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Contact

Niedersächsische Staats- und Universitätsbibliothek Göttingen
Georg-August-Universität Göttingen
Platz der Göttinger Sieben 1
37073 Göttingen
Germany
Email: gdz@sub.uni-goettingen.de

INTRODUCTION.

I. Money. Expenses. Passports. Custom House. Time.

Money. The currency of the United States is arranged on a decimal system, of which the dollar ($), divided into 100 cents (c.), is the unit. The *Gold* coins are the pieces of $1, $2½, $5, $10, and $20. The *Silver* coins are the dollar, half-dollar, quarter dollar (= 1*s*.) and 'dime' (10c.). The 5c. piece or 'nickel' is made of *Nickel* (silver 5 c. pieces still occasionally seen), and there are *Bronze* pieces of 1 c. (½*d*.) and 2c. (1*d*.). The 3c. piece (nickel) is no longer coined. The U. S. *Paper Currency* consists of Gold Notes (of the denomination of $20, $50, $100, $500, $1000, $5000, and $10,000), United States Notes ('greenbacks'), U. S. Treasury Notes, and Silver Certificates. The last three are issued for $1, $2, $5, $10, $20, $50, $100, $500, and $1000. All are redeemable at par. The *National Bank Bills* (from $5 to $100) are also universally current. Throughout nearly the whole of the country notes are much more common than coins for all sums of $1 and upwards, but in California gold and silver are in almost exclusive use. For practical purposes the dollar may be reckoned as 4*s*. and $5 as 1*l*.; but the actual rate of exchange for 1*l*. is generally between $4 80 and $4 90 (or $1 = about 4*s*. 2*d*.).

The European visitor to the United States will find it convenient to carry his money in the form of letters of credit, or circular notes, which are readily procurable at the principal banks. Foreign money does not circulate in the United States, even the Canadian coins of exactly the same form and value as American coins being generally refused; but Bank of England notes are usually taken at their full value at the hotels of all the larger cities. — Post Office Orders (see p. xxviii) are not convenient for strangers, as evidence of identity is generally required before payment, though this may be waived by the remitter, but most of the large Express Companies (see pp. xxviii, 15) issue Money Orders that are cashed at sight in the same way as Post Office Orders in Great Britain. The cheques of the Cheque Bank are also convenient.

Expenses. The expenses of a visit to the United States depend, of course, on the habits and tastes of the traveller, but are almost inevitably from one-fourth to one-third higher than those of European travel. The distances to be traversed are so great that railway-fares are sure to be absolutely, even when not relatively, higher (comp. p. xxi), and comfortable hotels of the second or third class are comparatively rare. Persons of moderate requirements, however, by frequenting boarding-houses instead of hotels and avoiding carriage-hire as much as possible, may travel comfortably (exclusive of long continuous journeys) for $5-7½ (20-30*s*.)

a day, but it would be safer to reckon on a daily expenditure of at least $10 (2*l.*). An entire day (24 hrs.) spent on the train (*i.e.* a journey of 500-800 M.) costs, with Pullman car accommodation and meals, about $20 (4*l.*). The cost of living varies considerably in different parts of the country, and New York, where most visitors land, is one of the most expensive cities in America. Comp. pp. xxvi, 9.

Passports, though not necessary in the United States, may be useful in procuring delivery of registered and poste restante letters.

Custom House. The custom-house examination of the luggage of travellers entering the United States is generally conducted courteously but often with considerable minuteness. Nothing is admitted free of duty except the personal effects of the traveller, and unusually liberal supplies of unworn clothing are apt to be regarded with considerable suspicion. Residents of the United States may not introduce free clothing or other personal effects purchased abroad of a greater total value than $100. The traveller should be careful to 'declare' everything he has of a dutiable nature, as otherwise it is liable to summary confiscation (comp. p. xix).

Time. For the convenience of railways and others a *Standard of Time* for the United States was agreed upon in 1883, and a system adopted by which the country was divided into four sections, each of 15° of longitude (1 hr.). *Eastern Time*, or that of the 75th Meridian, prevails from the Atlantic Coast to a line running through Detroit, Buffalo, Pittsburg, and Charleston. *Central Time* (of Meridian 90), 1 hr. slower, extends thence to a line running from Bismarck (N.D.) to the mouth of the Rio Grande. *Mountain Time* (105° lon.) extends to the W. borders of Idaho, Utah, and Arizona. *Pacific Time* (120°) covers the rest of the country. Thus noon at New York is 11 a.m. at Chicago, 10 a.m. at Denver, and 9 a.m. at San Francisco. True local or mean solar time may be anywhere from 1 min. to 30 min. ahead or behind the standard time. In some cases, where the local clocks keep true time and the railway clocks keep standard time, the results are confusing; but the new system is a vast improvement on the former multiplicity of standards, and railway time, except near the dividing lines, is now universally employed locally.

II. Voyage from Europe to the United States.

The chief routes from Europe to the United States are indicated in R. 1 (comp. also p. 6); and the steamers of any of the companies there mentioned afford comfortable accommodation and speedy transit. The fares vary considerably according to season and the character of the vessel, but the extremes for a saloon-passage may be placed at $50 (10*l.*) and $500 (100*l.*), the latter sum securing a suite of deck-rooms on the largest, finest, and quickest boats in the service. The average rate for a good stateroom in a good

steamer may be reckoned at $75-125 (15-25*l.*). The intermediate or second cabin costs $30-65 (6-13*l.*), the steerage $20-30 (4-6*l.*). The slowest steamers, as a general rule, have the lowest fares; and for those who do not object to a prolongation of the voyage they often offer as much comfort as the 'ocean greyhounds.'

The average duration of the passage across the Atlantic is 6-9 days. Passengers should pack clothing and other necessaries for the voyage in small flat boxes (*not* portmanteaus), such as can lie easily in the cabin, as all bulky luggage is stowed away in the hold. Stateroom trunks should not exceed 3 ft. in length, 1½-2 ft. in breadth, and 15 inches in height. Trunks not wanted on board should be marked 'Hold' or 'Not Wanted', the others 'Cabin' or 'Wanted'. The steamship companies generally provide labels for this purpose. Dress for the voyage should be of a plain and serviceable description, and it is advisable, even in midsummer, to be provided with warm clothing. A deck-chair, which may be purchased or hired (4*s.*) before sailing, is a luxury that may almost be called a necessary. If bought, it should be distinctly marked with the owner's name or initials, and may be left in charge of the Steamship Co.'s agents until the return-journey. On going on board, the traveller should apply to the purser or chief steward for a seat at table, as the same seats are retained throughout the voyage. It is usual to give a fee of 10*s.* (2½ dollars) to the table-steward and to the stateroom-steward, and small gratuities are also expected by the boot-cleaner, the bath-steward, etc. The stateroom steward should not be 'tipped' until he has brought all the passenger's small baggage safely on to the landing-stage. — Landing at New York, cc pp. 3, 6.

The custom-house officer usually boards vessels at the Quarantine Station (see p. 2) and furnishes blank forms on which the passengers 'declare' any dutiable articles they may have in their trunks. The luggage is examined in the covered hall adjoining the wharf, where it is arranged as far as possible in alphabetical order by the initials of the owners' names (comp. p. 6). After the examination the traveller may hire a carriage to take himself and his baggage to his destination, or he may send his trunks by a transfer-agent or express man (see p. xxii) and go himself on foot or by tramway. Telegraph messengers and representatives of hotels also meet the steamers.

III. Railways. Steamers. Coaches. Tramways.

Railways. The United States now contain about 185,000 M. of railway, or nearly as much as all the rest of the world put together. The lines are all in private hands, and the capital invested in them amounts to about $11,000,000,000 (2,200,000,000 *l.*). Nearly 50 corporations report over 1000 M. of track each, while the Chicago & North Western System alone operates almost 8000 M. The total number of employees is not far short of 900,000. The railway mileage per 1 sq.M. of surface varies in the different states from about $^3/_{10}$ M. in New Jersey and Massachusetts to about $^1/_{120}$ M. in Nevada. Illinois has about 10,500 M. of railway, Rhode Island about 220 M. In 1896 the number of passengers carried was 511,772,737 and the average distance travelled by each was about 25 M.

The equipments of American railways are, as is well known, very different from those of European railways. Instead of comparatively small coaches, divided into compartments holding 6-8 people each, the American railways have long cars (like an enlarged tramway-car), holding 60-70 pers., entered by doors at each end, and having a longitudinal passage down the middle, with the seats on each side of it. Each seat has room for

