence had been exciting and dangerous.

On the 8th of March, the President named the members of his cabinet. Here, again, he marked out a new departure in the policy of the government. For the cabinet, though exceptionably able and statesmanlike, was noticeably non-partisan in its character. As secretary of state William M. Evarts, of New York, was chosen; John Sherman, of Ohio, was named as secretary of the treasury; George W. McCrary, of Iowa, secretary of war; Richard W. Thompson, of Indiana, secretary of the navy; Carl Schurz, of Missouri, secretary of the interior; Charles E. Devens, of Massachusetts, attorney-general; and David M. Key, of Tennessee, postmaster-general. These nominations were duly ratified by the Senate; and the new administration and the new century of the republic were ushered in together.

In the summer of 1877 occurred the great labor disturbance known as THE RAILROAD STRIKE. For several years the mining districts of the country had been vexed with disputes and outbreaks having their origin in the question of wages. The manufacturing towns and cities had witnessed similar troubles, and the great corporations having control of the lines of travel and commerce were frequently brought to a stand-still by the determined opposition of their employés. The workingmen and the capitalists of the country

*The *4th* of March fell on Sunday. The same thing has happened in the following years: 1753, 1781, 1821 (Monroe's inauguration, second term), 1849 (Taylor's inauguration), 1877 (Hayes's inauguration); and the same will hereafter occur as follows: 1917, 1945, 1973, 2001, 2029, 2057, 2085, 2125, 2153.

had for some time maintained towards each other a kind of armed neutrality alike hurtful to the interests of both. In the spring of this year, the managers of the great railways leading from the seaboard to the West declared a reduction of ten per cent in the wages of their workmen. This measure, which was to take effect at the middle of July, was violently resisted by the employés of the companies, and the most active steps were taken to prevent its success. The workmen of the various roads entered into combinations, and the officers stood firm. On the 16th of July, the employés of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad left their posts and gathered such strength in Baltimore and at Martinsburg, West Virginia, as to prevent the running of trains and set the authorities at defiance. The militia was called out by Governor Matthews and sent to Martinsburg, but was soon dispersed by the strikers who, for the time, remained masters of the line. The President then ordered General French to the scene with a body of regulars, and the blockade of the road was raised. On the 20th of the month, a terrible tumult occurred in Baltimore; but the troops succeeded in scattering the rioters of whom nine were killed and many wounded.

Meanwhile the strike spread everywhere. In less than a week the trains had been stopped on all the important roads between the Hudson and the Mississippi. Except in the cotton-growing States the insurrection was universal. Travel ceased, freights perished en route, business was paralyzed. In Pittsburgh the strikers, rioters, and dangerous classes gathering in a mob to the number of twenty thousand, obtained complete control of the city and for two days held a reign of terror unparalleled in the history of the country. The lawless violence and madness of the scene recalled the fiery days of the French Revolution. The Union Dépôt and all the machine shops and other railroad buildings of the city were burned. A hundred and twenty-five locomotives, and two thousand five hundred cars laden with valuable cargoes, were destroyed amid the wildest havoc and uproar. The insurrection was finally suppressed by the regular troops and the Pennsylvania militia, but not until nearly a hundred lives had been lost and property destroyed to the value of more than three millions of dollars.

On the 25th of the month, a similar but less terrible riot occurred at Chicago. In this tumult fifteen of the insurgents were killed by the military of the city. On the next day, St. Louis was for some hours in peril of the mob. San Francisco was at the same time the scene of a dangerous outbreak which was here directed against the

Chinese immigrants and the managers of the lumber yards. Cincinnati, Columbus, Louisville, Indianapolis, and Fort Wayne were for a while in danger, but escaped without serious loss of life or property. By the close of the month, the alarming insurrection was at an end. Business and travel flowed back into their usual channels; but the sudden outbreak had given a great shock to the public mind, and revealed a hidden peril to American institutions.

