

character of the external world to reserve the eye for the discernment and appreciation of beauty, and to impose upon the ear the tedious and hard tasks of education. The Phonograph make it possible to read *by the ear*, instead of by the eye; and it is not beyond the range of probability that the book of the future, near or remote, will be written in phonographic plates and made to reveal its story to the waiting ear rather than through the medium of print to the enfeebled and tired eye of the reader.

Perhaps the most marked and valuable invention of the age—the one best calculated to affect favorably the welfare of the people, especially in great cities—is that of THE ELECTRIC LIGHT. The introduction of this superior system of illumination marks an epoch more interesting and important in the history of our country than is any political conflict or mere change of rulers. About the beginning of the last decade the project of introducing the electric light for general purposes of illumination began to be agitated. It was at once perceived that the advantages of such lighting were as conspicuous as they were obvious. The light is so powerful as to render practicable the performance of many mechanical operations as easily by night as by day. Again, the danger of fire from illuminating sources is obviated by the new system. The ease and expedition of all kinds of night employment are greatly enhanced. A given amount of illumination can be produced much more cheaply by electricity than by any means of gas-lighting or ordinary combustion.

Among the first to demonstrate the feasibility of Electric Lighting was the philosopher Gramme, of Paris. In the early part of 1875 he successfully lighted his laboratory by means of electricity. Soon afterward the foundry of Ducommun & Company, of Mulhouse, was similarly lighted. In the course of the following year the apparatus for lighting by means of carbon candles was introduced into many of the principal factories of France and other leading countries of Europe. It may prove of interest in this connection to sketch briefly the principal features of the Electric Light system, and to trace in a few paragraphs the development of that system in our own and other countries.

Lighting by electricity is accomplished in several ways. In general, however, the principle by which the result is accomplished is one, and depends upon *the resistance which the electrical current meets in its transmission through various substances*. There are no perfect conductors of electricity. In proportion as the non-conductive quality is present in a substance, especially in a metal, the resistance to the pas-

sage of electricity is pronounced, and the consequent disturbance among the molecular particles of the substance is great. Whenever such resistance is encountered in a circuit, the electricity is converted into heat; and when the resistance is great the heat is in turn converted into light; that is, the substance which offers the resistance glows with the transformed energy of the impeded current.

Upon this simple principle all the apparatus for the production of the Electric Light is constructed. Among the metallic substances the one best adapted by its low conductivity to such resistance and transformation of force is platinum. The high degree of heat necessary to fuse this metal adds to its usefulness and availability for the purpose indicated. When an electrical current is forced along a platinum wire too small to transmit the entire volume it becomes at once heated, first to a red and then to a white glow, and is thus made to send forth a radiance like that of the sun. Of the non-metallic elements which offer similar resistance the best is carbon. The infusibility of this substance renders it greatly superior to platinum for purposes of the Electric Light.

As much as seventy years ago it was discovered by Sir Humphry Davy that carbon points may be rendered incandescent by means of a powerful electrical current. That philosopher in 1809 made the discovery here referred to while experimenting with the great battery of the Royal Institution in London. He observed, rather by accident than by design or previous anticipation, that a powerful electrical current, passing between two pointed bits of wood charcoal, produces tremendous heat and a light like that of the sun. It appears, however, that the philosopher regarded the phenomenon rather in the nature of an interesting display of force than as a suggestion of the possibility of turning night into day.

For nearly three quarters of a century the discovery made by Sir Humphry lay dormant among the great mass of scientific facts revealed in the laboratory. In the course of time, however, the potency of the new fact began to be apprehended. The electric lamp in many forms was proposed and tried. The scientists Niardet, Wilde, Brush, Fuller, and many others of less note busied themselves with the work of invention. Especially did MM. Gramme and Siemens devote their scientific genius to the work of turning to good account the knowledge now fully possessed of the transformability of the electric current into light.