two passengers. Local and short-distance trains, especially in the East, generally have one class of carriage only, but all long-distance trains are also furnished with drawing-room (parlor) cars by day and sleeping cars at night, which accommodate about 24-30 people in the same space as the ordinary cars and are in every way much more comfortable. Second-class and emigrant carriages are also found on some long-distance trains and in parts of the South and West, but scarcely concern the tourist. Smoking is not permitted except in the cars ('Smokers') specially provided for the purpose and generally found at the forward end of the train. Smoking compartments are also usually found in the parlor-cars. The parlor and sleeping cars are generally the property of special corporations, of which the Pullman and Wagner Palace Car Companies are the chief; but on a few railways they belong to the railway-company itself. The vexed question of whether the American or the European railway-carriage is the more comfortable is hard to decide. It may be said generally, however, that the small compartment system would never have done for the long journeys of America, while the parlor-cars certainly offer greater comfort in proportion to their expense than the European first-class carriages do. A *Limited Vestibuled Train*, such as that described at p. 305, comes measurably near the ideal of comfortable railway travelling, and reduces to a minimum the bodily discomfort and tedium of long railway-journeys. In comparing the ordinary American car with the second-class or the best third-class carriages of Europe, some travellers may be inclined to give the preference for short journeys to the latter. The seats in the American cars offer very limited room for two persons, and their backs are too low to afford any support to the head; a single crying infant or spoiled child annoys 60-70 persons instead of the few in one compartment; the passenger has little control over his window, as someone in the car is sure to object if he opens it; the window opens upward instead of downward; the continual opening and shutting of the doors, with the consequent draughts, are annoying; the incessant visitation of the train-boy, with his books, candy, and other articles for sale, renders a quiet nap almost impossible; while, in the event of an accident, there are only two exits for 60 people instead of six or eight. On the other hand the liberty of moving about the car, or, in fact, from end to end of the train, the toilette accommodation, and the amusement of watching one's fellow-passengers greatly mitigate the tedium of a long journey; while the publicity prevents any risk of the railway crimes sometimes perpetrated in the separate compartments of the European system. Rugs, as a rule, are not necessary, as the cars are apt to be over, rather than under, heated. Little accommodation is provided in the way of luggage-racks, so that travellers should reduce their hand-baggage to the smallest possible dimensions. — In the sleeping-car the passenger engages a *Half-Section*, consisting of a so-called 'double berth', which, however, is rarely used by more than one person. If desirous of more air and space, he may engage a whole *Section* (at double the rate of a half-section), but in many cases a passenger is not allowed to monopolize a whole section to the exclusion of those not otherwise able to find accommodation. Parties of 2-4 may secure *Drawing Rooms*, or private compartments. A lower berth is generally considered preferable to an upper berth, as it is easier to get into and commands the window; but, by what seems a somewhat illiberal regulation of the sleeping-car companies, the upper berth is always let down, whether occupied or not, unless the whole section is paid for. So far nothing has been done towards reserving a special part of the car for ladies, except in the shape of a small toilette and dressing room. — *Dining Cars* are often attached to long-distance trains, and the meals and service upon them are generally better than those of the railway-restaurants. The charge for a meal is usually $1, sometimes 75 c. In the few instances where the *à la carte* system is in vogue, the prices are comparatively high; and this is also true of refreshments furnished from the buffets of sleeping or parlor cars. — *Tickets* are collected on the train by the *Conductor* (guard), who sometimes gives counter-checks in exchange for them. Separate tickets are issued for the seats in parlor-cars and the berths in sleeping-cars; and such cars

generally have special conductors. Fees are never given except to the coloured *Porters* of the parlor-cars, who brush the traveller's clothes and (on overnight journeys) boots and expect about 25c. a day. In America the traveller is left to rely upon his own common sense still more freely than in England, and no attempt is made to take care of him in the patriarchal fashion of Continental railways. He should, therefore, be careful to see that he is in his proper car, etc. The conductor calls 'all aboard', when the train is about to start, but on many lines no warning bell is rung. The names of the places passed are often not shown distinctly (sometimes not at all) at the stations, and the brakeman, whose duty it is to announce each station as the train reaches it, is apt to be entirely unintelligible. A special word of caution may be given as to the frequent necessity for crossing the tracks, as the rails are often flush with the floor of the station and foot bridges or tunnels are rarely provided. Each locomotive carries a large bell, which is tolled as it approaches stations or level ('grade') crossings. — With the exception of the main line trains in the Eastern States, the speed of American trains is generally lower than that of English trains; and over a large portion of the South and West it does not exceed 20-25 M. per hour even for through-trains.

Fares vary so much in different parts of the country, that it is difficult to state an average. Perhaps 3-4 c (1½-2 *d*) per mile will be found nearly correct on the whole, though in E. states the rate is frequently lower, especially for season, 'commutation' (good for so many trips), or mileage tickets, while in the S. and W 4 c. is often exceeded. The extra rate for the palace-cars (½-1 c. per mile) is low as compared with the difference between the first and third class fares in England, and the extra comfort afforded is very great. Return-tickets ('excursion' or 'round trip' tickets) are usually issued at considerable reductions (comp. also p xxv). The 1000 M. Tickets, from which the conductor collects coupons representing the number of miles travelled, is a convenient arrangement which European railways might do well to imitate. A distinction is frequently made between 'Limited' and 'Unlimited' tickets, the former and cheaper admitting of continuous passage only, without 'stopovers'; and the latter being available until used and admitting of 'stopovers' at any place on the route. Tickets may sometimes be obtained at lower than the regulation rates at the offices of the so-called 'Scalpers', found in all large towns; but the stranger should hardly attempt to deal with them unless aided by a friendly expert. In some states their business is illegal. Railway-fares change more frequently in the United States than in Europe, so that the continued accuracy of those given throughout the Handbook cannot be guaranteed. — At the railway-stations the place of the first, second, and third class waiting-rooms of Europe is taken by a *Ladies' Room*, to which men are also generally admitted if not smoking, and a *Men's Room*, in which smoking is often permitted.

Among the American *Railway Terms* with which the traveller should be familiar (in addition to those already incidentally mentioned) are the following. *Railroad* is generally used instead of railway (the latter term being more often applied to street-railways, *i.e.* tramways), while the word 'Road' alone is often used to mean railroad. The carriages are called *Cars*. The *Conductor* (often addressed as 'Captain' in the South and West) is aided by *Brakemen*, whose duties include attention to the heating and lighting of the cars. A slow train is called an *Accommodation* or *Way Train*. The *Ticket Office* is never called booking-office. Luggage is *Baggage*, and is expedited through the *Baggage Master* (see p. xxii). *Depot* is very commonly used instead of station, and in many places the latter word, when used alone, means police-station. Other terms in common use are: *turn-out* = siding; *bumper* = buffer; *box-car* = closed goods car; *caboose* = guard's van; *freight-train* = goods train; *cars* = train; *to pull out* = to start; *way station* = small, wayside station; *cow-catcher* = fender in front of engine; *switch* = shunt; *switches* = points.

The railway-system of the United States is so vast that it is impracticable to produce such complete *Railway Guides* as those of European countries. The fullest is the *Travellers Official Guide*, a bulky volume

of 8-900 pp., published monthly at New York (50 c.). Other general monthly guides are *Rand-McNally's* (40 c.) and *Appleton's* (25 c.). Local collections of time-tables are everywhere procurable, and those of each railway-company may be obtained gratis at the ticket-office and in hotels. All the more important railway-companies publish a mass of 'folders' and descriptive pamphlets, which are distributed gratis and give a great deal of information about the country traversed. These are often very skilfully prepared and well illustrated.

Luggage. Each passenger on an American railway is generally entitled to 150 lbs. of luggage ('baggage') free; but overweight, unless exorbitant, is seldom charged for. The so-called *Check System* makes the management of luggage very simple. On arrival at the station the traveller shows his railway-ticket and hands over his impedimenta to the Baggage Master, who fastens a small numbered tag, made of brass or cardboard, to each article and gives the passenger brass or cardboard 'checks' with corresponding numbers. The railway-company then becomes responsible for the luggage and holds it until reclaimed at the passenger's destination by the presentation of the duplicate check. As the train approaches the larger cities, a *Transfer Agent* usually walks through the cars, undertaking the delivery of luggage and giving receipts in exchange for the checks. The charge for this is usually 25 c. per package, and it is thus more economical (though a composition may sometimes be effected for a number of articles) to have one large trunk instead of two or three smaller ones. The hotel-porters who meet the train will also take the traveller's checks and see that his baggage is delivered at the hotel. In starting, the trunks may be sent to the railway-station in the same way, either through a transfer agent or the hotel-porter; and if the traveller already has his railway-ticket they may be checked through from the house or hotel to his destination, even though that be at the other side of the continent, 3000 M. away. Baggage, unaccompanied by its owner, may be sent to any part of the country by the *Express Companies* (comp. p. 15), which charge in proportion to weight and distance. The drawbacks to the transfer system are that the baggage must usually be ready to be called for before the traveller himself requires to start, and that sometimes (especially in New York) a little delay may take place in its delivery, but this may, of course, be avoided by the more expensive plan of using a carriage between the house and railway-station.

Steamers. Some of the American steamers, such as the Fall River and Hudson boats (pp. 74, 161), offer comforts and luxuries such as are scarcely known in Europe, and their fares are usually moderate. Where the fare does not include a separate stateroom, the traveller by night will find the extra expenditure for one ($1-2) more than compensated. Meals are sometimes included in the fare and are sometimes served either *à la carte* or at a fixed price. Throughout the Handbook the traveller will find indicated the routes on which he may advantageously prefer the steamer to the railway.

Coaches, usually called *Stages*, and in some country-places *Barges*, have now been replaced by railways throughout nearly the whole of the United States, but in places like the Yosemite (p. 506), the Yellowstone (p. 427), and some of the other mountainous and rural districts the traveller is still dependent on this mode of conveyance. The roads are generally so bad, that the delights of coaching as known in England are for the most part conspicuously absent. The speed seldom exceeds 6 M. an hour and is sometimes less than this. The fares are relatively high.

Carriages. Carriage-hire is very high in the United States in

spite of the fact that both the price of horses and their keep are usually lower than in England. Fares vary so much that it is impossible to give any general approximation, but they are rarely less than twice as high as in Europe. When the traveller drives himself in a 'buggy' or other small carriage, the rates are relatively much lower.

Electric Tramways. Most of the cities of the United States now possess excellent systems of electric tramways, which enable the tourist to visit all the points of interest, urban and suburban, at a minimum expenditure of time and money.