In the mean time, a war had broken out with the Nez Percé Indians of Idaho. This tribe of natives had been known to the Government since 1806, when the first treaty was made with them by the explorers, Lewis and Clarke. Afterwards, missionary stations were established among them, and the nation remained on friendly terms until after the war with Mexico. In 1854 the authorities of the United States, purchased a part of the Nez Percé territory, large reservations being made in North-western Idaho and North-eastern Oregon; but some of the chiefs refused to ratify the purchase and remained at large. This was the beginning of difficulties.

The war began with the usual depredations by the Indians. General Howard, commanding the Department of the Columbia, marched against them with a small force of regulars; but the Nez Percés, led by their noted chieftain Joseph, fled first in this direction, and then in that, avoiding battle. During the greater part of the summer the pursuit continued; still the Indians could not be overtaken. In the fall they were chased through the mountains into Northern Montana, where they were confronted by other troops commanded by Colonel Miles.

The Nez Percés, thus hemmed in, were next driven across the Missouri River, near the mouth of the Musselshell, and were finally surrounded in their camp, north of the Bear Paw Mountains. Here, on the 4th of October, they were attacked by the forces of Colonel Miles. A hard battle was fought, and the Indians were completely routed. Only a few, led by the chief White Bird, escaped. All the rest were either killed or made prisoners. Three hundred and seventy-five of the captive Nez Percés were brought back to the American post on the Missouri. The troops of General Howard had made forced marches through a mountainous country for a distance of *sixteen hundred miles!*—The campaign was crowned with complete success.

During the year 1877, the public mind was greatly agitated concerning THE REMONETIZATION OF SILVER. By the first coinage regulations of the United States, the standard unit of value was the American Silver Dollar, containing three hundred and seventy-one

and one-fourth grains of pure silver. From the date of the adoption of this standard, in 1792, until 1873, the quantity of pure metal in this standard unit had never been changed, though the amount of alloy contained in the dollar was several times altered. Meanwhile, in 1849, a gold dollar was added to the coinage, and from that time forth the standard unit of value existed in both metals. In the years 1873–'74, at a time when, owing to the premium on gold and silver, both metals were out of circulation, a series of acts were adopted by Congress bearing upon the standard unit of value, whereby the legal-tender quality of silver was first abridged and then abolished. These enactments were completed by the report of the Coinage Committee in 1874, by which the silver dollar was finally omitted from the list of coins to be struck at the national mints. The general effect of these acts was to leave the gold dollar of twenty-three and twenty-two-hundredths grains the single standard unit of value in the United States.

In January of 1875, THE RESUMPTION ACT was passed by Congress, whereby it was declared that on the 1st of January, 1879, the Government of the United States should begin to redeem its outstanding legal-tender notes *in coin.* As the time for resumption drew near, and the premium on gold fell off, the question was raised as to the meaning of "coin" in the act for resuming specie payments; and now, for the first time the attention of the people at large was aroused to the fact that by the acts of 1873–'74, the privilege of paying debts in silver had been taken away, and that after the beginning of 1879 all obligations must be discharged according to the measure of the gold dollar only. A great agitation followed. The cry *for the remonetization of silver* was heard everywhere. The question reached the Government, and early in 1878 a measure was passed by Congress for the restoration of the legal-tender quality of the old silver dollar, and providing for the compulsory coinage of that unit at the mints at a rate of not less than two millions of dollars a month. The President returned the bill with his objections, but the veto was crushed under a tremendous majority; for nearly three-fourths of the members of Congress, without respect to party affiliations, gave their support to the measure, and the old double standard of values was restored.

In the summer of 1878, several of the Gulf States were scourged with a YELLOW FEVER EPIDEMIC, unparalleled in the history of the country. The disease made its appearance in New Orleans in the latter part of May, and from thence was quickly scattered among the other towns along the Mississippi. Unfortunately, the attention of

the people in the Gulf country had been but little given to sanitary precautions, and the Southern cities were nearly all in a condition to invite the presence of the scourge. The terror soon spread from town to town, and the people began to fly from the pestilence. The cities of Memphis and Grenada became a scene of desolation. At Vicksburgh the ravages of the plague were almost equally terrible; and even in the parish-towns remote from the river, and as far north as Nashville and Louisville, the horrors of the scourge were felt. All summer long the disease held on unabated. The helpless populations along the Lower Mississippi languished and died by thousands. A regular system of contributions was established in the Northern States, and men and treasure were poured out without stint to relieve the suffering South. The efforts of the Howard Association at New Orleans, Memphis, and elsewhere, were almost unequaled in heroism and sacrifice. After more than twenty thousand people had fallen victims to the plague, the grateful frosts of October came at last and ended the pestilence.

