

Minister, became unpopular with the Congressionalists because of his supposed favor to the Balmacedan Government. That government still stood. It was recognized by the President of the United States as the government both *de jure* and *de facto* of Chili. Egan must therefore hold relations with Balmaceda and his Minister of Foreign Affairs. He must continue to stand in with the existing order until some other order should be established in its stead.

It appears that our Minister and our Government misapprehended the importance and strength of the revolutionary movement. The Congressionalists steadily gained ground. Perhaps the revolution which was progressing could not be seen in full magnitude from the position occupied by our Minister at the Chilian capital. At all events, the Congressional army came on in full force, and soon pressed the government back to the limits of the capital and the immediate vicinity of that city. Affairs drew to a crisis. A bloody battle was fought at a place called Placilla, near Santiago. The Balmacedists gave way before the storm. The battle of Placilla and a subsequent engagement still nearer to the capital, went against them. The insurgents burst victoriously into Santiago, and the revolution accomplished itself by the overthrow of the existing government. Everything went to wreck. Both Santiago and Valparaiso were taken by the Revolutionary party. The Balmacedists were fugitives in all directions. The Dictator himself fled into hiding, and presently made an end by committing suicide.

In such condition of affairs it was natural that the defeated partisans of the late government should take refuge in the legations of foreign nations at the capital. A Ministerial legation is, under international law, an asylum for refugees. At this time the official residences of the foreign nations at Santiago, with the exception of that of Great Britain, were all crowded more or less with fugitives flying hither for safety from the wrath of the successful Revolutionists. The attitude of Great Britain from the first had been favorable to the Congressional party, and it was evident that that power would now stand in high favor with the victors.

It chanced that the Minister of the United States was by birth an Irishman. He was an Irish agitator and British refugee lately naturalized in America. Probably the antagonistic attitude of Great Britain and the United States at the Chilian capital was attributable in part to the nativity and political principles of Egan. At all events, the American Ministerial residence gave asylum to numbers of the defeated Balmacedists, and the triumphant Revolutionists

grew more and more hostile to our Government and Minister because they could not get at those who were under his protection. This hostility led to the establishment of a police guard and a force of detectives around the American legation! It seemed at times that the place might be attacked and taken by the angry victors in the recent revolution. At length, however, under the protests of our Government, the guards were withdrawn and the legation was freed from surveillance. Relations began to grow amicable once more, when the difficulties suddenly took another and more serious form.

It happened at this time that the war-vessels of several nations visited the harbor of Valparaiso, drawn thither by interest and for the sake of information or the business of the respective navies. Among the ships that came was the United States war-steamer *Baltimore*. On the 16th of October, 1891, a hundred and seventeen petty officers and men, headed by Captain Schley, went on shore by permission, and in the usual way went into the city of Valparaiso. Most of them visited a quarter of the city not reputable in character. It soon became apparent that the ill-informed enmity and malice of the lower classes were strongly excited at the appearance of the men and uniform of the United States on the streets. With the approach of night, and with apparent pre-arrangement, a Chilian mob rose upon the sailors and began an attack. The sailors retreated and attempted to regain their ship; but the mob closed around them, throwing stones, and presently at close quarters using knives and clubs. Eighteen of the sailors were brutally stabbed and beaten, and some died from their injuries. The remainder, leaving the wounded behind them, escaped to the ship.

Intelligence of this event was at once communicated to the Government of the United States. The country was greatly excited over the outrage, and preparations were begun for war. The navy department was ordered to prepare several vessels for the Chilian coast. The great war-ship *Oregon* and two others were equipped, manned and directed to the Pacific shores of South America. The President immediately directed the American Minister at Santiago to demand explanation, apology and reparation for the insult and crime committed against the Government of the United States. The Chilian authorities began to temporize with the situation. A tedious investigation of the riot was undertaken in the courts of Santiago, resulting in an inconsequential verdict.

Meanwhile, Señor M. A. Matta, Chilian Minister of Foreign Affairs, added fuel to the flame by transmitting an offensive com-

munication to Señor Pedro Montt, representative of the Chilian Government at Washington, in which he reflected on the President of the United States, accused our Government of falsehood, attacked Egan, and ended by instructing Montt to let the contents of the note be known! This was soon followed by another communication from Señor Matta, demanding the recall of Patrick Egan from the Chilian capital, as *persona non grata* to the Government. But he failed to specify the particular qualities or acts in the American Minister which made him unacceptable.