IV. Plan of Tour.

The plan of tour must depend entirely on the traveller's taste and the time he has at his disposal. It is manifestly impossible to cover more than a limited section of so vast a territory in an ordinary travelling season, but the enormous distances are practically much diminished by the comfortable arrangements for travelling at night (comp. p. xx). Among the grandest natural features of the country, one or other of which should certainly be visited if in any wise practicable, are Niagara Falls (R. 29), the Yellowstone Park (R. 85), the Yosemite Valley (R. 102), Alaska (R. 106), and the Grand Cañon of the Colorado (p. 466). Along with these may be mentioned the cañons, mountains, and fantastic rocks of Colorado (RR. 93, 94), the grand isolated snow-covered volcanic cones of the Pacific coast (pp. 426, 446, 514, etc.), the Mammoth Cave of Kentucky (p. 356), the Cavern of Luray (p. 379), the Natural Bridge of Virginia (p. 380), and the Shoshoné Falls (p. 444). Among the most easily accessible regions of fine scenery are the Adirondacks (R. 25), including the Ausable Chasm (p. 187), the White Mts. (R. 16), the Catskills (R. 24), Mt. Desert (R. 11), the Hudson (R. 21), and the Delaware Water Gap (p. 215). Visitors to the S., besides the climate and vegetation, will find much to repay them, especially in such quaint old cities as New Orleans (R. 83). California (RR. 95-104) abounds in objects of interest and beauty. The trip into Mexico (RR. 107-111) is well worth the making. Travellers who make the trip to the Pacific Coast and back will do well so to plan their journey as to include the wonderful scenery of the Denver & Rio Grande Railroad (R. 94), as well as a trip into the Yellowstone Park, while the W. part of the Canadian Pacific Railway, between Vancouver and Banff (about 600 M.; see *Baedeker's Canada*), offers the grandest railway scenery in North America. Most of the larger cities have their own special points of interest, and a visit to the national capital (p. 275) should by all means be made.

Where the territory included is so vast and the possible combinations of tours so endless, it may seem almost useless to attempt to draw up any specimen tours. The following, however, though not intrinsically better than hundreds of others, may serve to give the traveller some idea

of the distances to be traversed and of the average expenses of locomotion. It is, perhaps, needless to say that the traveller will enjoy himself better if he content himself with a less rapid rate of progress than that here indicated. A daily outlay of $10-12 will probably cover all the regular travelling expenses on the under-noted tours; and this rate may be much diminished by longer halts.

a. A Week from New York.

(Railway Expenses about $40.)

	Days
New York to *Albany* by steamer (R. 21a)	1
Albany to *Buffalo* and *Niagara Falls* (RR. 28, 29)	1½
Niagara Falls to *Toronto* (see *Baedeker's Canada*)	½
Toronto to *Montreal* by Lake Ontario and the St Lawrence (R. 30)	1½
Montreal to *Boston* (RR. 15, 5)	2
Boston to *New York* (R. 4)	½
	7

Visits to the *Catskills* (R. 24), *Adirondacks* (R. 25), and *White Mts.* (R. 16) may easily be combined with the above tour. Or we may go from Montreal to *Quebec* (see *Baedeker's Canada*; ½ day) and thence to *Portland* (RR. 14, 9) or to Boston direct (R. 15).

b. A Fortnight from New York.

(Railway Fares about $ 60.)

New York to *Niagara Falls* as above (RR. 21, 28, 29)	2½
Niagara Falls to *Chicago* (R. 46)	1
Chicago (R. 48)	3
Chicago to *Washington* and at Washington (RR. 45, 43)	4
Washington to *Baltimore* (RR. 42, 41)	1
Baltimore to *Philadelphia* (R. 40)	½
Philadelphia, and back to *New York* (RR. 32, 31)	2
	14

c. Three Weeks from New York.

(Railway Fares about $ 120.)

New York to *Chicago* as above (RR. 21, 28, 29, 46)	6½
Chicago to *St. Louis* (RR. 56, 61)	1½
St. Louis to *New Orleans* (RR. 64, 83)	2
New Orleans to *Jacksonville* (RR. 82, 76)	2
Jacksonville to *St. Augustine* (R. 77)	1
St. Augustine to *Richmond* (RR. 76a, 66)	1½
Richmond to *Washington* (R. 66)	½
Washington, and back to *New York* as above (RR. 43, 42, 41, 32, 31)	5
	20

d. Six Weeks from New York.

(Railway Fares $ 300-350.)

New York to *Chicago* as above (RR. 21, 28, 29, 46)	6½
Chicago to *St. Paul* and *Minneapolis* (RR. 50, 51)	2
St. Paul to *Livingston* (R. 84)	1½
Yellowstone Park (R. 85)	6
Livingston to *Portland* (R. 84, 103)	2
Portland to *San Francisco* (R. 103)	1½
San Francisco, with excursions to *Monterey*, etc. (RR. 95, 96)	5
San Francisco to the *Yosemite* and back (RR. 97, 102)	4
San Francisco to *Salt Lake City* (RR. 89, 94)	3
Salt Lake City to *Denver* viâ the *Marshall Pass*, with excursions from *Colorado Springs* to *Manitou*, etc. (RR. 94, 93)	5½
Denver to *St. Louis* (RR. 91, 61)	2½
St Louis to *New York* (R. 60)	1½
	41

e. Two Months from New York.

(Railway Fares $ 350-400)	Days
To *San Francisco* as above (RR. 21, 28, 29, 46, 50, 51, 84, 85, 103, 95, 96)	24½
San Francisco to the *Yosemite* (RR. 97, 102)	3½
Yosemite to *Los Angeles* (*Pasadena*, etc.; RR. 97, 98, 99)	3½
Los Angeles viâ *Barstow* and *Flagstaff* to the *Grand Cañon of the Colorado* (RR 99, 93b)	3
Flagstaff to *Colorado Springs* (*Manitou*, etc.), with excursion to *Marshall Pass* from *Pueblo* (RR 93b, 94)	3
Colorado Springs to *Denver* (RR. 94, 93a)	1
Excursions from Denver (R. 93a)	3
Denver to *Kansas City* and *St. Louis* (R 91)	2½
St. Louis to *Cincinnati* (R 60d)	1½
Cincinnati to *Washington* (R 58d)	1
Washington, and thence to *New York* as in R b (RR. 43, 42, 41, 40, 32, 31)	6½
	55

The following table of the distances from New York of a few important points, together with the present railway fares and approximate length of the journey, may not be without interest. The fares are for first-class 'limited' tickets, but do not include sleeping-car rates.

San Francisco: distance 3500 M., fare $ 75-82; time of transit 4½-5½ days. — *Chicago:* 912-1048 M.; $ 18-20; 24-32 hrs. — *New Orleans:* 1370 M.; $ 31-34; 40 hrs. — *Jacksonville* (Florida): 999-1014 M.; $ 29-30; 25-35 hrs. — *Cincinnati:* 760 M.; $ 16-18; 22-26 hrs. — *St. Louis:* 1060 M.; $ 21-27; 30-35 hrs. — *St. Paul:* 1330 M.; $ 28-31; 37 hrs. — *Denver:* 2100 M.; $ 45-50; 2½ days. — *Kansas City:* 1400 M.; $ 29-32; 35 hrs. — *Montreal:* 400 M.; $ 10; 12-15 hr. — *Philadelphia:* 90 M.; $ 2½; 2-2½ hrs. — *Washington* 228 M.; $ 6½; 5-6½ hrs. — *Boston:* 215-230 M.; $ 5; 5-6 hrs. — *Richmond:* 345 M.; $ 9-10; 10 hrs. — *Salt Lake City:* 2475-2850 M.; $ 58-62; 3-4 days. — *Los Angeles:* 3400 M.; $ 79-82; 5-5½ days. — *Niagara Falls:* 460 M.; $ 8-10; 9-12 hrs.

Excursion Agents. Travellers may sometimes find it advantageous to avail themselves of the facilities for tours in the United States offered by *Messrs. Raymond & Whitcomb* (296 Washington St., Boston, and 31 E. 14th St., New York), *Thomas Cook & Son* (261 and 1225 Broadway, New York), and *H. Gaze & Sons* (113 Broadway, New York). These firms have agencies in all the most frequented resorts throughout the country. Raymond & Whitcomb arrange for a large series of excursions in special vestibuled trains, under the care of one of their representatives, which relieve the inexperienced traveller of almost all the inconveniences of a journey in a strange land. The arrangements are made so as to afford the widest possible freedom of movement in every way, and the charges are reasonable. For the Raymond trip into Mexico, see p. 537. — Most of the railway-companies issue tickets for circular tours on favourable conditions, and some of them (such as the Pennsylvania R.R. and the Burlington Route) also arrange personally conducted excursions in special trains.

The **Pedestrian** is unquestionably the most independent of travellers, but, except in a few districts such as the Adirondacks (p. 183) and the White Mts. (p. 134), walking tours are not much in vogue in the United States, where, indeed, the extremes of temperature and the scarcity of well-marked footpaths often offer considerable obstacles. For a short tour a couple of flannel shirts, a pair of worsted stockings, slippers, the articles of the toilet, a light waterproof, and a stout umbrella will generally be found a sufficient equipment. Strong and well-tried boots are essential to comfort. Heavy and complicated knapsacks should be avoided; a light pouch or game-bag is far less irksome, and its position may be shifted at pleasure. A more extensive reserve of clothing should not exceed the limits of a small *portmanteau*, which may be forwarded from town to town by express.

V. Hotels and Restaurants.

Hotels. The quality of the hotels of the United States varies very greatly in different localities; but it is, perhaps, safe to say that the best American houses will be found fully as comfortable as the first-class hotels of Europe by all who can accommodate themselves to the manners of the country and do not demand everything precisely as they have been used to it at home. The luxury of some of the leading American hotels is, indeed, seldom paralleled in Europe. The charges are little, if at all, higher than those of the best European houses; but the comforts often afforded by the smaller and less pretentious inns of the old country can seldom be looked for from American houses of the second or third class, and the traveller who wishes to economize will find boarding-houses (see p. xxvii) preferable. When ladies are of the party, it is advisable to frequent the best hotels only. The hotels of the South, except where built and managed by Northern enterprize, are apt to be poor and (in proportion to their accommodation) dear; many of the hotels in the West, on the other hand, even in the newest cities, are astonishingly good, and California contains some of the best and cheapest hotels in the United States. The food is generally abundant and of good quality, though the cuisine is unequal (comp. p. xxvii). Beds are almost uniformly excellent. The quality of the service varies.