By the XVIIIth Article of the Treaty of Washington,* it was agreed that the right of the inhabitants of the United States in certain sea-fisheries which had hitherto belonged exclusively to the subjects of Great Britain, should be acknowledged and maintained. It was conceded, moreover, that the privilege of taking fish of every kind—except shell-fish—on the sea-coasts and shores, and in the bays, harbors, and creeks of the provinces of Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island, and the islands thereunto adjacent, without restriction as to distance from the shore, should be guaranteed to American fishermen, without prejudice or partiality. On the other hand, the government of the United States agreed to relinquish the duties which had hitherto been charged on certain kinds of fish imported by British subjects into American harbors. Several other concessions of minor importance were mutually made by the contracting parties; and in order to balance any discrepancy that might appear in the aggregate of such concessions, and to make the settlement of a vexed question full, fair, and final, it was further agreed that any total advantage to the United States arising from the treaty, might be compensated by a sum in gross to be paid by the American government to Great Britain. And in order to determine what such sum should be, a Commission was provided for, the same to consist of one commissioner to be appointed by the Queen, one by the President, and a third (provided the Queen and the President should not agree on a third) by the Austrian ambassador at the Court of St. James!* Accordingly, in the summer of 1877, the Commission was constituted, and the sittings began at Halifax. But little attention was given to the proceedings of the body until November, when the country was startled by the announcement that by the casting vote of Mr. Delfosse, Belgian minister to the United States, who had been named as third commissioner by the Austrian ambassador at London, *an award of five millions of dollars had been made against the American government!* The decision was received with general surprise, both in the United States and in Europe; and for awhile it seemed probable that the arbitration might be renounced as iniquitous. It was decided, however, that the award, whether just or unjust, would better stand; and accordingly, in November, 1878, the amount was paid—not without great popular dissatisfaction—to the British government.

* See page 556.

The year 1878 witnessed the establishment of A RESIDENT CHINESE EMBASSY at Washington. For twenty years the great and liberal treaty negotiated by Anson Burlingame had been in force between the United States and China. Under the protection of this compact, the commercial relations of the two countries had been vastly extended, and a knowledge of the institutions, manners, and customs prevalent in the Celestial Empire so widely diffused as to break down in some measure the race-prejudice existing against the Mongolians. The enlightened policy of the reigning emperor had also contributed to establish more friendly intercourse with the United States, and to promote such measures as should make that intercourse lasting. The idea of sending resident ambassadors to the American government had been entertained for several years. The emperor had been assured that the people of China—more particularly her ministers—would be received with all the courtesy shown to the most favored nation. The officers chosen by the imperial government as its representatives in the United States were Chen Lan Pin, minister plenipotentiary, Yung Wing, assistant envoy, and Yung Tsang Siang, secretary of legation. On the 28th of September the embassy was received by the President.

* A strange and inexplicable provision. As a matter of fact, it came to pass that the man who by the terms of the treaty held the power of appointing, and who did appoint, the umpire in the Halifax Commission, was Count Von Beust, a Bourbon of the Bourbons in politics, a Saxon renegade, an upholder of the House of Hapsburg by choice, and a hater of all republican institutions. It thus happened that a question which had proved too much for the Joint High Commission itself, was remanded for settlement to a political adventurer temporarily resident *in London!* To understand the proceeding requires the wisdom of a—statesman!

