

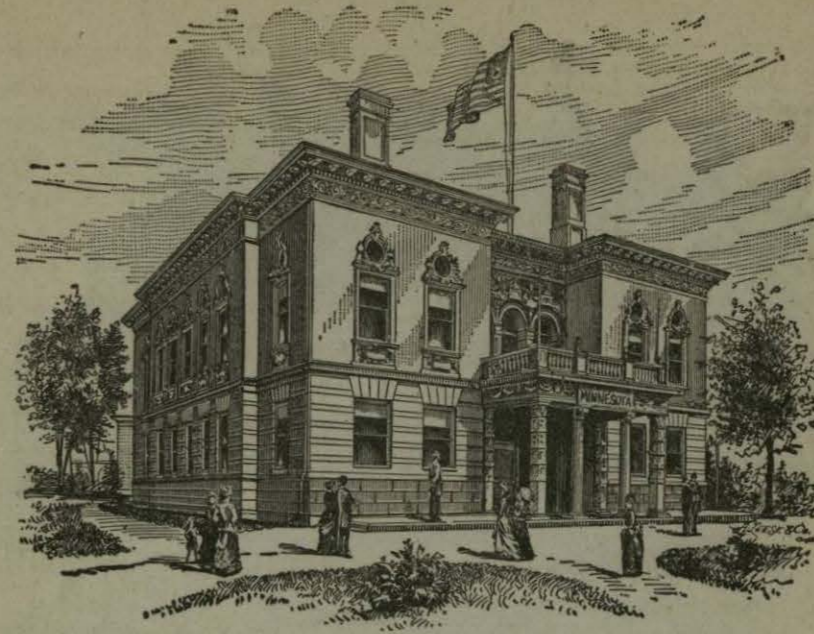
removing the great buildings was in progress, a fire broke out, which became first a conflagration, and afterward a tornado of flaming horror, the light of which might have been visible a hundred miles. The elements conspired at the last to reduce to gas and ashes the residue of that sublime aggregation of structure, the equal of which had not hitherto been seen by the sons of men.

The aggregate expenditures of the World's Columbian Exposition were very great. To the \$19,000,000 expended in the construction of buildings an additional outlay of \$10,000,000 had been necessary to carry out the enterprise. The total cost of the Exposition was reported by the Commissioners at \$30,558,849. The total receipts were \$32,796,103. The excess of receipts over expenditures may well be noted as the crowning marvel of the enterprise.

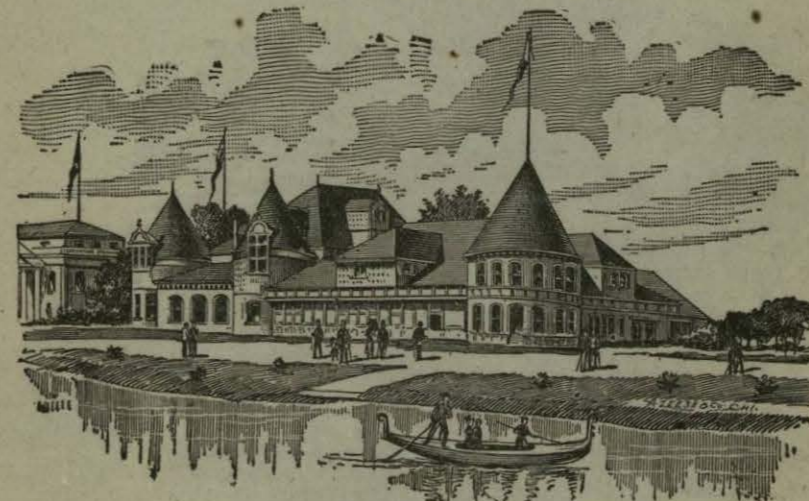
Our wonder in this particular is heightened when we reflect that the premonitory swirl of the great financial panic of 1893-94 fell flatly on the country during the months of the Exposition. Moreover, the subdued fear of a cholera epidemic was among the people—a circumstance not to be overlooked when we reflect upon the exposure to which the city of Chicago was necessarily subjected in the summer of 1893. Notwithstanding all this, the Columbian Exposition went forward to a triumphant conclusion. Neither the great financial panic, nor the fear of cholera was sufficient to prevent the glorious consummation of the work, and the congratulation of all the civilized peoples of the globe on the splendid results of the enterprise.