A distinction is made between *Hotels on the American Plan*, in which a fixed charge is made per day for board and lodging, and *Hotels on the European Plan*, in which a fixed charge is made for rooms only, while meals are taken *à la carte* either in the hotel or elsewhere. No separate charge is made for service. The European system is becoming more and more common in the larger cities, especially in the East; but the American plan is universal in the smaller towns and country-districts. Many hotels in the large cities offer a choice of systems. The rate of hotels on the American plan varies from about $5 per day in the best houses down to $2 per day or even less in the smaller towns; and $3-4 a day will probably be found about the average rate on an ordinary tour. The charge for a room at a good hotel on the European plan is from $1 upwards. Many of the American hotels vary their rate according to the room, and where two prices are mentioned in the Handbook the traveller should indicate the rate he wishes to pay. Most of the objections to rooms on the upper floor are obviated by the excellent service of 'elevators' (lifts). Very large reductions are made by the week or for two persons occupying the same room; and very much higher prices may be paid for extra accommodation. Throughout the Handbook the insertion of a price behind the name of a hotel ($5) means its rate on the American plan; where the hotel is on the European plan (exclusively or alternatively) the price of the room is indicated (R. from $1). The above rates include all the ordinary requirements of hotel-life, and no 'extras' appear in the bill. The custom of giving fees to the servants is by no means so general as in Europe, though it is becoming more common in the Eastern States. Even there, however, it is practically confined to a small gratuity to the porter and, if the stay is prolonged, an occasional 'refresher' to the regular waiter. In hotels on the American system the meals are usually served at regular hours (a latitude of about 2 hrs. being allowed for each). The daily charge is considered as made up of four items (room, breakfast, dinner, and supper), and the visitor should see that his bill begins with the first meal he takes. Thus, at a $4 a day house, if the traveller arrives before supper and leaves after breakfast the next day, his bill will be

$3; if he arrives after supper and leaves at the same time, $2; and so on. No allowance is made for absence from meals. Dinner is usually served in the middle of the day, except in large cities.

On reaching the hotel, the traveller enters the *Office*, a large and often comfortably fitted-up apartment, used as a general rendezvous and smoking room, not only by the hotel-guests, but often also by local residents. On one side of it is the desk of the *Hotel Clerk*, who keeps the keys of the bedrooms, supplies unlimited letter-paper gratis, and is supposed to be more or less omniscient on all points on which the traveller is likely to require information. Here the visitor enters his name in the 'register' kept for the purpose, and has his room assigned to him by the clerk, who details a 'bell-boy' to show him the way to his room and carry up his hand-baggage. If he has not already disposed of his 'baggage-checks' in the way described at p. xxii, he should now give them to the clerk and ask to have his trunks fetched from the station and sent up to his room. If he has already parted with his checks, he identifies his baggage in the hall when it arrives and tells the head-porter what room he wishes it sent to. On entering the dining-room the visitor is shown to his seat by the head-waiter, instead of selecting the first vacant seat that suits his fancy. The table-waiter then hands the guest the menu of the day, from which (in hotels on the American plan) he orders what he chooses. Many Americans order the whole of their meals at once, but this is by no means necessary except in primitive localities or inferior hotels. The key of the bedroom should always be left at the office when the visitor goes out. Guests do not leave their boots at the bedroom door to be blacked as in Europe (except in the first-class houses), but will find a 'boot-black' in the toilette-room (fee 10 c.; elsewhere 5 c.). Large American hotels also generally contain a barber's shop (shave 20-25 c.; elsewhere 15 c.), railway-ticket, express, telegraph, telephone, messenger-service, type-writing, theatrical, and livery offices, book-stalls, etc.

The following hints may be useful to hotel-keepers who wish to meet the tastes of European visitors. The wash-basins in the bedrooms should be much larger than is generally the case Two or three large towels are preferable to the half-dozen small ones usually provided. A carafe or jug of fresh drinking water (not necessarily iced) and a tumbler should always be kept in each bedroom. If it were possible to give baths more easily and cheaply, it would be a great boon to English visitors. At present a bath attached to a bedroom costs $1 (4*s.*) a day extra, while the charge for using the public bathroom is usually 35-75 c. (1*s.* 6*d.*-3*s.*). No hotel can be considered first class or receive an asterisk of commendation which refuses to supply food to travellers who are prevented from appearing at the regular meal hours.

Boarding Houses. For a stay of more than a day or two the visitor will sometimes find it convenient and more economical to live at a *Boarding House*. These abound everywhere and can easily be found on enquiry. Their rates vary from about $8 a week upwards. At many places the keepers of such houses also receive transient guests, and they are generally preferable to inferior hotels. — *Furnished Rooms* are easily procured in the larger cities, from $4-5 a week upwards (comp. p. 9). Soap, curiously enough, though provided in hotels. is not provided in boarding-houses or lodgings.

Restaurants. In New York and other large cities the traveller will find many excellent restaurants, but in other places he will do well to take his meals at his hotel or boarding-house. Restaurants are attached to all hotels on the European plan (p. xxvi). A single traveller will generally find the *à la carte* restaurants rather expensive, but one portion will usually be found enough for two guests

and two portions ample for three. The *table d'hôte* restaurants, on the other hand, often give excellent value for their charges (comp. p. 9).

Soup, fish, poultry, game, and sweet dishes are generally good; but the beef and mutton are often inferior to those of England. Oysters, served in a great variety of styles, are large, plentiful, and comparatively cheap. In America wine or beer is much less frequently drunk at meals than in Europe, and the visitor is not expected to order liquor 'for the good of the house'. Iced water is the universal beverage, and a cup of tea or coffee is included in all meals at a fixed price. Wine is generally poor or dear, and often both. It is much to be regretted that, outside of California, the native vintages, which are often superior to the cheap imported wines, seldom appear on the wine-list; and travellers will do good service by making a point of demanding Californian wines and expressing surprise when they cannot be furnished. Liquors of all kinds are sold at *Saloons* (public houses) and *Hotel Bars* (comp. p. 10). Restaurants which solicit the patronage of 'gents' should be avoided. The meals on dining-cars and 'buffet cars' are generally preferable to those at railway-restaurants. Tipping the waiter is, perhaps, not so general as in Europe, but is usually found serviceable where several meals are taken at the same place. Cafés, in the European sense, are seldom found in the United States except in New Orleans (p. 415) and a few other cities with a large French or German element in the population. The name, however, is constantly used as the equivalent of restaurant and is sometimes applied to first-class bar-rooms

VI. Post and Telegraph Offices.

Post Office. The regulations of the American postal service are essentially similar to those of Great Britain, though the practice of delivering letters at the houses of the addressees has not been systematically extended to the rural districts. The service is, perhaps, not quite so prompt and accurate. The supply of letter-boxes is generally abundant, but the number of fully equipped post-offices is much lower (proportionately) than in England. Stamps are sold at all drug-stores and hotels, and often by letter-carriers.

All 'mailable' matter for transmission within the United States and to Canada and Mexico is divided into four classes: 1st. Letters and all Sealed Packets (rate of postage 2 c. per oz. or fraction thereof); 2nd. Newspapers and Periodicals (1 c. per 4 oz.); 3rd. Books, etc. (1 c. per 2 oz.); 4th. Merchandise and Samples (1 c. per oz.). Postal cards 1 c.; reply postal cards 2 c. A 'special delivery stamp' (10 c.) affixed to a letter, in addition to the ordinary postage, entitles it to immediate delivery by special messenger within certain limits. Letters to countries in the Postal Union cost 5 c. per ½ oz., postal cards 2 c., books and newspapers 1 c. per 2 oz. The *Registration Fee* is 8 c.; the stamp must be affixed to the letter before presentation for registration, and the name and address of the sender must be written on the envelope. Undeliverable letters will be returned free to the sender, if a request to that effect be written or printed on the envelope.

Domestic Money Orders are issued by money-order post-offices for any amount up to $100, at the following rates: for sums not exceeding $ 2½, 3 c.; $ 2½-5, 5 c.; $ 5-10, 8 c.; $ 10-20, 10 c.; $ 20-30, 12 c.; $ 30-40, 15 c.; $ 40-50, 18 c.; $ 50-60, 20 c.; $ 60-75, 25 c.; $ 75-100, 30 c. For strangers these are not so convenient as the money-orders of the *Express Companies* (comp. p. xvii), as identification of the payee is demanded, unless this is specifically waived by the remitter. — *Foreign Money Orders* cost 10 c. for each $ 10.

Telegraph Offices. The telegraphs of the United States are mainly in the hands of the *Western Union Telegraph Co.*, with its headquarters in New York (p. 14), and the service is neither so

cheap nor so prompt and trustworthy as that of Great Britain. At the beginning of 1899 this company owned 189,847 M. of line and 874,420 M. of wire, while the number of despatches sent by it in 1898 was 62,173,749. The rates from New York are given at p. 15, and from them may be roughly estimated the probable rates from other parts of the country. — In 1897 the United States contained 536,845 M. of *Telephone Wires*, with 325,244 telephones (comp. p. 15). Telephones are in operation in all large, and many of the small, towns throughout the country.

VII. Glossary.

The following short list of words in frequent use in the United States in a sense not commonly known in England may be found of service. The speech of the cultivated American, of course, varies little from the speech of the cultivated Englishman, and no misunderstanding is likely to arise in their verbal intercourse; but it will not unfrequently be found that railway-officials, cabmen, waiters, and the like do not know what is meant by the British equivalents of the following expressions. It must not be understood that the under-noted words are all in use throughout the whole of the United States. A New Englander, for instance, may tell you that 'he never heard such a word', when you use a term in regular use by all classes in the West or South. The list, which might be extended indefinitely, does not attempt to enumerate the local names for different kinds of food, implements, etc.; nor does it mean to include words that are solely and avowedly 'slang'. Purely technical terms are also avoided. Comp. p. xxi (railway terms), p. xxvii, etc.