The ceremonies of the occasion were among the most novel and interesting ever witnessed in Washington. The speech of Chen Lan Pin was equal in dignity and appropriateness to the best efforts of a European diplomatist. Addressing the President the Chinese minister said:

"MR. PRESIDENT: His Majesty, the Emperor of China, in appointing us to reside at Washington as ministers, instructed us to present your Excellency his salutations, and to express his assurances of friendship for you and the people of the United States. His Majesty hopes that your administration may be one of signal success, and that it may bring lasting peace and prosperity to the whole country. On a former occasion the Chinese government had the honor to send an embassy to Washington on a special mission, and the results were most beneficent. His Majesty cherishes the hope that this embassy will not only be the means of establishing on a firm basis the amicable relations of the two countries, but may also be the starting-point of a new diplomatic era which will eventually unite the East and West under an enlightened and progressive civilization."

The history of modern times contains many pleasing evidences of the growing estimate placed by civilized states upon the value of human life. In the legislation of Congress several important acts bear witness to the general interest felt in the United States on the subject of better protection for those who are exposed by land and sea. The question of affording adequate succor to shipwrecked sailors has especially engrossed the attention of the government, and many measures have been proposed with a view of giving greater security to "them that go down to the sea in ships." During the last session of the Forty-fifth Congress a bill was brought forward by S. S. Cox, of New York, for the reorganization of THE LIFE-SAVING SERVICE OF THE UNITED STATES, under the patronage and control of the government. This service had existed as a private enterprise since 1871. The plan proposed and adopted June 18, 1878, embraced the establishment of regular stations and light-houses on all the exposed parts of the Atlantic coast and along the great lakes. Each station was to be manned by a band of surfmen experienced in the dangers peculiar to the shore in times of storms, and drilled in the best methods of rescue and resuscitation. Boats of the most approved pattern — capable of surviving any storm that ever lashed the sea — were provided and equipped. A hundred appliances and inventions suggested by the wants of the service — life-cars with hawsers, and mortars for firing

shot-lines into vessels foundering at a distance from the shore — were supplied and their use skillfully taught to the brave men who were employed at the stations. The success of the enterprise has been so great as to reflect the highest credit on its promoters. The number of lives saved through the direct agency of the service reaches to thousands annually, and the amount of human suffering and distress alleviated by this beneficent movement is beyond computation. So carefully are the exposed coasts of the United States now guarded that it is almost impossible for a foundering ship to be driven within sight of the shore without at once beholding through the darkness of the otherwise hopeless night the sudden glare of the red-light signal flaming up from the beach, telling the story of friends near by and rescue soon to come.

On the 1st of January, 1879, THE RESUMPTION OF SPECIE PAYMENTS was formally accomplished by the treasury of the United States. For more than seventeen years, owing to the disorders arising from the Civil War, gold and silver coin had been at a premium over the legal-tender notes of the Government. During this whole period the monetary affairs of the Nation had been in a state of distraction. As a matter of fact, the monetary unit had been so fluctuating as to render legitimate business almost impossible. The actual purchasing power of a dollar could hardly be predicted from one week to another. Resulting from this, a spirit of rampant speculation had taken possession of most of the market values of the country. The lawful transactions of the street, carried forward in obedience to the plain principles of political economy, suffered shipwreck, while *parvenu* statesmen gave lectures on the nature of debt and the evils of overproduction! After the passage of the Resumption Act, in 1875, owing to the steady and rapid appreciation of the value of the monetary unit, the debtor classes of the country entered a period of great hardship; for their indebtedness constantly augmented in a ratio beyond the probability, if not the possibility, of payment. It was an epoch of financial ruin and bankruptcy, which was only checked, but not ended, by the abrogation of the Bankrupt Act, in 1878. With the near approach of Resumption, however, a certain degree of confidence supervened; and the actual accomplishment of the fact was hailed by many as the omen of better times.