In the meantime, before the close of the Exposition, a fertile and attractive part of the Indian Territory, called the Cherokee Strip, was opened for settlement to the whites. The movement was a part of that never-ending aggression by which the broad tribal domains of the Indians have been reduced to a handbreadth. A law of Congress was passed, by which six million acres of desirable lands, lying at least nominally within the Indian dominion, were offered for sale. The result showed that the passion for land-ownership and for settlement and colonization and the building-up of States is not yet extinct among the American people. The date fixed for the sale of the lands was the 16th of September, 1896. There was a great rush for the new territory; about one hundred thousand settlers suddenly threw themselves into it with a zeal of competition for homes that amounted almost to battle.

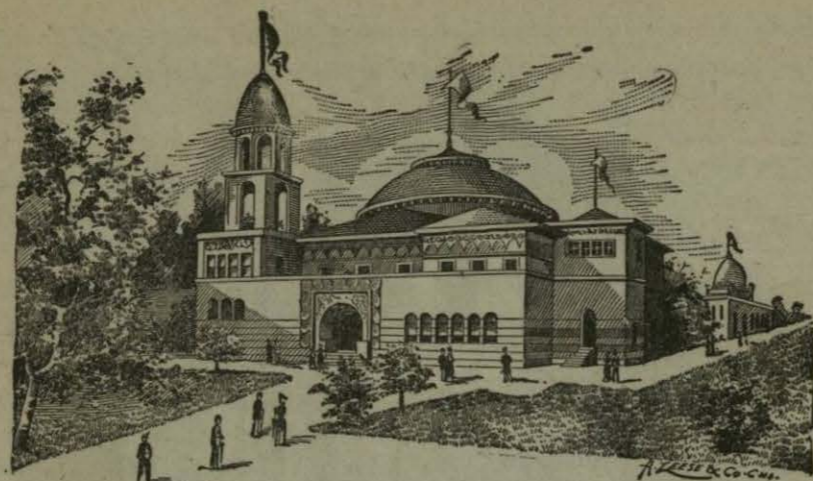
Meanwhile, on the very day of the close of the Columbian Exposi-



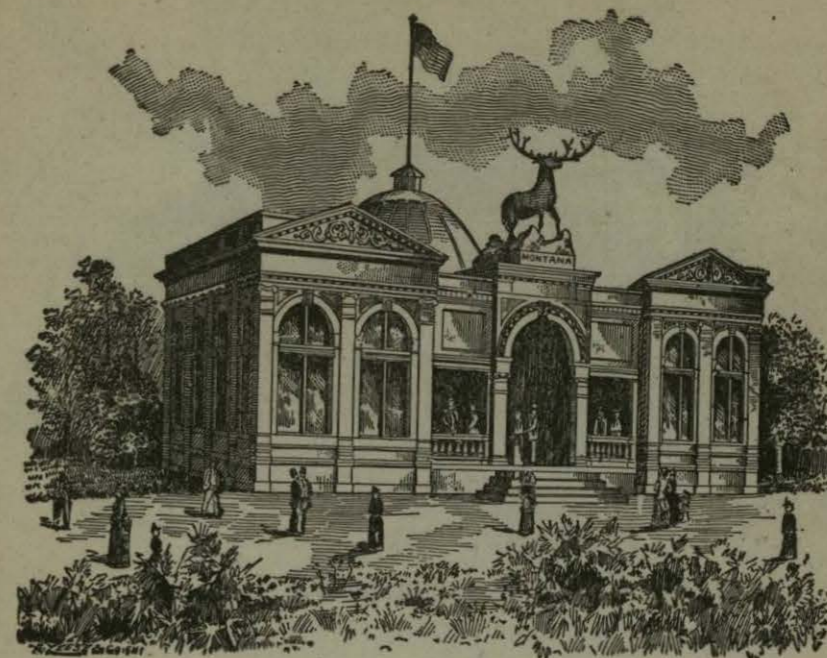
MINNESOTA BUILDING.