The experiments of these two distinguished inventors seemed to bring us to the dawn of a new era in artificial lighting. The Russian

philosopher Jablochhoff carried the work still further by the practical introduction of the carbon candle. Other scientists—Carré, Foucault, Serrin, Rapieff, and Werdermann—had at an earlier or later day thrown much additional information into the common stock of knowledge relative to the illuminating possibilities of electricity. Finally, this accumulated material of science fell into the hands of our own untutored but remarkably brilliant and radical inventor, Thomas A. Edison, who gave himself with the utmost zeal to the work of removing the remaining difficulties in the problem. He began his investigations in this line of invention in September of 1878, and in December of the following year gave to the public his first formal statement of results. After many experiments with platinum, he abandoned that material in favor of the carbon-arc *in vacuo*. The latter is, indeed, the essential feature of the Edison light. A small semicircle, or horse-shoe, of some substance reduced to the form of pure carbon, the two ends being attached to the poles of the generating machine, or "dynamo," as the engine is popularly called, is enclosed in a glass bulb from which the air has been carefully withdrawn, and is rendered incandescent by the passage of an electric current. The other important features of Edison's discovery relate to the divisibility of the current and its control and regulation in volume by the operator. These matters have been so fully mastered in the Edison invention as to render the apparatus as completely subject to the management of even an unskilled manipulator as are the other varieties of illuminating apparatus.

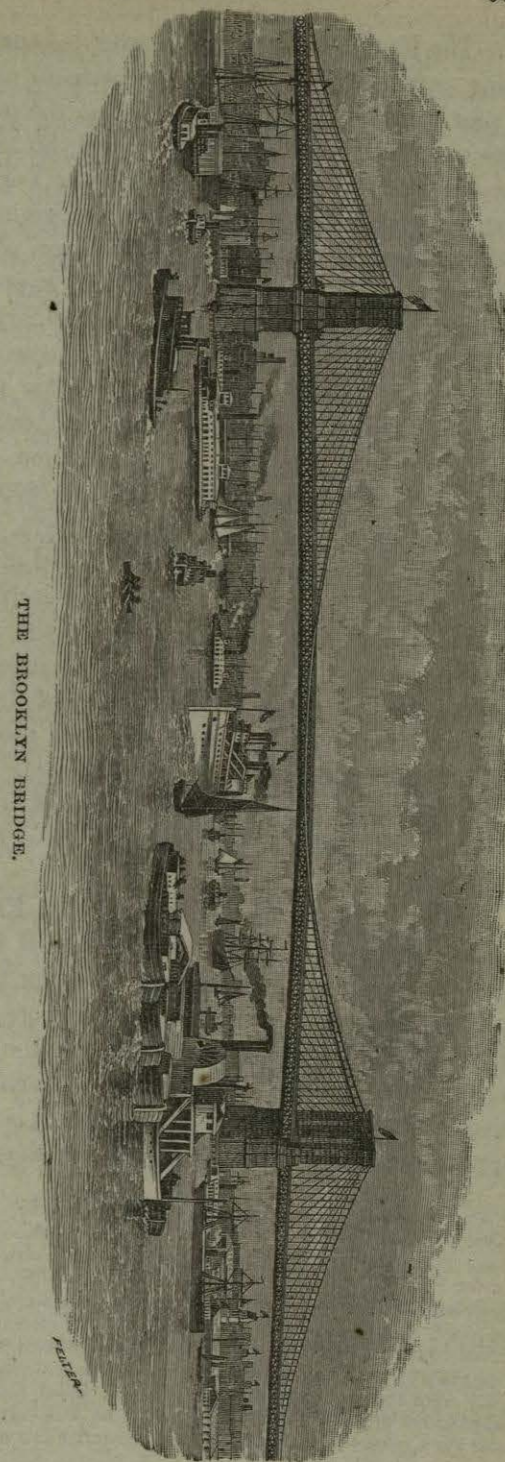
It were vain to speculate upon the future of electric lighting. Doubtless the old systems of illumination are destined soon to give place altogether to the splendors of the electric glow. The general effects of the change upon society will, no doubt, be as marked as they are salutary. Darkness, the enemy of good government and morality in great cities, will in a great measure be dispelled by the beneficent agent over which the genius of Davy, Gramme, Brush, Edison, and a host of other explorers in the new continents of science has so nearly triumphed. The ease, comfort, happiness, and welfare of mankind will be vastly multiplied; and we shall ever be reminded in the glow of the "light of the future" of that splendid fact, that the progress of civilization depends in a large measure upon the knowledge of nature's laws and the diffusion of that knowledge among the people.