Bed-spread, coverlet, counterpane.
Biscuit, hot tea-rolls.
Bit (California and the South), 12½ c. (two bits 25 c., eight bits $ 1).
Blind, shutter.
Block, rectangular mass of building bounded by four streets.
Boots, used only of boots coming up wholly or nearly to the knee. Comp. *Shoes* and *Ties*.
Boss, master, head, person in authority.
Bowl, basin (set bowl, fixed in basin).
Bright, clever.
Broncho, native (Western) horse.
Bug, beetle, coleopterous insect of any kind.
Bureau, chest of drawers.
Burro (California and the South West), donkey.
Calico, printed cotton cloth.
Carom, cannon (at billiards).
Chore, odd job about a house done by a *man*.
Chowder, a kind of thick fish soup.
City, corporate town or municipal borough.
Clerk, shopman.
Clever, good-natured.
Corn, Maize or Indian corn.
Cracker, biscuit; also, in the Southern States, a poor white man.
Creek (pron. crick), a small stream.
Cunning, neat, pretty, tiny (mainly of children or small pet animals). *Cute* is often used in much the same sense.
Cuspidor, spittoon.
Cutter, light, one-horse sleigh.
Deck, pack of cards (used by Shakspeare).
Dirt, earth, soil (*e.g.*, a 'dirt tennis-court').
Drummer, commercial traveller.
Dry Goods, dress materials, drapery, etc.
Dumb, (often) stupid (Ger. *dumm*).
Elevator, lift.
Fall, autumn.
Fix, to arrange, make, put in order, settle, see to, etc.
Fleshy, stout.
Grip or *Grip-sack*, hand-bag.

Gums, overshoes (see *Rubbers*).
Gun, to go shooting.
Hack, cab; *hackman*, cabman.
Help, servant.
Hitch, to harness; *hitching-post*, post to tie horses to.
Horse Car, tramway.
Hunt, to go shooting.
Lines, reins.
Lot, a piece or division of land in a city.
Lovely, loveable
Lumber, timber.
Lunch, a slight meal at any hour of the day.
Mad, vexed, cross.
Mail, to post; postal matter; postal service.
Mucilage, liquid gum
Muslin, cotton cloth.
Nasty, disgusting (not used before 'ears polite').
Notions, small wares.
Observatory, (often) belvedere or view-tower (Ger. *Aussichtsthurm*).
Parlor, drawing-room.
Piazza, veranda.
Pie, tart or pie.
Pitcher, jug.
Prince Albert (coat), frock-coat.
Rapid Transit, a general name for elevated railroads and similar means of rapid city and suburban locomotion.
Recitation, lesson, college lecture.
Ride, applied to any mode of conveyance (horse, carriage, boat, etc.).
Right away, directly.
Rock, stone of any size; to throw stones.
Rooster, cock.
Rubbers, galoshes, overshoes.
Run, to manage, carry on (a business, etc.).
Sack, *Sacque*, jacket.
Safe, larder (*meat-safe*, etc.).
Shine, to black or polish (boots).
Ship, to send goods by train as well by sea
Shoes, boots not coming above the top of the ancle.
Shortage, deficiency
Sick, ill.
Sophomore, student in his second year at college. Students of the first, third, and fourth years are named *Freshmen*, *Juniors*, and *Seniors*
Span, pair of horses.
Spool (of cotton), reel (of thread).
Stage, coach, omnibus.
Store, shop.
Street Car, tramway.
Take out. An American takes a lady 'out' to dinner, while an Englishman takes her 'in'.
Team, often applied to *one* horse.
Telegraph Blank, telegraph form.
Ties, low shoes; railway sleepers.
Town, township or parish (thus one hears of the highest mountain or the best crop in the town).
Track, railway-line.
Ugly, ill-tempered, malicious.
Under-waist, bodice.
Wagon, carriage.
Waist, body (of a dress).
Wait on (table), wait at.
Wilt, fade, wither.
Window-shade, blind.

In the United States *First Floor* is usually synonymous with *Ground Floor*, while *Second Floor* corresponds to the English *First Floor*, and so on. Throughout the Handbook these terms are used in conformity with the English custom.

VIII. General Hints.

The first requisites for the enjoyment of a tour in the United States are an absence of prejudice and a willingness to accommodate oneself to the customs of the country. If the traveller exercise a little patience, he will often find that ways which strike him as unreasonable or even disagreeable are more suitable to the environment than those of his own home would be. He should from the outset reconcile himself to the absence of deference or servility on the part of those he considers his social inferiors; but if ready himself to be courteous on a footing of equality he will seldom meet any real impoliteness. In a great many ways travelling in the United States is, to one who understands it, more comfortable than in Europe. The average Englishman will probably find the chief

physical discomforts in the dirt of the city streets, the roughness of the country roads, the winter overheating of hotels and railway-cars (70-75° Fahr. being by no means unusual), the dust, flies, and mosquitoes of summer, and (in many places) the habit of spitting on the floor; but the Americans themselves are now keenly alive to these weak points and are doing their best to remove them.

Throughout almost the whole country travelling is now as safe as in the most civilized parts of Europe, and the carrying of arms, which indeed is forbidden in many states, is as unnecessary here as there. Those who contemplate excursions into districts remote from the highways of travel should take local advice as to their equipment. — The social forms of America are, in their essentials, similar to those of England; and the visitor will do well to disabuse himself of the idea that laxity in their observance will be less objectionable in the one country than in the other. He will, of course, find various minor differences in different parts of the country, but good manners will nowhere be at a discount. — No limit is placed on the number of passengers admitted to public conveyances, and straps are provided in the cars of tramways and elevated railways to enable those who cannot obtain seats to maintain their equilibrium. — The prices of almost all manufactured goods are much higher in the United States than in Europe; and the traveller should therefore come provided with an ample supply of all the articles of personal use he or she is likely to require, down to such small items as pins and needles, tapes and ribbons, dress ties and gloves, toilette requisites, buttons, and matches (generally very poor in America). An important exception to the above rule is boots and shoes, which are excellently made in the United States and cost, if anything, rather less than in England. Cotton goods are also as cheap as in Europe. — Indoor clothing for American use should be rather thinner in texture than is usual in England, but winter wraps for outdoor use require to be much thicker. The thick woollen gowns that English ladies wear in winter would be uncomfortably warm in the ordinary winter temperature of American hotels and railway-carriages; and a thin soft silk will, perhaps, be found the most comfortable travelling dress on account of its non-absorption of dust. Overshoes ('arctics' and 'rubbers') are quite necessary in winter and are worn almost as much by men as by women. — Weddings frequently take place in the evening, and are managed by a set of 'ushers' chosen from the bridegroom's friends. — The rule of the road in America follows the Continental, not the English system, vehicles passing each other to the right.

The art of the *Barber and Hair-Dresser* has been developed to a high point in the United States, where the 'tonsorial saloons' are often very luxurious. The prices, however, are high (15-25 c. for a shave, including hair-brushing and the application of essences; hair-cutting 25-35 c., shampooing 15-25 c., 'sea foam' or 'dry shampoo' 10-20 c., etc.).

Public Conveniences are not usually provided in American cities, but their place is practically supplied by the lavatories of hotels, to which passers-by resort freely. Accommodation is also furnished at railway stations. Such public conveniences as do exist in New York and other large cities are disgracefully inadequate in number, size, and equipment.

Public Holidays. The only holidays observed in all the states are Independence Day (July 4th) and Christmas Day (Dec. 25th). New Year's Day (Jan. 1st) and Washington's Birthday (Feb. 22nd) are celebrated in nearly all the states. Decoration Day (May 30th) is set apart in the N. and W. states for decorating with flowers the graves of those who fell in the Civil War; and some of the S. states have a Memorial Day for the same purpose. Thanksgiving Day (last Thurs. in Nov.) is observed with practical unanimity; and General Election Day (Tues. after the first Mon. in Nov.) and Labor Day (first Mon. in Sept.) are each celebrated by a large number of states. In addition to the above, some states have special holidays of their own.

IX. A Short History of American Politics

by

John Bach McMaster.

What is now the territory of the United States has been derived from six European nations. Resting on the discovery by Columbus, and the Bulls of the Popes, Spain claimed the whole Continent, but has been in actual possession only of the Gulf coast from Florida to Texas, and of the interior from the Mississippi to the Pacific. The Swedes once had settlements on the Delaware. The Dutch, following up the voyage of Hudson to the river bearing his name, claimed and held the country from the Delaware to the Connecticut. The French discovered the St. Lawrence and explored and held military possession of the valleys of the Mississippi and Ohio and the Great Lakes. The English by virtue of the voyages of the Cabots claimed the Atlantic coast and there founded the colonies which grew into the thirteen United States. Alaska was purchased from Russia.

In the course of the struggle, sometimes peaceful, often bloody, by which the rule of these nations has been thrown off, the Dutch conquered the Swedes; the English conquered the Dutch and the French; the United States expelled the English and in time by purchase or conquest drove out the Spaniards and the Mexicans.

The first serious struggle for possession occurred in the middle of the 18th century, when the English moving westward met the French moving eastward at the sources of the river Ohio. In that struggle which has come down to us as the 'French and Indian War' France was worsted and, retiring from this continent, divided her possessions between England and Spain. To England she gave Canada and the islands and shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and, entering what is now the United States, drew a line down the middle of the Mississippi River and gave all to the E. of that line (save the island on which is the city of New Orleans) to Great Britain, and all to the W. of it to Spain; Spain at the same time gave Florida to England as the price of Cuba.