IOWA BUILDING.



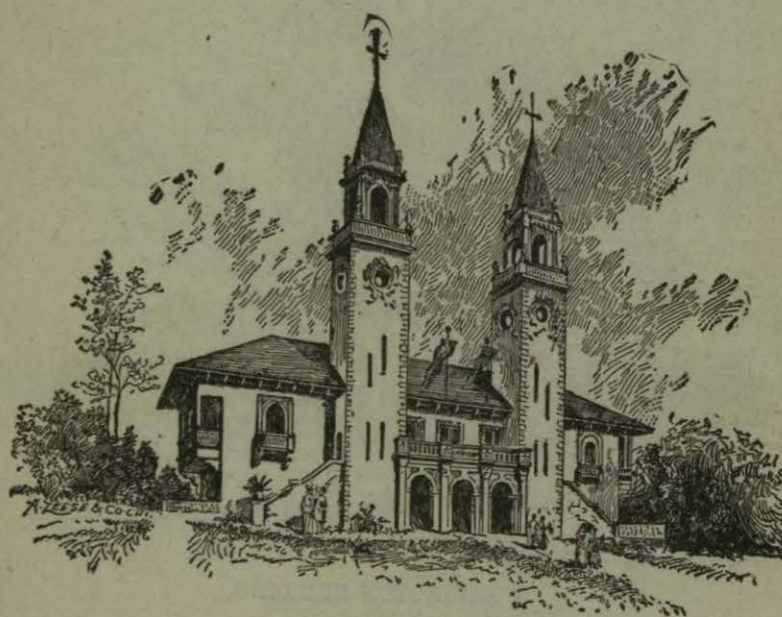
KANSAS BUILDING.



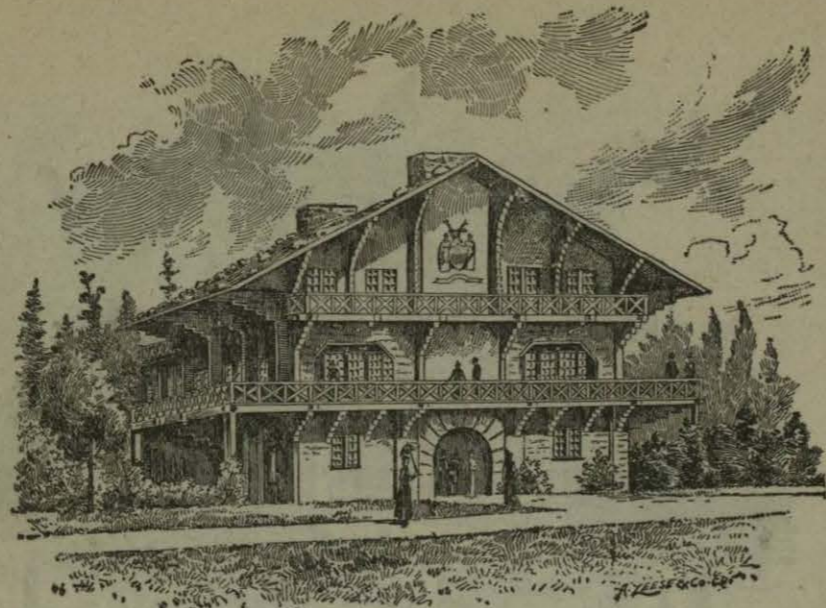
MONTANA BUILDING.



NEBRASKA BUILDING.