The presidential election of 1880 was accompanied with the usual excitement attendant upon great political struggles in the United States. The congressional elections of 1878 had generally gone against the Republican party, insomuch that in both houses of the Forty-sixth Congress the Democrats had a clear majority. It was

therefore not unreasonable to expect that in the impending contest for the presidency the Democratic party would prove successful. The leaders of this party were hopeful of success and entered the campaign with renewed zeal and energy. The Republican national convention was held in Chicago on the 2d and 3d of June. A platform of principles was adopted largely retrospective. The history of the party during the twenty years of its supremacy in the government was recited as the best reason why its lease of power should be continued by the people. The platform reaffirmed and emphasized the doctrine of nationality as opposed to the theory of states' rights; declared in favor of popular education; advocated a system of discriminating duties in favor of American industries; called on Congress to limit Chinese immigration; avoided the question of finance; complimented the administration of President Hayes; and arraigned the Democratic party as unpatriotic in its principles and fraudulent in its practices. Upon this platform—after the greater part of two days had been consumed in balloting—General James A. Garfield, of Ohio, was nominated for President, and Chester A. Arthur, of New York, for Vice-President.

The Democratic national convention assembled in Cincinnati, on the 22d of June. The platform of principles declared adherence to the doctrines and traditions of the party; opposed the tendency to centralization in the government; adhered to gold and silver money and paper convertible into coin; advocated a tariff for revenue only; proclaimed a free ballot; denounced the administration as the creature of a conspiracy; opposed the presence of troops at the polls; complimented Samuel J. Tilden for his patriotism; declared for free ships and an amendment to the Burlingame treaty as against Chinese immigration; and appealed to the acts of the Forty-sixth Congress as proof and illustration of Democratic economy and wisdom. After adopting this platform the convention nominated for the presidency General Winfield S. Hancock, of New York, and for the vice-presidency William H. English, of Indiana.

Meanwhile the National Greenback party had held a convention in Chicago, on the 9th of June, and nominated as standard-bearers General James B. Weaver, of Iowa, for President, and General Benjamin J. Chambers, of Texas, for Vice-President. The platform of principles declared in favor of the rights of the laborer, as against the exactions of capital; denounced monopolies and syndicates; proclaimed the sovereign power of the government over the coinage of metallic and the issuance of paper money; advocated the abolition of the National banking system and the substitution of legal-tender currency; declared for the payment of the bonded debt of the United States as against all refunding schemes; denounced land-grants; opposed Chinese immigration and an increase of the standing army; favored the equal taxation of all property and unrestricted suffrage; demanded reform in the methods of congressional proceedings; and appealed for support to the sense of justice in the American people.

The canvass had not progressed far until it became evident that the contest lay between the Republican and the Democratic party, and that the long-standing sectional division into North and South was likely once more to decide the contest in favor of the former. That part of the Democratic platform which declared for a tariff for revenue only, alarmed the manufacturing interests and consolidated them in support of the Republican candidates. The banking and bond-holding classes rallied with great unanimity to the same standard, and the old war spirit, aroused at the appearance of a "solid South" insured a solid North against the Democracy. The election resulted in the choice of Garfield and Arthur. Two hundred and fourteen electoral votes, embracing those of all the Northern States except New Jersey, Nevada, and four out of the five votes of California, were cast for the Republican candidates, and one hundred and fifty-five votes, including those of every Southern State, were given to Hancock and English. The candidates of the National party secured no electoral votes, though the popular vote given to Weaver and Chambers aggregated 307,000 as against 81,000 cast for Cooper and Cary in 1876.

The administration of President Hayes and the last session of the Forty-sixth Congress expired together on the 4th of March, 1881. The closing session had been chiefly occupied with the matter of refunding the national debt. About seven hundred and fifty millions of dollars of five and six per cent. bonds became due during the year; and to provide for the payment or refunding of this large sum was the most important matter claiming the attention of Congress. Late in the session a bill was passed by that body providing for the issuance by the government of new bonds of two classes, both bearing three per cent.; the first class payable in from five to twenty years, and the second class in from one to ten years. The latter bonds were to be issued in small denominations, adapted to the conditions of a popular loan. One provision of the bill required the national banks holding five and six per cent. bonds to surrender the same—the bonds having fallen due—and to receive instead the new three per cents. This clause of the law aroused the antagonism of the banks, and by every

possible means they sought to prevent the passage of the bill. On the last day of the session, the measure having been adopted by both houses of Congress, the act was laid before the President for his approval, which was withheld. A veto message was returned to Congress; the advocates of the bill being unable to command a two-third's majority in its favor, the bill failed to become a law and the session closed without any provision for the refunding of the 750,000,000 dollars of bonds falling due in 1881.