Having thus come into possession of all the country to the E. of the Great River, King George determined to send out an army of 10,000 men to defend the colonies, and have the latter bear a part of the expense. This part he attempted to collect by duties on goods imported and by a Stamp Tax (1765) on legal documents and printed matter. No tax for revenue had before been laid on America by act of Parliament. The colonists therefore resisted this first attempt and raising the cry 'no taxation without representation' they forced Parliament to repeal the Stamp Tax in 1766. The right to tax was at the same time distinctly asserted, and in 1767 was again used, and duties laid on paints, oils, lead, glass, and tea. Once more the colonists resisted and, by refusing to import any goods, wares, or

merchandise of English make, so distressed the manufacturers of England that Parliament repealed every tax save that on tea. All the tea needed in America was now smuggled in from Holland. The East India Company, deprived of the American market, became embarrassed, and, calling on Parliament for aid, was suffered to export tea, a privilege never before enjoyed. Selecting commissioners in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Charleston, cargoes of tea were duly consigned to them; but the people would not allow a pound of it to be sold. At Boston men disguised as Indians boarded the tea ships and threw the boxes into the harbour (comp. p. 88).

As a punishment for this, Parliament shut the port of Boston and deprived the people of Massachusetts of many functions of local government. The Assembly of Massachusetts thereupon called for a General Congress to meet at Philadelphia on Sept. 5th, 1774. The colonies gladly responded and this Congress, having issued a Declaration of Rights and addresses to the King, to Parliament, and to the People of England, adjourned to await the result. The day for the reassembling of Congress was May 10th, 1775; but before that day came, the attempt of *Gage* to seize military stores brought on a fight at Lexington (April 19th, 1775; p. 125). The fight at Lexington was followed by the siege of the British in Boston, by the formation of the 'Continental Army', by the appointment of *George Washington* to command it, by the battle of Bunker Hill (June 17th, 1775; p. 96), and by an expedition against Quebec, which came to naught, on the last day of the year.

General William Howe meantime had succeeded Gage in command of the British at Boston, and, finding himself hard pressed by Washington, evacuated the city and sailed for Halifax. Believing New York was to be attacked, Washington now hurried to Long Island, where (August 27th, 1776; p. 58) Howe defeated him, took possession of New York, and drove him first up the Hudson and then southward across New Jersey.

Congress, which (July 4th, 1776) had declared the colonies to be free and independent states, now fled from Philadelphia to Baltimore. But Washington, turning in his retreat, surprised and captured the British outpost at Trenton (p. 228). Cornwallis instantly hurried toward that town, but Washington, passing around the British rear, attacked and captured (at Princeton, Jan. 3rd, 1777; p. 228) a detachment on its march to Trenton, and then went into winter quarters at Morristown.

With the return of spring Howe, finding that he could not reach Philadelphia by land without passing in front of the Continental Army stretched out on a strongly intrenched line across New Jersey, went by sea. Washington met him at Chadd's Ford on the Brandywine (p. 268), was defeated, and on Sept. 25th, 1777, Howe entered Philadelphia. In the attempt to dislodge him Wash-

ington fought and lost the battle of Germantown (Oct. 4th, 1777; p. 243). The loss of Philadelphia was more than made good by the capture of *Burgoyne* and his army at Saratoga (Oct. 17th, 1777; p. 198), while on his way from Canada to New York City.

The fruits of this victory were the recognition of the Independence of the United States by France, the treaty of alliance with France (Feb. 8th, 1778), and the evacuation of Philadelphia by *Clinton*, who had succeeded Howe. Washington, who had spent the winter at Valley Forge (p. 253), instantly followed, and overtaking Clinton at Monmouth fought and won the battle at that place (June 29th, 1778). Clinton escaped to New York, and Washington, drawing his army in a circle about the city from Morristown on the S. to West Point on the N., awaited further movements.

Turning towards the Southern States, the British commander now despatched an expedition which took Savannah and overran the State of Georgia. The year which followed (1779) is memorable for the capture of Stony Point by *Anthony Wayne* (p. 163), for the treason of *Benedict Arnold* (pp. 163, 168), for the execution of *Major John André* (p. 166), for the capture of the Serapis by *Paul Jones* after one of the most desperate naval battles on record, and by the failure of an attempt by the Americans to retake Savannah (p. 394). In 1780 Clinton led an expedition from New York to Charleston, took the city, swept over South Carolina, and, leaving Cornwallis in command, hurried back to New York. *Gates*, who now attempted to dislodge the British, was beaten *Greene* now succeeded Gates, and *Morgan*, the commander of his light troops, won the battle of the Cowpens (Jan. 17th, 1781; p. 375). This victory brought up *Cornwallis*, who chased Greene across the State of North Carolina to Guilford Court House (p. 375), where Greene was beaten and Cornwallis forced to retreat to Wilmington. Moving southward, Greene was again beaten in two pitched battles, but forced the British to withdraw within their lines at Charleston and Savannah.

Cornwallis meantime moved from Wilmington into Virginia and took possession of Yorktown. And now Washington, who had long been watching New York, again took the offensive, hurried across New Jersey and Pennsylvania, and, while a French fleet closed the Chesapeake Bay, he besieged Cornwallis by land, till (Oct. 19th, 1781) the British General surrendered (p. 369). This practically ended the war.

The Treaty of Peace, in 1783, actually ended it, secured the independence of the United States and fixed her boundaries, roughly speaking, as the Atlantic Ocean on the E., the Mississippi on the W., New Brunswick, the St. Lawrence, and the Great Lakes on the N., and the parallel of 31° on the S.

While the war was still raging, Congress had framed an instrument of government, which the States ratified and put in force on Mar. 1st, 1781. This instrument of government which bound the thirteen States

in perpetual union was known as the Articles of Confederation, and established a government as bad as any yet devised by man. There was no executive, no judiciary, and only the semblance of a legislature. The Congress consisted of not more than seven nor less than two delegates from each State; sat in secret session; was presided over by a President elected from its own members; and could not pass any law unless the delegates of nine states assented. It could wage war, make treaties, and borrow money; but it could not lay a tax of any kind whatsoever; nor regulate commerce between the States, or with foreign powers; and was dependent entirely on the liberality of the States for revenue. This defect proved fatal. Inability to regulate foreign commerce by duties stripped the country of its specie. Lack of specie forced the States to issue paper money. Paper money was followed by tender acts and force acts and, in some places, by a violent stoppage of justice by the debtor class. A commercial and financial crisis followed and the people of the States, reduced to desperation, gladly acceded to a call for a national trade convention which met in Philadelphia in May, 1787. The instructions of the delegates bade them suggest amendments to the Articles of Confederation. But the convention, considering the Articles too bad to be mended, framed the Constitution which the people, acting through conventions in the various states, ratified during 1787 and 1788.

On Mar. 4th, 1789, the Constitution became the 'supreme law of the land.' In the first congress no trace of party lines is visible. But the work of establishing government had not gone far when differences of opinion sprang up; when the cry of partial legislation was raised, and the people all over the country began to divide into two great parties,—those who favoured and those who opposed a liberal construction of the language of the Constitution and the establishment of a strong national government. The friends of national government took the name of Federalists, and under the lead of *Alexander Hamilton* who, as Secretary of the Treasury, marked out the financial policy of the administration, they funded the foreign and domestic debt occasioned by the war for independence, assumed the debts incurred by the States in that struggle, set up a national bank with branches, and laid a tax on distilled liquors. Each one of these acts was met with violent opposition as designed to benefit a class, as unconstitutional, and as highly detrimental to the interests of the South. Against the Federalists were now brought charges of a leaning towards monarchy and aristocracy. Great Britain it was said has a funded debt, a bank, and an excise. These things are, therefore, monarchical institutions. But the Federalists have introduced them into the United States. The Federalists, therefore, are aristocrats, monarchists, and monopolists.

Of all who believed these charges, none believed them more sincerely than *Thomas Jefferson*, Secretary of State. Seeing in these

acts a wide departure from the true principles of democracy, he set himself to work to organize a party of opposition, and was soon looked up to as the recognized leader of the Federal Republicans. Hardly had the two parties thus been called into existence by difference of opinion on questions of home affairs, when they were parted yet more widely, and the dispute between them intensely embittered by questions of foreign affairs. In 1793 the French Republic declared war against England, and sent a minister to the United States. As the United States was bound to France by the Treaty of Alliance and by a Treaty of Amity and Commerce, and was not bound to Great Britain by any commercial treaty whatever, it seemed not unlikely that she would be dragged unwillingly into the war. But Washington with the advice of his secretaries proclaimed neutrality, and from that time every Republican was the firm friend of France and every Federalist the ally of England. Then began a seven years' struggle for neutrality. France threw open her colonial ports to neutral commerce. Great Britain asserting the 'Rule of the War of 1756', a rule prescribing that no neutral should have, in time of war, a trade it did not have in peace, declared this trade was contraband and seized the ships of the United States engaged in it. The Republicans denounced neutrality and attempted to force a war. The Federalists in alarm dispatched *John Jay*, the Chief Justice, to London with offers of a commercial treaty. England responded and on Feb. 29th, 1796, the first treaty of Amity and Commerce between her and the United States became law. At this France took offence, rejected the new minister (C. C. Pinckney) from the United States, and drove him from her soil; suspended the treaties, insulted a special commission (sent out in the interest of peace), with demands for bribes and tribute, and brought on a quasi-war. Never since the days of Bunker Hill had the country been so stirred as this act of the French Directory stirred it in the summer of 1798. Then was written our national song 'Hail Columbia'. Then was established the department of the Navy. Then, under the cry, 'Millions for defence; not a cent for tribute', went forth that gallant little fleet which humbled the tricolour in the West Indies and brought France to her senses.