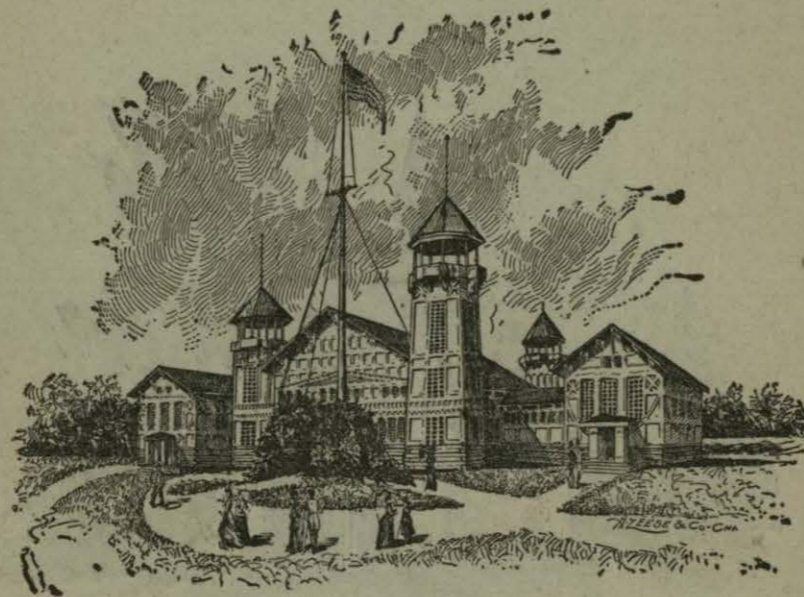
COLORADO BUILDING.



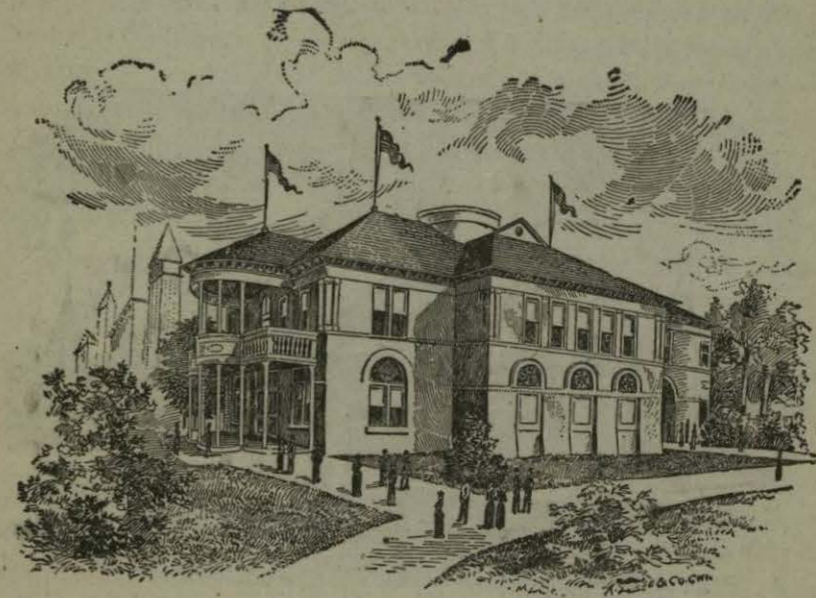
IDAHO BUILDING.



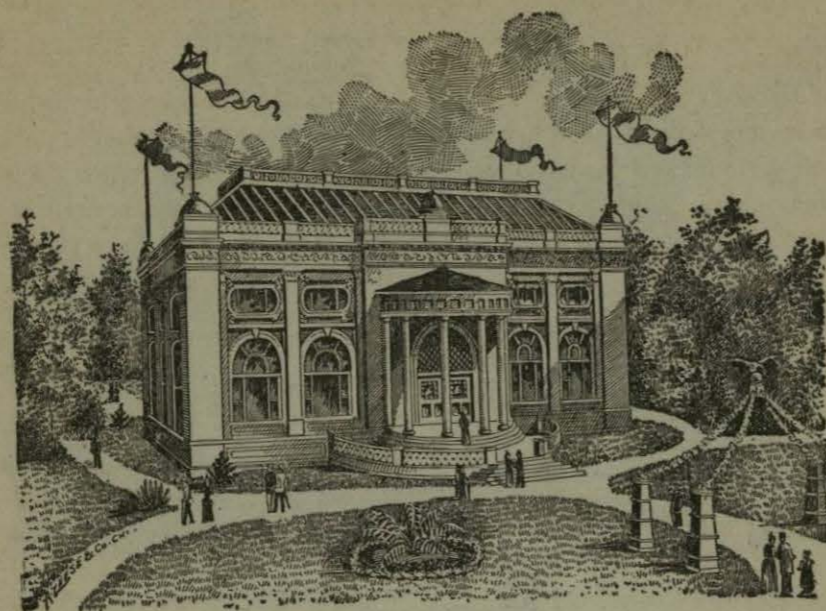
NORTH DAKOTA BUILDING.