The publication of these two notes brought matters to a crisis. The President, through the proper authorities, demanded that the offensive note of Matta be withdrawn; that the demand for the recall of Egan be reconsidered, and that reparation for the insults and wrongs done to the crew of the *Baltimore* be repaired with ample apology and salute to the American flag by the Chilian Government. Answers to these demands were again delayed, and on the 25th of January, 1892, the President sent an elaborate message to Congress, laying before that body an account of the difficulties, and recommending such action as might be deemed necessary to uphold the honor of the United States. For a single day it looked like war.

Scarcely, however, had the President's message been delivered to Congress when the Chilian Government, receding from its high-toned manner of offence and arrogance, sent, through its Minister of Foreign Affairs, a paper of full apology for the wrongs done, and offering to submit the affair of the *Baltimore* to arbitration of some friendly power. The offensive note of Señor Matta was unconditionally withdrawn. The demand for the removal of Egan was recalled, and indeed all reasonable points in the contention of the President, freely and fully conceded. The crisis broke with the knowledge that the apology of Chili had been received, and like the recent difficulty with Italy over the New Orleans massacre, the imbroglio passed without further alarm or portent of war.

More important still, in the diplomacy of the United States, was the controversy which arose in this quadrennium between our country and Great Britain, relative to the seal fisheries in Behring Sea. The dispute in question was by no means so hot and immediately dangerous as that of the United States and Italy, or the more recent imbroglio with Chili; but it was a more important complication on account of the parties to the controversy. It is one thing for a country like the United States to be involved in a dispute with a country such as Chili, and quite another thing to be on the edge of

hazard with a country such as Great Britain. It cannot be denied that the United States are able, by reputation and authority, to dictate the terms of settlement to the secondary nations, but not to the tremendous power which sits enthroned in the British Isles. Great Britain is a stern and opinionated government, highly self-conscious, and imbued with an arrogant spirit. This is true in particular of all controversies relating to the dominion of the waters.

For a period of years the diplomacy of the governments of England and the United States had run on a low plane. Ever since the settlement of the controversy about the Halifax Fisheries we had had a calm in our international relations. This, however, was broken by the question of the Alaskan seal fisheries which now obtruded itself upon the attention of both governments. Certain Canadian vessels, bearing the English flag, entered Behring Sea, and without regard to the interests of the nations concerned, or respect to those conditions upon which the maintenance of the fisheries depends, began to take seals at random and with a recklessness that must needs attract the attention of our government.

This action on the part of the Canadian ships was declared at once to be in violation of American rights, and the ships were seized. It was avowed by our government that the waters of Behring Sea are not open, but, as we should say in international law, a *mare clausum*; that is, shut up to foreign commerce. The basis of the American claims was the Treaty of Purchase which we had made with Russia in March of 1867. Alaska had been bought by the United States. Russia had sold us not only the land but her *claim* to the sea! Her claim extended as far as complete jurisdiction over the Behring waters.

A glance at the map will show the reader the nature of the waters in controversy. They extend from Behring Strait on the north to the Alaskan Peninsula and the Aleutian Islands on the south, and to a line extending from those islands to the southernmost point of Kamtchatka. The more particular field in contention was that lying between the 160th meridian of longitude, west, and the 170th meridian east from Greenwich. This broad sea-area had been received from Russia under the provisions of a treaty existing between that power and Great Britain going back to the year 1825. Great Britain had acknowledged, strangely enough, the jurisdiction of Russia over Behring Sea; but this was before the importance of the seal fisheries had become known.

The question which arose out of these conditions was an old one.

It was the right of a nation to extend its dominion and establish an exclusive sway over the sea. This claim Great Britain had formerly made and supported in her diplomacy and in her wars; but the claim had been gradually disallowed by the nations; so that in more recent times no nation had attempted to make good her authority over the open waters of the ocean. The United States had formerly contended for the freedom of the high seas. In this particular instance, it became the interest of our country to change position somewhat and to advocate, to a limited extent, the doctrine of *mare clausum*.

The seal fisheries are of immense value and their control by American authority could but be regarded as a matter of vital importance. The question was taken up in 1890 in the diplomatical correspondence of the two countries. The cruisers of the United States were sent into the Behring waters, but were not satisfied with protective general interests; they went out openly and searched and, as above stated, seized the Canadian vessels bearing the flag of England. In justification it was claimed that the action of the British ships in sealing in these waters was *contra bonos mores*, or, as we should say, against international morality.