With the elevation of Napoleon to the First Consulship came peace in 1800. In that same year the Federalists fell from power never to return. Once in power, the Republicans began to carry out the principles they had so long preached. They reduced the National debt; they repealed the internal taxes. They sold the Navy; boldly assaulted the Supreme Court; and in 1811, when the Charter of the National Bank expired, refused to renew it. Their doctrine of strict construction, however, was ruined, when, in 1803, they bought the Province of Louisiana from France and added to the public domain that splendid region which lies between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains. At that moment it seemed

as if the people were about to enter on a career of unwonted prosperity. But Napoleon suddenly made war on England, and by 1806 the United States was involved in a desperate struggle of nine years both with France and England for commercial independence. Great Britain searched our ships, impressed our sailors, violated the neutrality of our ports, and by the decisions of her admiralty courts and by orders in council sought to ruin our neutral commerce with Europe, unless carried on through her ports and under her license. Napoleon attacked us with his decrees of Berlin and Milan, and sought to ruin our neutral commerce with England. The United States retaliated by means of the Embargo and Non-intercourse, and, in 1812, by declared war.

With the cessation of hostilities another epoch in our history begins. From the day when Washington proclaimed neutrality in 1793, to the day when the people celebrated, with bonfires and with fireworks, and with public dinners, the return of peace in 1815, the political and industrial history of the United States is deeply affected by the political history of Europe. It was questions of foreign policy, not of domestic policy that divided the two parties, that took up the time of Congress, that raised up and pulled down politicians. But after 1815 foreign affairs sank into insignificance, and for the next thirty years the history of the United States is the history of the political and economic development of the country to the E. of the Mississippi River.

The opposition which the Federalists made to the War completed their ruin. In 1816 for the last time they put forward a presidential candidate, carried three states out of nineteen, and expired in the effort. During the eight years of *Monroe's* administration (1817-25) but one great and harmonious party ruled the political destinies of the country. This remarkable period has come down to us in history as the 'Era of good feeling'. It was indeed such an era, and so good were the feelings that in 1820 when Monroe was re-elected no competitor was named to run against him. Every State, every electoral vote save one was his. Even that one was his. But the elector who controlled it, threw it away on John Quincy Adams lest Monroe should have the unanimous vote of the Presidential electors, an honour which has been bestowed on no man save Washington.

In the midst of this harmony, however, events were fast ripening for a great schism. Under the protection offered by the commercial restrictions which began with the Embargo and ended with the peace, manufactures had sprung up and flourished. If they were to continue to flourish they must continue to be protected, and the question of free trade and protection rose for the first time into really national importance. The rush of population into the West led to the admission of Indiana (1816), Mississippi (1817), Illinois (1818), Alabama (1819), and Missouri (1820) into the Union, and

brought up for serious discussion the uses to be made of public lands lying within them. The steamboat, which had been adopted far and wide, had produced a demand for some improved means of communication by land to join the great water highways of the country and opened the era of internal improvements. The application of Missouri for admission into the Union brought up the question of the admission of slavery to the W. of the Mississippi. A series of decisions of the Supreme Court, setting aside acts of the State legislatures, gave new prominence to the question of State rights.

The Missouri question was settled by the famous Compromise of 1820 (the first great political compromise) which drew the line 36° 30′ from the Mississippi to the 100th Meridian, and pledged all to the N. of it, save Missouri, to freedom. But the others were not to be settled by compromise, and in the campaign of 1824 the once harmonious Republican party was rent in pieces. Each of the four quarters of the Republic put a candidate in the field and 'the scrub-race for the presidency' began. The new manufacturing interests of the East put forward *John Quincy Adams*. The West, demanding internal improvements at public expense, had for its candidate *Henry Clay*. *William H. Crawford* of Georgia (nominated by a caucus of congressmen) represented the old Republican party of the South. *Andrew Jackson* of Tennessee stood for the new Democracy, for the people, with all their hatred of monopolies and class control, their prejudices, their half-formed notions, their violent outbursts of feeling. Behind none of them was there an organized party. But taking the name of 'Adams men' and 'Clay men', 'Crawford men' and 'Jackson men', the friends of each entered the campaign and lost it. No candidate secured a majority of the electorial college, and the House of Representatives chose John Quincy Adams.

Under the administration of Adams (1825-29) the men who wished for protection and the men who wished for internal improvements at Government expense united, took the name first of National Republicans and then of Whigs, and, led on by Henry Clay and *Daniel Webster*, carried through the high protection tariffs of 1828 and 1832. The friends of Jackson and Crawford took the name of Democrats, won the election of 1829, and, during twelve years, governed the country. In the course of these years the population of the United States rose to 17,000,000, and the number of states to twenty-six. Steam navigation began on the Ocean; two thousand miles of railroad were built in the land; new inventions came into use; and the social and industrial life of the people was completely revolutionized. The National debt was paid; a surplus accumulated in the Treasury; the sale of public lands rose from $3,000,000 in 1831 to $25,000,000 in 1836; and the rage for internal improvements burned more fiercely than ever. A great financial panic spread over the country; the Charter of the National Bank

expired; a hundred 'wild-cat banks' sprang up to take its place; and the question of the abolition of slavery became troublesome.

On the great questions which grew out of this condition of affairs the position of the two parties was well defined. The Democrats demanded a strict construction of the Constitution; no internal improvements at public expense; a surrender of the public lands to the state in which they lay; no tariff for protection; no National Bank; no agitation of the question of abolition of slavery; the establishment of sub-treasuries for the safe keeping of the public funds, and the distribution of the surplus revenue. The Whigs demanded a re-charter of the National Bank; a tariff for protection; the expenditure of the surplus on internal improvements; the distribution of the money derived from the sale of public lands; a limitation of the veto power of the President; and no removals from office for political reasons.

The Democrats, true to their principles, and having the power, carried them out. They destroyed the Bank; they defeated bill after bill for the construction of roads and canals; they distributed $38,000,000 of the surplus revenue among the states, and, by the cartage of immense sums of money from the East to the far distant West, hastened that inevitable financial crisis known as the 'panic of 1837'. Andrew Jackson had just been succeeded in the Presidency by *Martin Van Buren* (1837-41) and on him the storm burst in all its fury. But he stood it bravely, held to a strict construction of the Constitution, insisted that the panic would right itself without interference by the Government, and stoutly refused to meddle. Since the refusal of Congress to re-charter the Bank of the United States, whose charter expired in 1836, the revenue of the Government had been deposited in certain 'pet banks' designated by the Secretary of the Treasury. Every one of them failed in the panic of 1837. Van Buren, therefore, recommended 'the divorce of Bank and State', and after a struggle of three years his friends carried the 'sub-treasury' scheme in 1840. This law cast off all connection between the State Banks and the Government, put the collectors of the revenue under heavy bonds to keep the money safely till called for by the Secretary of the Treasury, and limited payments to or by the United States to specie.

The year 1840 was presidential year and is memorable for the introduction of new political methods; for the rise of a new and vigorous party; and for the appearance of a new political issue. The new machinery consisted in the permanent introduction of the National Convention for the nomination of a president, now used by the Democrats for the second time, and by the Whigs for the first; in the promulgation of a party platform by the convention, now used by the Democrats for the first time; and in the use of mass meetings, processions, songs, and all the paraphernalia of a modern campaign by the Whigs. The new party was the Liberty Party and

the new issue the 'absolute and unqualified divorce of the General Government from slavery, and the restoration of equality of rights among men'. The principles of that party were: slavery is against natural right, is strictly local, is a state institution, and derives no support from the authority of Congress, which has no power to set up or continue slavery anywhere; every treaty, every act, establishing, favouring, or continuing slavery in the District of Columbia, in the territories, on the high seas is, therefore, unconstitutional.

The candidate of this party was *James Gillespie Birney*. The Democrats nominated Martin Van Buren. The Whigs put forward *William Henry Harrison* and elected him. Harrison died one month after his inauguration, and *John Tyler*, the Vice-President, and a Democrat of the Calhoun wing became president. The Whig policy as sketched by Clay was the repeal of the sub-treasury act; the charter of a National Bank; a tariff for protection; and the distribution of the sales of public lands. To the repeal of the sub-treasury act Tyler gladly assented. To the establishment of a bank even when called 'Fiscal Corporation', he would not assent, and, having twice vetoed such bills, was read out of the party by a formal manifesto issued by Whig Congressmen. It mattered little, however, for the question of the hour was not the bank, nor the tariff, nor the distribution of the sales of lands, but the annexation of the Republic of Texas. Joined to the demand for the re-occupation of Oregon, it became the chief plank in the Democratic platform of 1844. The Whig platform said not a word on the subject, and the Liberty Party, turning with loathing from the cowardice of Clay, voted again for Birney, gave the State of New York to the Democrats, and with it the presidency. Accepting the result of the election as an 'instruction from the people', Congress passed the needed act and Tyler in the last hours of his administration declared Texas annexed.

The boundary of the new State was ill-defined. Texas claimed to the Rio Grande. Mexico would probably have acknowledged the Nueces River. The United States attempted to enforce the claim of Texas, sent troops to the Rio Grande, and so brought on the Mexican War. At its close the boundary of the United States was carried to the S. from 42° to the Gila River, and what is now California, Nevada, Arizona, New Mexico, Utah, and more than half of Wyoming and Colorado were added to the public domain. While the war was still raging, *Polk*, who had succeeded Tyler, asked for $2,000,000 to aid him in negotiating peace. Well knowing that the money was to be used to buy land from Mexico, *David Wilmot* moved in the House of Representatives that from all territory bought with the money slavery should be excluded. This was the famous Wilmot proviso. It failed of adoption and the territory was acquired in 1848, with its character as to slavery or freedom wholly undetermined.