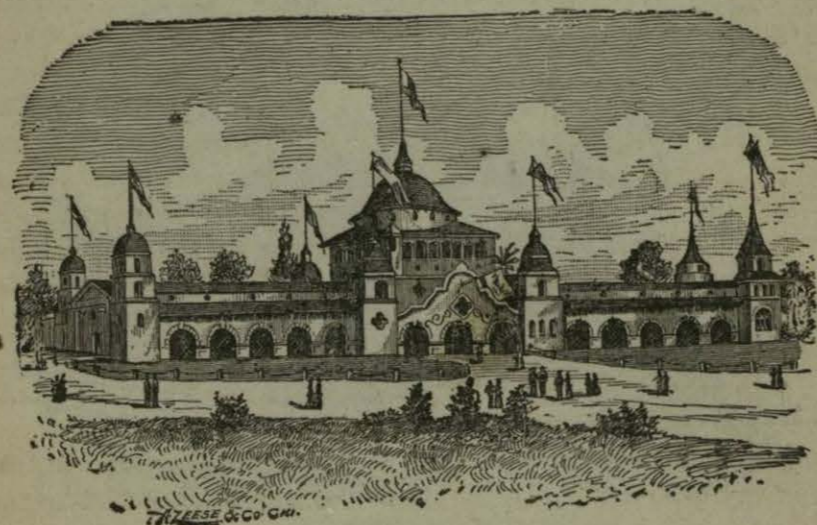
WASHINGTON BUILDING.



SOUTH DAKOTA BUILDING.



UTAH BUILDING.



CALIFORNIA BUILDING.

tion, an act was passed by Congress repealing the purchasing clause of the so-called Sherman Law. This clause, which had been in operation since July of 1890, required that the Government should purchase four million five hundred thousand ounces of silver each month, and should issue therefor silver certificates to be used as money. The repeal now effected was unconditional. It was the last of a series of acts, which, beginning with the demonetization of silver, in 1873, and extending, with various revivals of the controversy, over a period of twenty years, finally resulted in the establishment of the single gold standard of values in the United States instead of the standard according to the silver unit which was fixed at the foundation of the Government by the statute of 1792.

Other legislation of this period was of great moment. One act in particular contributed not a little to the overwhelming disaster of the times. For, in the meanwhile, the great financial and commercial panic had come upon the country, entailing such ruin of business and such darkening of prospects as had never been hitherto known in the industrial and commercial history of our country. The particular legislation now enacted related to the tariff. Whether the tariff reform advocated by Cleveland and the Democratic party was or was not a thing wise to be undertaken, certain it is that values were, for the time, ruinously affected by the acts of the current Congress. The tariff legislation took form in a bill prepared by Representative William L. Wilson, of West Virginia, which, though not a measure of free trade and not a measure founded on the principle of a tariff for revenue only, nevertheless included as much of these two principles as the expediency of the hour would bear.

The Wilson Bill was passed by the House of Representatives, and was transmitted to the Senate. In that body the monopolies had so great influence that a measure proposed by Senator Gorman, including a tariff on coal and iron, and a differential duty on refined sugar, was included in the Wilson Bill, and forced upon the reluctant House. Such was the odium created by this measure, which was adopted on the 13th of August, that the elections following hard after went overwhelmingly against the Democrats.