It was held by the National authorities that the action of the Canadian vessels in free sealing in Behring Sea was a permanent injury to the rights of our government and to the commercial interests of all civilized peoples. The matter was made the basis of protest and counterprotest between the two governments. Great Britain protested sternly against the seizure of the Canadian ships, and these were of necessity liberated. The American government protested against the action of the ships in violating the rights of the United States.

The bottom reason for the action of our government was sufficiently valid. It could not be doubted that free sealing in these waters would presently destroy one of the most important sources of revenue, both to Great Britain and the United States. The killing of seals in the open sea involves the destruction of the female animals in common with the males. The destruction of each female is reckoned to be equal to the loss of three seals for each of the succeeding years of the life of the animal destroyed. It could not be doubted that such indiscriminate sealing would result in the ultimate destruction of the seal fisheries. On the other hand, the prosecution of sealing under proper restrictions would permit the gathering of vast wealth, and, at the same time, consist with the constant increase of the number of seals. It was ascertained that if only male seals of a

given age should be taken and this only between the first of November and the middle of the following April in each year, then the seals could go on increasing in numbers and supporting the supply of fur-bearing pelts.

The whole controversy turned about this question. The correspondence was conducted between Mr. Blaine, the American Secretary of State, and Lord Salisbury, the British Prime Minister. More than two years were occupied in the discussion and it was finally agreed with great moderation and good sense to refer the controversy to a joint high tribunal to be constituted by the two governments — that is, to an arbitration of the questions between the parties. In accordance with this method of settlement, a commission was appointed to meet in Paris, France, in February, 1893. The dispute dragged on to the end of the Harrison administration and was carried over for final settlement to the beginning of the second term of Cleveland.

The arbiters selected in the cause were seven in number. Two of them were chosen on behalf of the United States by President Harrison; two others by the British government, and three others on the joint request of the President of the French Republic, the King of Italy and the King of Norway and Sweden. The members of the tribunal were, for the United States, Justice John M. Harlan, of the Supreme Court, and Senator John T. Morgan, of Alabama. Those for Great Britain were Lord James Hannen and Sir John Thompson, of Canada. The commissioner named by the President of France was the Baron de Courcel; by the King of Italy, the Marquis Emillo Visconti-Venesta; and by the King of Sweden and Norway, Judge Gram, of the Supreme Court of Christiania.

Besides these distinguished personages there were agents and attorneys for the two governments. On behalf of Great Britain, Sir Charles Russell and Sir Charles E. Tupper were appointed as counsel; on behalf of the United States appeared Honorable E. J. Phelps, Honorable James C. Carter, Honorable F. R. Coudert and Judge Blodgett of the Supreme Court, together with Honorable John W. Foster, Secretary of State. The tribunal, after meeting in a preliminary way at the appointed time, adjourned until the 22d of March, 1893, when the actual work of arbitration was undertaken. The questions submitted to the body for solution were the following:

1. What exclusive jurisdiction in the sea known as the Behring Sea, and what exclusive rights in the seal fisheries therein, did Russia assert and exercise prior and up to the time of the cession of Alaska to the United States?

2. How far were these claims of jurisdiction as to the seal fisheries recognized and conceded by Great Britain?
3. Was the body of water known as the Behring Sea included in the phrase "Pacific Ocean," as used in the treaty of 1825 between Great Britain and Russia, and what rights, if any, in the Behring Sea were held and exclusively exercised by Russia after said treaty?
4. Did not all the rights of Russia as to jurisdiction and as to the seal fisheries in Behring Sea, east of the water boundary, in the treaty between the United States and Russia of the 30th of March, 1867, pass unimpaired to the United States under that treaty?
5. Has the United States any right, and, if so, what right, of protection of property in the fur-seals frequenting the islands of the United States in Behring Sea, when such seals are found outside of the ordinary three-mile limit?

While the discussions of the tribunal were necessarily prolonged and the decision for a while postponed, the great historical lesson was again impressed on the nations. It was seen that the leading governments of the English-speaking world had committed themselves fully to the principle of arbitration, and that the example must soon be followed by all the civilized States of Christendom.

About the middle of Harrison's administration, the attention of the American people, and of the government in particular, was turned to the question of restoring American influence on the high-seas. The public interest in this direction was manifested in two ways: first, in the strengthening of the American navy, and secondly, in the attempt to regain the carrying and passenger trade between Europe and the United States. The latter had gone for a long time to the Marine of England. During Harrison's administration great outlays were made for the improvement of the Navy. This was suggested in part by the difficulties with Italy and Chili, both of which portended war, that, had it occurred, in the nature of the case must be prosecuted by the sea.