The last decade has also been conspicuous for the number and character of THE PUBLIC WORKS which have been projected or brought

to completion within the period. In these the immense physical capacity of our country and people has been amply illustrated. Among the most important of the enterprises here referred to may be mentioned the great suspension bridge over the strait known as the East River, between New York and Brooklyn. The completion and formal opening of this work, which occurred on the 24th of May, 1883, was an event of such interest as to evoke universal attention and elicit many descriptions.

The Brooklyn Bridge is the longest and largest structure of the kind in the world. The design was the work of the distinguished John A. Roebling, the originator of wire suspension bridges, under whose supervision and that of his son, Washington A. Roebling, the structure was completed.*

* The personal history of the Roeblings, father and son, in connection with the great bridge, is as pathetic as it is interesting. The elder engineer was injured while laying the



THE BROOKLYN BRIDGE.

The East River structure is what is known as a suspension bridge, being supported by four enormous wires or cables stretching from pier to pier a distance of 1,595 feet. From the main towers to the anchorages on either side is 930 feet. From the anchorages outward to the *termini* of the approaches is, on the New York side a distance of 1,562 feet, and on the Brooklyn side 972 feet, giving a total length of bridge and approaches of 5,989 feet. The total weight of the structure is 6,470 tons. The estimated capacity of support is 1,740 tons, though the ultimate resistance is calculated at 49,200 tons.

The Brooklyn Bridge was first projected by William C. Kingsley, president of the bridge trustees, and his predecessor in that office, Henry C. Murphy; the first plans and estimates were prepared in 1865. The company for the construction was organized two years afterward. The capital was fixed at \$5,000,000. The enterprise was not pressed with due vigor until 1875, when the work was taken up by the State of New York. A Board of Managers was appointed to bring the bridge to completion at as early a date as possible. Congress also patronized the enterprise to the extent of authorizing the construction of the work, which act was passed in June of 1869. The formal opening of the bridge in May of 1883 drew the attention of the whole nation to the metropolis, and proved by the interest which the event excited that the American people are still able to appreciate a great enterprise in art and mechanics, and to show by such appreciation that, even in America, politics is not the best vocation of mankind.

On the whole, the administration of President Arthur proved to be uneventful. The government pursued the even tenor of its way, and the progress of the country was unchecked by serious calamity. In the domain of politics we may note the gradual obliteration of those sharply defined issues which for the last quarter of a century have divided the two great parties. As a consequence there has been a healthful abatement of partisan rancor. It is becoming every year more apparent that the questions at issue in the political arena are merely

foundation of one of the shore piers on the 22d of July, 1869, and died of lockjaw. W. A. Roebling then took up his father's unfinished task. He continued the work of supervision for about two years, when he was prostrated with a peculiar form of paralysis known as the "caisson disease," from which he never fully recovered. His mental faculties, however, remained unimpaired, and he was able to direct with his eye what his hands could no longer touch. While thus prostrated his wife discovered a genius almost equal to that of her husband and her father-in-law. The palsied engineer, thus re-enforced, continued for five years to furnish plans for the work which had been projected by his father. These plans were almost all drawn by his wife, who never flagged in the great work which had fallen to her prostrate husband. In 1876 he was partly restored to health, and lived to hear the applause which his genius and enterprise had merited.

factitious, and that the clamor of partisanship is kept up for the most part by those who hope to gather the spoils of the political battlefield. How much longer these ill-founded cries of alarm will serve the purpose of holding the people in line under the old party names is a question which none may solve with certainty. Meanwhile, the man who plows, or keeps the flock—the mechanic, the artisan, the merchant—will for the present, no doubt, continue to come forth at the call of the party leaders and vote as has been his wont on issues that are more imaginary than real, and whose only merit consists in the fact that a certain residue of patriotism is still the motive-force in the average American election.