During the period when this legislation was in process of enactment, the industrial and commercial depression, with the consequent unrest and suffering of the people, brought on the most alarming results. The manufacturing industries were prostrated, and the prices of products fell away. Strikes and lockouts became the order of the times. Business failures resounded through the land like the falling

of a forest. Commerce dwindled away. Presently, in the latter part of April, 1894, a hundred and thirty thousand miners stopped work, and were joined immediately afterward by fully twenty-five thousand others. Nearly all the coke-plants in Western Pennsylvania were closed. Meanwhile, the discontented and half-starved people began to show their desires and passions in a way never hitherto displayed in the United States.

The result of these conditions was that the laboring masses thrown out of employment began to combine — perhaps without knowing why — into a great organization known as the Army of the Commonweal. Indeed, there were several such combinations. One army, under the leadership of J. S. Coxey, of Massillon, Ohio, marched on Washington City to demand employment from the National Government. Another band came on from the far West, under the leadership of their so-called "General" Kelley. Railway cars were appropriated here and there for transportation. Collisions occurred between divisions of the army and various bodies of troops.

On the 30th of May these men of the Commonweal made a demonstration on the steps of the Capitol at Washington. The authorities of the District, on the alert for some excuse, found the leaders of the army on the grass of the Capitol grounds in a place forbidden. Coxey and Carl Browne were arrested for trespassing, and were convicted and imprisoned. During the whole summer of 1894, these strange movements of the discontented people continued at various places.

The prolonged depression of all industrial interests led, at length, to serious rioting. The most alarming outbreaks were in the coal regions near Uniontown, Pennsylvania. The period when these disturbances were at their height was in the spring of 1894. On the 4th of April six persons were killed in a riot at Uniontown. Serious outbreaks among the miners occurred in Ohio, Indiana, Iowa, Illinois and Kansas. In many places the State militia was called out, and petty fights occurred. At Cripple Creek, in Colorado, a great riot took place, and prominent citizens were seized and held for some time as hostages.

The elections in the fall of 1894 again illustrated the violent vicissitudes to which American political life is subject. Only two years previously the Democratic party had achieved an overwhelming victory. Now it was hard to say whether the triumph of that party in 1892 or its disaster at the middle of the Cleveland administration were greater. As a matter of fact, the election of Cleveland in 1892

was not a great indorsement of the Democratic party. Neither was the overthrow of that party, two years afterwards, a popular indorsement of the Republican party. Both of these great elections were in the nature of rebukes administered by a dissatisfied and ultimately independent people, first to one party and then to another.

The beginning of the second administration of Cleveland, or rather the close of the administration of his predecessor, may be noted as the date from which the imperialistic tendency in the Government of the United States began to display itself. The first circumstance which led to this baleful sentiment was the agitation relative to the annexation of Hawaii. During the administration of Harrison, a so-called American party had appeared among the Hawaiians, favoring the abolition of the native monarchy and scheming to accomplish that result. Ostensibly the purpose was to institute a republic in the islands, and the ultimate design was the undisguised project of annexing the islands to the United States.

This policy had the support of the administration of Harrison. A Hawaiian insurrection broke out, and Queen Liliuokalani was dethroned. A treaty of annexation was prepared, and the movement for joining the islands to the United States was under full way when Cleveland came again into the Presidency. His policy differed from that of his predecessor. He sent his agent, Blount, to Hawaii, to report on the political conditions there present. The request was made that the proposed treaty of annexation be returned to the State Department at Washington. On the 14th of April, 1893, came the report of Blount, which was so adverse to the policy hitherto pursued by our Government that the President ordered a protectorate of the United States, which had been established over Hawaii, to be withdrawn. On the 27th of May, the American flag, which had been run up over the public buildings at Honolulu, and had briefly floated there, was pulled down, and the affairs of the island were remanded to native authority. For a time it appeared that the queen would be restored; but the Republican party had now become so strong that the insular monarchy could not be set up again. A republic was presently established by the Hawaiians, led by the Americans resident in the island, and Sanford Dole, an American, was elected President.