We had found ourselves in these crises lamentably deficient in the means of making war on the ocean. This fact led to the construction of new war-ships of the most improved patterns and the largest dimensions. Of this kind was the great steamer *Indiana*, the largest ship in the possession of the government, and among the most formidable of the floating war-vessels of the world. The *Indiana* was completed and launched in the latter part of 1892. While it is certainly not the true policy of the United States to make war, or to assume the war-like manners and methods of the European Powers, it nevertheless seemed to be necessary that the government should make itself more feared on the sea than it had been since the Civil War.

More pacific and commendable was the effort to regain ascendancy in the matter of communication across the Atlantic. The reviving spirit of the country was shown in this regard by the transfer, in February of 1893, of the splendid passenger steamer *New York* from the flag of England to that of the United States. The event was regarded with much interest by the public as it seemed to denote the revival of American honor in the competition with the mother country for the carrying and passenger trade between our seaboard and the ports of Western Europe. The transfer of flags on the *New York* was made the occasion in the harbor of the metropolis of a public day, and the raising of the Stars and Stripes over the great steamer was hailed with national applause.

In the after part of the administration of Harrison the financial condition of the government became a source of anxiety, not only to the party in power, but to the country at large. It will be remembered that at the close of the administration of Cleveland a large surplus had accumulated in the Treasury of the United States, and that this fact was made the basis of party controversy in the campaign of 1888. The Republican party, coming into power, was put to the necessity of reducing the surplus and was, at the same time, under pledge of maintaining the tariff system, by the action of which the surplus had accumulated.

How, then, should these two ends be attained? Practically, the policy adopted was one of enormous expenditure. The already prodigious public outlay began to be augmented, rather with the motive of reducing the surplus than for any intrinsic public good. Each year witnessed an ever-increasing list of extravagances. The pension roll was enlarged; river improvements were sought out, and almost every avenue of expenditure discovered, with the immediate purpose of relieving the plethora of the Treasury, and the ultimate design of saving the system of protection.

By these means the expenses of the government were increased in the last year of Harrison's administration to more than a billion dollars! The Treasury was indeed reduced but, at the same time, a system of things was instituted which overdid itself, and, as the administration drew to a close, the country was aroused to the fact that there was imminent danger of a National deficit.

This state of facts worked both ways. While the Republicans gloried in the reduction of the surplus and the scattering broadcast of the vast accumulations of the Treasury to the industries of the country, the Democrats raised the cry of reckless extravagance and

threatened bankruptcy. It was with the greatest difficulty that Secretary Foster of the Treasury Department was able, at the close of the year 1892, to pull his accounts together, so that the administration might go out of power with even the appearance of validity remaining behind it.

In the field of pure politics there was now much activity. The management of both parties looked anxiously to the condition of public affairs, and sought to draw therefrom such policies as might prove successful in the presidential contest of 1892. There was a mixture of principles and personalities. On the whole, the personalities predominated. On the Democratic side, there was never a time in the quadrennium when ex-President Cleveland did not appear as the leader of his party and the logical candidate of his party for re-election to the presidency. It was his influence and policy that had determined the whole existing condition of party controversy. The question of a reform of the revenue system of the United States, involving a complete change in the theory of customs-duties, was uppermost, and this was connected with various financial questions, including the paramount dispute about the free coinage of silver.

On the Republican side, there was considerable confusion as to the candidate to be named and the policy to be adopted. Undoubtedly, James G. Blaine, Secretary of State, was the favorite of the masses of his party. Other leaders had meanwhile appeared with claims more or less well grounded, to the support of their party. As to President Harrison, he desired a re-election, and, although he was not preferred by the rank and file of the party that had supported him in 1888, he was cordially endorsed by the large and powerful office-holding classes of the country. These were unanimous for his re-election. They were unable to see in any other candidate the prospect of advantage and that political salvation which the politician always seems so anxious to secure.

On the whole, the advantage was in Harrison's favor. Mr. Blaine held office in the cabinet, and could not well permit his ambitions and those of his friends to be promoted at the expense of the ambitions of the President. It was with difficulty that amicable relations were maintained in the cabinet in the third year of the administration, and with the beginning of the fourth a break seemed to be always imminent. At length Mr. Blaine, after much annoyance, published a card declining to be a candidate before the approaching Republican National Convention at Minneapolis; but the card was

not regarded by his more enthusiastic followers as final. It was said that if, without being a candidate, he should receive the nomination, he would accept.