To the general fact, that party questions are no longer vital and distinct, there is one general exception. It cannot be doubted that the American people are really and sincerely divided on the question of THE TARIFF. Whether the true policy of the United States is that of free trade or of a protective system is a fundamental issue, and the decision is not yet. Ever and anon, from the very foundation of the government to the present hour, this question has obtruded itself upon the attention of the people. It may be well, therefore, in this connection to state the various views which may be entertained on the subject.

First, we have the doctrine of FREE TRADE pure and simple. The theory is this: The indications of profitable industry are founded in nature. A rich soil means agriculture; a barren soil means something else. Beds of ore signify mining; veins of petroleum, oil wells; a headlong river, water-power; a hill of silicon, glass-works; a forest of pine, ship masts and coal-tar; bays, havens, and rivers, commerce. Free trade says that these things are the hints of the natural world as to how human industry shall be exerted. The way to wealth, prosperity, happiness, is to follow nature whithersoever she leads. To go against nature is to go against self-interest and common sense. "Let alone" is the motto of the system—hands off and no meddling with the plain conditions which are imposed on man by his environment. Let him who lives in the fecund valley till the soil and gather a hundred-fold. Let him who inhabits the rocky upland by river-side or bed of pent-up coal devote his energies to manufacturing. Let each procure from the other by exchange the necessities and conveniences of life which he could not himself produce but at a great disadvantage. Let the producer of raw material send it near or far to the manufacturer and receive in return the fabric which he must wear; the food wherewith he must sustain his life. Why should he do otherwise? It is intended that men should live together in equity. Neighbors should be at

peace. Different communities should not quarrel. Nations should not fight. The harmonious order of civilization requires a world-wide exchange of products. Men are happier and richer when they give themselves freely to the laws of their environment, and toil in those fields of industry to which both their own dispositions and the benevolent finger of nature points the way.

All contrivances of law which controvert or oppose these fundamental conditions of legitimate industry are false in theory and pernicious in application. If civil society assume to direct the industries of her people against the plain indications of nature, she becomes a tyrant. All laws which tend to divert the industrial energies of a nation from these pursuits which are indicated by the natural surroundings are hurtful, selfish, self-destructive, and, in the long run, weakening and degrading to the people. A tariff duty so laid as to build up one industry at the expense of another is a piece of barbarous intermeddling alike with the principles of common sense and the inherent rights of man. If free trade makes one nation dependent on another, then it also makes that other nation dependent on the first. The one can no more afford to fight the other than the other can afford to fight it. Hence free trade. It is beneficent and just. Hence a tariff for revenue only. It is the true policy of government relative to the interests of the people. Such is the theory of the free trader.

The first remove from the doctrine of free trade proper is that of INCIDENTAL PROTECTION. The primary assumptions of this theory are nearly identical with those above presented. Nearly all of the propositions advanced by the free trader are accepted as correct by the incidental protectionist. The latter, however, holds some peculiar doctrines of his own. He claims that men—as the doctrine of free trade teaches—should labor according to the indications of nature, and that the attempt on the part of government to divert the industries of the people from one channel to another is contrary to right reason and sound policy. But he also holds that since a tariff is the common means adopted by most of the civilized States of the world to produce the revenue whereby the expenses of the State are met and sustained, the same should be so levied as to be incidentally favorable to those industries of the people which are placed at a natural disadvantage. He does not hold that any tariff should be levied with the *intention* of protecting and fostering a given industry, but that in every case the tax should be laid for public purposes only—that is, with the *intention of sustaining the State*, and be only incidentally directed to the pro-

tection of the weaker industry. These last assumptions furnish the ground of political divergence between free traders proper and incidental protectionists. The latter take into consideration both the fundamental conditions of the argument and the peculiar character of the industries of the people. They claim that given pursuits may thus be strengthened and encouraged by legislative provisions, and that natural and political laws may be made to co-operate in varying and increasing the productive resources of the State.