Soon after retiring from the presidency, General Grant with his family and a company of personal friends, set out to visit the countries of Europe and Asia, and to make a tour of the world. Though the expedition was intended to be private it could but attract the most conspicuous attention both at home and abroad. The departure from Philadelphia on the 17th of May, 1877, was the beginning of a pageant which, in its duration and magnificence, was never before extended to any citizen of any nation of the earth. Wherever the distinguished ex-President went he was welcomed with huzzas and dismissed with plaudits. First in England—at Liverpool, Manchester, London—and afterwards, in midsummer, in Belgium, Switzerland, Prussia, and France, everywhere the General's coming was announced by the thunder of cannon, the thronging of multitudes, and a chorus of cheers. A short stay in Italy was followed by a voyage to Alexandria, and a brief sojourn in Egypt. Thence the company proceeded to Palestine and afterwards to Greece. The following spring found the ex-President and his party again in Italy—at Rome, Florence, Venice, and Milan; and the summer carried them into Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. The next countries visited were Austria and Russia, while for the winter the distinguished tourists chose the south of France and Spain. Ireland was visited, and in January of 1879 the company embarked from Marseilles for the East. The following year was spent in visiting the great countries of Asia—India first; then Burmah and Siam; then China; and then Japan. In the fall of 1879 the party returned to San Francisco, bearing with them the highest tokens of esteem which the great nations of the Old World could bestow upon the honored representative of the civilization of the New.

The census of 1880 was undertaken with more system and care than ever before in the history of the country. The work was entrusted to the general superintendency of Professor Francis A. Walker, under whose direction the admirable census of 1870 was conducted. During the decade the same astounding progress which had marked the previous history of the United States was more than ever illustrated. In

every source of national power, in every element of national vigor, the development of the country had continued without abatement. The total population of the states and territories of the Union now amounted to 50,152,866—an increase since 1870 of *more than a million inhabitants a year!* New York was still the leading state, having a population of 5,083,173. Nevada was least populous, showing an enumeration of but 62,265. Of the 11,584,188 added to the population since the census of 1870, 2,246,551 had been contributed by immigration, of whom about 85,000 annually came from Germany alone. The number of cities having a population of over 100,000 inhabitants had increased during the decade from fourteen to twenty.* The center of population had moved westward about fifty miles, and now rested at the city of Cincinnati.

The statistics of trade and industry were likewise of a sort to gratify patriotism, if not to excite national pride. The current of the precious metals which for many years had flowed constantly from the United States to foreign countries turned strongly, in 1880, towards America. The importation of specie during the year just mentioned amounted to $93,034,310, while the exportation of the same during the year reached only $17,142,199. During the greater part of the period covered by the census abundant crops had followed in almost unbroken succession, and the overplus in the great staples peculiar to our soil and climate had gone to enrich the country, and to stimulate to an unusual degree those fundamental industries upon which national perpetuity and individual happiness are ultimately founded.†

* The following table will show the population and rate of increase in the ten leading cities in the United States, according to the censuses of 1870 and 1880:

City.	State.	Population 1870	Population 1880	Per cent. of increase.
New York . . .	New York	942,292	1,206,590	28
Philadelphia . .	Pennsylvania . .	674,022	846,984	25
Brooklyn	New York	396,099	586,689	48
St. Louis	Missouri	310,864	350,522	13
Chicago	Illinois	298,977	503,304	72
Baltimore	Maryland	267,354	333,190	24
Boston	Massachusetts . .	250,526	362,535	44
Cincinnati	Ohio	216,239	255,708	22
New Orleans . . .	Louisiana	191,418	216,140	13
San Francisco . .	California . . .	149,473	233,956	56