The National Convention of the Administration Party was appointed to meet on the 7th day of June, in the City of Minneapolis. Mr. Blaine continued in his office of Secretary of State until the eve of the Convention, and then suddenly and peremptorily resigned. The resignation was accepted in like terms of official coldness and brevity. These facts were regarded as a signal to the Blaine following, and they immediately began to advocate the nomination of the ex-Secretary. The office-holding classes of the Republican party went to the Convention in solid phalanx, supported by a respectable part of the party in general, and in particular by the manufacturing and protected interests of the country. These prevailed, and on the third day of the Convention the renomination of the President was effected. Blaine's retirement from the cabinet had come too late. His flame flared up fitfully at the Convention, and then went out. He was the setting sun, and men do not worship the setting sun.

The nomination for the vice-presidency was given to Honorable Whitelaw Reid, of New York. For some reason of his own, Vice-President Morton was not a candidate for renomination. It was deemed expedient, however, that New York should be honored with the second place on the ticket, and Mr. Reid was the favorite of both the administration and the party at large. He was, at the time, the representative of the Government of the United States to that of the French Republic. He had been one of the great journalists who received, at the beginning of the Harrison administration, recognition by appointment to the first diplomatical positions in a gift of the President. He had recently returned to the United States, and the New York *Tribune*, which he controlled, had been made a powerful support in the work of renominating Harrison and incidentally securing the second place to its editor.

Meanwhile, the Democratic party rallied its forces and on the 21st of June, the National Convention of that party met in the city of Chicago. Mr. Cleveland was the favorite of the masses of his party for the nomination, but in his own State there was a powerful and well-organized effort to defeat him. The Tammany Society of New York City, controlling the Democratic forces in the State, was firmly set against the ex-President, and left no stone unturned to prevent his selection as the standard-bearer in the approaching canvass. With this party, Senator David B. Hill was the favorite, and the New York

delegation was sent to Chicago instructed in his interest. But the political machinery of the Empire State, supported as it was by certain malcontent elements in other States, was not able to prevail against the overwhelming sentiment in favor of Cleveland, and he was easily renominated. The second place on the ticket was given to Honorable Adlai E. Stevenson, of Illinois.

The People's party now displayed itself in greater strength than ever before. Throughout a large part of the West, the new political organization showed such vitality as seriously to threaten the integrity of the old parties. The claims of the People's organization to be in sympathy with the demands of the masses as against the organized powers of wealth and manufacture, were recognized as having in them a measure of justice, and the public sentiment in the West was strongly displayed at the National Convention of the party which was held in Omaha on the 2d of July.

When the Convention assembled it was evident that the preferences of the delegates for Judge Walter Q. Gresham, of Illinois, would assure his nomination; but the Judge, while the Convention was in session, declined to permit the use of his name, and the nomination went by common consent to the old and tried leader of the party, General James B. Weaver, of Iowa. Associated on the ticket with him was Judge James G. Field, of Virginia.

The platform of the new party declared for the free coinage of silver; for the radical reform of the revenue system of the United States, and for the control of the railways and telegraphs of the country by the government, in the interest of the people. There were also other declarations in favor of a system of banking and loans to the people on security of farm property, and the like. The clause in favor of the free coinage of silver was the prevalent one and drew to the support of the ticket a large following in all parts of the country where the sentiment in favor of paying the debts of the people by the bimetallic standard prevailed.

The presidential canvass of 1892 was conducted in an apathetic manner. It was found impossible to arouse the masses of the people to the usual pitch of enthusiasm and party combat. With the progress of the campaign it became evident that the candidates of the Democratic party were strongly in the lead. The popularity of Cleveland was never before displayed in so strong a manner. It amounted to a public confidence against which no party machinery could well prevail. The Republican leaders continued the battle until the day of election came, but with ever diminishing prospects of success. The

result was the election of Cleveland and by a majority so overwhelming as to mark a political revolution. By the same event the control of both the Senate and the House of Representatives passed to the Democratic party. The electoral vote in favor of Cleveland was 276, against 145 for President Harrison and 23 votes for General Weaver. Thus, by a decisive and unmistakable verdict, the political destinies of the Republic were entrusted for the ensuing quadrennium to that party which had gone out of power with Buchanan in 1861, and had never, in the interim, gained possession of the Executive and both branches of the Legislative departments of the government.