The third view as relative to this question is that of LIMITED PROTECTION. The fundamental difference between this theory and the preceding is this: The incidental protectionist denies, and the limited protectionist affirms, the wisdom of levying tariff duties with the *intention* and *purpose* of protecting home industries. The limited protectionist would have the legislation of the State take particular cognizance of the character of the industries of the people, and would have the laws enacted with constant reference to the encouragement of the weaker—generally the manufacturing—pursuits. The doctrine of incidental protection would stop short of this; would adopt the theory of “let alone,” so far as the original purpose of legislation is concerned, but would at the same time so shape the tariff that a needed stimulus should be given to certain industries. The limited protectionist agrees with the free trader in certain assumptions. The former as well as the latter assents to the proposition that the original condition of industry is found in nature—in the environment of the laborer. But he also urges that the necessity for a varied industry is so great, so important, to the welfare and independence of a people as to justify the deflection of human energies by law to certain pursuits which could not be profitably followed but for the fact of protection. This he makes a reason for tariff legislation. He would make the weaker industry live and thrive by the side of the stronger. He would modify the crude rules of nature by the higher rules of human reason. He would not only adapt man to his environment, but would adapt the environment to him. He would keep in view the strength and dignity of the State, and would be willing to incur temporary disadvantages for the sake of permanent good. In the course of time, when, under the stimulus of a protective system, the industries of the State have become sufficiently varied and sufficiently harmonized with original conditions, he would allow the system of protective duties to expire and freedom of trade to supervene, but until that time he would insist that the weaker, but not less necessary, industries of a people should be encouraged and fostered by law. He would deny the justice

or economy of that system which in a new country, boundless in natural resources but poor in capital, would constrain the people to bend themselves to the production of a few great staples, the manufacture of which by foreign nations would make them rich and leave the original producers in perpetual vassalage and poverty.

The fourth view is embodied in the theory of HIGH PROTECTION. In this the doctrine is boldly advanced that the assumptions of free trade are specious and false. The influence of man upon his environment is so great as to make it virtually whatever the law of right reason would suggest. The suggestion of right reason is this: Every nation should be independent. Its sovereignty and equality should be secured by every means short of injustice. In order that a State may be independent and able to mark out for itself a great destiny, its industries must afford employment for all the talents and faculties of man, and yield products adapted to all his wants. To devote the energies of a people to those industries only which are suggested by the situation and environment, is to make man a slave to nature instead of nature's master. It may be sound reason for the people inhabiting a fertile valley to devote themselves principally to agricultural pursuits; but to do this to the exclusion of other industries is merely to narrow the energies of the race, make dependent the laborer, and finally exhaust those very powers of nature which for the present seem to suggest one pursuit and forbid all others. On the contrary it is the duty of society to build up many industries in every locality, whatever may be the environment. If nature furnishes no suggestion of blast furnaces and iron-works, then nature should be constrained by means of human law. The production of manufactured products should be so encouraged by tariff duties as to become profitable in *all* situations. Not only should every State, but every community be made comparatively independent. Every community should be able, by its own industries, to supply at least the larger part of its own wants. The spindle should be *made* to turn; the forge *made* to glow; the mill-wheel *made* to turn; the engine *made* to pant; and the towering furnace to fling up into the darkness of midnight its volcanic glare—all this, whether nature has or has not prepared the antecedents of such activities. And this cannot be accomplished, or at least not well accomplished, in any other way than by the legal protection of those industries which do not flourish under the action of merely natural laws. It is, in brief, the theory of the high protectionist that every community of men, by means of its varied and independent activities—fostered and encouraged by the protective system—should become in the

body politic what the ganglion is in the nerve system of man—an independent, local power, capable of originating its own action and directing its own energies.

There is still a fifth position occasionally assumed by publicists and sometimes by nations. This is the doctrine and practice of PROHIBITORY TARIFFS. The idea here is that the mutual interdependence of nations is, on the whole, disadvantageous, and that each should be rendered *wholly* independent of the other. If in any State or nation certain industrial powers and conditions are wanting, then those powers and conditions should be produced by means of law. Internal trade is, according to this doctrine, the principal thing; and commercial intercourse with foreign States a matter of secondary or even dubious advantage. If the price of the given home product be not sufficient to stimulate its production in such quantities as to meet all the requirements of the market, then that price should be raised by means of legislation, and raised again and again, until the foreign trade shall cease and home manufacture be supplied in its place. True, there are not many who now carry the doctrine of protection to this extreme; but it is also true that in the endeavor to prepare protective schedules under the system of limited or high protection it not infrequently happens that the tariff is fixed at such a scale as to *act* as a prohibitory duty, and turn aside entirely the foreign commerce in the article on which the tariff is laid.