Meanwhile, a very serious complication arose between the United States and Great Britain. The bone of contention was the seal fisheries in Behring Sea. In that remote water a dangerous controversy had broken out between the vessels of the United States

and those of Great Britain. Acts of violence occurred. The claim of the United States to the exclusive jurisdiction and right of American sealers to ply their vocation from the seal islands seaward to the deep waters of Behring Sea was disputed by the British sailors. Our Government was disposed to hold that the doctrine of *mare clausum*, or the "shut-up-sea," held in this case, while Great Britain — turning from her ancient policy of the shut sea to the doctrine of *mare liberum*, or "free sea" — now espoused the principle which the United States had previously maintained.

The ravages of the ships of both nations in the deep waters had already greatly reduced the seal product in Behring Sea, and threatened the extinction of the valuable industry. On the 29th of February, 1892, a treaty had been signed at Washington between the two powers, agreeing to refer the controversy to an International Board of Arbitration. The court thus provided convened on the 23d of March, at Paris, and it was agreed that a temporary understanding called the *modus vivendi*, regulating the conduct of the nations, should be extended to the 31st of October, 1893. The final result was a decision against the United States on the main question at issue, namely, that our Government could not extend its authority to the open waters of the Behring Sea. An award of damages to the extent of \$425,000 was also made against the United States.

The latter part of the year 1894 was notable for the alarming difficulties which continued to disturb the relations of capital and labor. The proprietors of the great manufacturing establishments aligned themselves in hostile attitude. Strikes and lockouts prevailed in those cities where the large manufactories were situated. On the 17th of July, ten thousand workmen in the great textile factories of New Bedford, Mass., struck against a reduction of wages, and soon afterward no fewer than twenty-three thousand operatives at Fall River were locked out by the managers. Then came the strike of the journeymen tailors of New York City, which was long continued, and disastrous alike to employers and employees. In the latter part of January, 1895, a dreadful strike occurred of the employees of the electrical street-car companies of Brooklyn. In this movement about twenty-five thousand men were involved. Notwithstanding the well-known fact that the principle for which the workmen contended was just, the public necessity of having the cars operated, and the combined powers of organization and wealth calling upon the authorities, municipal and military, of the city to

put down the strikers and rioters, prevailed, and the strike was suppressed — not, however, until several serious conflicts, involving the loss of life and great distress to the people, had occurred.

Still more alarming than these disturbances was an event occurring in the latter part of June, 1894. The coal strike had practically ended on the eighteenth of that month. The losses entailed upon the coal-mine owners and the operatives were estimated at ten millions of dollars. No sooner had this difficulty been adjusted than the American Railway Union, a powerful organization of operatives, declared a boycott against the Pullman Palace Car Company, having its offices and manufacturing establishments at the town of Pullman, near Chicago. The boycott was proclaimed as an act of sympathy with the striking employees of the Pullman Company. A demand for arbitration was made, but was refused by the Pullmans, and the strike ensued as a consequence.

Notwithstanding the enormous profits of the Pullman corporation, regularly declared on a capital which had been watered until it was *more than twelve times as great as at first*, the wages of the employees had been time and again reduced, and other oppressive measures had been taken, until the operatives were brought to the verge of desperation.

When the workmen struck against further oppression, the Railway Union declared the boycott against the cars, and immediately a tremendous array of power was exhibited on both sides of the controversy. A great blockade of railway freight and of passenger trains on the roads centering in Chicago was established. The mails in some cases were delayed. The strike spread as far as San Francisco, and in two days traffic was practically suspended. The organic forces of society now rallied. On the 2d of July, the United States Courts in Chicago issued sweeping injunctions against the strikers. Regular troops under command of General Miles were sent to the scene to suppress rioting. On the 6th of July a great riot occurred; many were killed, and two hundred and twenty-five cars were burned.

At this juncture Eugene V. Debs, President of the American Railway Union, and his fellow-officers were arrested. A proclamation was issued on the 8th of July by the President of the United States, ordering a division of the regular army to suppress the riots in California. Gradually the strikers were put down by force, and by the middle of the month the movement was at an end.

Soon afterward a commission, headed by Hon. Carroll D.