The election was quickly followed by the last scene in the life of James G. Blaine. That statesman had suffered many hardships and disappointments in his public and his personal career. Soon after the Minneapolis Convention, his son, Emmons Blaine, suddenly sickened and died at Chicago. Already the Honorable Walker Blaine, upon whom his father had placed his principal expectations, and Mrs. Alice Coppinger, the statesman's daughter, had died at Washington. The family was decimated. Mr. Blaine's political fortunes had now gone utterly to wreck. There was no longer a shadow of hope of the revival of those great ambitions by which he had been employed for fully a quarter of a century. He might not even aspire to reappear prominently in the councils of the nation; for the opposing party had come into power; the Senate was full as to its membership, and the appointive officers were at the disposal of a Democratic president.

Mr. Blaine might be regarded as a heart-broken man. His health had already become precarious; indeed, for sixteen years he had been under stress and alarm with respect to the failure of his physical powers. In the late autumn of 1892, he became prostrated at his home in Washington City and it was soon known that his days were numbered. He sank under an accumulation of ills, the most fatal of which was Bright's disease, and his mind as well as his body yielded to the attack. He lingered until the beginning of the new year, when the heart's action became enfeebled and his life was limited to a few days.

Much uncertainty existed in the public mind and great interest was manifested in the condition and decline of the distinguished patient. At last, death came suddenly, unexpectedly. On the morning of January 27, 1893, Mr. Blaine was found by his physicians to be in a sinking condition. His constitution no longer reacted under the most powerful stimulants, and at 11 o'clock, on the forenoon of the

day referred to, he died in quietude and peace. Instantly the event was known and was flashed by wire to the remotest corners of the Republic.

The funeral of the statesman was as private as such an event could be in Washington City. His body was placed in one of the rooms of the old Seward House, in Lafayette Square, and was there viewed by friends until Monday the 30th of January, when the funeral ceremony was held in the Church of the Covenant. Afterwards the body was interred in the cemetery at Georgetown, in a spot selected by the statesman as his last resting-place.

We need not in this connection dwell upon the life and services of James G. Blaine. Without doubt he was, for a considerable period at an important epoch of our country's history, one of its most distinguished and able of our public men. He had great talents and great ambitions. His character, though somewhat enigmatical, was nevertheless of the highest type so far as his statesmanship and patriotism were concerned. His leadership of his party was brilliant; his following was enthusiastic, and his general influence strong and enduring. Though he failed to reach the presidency, his career was so conspicuous and, on the whole, successful, as to entitle him to rank with the great names that have brightened our country's history in its era of statesmanship—with Clay and Webster of the middle of the century, and with Sumner and Conkling of the later period.

CHAPTER LXXIII.

SECOND ADMINISTRATION OF CLEVELAND.

THE re-election of Grover Cleveland to the presidency was an event of peculiar significance. No such fact had hitherto been known in our history. On seven former occasions Presidents had been re-elected to the chief magistracy while holding that office; but in no case had one who had retired from office been re-chosen for a second term. The record of precedent was thus broken in the election of 1892. The successful candidate had indeed been President, but he had been for four years out of office, and had no longer at his disposal the powerful official array which has shown itself so efficient in presidential elections. Mr. Cleveland was obliged to begin the canvass as any other citizen, supported only by his prestige as a former chief magistrate and by the fealty of his party. The event showed that in addition to these elements of strength he had also a powerful independent following in all parts of the country, adhering not only to his personal and political fortunes, but believing steadfastly in the principles and policies which he so strenuously represented.

We have already presented in a former chapter a sketch of the previous career of this remarkable public character. It is not needed that we should here recount the events of his past life or of his administration as President of the United States. It is appropriate, however, that we should emphasize somewhat the remarkable ascendancy which he had gained over the public mind. His pre-eminence was by no means that of a partisan, but rather that of a public man who had risen to influence by the sternness and persistency of his political views, and the honesty with which he had followed them to their legitimate results.

These traits of character were shown in full measure at the beginning of Cleveland's second term in the presidency. It was manifested at the very start by his course in selecting the members of his cabinet. At the head of that body he placed Judge Walter Q. Gresham, of Illinois, who had been, until the last canvass, a life-long Republican leader. He had been prominently advocated for the presidential nomination in 1888, and during the Harrison admin-