Such, then, is the question which from time to time has arisen in the political history of our country. The second statute ever enacted by Congress under the Constitution was passed for the purpose of "providing a revenue and *affording protection to American industry.*" Even the very necessity which gave rise to the Constitution itself was one relating to commerce and interwoven with the tariff. From the beginning the question would not down. During the fourth and fifth decades of the century the leading political agitations were produced by the revival of the tariff issue in our politics. Every one is acquainted with the "American system" which was so earnestly promoted by Henry Clay. Every one knows that in general the Whigs of the antebellum epoch were in favor of the protective system, and that the Democrats opposed it. After the war the question slumbered for a season. In 1880 a paragraph in the national platform of the Democratic party was inserted—not, indeed, with the intention of evoking an old controversy from the shadows of oblivion—which by declaring in favor of "a tariff for revenue only," unexpectedly precipitated the whole issue and contributed to, if it did not determine, the defeat of the Democratic ticket. Even in those States where Democracy was in the ascend-

ant the growth of great manufacturing establishments had in the meantime brought in a vast army of artisans, who, in spite of all party affiliation, refused to support a platform which, according to their belief, was calculated to injure, if not destroy, the very business in which they were engaged. Both the Democrats and the Republicans during the last four years have made a strenuous effort to align their party followers on this question, but neither have been successful. Neither are the Democrats unanimous for free trade, nor are the Republicans unanimous for a system of protection. Perhaps unanimity has been more nearly attained in the Republican than in the Democratic ranks, though it is not to be denied that many of the most eminent and thoughtful Republican leaders, in the East, are in favor of free trade.

During the whole of Arthur's administration this question gathered head, and the white crests of conflicting tides were seen along the whole surface of the presidential contest of 1884. The ultimate settlement of the question will be determined by self-interest rather than by abstract argument. When the party in power, whatever that party may be, shall become convinced that the *interest* of the United States requires the abolition of all protective duties and the substitution therefor of a system of tariff for revenue only, then, and not till then, will the English theory of political economy take the place of that which has thus far prevailed on this side of the sea.

The quadrennial agitation of the American people relative to the presidency began at an early date of Arthur's administration. Hardly had the crime of Garfield's murder been perpetrated and the presidency transferred to Mr. Arthur until the issue of naming a successor was raised by the ever-busy swarm of American politicians. The year 1882 had hardly furnished a breathing-time for the subsidence of the party passions of two years before, until the great army of the interested went forth on an expedition to arouse the country for another contest. It cannot be doubted that the managers of both the leading political organizations have been for some years alarmed lest through the failure of living issues the old combinations which have divided the country for a quarter of a century should go to pieces and leave the field to the people. But thus far the skill of partisans has been sufficient to cajole the masses into the belief that the old questions are still vital, and thus to keep alive the fires of a well-nigh extinct party strife.

During the year 1883 many eminent men were named in connection with the presidential office. Among those most prominently and

warmly advocated by the Republicans were James G. Blaine, of Maine; George F. Edmunds, of Vermont; President Arthur, of New York; Joseph R. Hawley, of Connecticut; John Sherman, of Ohio; John A. Logan and Robert T. Lincoln, of Illinois; and General William T. Sherman, of Missouri. Among the Democrats, the statesmen most frequently urged for the nomination in 1884 were General B. F. Butler, of Massachusetts; Samuel J. Tilden and Grover Cleveland, of New York; Samuel J. Randall, of Pennsylvania; Thomas F. Bayard, of Delaware; Allen G. Thurman, of Ohio; John G. Carlisle, of Kentucky; Joseph E. McDonald and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana. Early in 1884 Chicago was selected as the place of both the national conventions. Meanwhile the Greenback-Labor party held its convention at Indianapolis in the month of April, and nominated Gen. B. F. Butler as a candidate for the presidency, and A. M. West, of Mississippi, for the vice-presidency, of the United States. The Republican convention met on the 3d of May, and after a spirited session of three days' duration brought its labors to an end by the nomination of James G. Blaine, of Maine, for president, and Gen. John A. Logan, of Illinois, for vice-president; the Democratic delegates assembled on the 9th of July, and on the 11th of the month concluded their session by the nomination of Gov. Grover Cleveland, of New York, for the first place, and Thomas A. Hendricks, of Indiana, for the second, on the national ticket. Both the Republican and Democratic nominations were received with general enthusiasm, but large and powerful factions in both parties refused to support the nominee; nor could it well be foreseen at the opening of the canvass of 1884 which party was likely to come out victorious in the battle of the ensuing autumn.