Wright, was appointed by the President of the United States to investigate the origin, character and results of the strike. By this commission the true nature of the event was discovered and established. The report showed that the whole blame for the disaster rested upon the Pullman Company, and that the strikers, except in a very few desultory instances, had not been guilty of either breaking the law or doing other violence to society. In the course of a few months, Debs and his fellow-officers of the American Railway Union were brought to trial for an alleged contempt of court, in not answering a summons thereof; for this they were convicted and sent to prison.

The death list of eminent men during the administration of Harrison and the second administration of Cleveland was long and portentous. A great number of prominent Americans passed away in this interval. On the 16th of November, 1893, Ex-President James McCosh, of Princeton College, died, at the age of eighty-three. On the 13th of the following April, David Dudley Field, of New York, one of the most distinguished jurists of the United States, expired at the advanced age of eighty-nine. On the following day, Senator Zebulon B. Vance, of North Carolina, passed away, aged sixty-four; and at nearly the same hour, General Henry W. Slocum, who had reached his sixty-seventh year, died in Brooklyn. On the 7th of June, Dr. William Dwight Whitney, the greatest philologist of our country, passed away at the age of sixty-seven.

On the 20th of February, 1895, the distinguished Frederick Douglass died at his home in Washington. He had long been recognized as the leading African of the world. Since the days of Toussaint l'Ouverture, no man of black visage in any part of the world had been the peer of Frederick Douglass. At the time of his death he had entered his seventy-ninth year. It would appear that although white blood mingled with the Nigritian in his veins, he was nevertheless a true African. His attainments were remarkable. His patriotism was as conspicuous as his humanity. Born a slave, he had lived to become one of the greatest leaders of his epoch. Having on his shoulders the cruel marks of the driver's lash, he had in his brain, none the less, the visions of the dawn, and in his soul all the music of the song-birds of freedom.

The American system of organizing territories, peopling and developing them, and then admitting them into the Union on a perfect equality with the older States was fully and successfully

illustrated during the period under consideration. In the early summer of 1894 an act was passed to enable Utah to become a State, and this act was signed by President Cleveland on the 17th of July. A constitution was prepared and voted on by the people. This being found to accord with the Constitution of the United States, and to comply with the provisions of the Edmunds Law, that State, after remaining for forty years in the Territorial condition, was formally admitted into the Union on the 6th of January, 1895.

We may not pass from the history of this period — intended as it is to mark the most important events in the last quarter of the century and to illustrate the progress of civilization in the great Northwest — without noting one circumstance of disastrous character. This was the destruction of great forests by fires. Perhaps some changes of climate in the forest region, and the encroachments of the civilized life upon the natural state of the world, tended to superinduce conflagrations of the kind referred to. On several occasions, in the States of Michigan, Wisconsin and Minnesota, these fires have broken out, spreading from neighborhood to neighborhood, and from county to county, devastating the country for many square miles, and leaving nothing behind but earth and ashes.

On the 10th of September, 1894, one of these fires broke out in Northern Michigan, and raged for about a week. For two or three days the conflagration was appalling. The forests were swept down like fields of stubble. Similar fires occurred in Wisconsin and in parts of Minnesota. In the last-named State the towns of Hinckley and Mission Creek were utterly destroyed. So sudden and dreadful was the visitation that in these two towns alone three hundred and fifty persons perished in the flames. In the various neighborhoods that were ruined by these conflagrations, it was estimated that from 1,200 to 1,500 lives were lost. The destruction of property was quite incalculable.

In his message to the Fifty-third Congress, which had entered upon its work on the 3d of December, 1895, President Cleveland recommended the increase of the American army to its full legal strength of 25,000 men. He also indorsed the project for building additional battle-ships and torpedo-boats, thus following the line of policy laid down nearly twenty years previously by Samuel J. Tilden. It was one of the peculiarities of public opinion, at this time, that it seemed to fall back upon the notion of making strong the Republic by increasing its military power — this in the face of the well-known fact that such preparations are a sign of decadence rather than of strength.