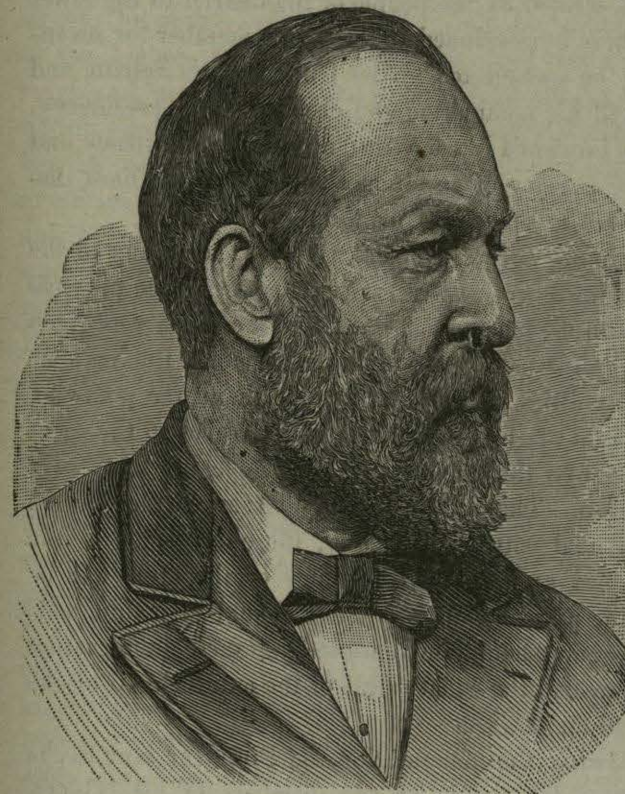
† At the date of sending this edition to the press, only the preliminary results of the census of 1880 have been given to the public.

During the administration of President Hayes several eminent Americans passed from the scene of their earthly activities. On the 1st of November, 1877, the distinguished Senator Oliver P. Morton, of Indiana, after battling for many years against the deadly encroachments of paralysis, died at his home in Indianapolis. His death, though not unforeseen, was much lamented. Still more universally felt was the loss of the great poet and journalist, William Cullen Bryant, who, on the 12th of June, 1878, at the advanced age of eighty-four, passed from among the living. For more than sixty years his name had been known and honored wherever the English language is spoken. His life had been an inspiration, and the brightest light of American literature was extinguished in his death. On the 19th of December, in the same year, the illustrious Bayard Taylor, who had recently been appointed American minister to the German Empire, died suddenly in the city of Berlin. His life had been exclusively devoted to literary work; and almost every department of letters, from the common tasks of journalism to the highest charms of poetry, had been adorned by his genius. His death, at the early age of fifty-four, left a gap not soon to be filled in the shining ranks of literature. On the 1st day of November, 1879, Senator Zachariah Chandler, of Michigan, one of the organizers of the Republican party, and a great leader of that party in the times of the civil war, died suddenly at Chicago; and on the 24th day of February, 1881, another senator, the distinguished Matt. H. Carpenter, of Wisconsin, after a lingering illness, expired at Washington. One by one the strong men who battled for the preservation of American nationality in the stormy days of the civil war are passing or have passed into the land of rest.

CHAPTER LXX.

ADMINISTRATIONS OF GARFIELD AND ARTHUR.

JAMES A. GARFIELD, twentieth President of the United States, was born at Orange, Cuyahoga county, Ohio, November 19th, 1831. By the death of his father he was left in infancy to the sole care of his mother and to the rude surroundings of a backwoods home. Blest with great native energy and an abundance of physical vigor, the boy gathered from country toil a sound constitution, and from country schools the rudiments of education. In boyhood his services were in frequent demand by the farmers of the neighborhood—for he developed unusual skill as a mechanic. Afterwards he served as a driver and pilot of a canal boat plying the Ohio and Pennsylvania canal. At the age of seventeen he attended the High School in Chester, where he applied himself with great diligence, extending his studies to algebra, Latin, and Greek. In the fall of 1851, he entered Hiram College, in Portage county, Ohio, where he remained as student and instructor until 1854. In that year he entered


JAMES A. GARFIELD.