As the summer wore away and the issues which the political parties had attempted to create were discussed before the people, the uncertainty became still greater. When the election drew nigh every thing seemed to depend upon the electoral votes of New York and Indiana. A close study of the situation revealed the fact that the latter State was Democratic, and would so record her vote. This fact narrowed the contest to the great State of New York. The event proved favorable to the Democrats, though their majority in the popular vote of the State was only 1,142. This small preponderance, however, was sufficient to determine the result; it gave the vote of the Empire State to Cleveland and Hendricks, assuring to them 219 ballots in the Electoral College against 182 votes for Blaine and Logan.

The sequel of the presidential election of this year was less happy than generally happens under like circumstances. It could hardly be

expected that the Republican managers and office-holders long occupying the places of power would abdicate without expressions of displeasure. Mr. Blaine himself soon after the election delivered a speech which, so far from being pacific in its tone, was, for the most part, a bitter invective against the South. The Republican newspapers, especially in the West, took up the hue and cry, and for a while filled their columns with such matter as might well have appeared in the first year after the Civil War. By degrees, however, this feeling subsided and near the close of Arthur's administration the office-holders as a class began to trim their sails with the evident hope that the breezes of Civil Service Reform, to which the President-elect was pledged, might waft them still farther on the high seas of power and emolument.

Before the retirement of President Arthur the command of the Army of the United States was transferred from General William T. Sherman to General Philip H. Sheridan. The former distinguished officer, one of the most talented and eminent soldiers of the century, having reached the age at which, according to an act of Congress, he might retire from active service, availed himself of the provision and laid down his command. The formal papers with which he concluded his official relations with the army were marked with the same fervor and patriotism which had characterized all of his utterances since the time when he gave his services to the country in the dark days of disunion. Nor could it be said that the new chieftain, to whom the command of the American army was now given, was less a patriot and soldier than his illustrious predecessor.

The recurrence of the birthday of Washington, 1885, was noted for the dedication of the great monument which had been a-building for so many years at the capital. The erection of such a structure was suggested as early as 1799. It was not, however, until 1835 that an organization was effected with a view to undertaking the work. For many years after the incipency of the enterprise the building lagged, and it was not until the work had been energized by Congress that it was brought to completion. The cost of the completed monument was about a million five hundred thousand dollars. The structure is the highest in the world. The shaft itself, without reckoning the foundation, is five hundred and fifty-five feet in height, being thirty feet higher than the Cathedral at Cologne, and seventy-five feet higher than the Pyramid of Cheops. The structure is composed of more than eighteen thousand blocks of stone. They are mostly of white marble and weigh several tons each. One hundred and eighty-one memorial stones, contributed by the different States of the Union and by friendly foreign

nations, are set at various places in the structure. The dedication occurred on Saturday, the 21st of February. The ceremonies were of the most imposing character. A procession of more than six thousand persons proceeded from the base of the monument along Pennsylvania Avenue to the Capitol, while salutes were fired from the batteries of the Navy Yard. At the Capitol the procession was reviewed by the



GENERAL PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

President of the United States. The concluding ceremonies were held in the House of Representatives, where a great throng had assembled to honor the memory of the Father of his Country. The principal oration, written by the Honorable Robert C. Winthrop, as well as the less formal addresses of the occasion, was well worthy of the event and calculated to add—if aught could add—to the fame of him who was "first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."