And now the old parties began to break up. Democrats who

believed in the Wilmot proviso, and Whigs who detested the annexation of Texas, the war with Mexico, and the extension of slavery went over in a body to the Liberty Party, formed with it the 'Free-soil Party', nominated Martin Van Buren, and gave him 300,000 votes. In their platform they declared that Congress had no more power to make a slave than to make a king; that they accepted the issue thrust on them by the South; that to the demand for more slave states and more slave territories they answered, no more slave states, no more slave territories; and that on their banner was inscribed 'Free Soil, Free Speech, Free Labor, and Free Men'. As the defection of Whigs to the Liberty Party in 1844 gave New York State to the Democrats and elected Polk, so the defection of Democrats to the Free Soilers in 1848 gave New York to the Whigs and elected *Taylor*. As Harrison, the first Whig President, died one month after taking office, so Taylor, the second Whig President, died suddenly when a little over one year in office, just as the great Whig Compromise of 1850 was closing. The imperative need of civil government in the new territory, the discovery of gold in California, the rush of men from all parts of the earth to the Pacific Coast forced Congress to establish organized territories. The question was: shall they be opened or closed to slavery? But, as the soil had been free when acquired from Mexico, the question really was: shall the United States establish slavery? The Democrats, holding that slaves were property, claimed the right to take them into any territory, and asserting the principle of 'squatter sovereignty', claimed the right of the people living in any territory to settle for themselves whether it should be slave or free. The Free Soilers demanded that the soil having been free when a part of Mexico should be free as a part of the United States. Between these two Clay now stepped in to act as pacificator. Taking up the grievances of each side, he framed and carried through the measure known as the Compromise of 1850, the third great political Compromise in our history. The fruit of this was the admission of California, as a free state; the passage of a more stringent law for the recovery of fugitive slaves; the abolition of the slave trade in the District of Columbia; and the organization of Utah and New Mexico on the basis of 'squatter sovereignty'. This done, Senators and Representatives of all parties joined in a manifesto, declaring that the issues resting on slavery were dead issues, and that they would neither vote for, nor work for any man who thought otherwise. But thousands did think otherwise. The action of Clay pleased none. Anti-slavery men deserted him in the North; pro-slavery men deserted him in the South; and in 1852 the Whig party carried but four states out of thirty-one and perished. Even its two great leaders Clay and Webster were, by that time, in their graves.

Excited by such success, the Democrats, led on by *Stephen A. Douglas*, now broke through the compromise of 1820 and in

1854 applied 'squatter sovereignty' to the organization of the territories of Kansas and Nebraska. Against this violation State legislatures, the people, the pulpit, and the press protested vigorously, for every acre of Kansas and Nebraska lay to the N. of 36° 30′ and was solemnly pledged to freedom. But the Democratic leaders would not listen and drove from their ranks another detachment of voters. The effect was soon manifest. The little parties began to unite and when, in 1856, the time came to elect another President, the Republican party of to-day was fully organized and ready. Once more and for the last time for 28 years the Democrats won. The administration of *James Buchanan* (1857-61) marks an epoch. The question before the country was that of the extension of slavery into the new territories. Hardly had he been inaugurated, when the Supreme Court handed down a decision on the case of Dred Scott, which denied the right of Congress to legislate on slavery, set aside the compromises of 1820 and 1850 as unconstitutional, and opened all the territories to slavery. From that moment the Whig and Democratic parties began to break up rapidly till, when 1860 came, four parties and four presidential candidates were in the field. The Democratic party, having finally split at the National Convention for nominating a president and vice-president, the southern wing put forward *Breckenridge* and *Lane* and demanded that Congress should protect slavery in the territories. The northern wing nominated *Stephen A. Douglas* and declared for squatter sovereignty and the Compromise of 1850. A third party, taking the name of 'Constitutional Union', declared for the Constitution and the Union at any price and no agitation of slavery, nominated *Bell* and *Everett*, and drew the support of the old Whigs of the Clay and Webster school. The Republicans, declaring that Congress should prohibit slavery in the territories, nominated *Abraham Lincoln* and *Hannibal Hamlin* and won the election.

The State of South Carolina immediately seceded and before the end of Feb., 1861, was followed by Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas. Taking the name of the Confederate States of America, they formed first a temporary and then a permanent government, elected *Jefferson Davis* President, raised an army, and besieged Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbour. The attempt to relieve the fort brought on the bombardment and surrender (April 19th, 1861). The Confederate States were now joined by Virginia, North Carolina, Arkansas, and Tennessee. Richmond was made the capital, and the Civil War opened in earnest.

The line of separation between the States then became the Potomac River, the Ohio River, and a line across S. Missouri and Indian Territory to New Mexico. Along this line the troops of the Union were drawn up in many places under many commanders. Yet there were in the main but three great armies. That of the E. or Potomac under *Gen. McClellan*; that of the centre or the Ohio under *Gen. Buell*; that of the W. or Missouri under *Gen. Halleck*.

In command of all as Lieutenant-General was *Winfield Scott*. Confronting them were the troops of the Confederacy, drawn up in three corresponding armies: that of N. Virginia under *Johnston* and *Lee*, that of the Cumberland under *Albert Sidney Johnston*, and that of the trans-Mississippi under *McCulloch* and *Price*.

Yielding to the demand of the North for the capture of Richmond before the Confederate congress could meet there (July 20th, 1861), *McDowell* went forth with thirty-eight thousand three-months volunteers to the ever memorable field of Bull Run (p. 374). But the serious campaigning did not begin until Jan., 1862. Then the whole line west of the Alleghenies (made up of the armies of Ohio and the Missouri), turning on Pittsburg as a centre, swept southward, captured Forts Henry and Donelson, defeated the Confederates at Shiloh (p. 384), captured Corinth (p. 334), took Island No. 10 (p. 364), and drove them from Fort Pillow. Meantime *Farragut* entered the Mississippi from the Gulf (see p. 416), passed Forts Jackson and St. Phillip, captured New Orleans, and sent Commodore Davis up the river to take Memphis. Memphis fell June 6th, 1862, and, save for Vicksburg, the Mississippi was open to navigation. When the year closed, the Confederates had been driven to the E. into the mountains of Tennessee, where (Dec. 31st, 1862-Jan. 2nd, 1863) was fought the desperate and bloody battle of Murfreesboro'. The *Union troops* won, and the Confederate army fell back to Chattanooga (p. 383).

With the Army of the Potomac meantime all had gone ill. The affair at Bull Run in July, 1861, had been followed by the transfer of the army to McClellan. But McClellan wasted time, wore out the patience of the North, and forced Lincoln to issue General Order No. 1 for a forward movement of all the armies on Feb. 22nd, 1862. Obedient to this McClellan began his 'Peninsula Campaign' against Richmond, was out-generaled by Lee, and in the second battle of Bull Run (p. 374) suffered so crushing a defeat that Lee ventured to cross the Potomac, enter Maryland, and encounter McClellan on the field of Antietam (p. 379). In that battle Lee was beaten and fled across the Potomac. But McClellan failed to follow up the victory and was removed, the command of the Army of the Potomac passing to *Burnside*. Burnside led it across the Potomac and the Rappahannock and on Dec. 13th, 1862, lost the battle of Fredericksburg (p. 365). For this he was replaced by *Hooker*, who, May 1st-4th, 1863, fought and lost the battle of Chancellorsville (p. 366). Lee now again took the offensive, crossed the Potomac, entered Pennsylvania, and at Gettysburg met the Army of the Potomac under *Meade* (p. 366). On that field was fought the decisive battle of the war. Then (July 1st-4th, 1863) the backbone of the Confederacy was broken, and the two armies returned to their old positions in Virginia.

While Meade was beating Lee at Gettysburg, *Grant* captured

Vicksburg (July 1st-3rd, 1863; see p. 359). For this he was sent to command the army of *Rosecrans*, then besieged by *Bragg* at Chattanooga (p. 383). Again success attended him and, in Nov., he stormed Lookout Mountain, defeated Bragg in the famous 'Battle above the Clouds' (p. 383), and drove him in disorder through the mountains. For these signal victories he was raised to the rank of Lieutenant-General (in 1864) and placed in command of the Armies of the United States.

That year is memorable for the great march of *Sherman* to the E. from Chattanooga to the sea (p. 395), for the victories of *Sheridan* in the Valley of the Shenandoah (p. 379), for the Wilderness Campaign of Grant (p. 366), the shutting up of Lee in Richmond, and by the re-election of Lincoln. His competitor was *General McClellan*, whom the northern Democrats put foward on the platform that the war was a failure and that peace should be made with the South. In the spring of 1865 came the retreat of Lee from Richmond, and on April 9th, his surrender at Appomattox Court House (p. 373). On April 15th, 1865, Lincoln was assassinated (p. 287), and *Andrew Johnson* became President.

With the succession of Johnson the era of Reconstruction, political and social, begins. The outcome of political reconstruction was the 13th, 14th, and 15th amendments to the Constitution of the United States, the impeachment of Andrew Johnson, and a long list of acts to protect and assist the Freedmen of the South. The outcome of social reconstruction was the rise of the Ku Klux Klan, the passage and use of the Force Act, and the dreadful condition of affairs which ruined the South for a decade.

In the North the effect of such measures was to split the Republican party and put seven Presidential candidates in the field in 1872. One represented the Temperance party; another the Labour party, denouncing Chinese labour and the non-taxation of Government land; a third was the Liberal Republican, demanding union, amnesty, and civil rights, accusing Grant of packing the Supreme Court in the interests of corporations, and calling for a repeal of the Ku Klux Laws. The Liberal Republicans having chosen *Horace Greeley* as their candidate, the Democrats accepted and endorsed him. But he pleased neither party and the discontented Liberals and the discontented Democrats each chose a candidate of their own. The Republicans nominated Grant and elected him. His second term (1873-77) was the nadir of our politics, both State and National, and ended with the disputed election and the rise of the Independent or 'Greenback Party', demanding the repeal of the Act for the resumption of specie payments and the issue of United States 'greenback' notes, convertible into bonds, as the currency of the country. Double returns and doubtful returns from the S. States put the votes of thirteen electors in dispute. As the House was Democratic and the Senate Republican, the joint rule

under which the Electoral votes had been counted since 1865 could not be adopted. A compromise was necessary and on Jan. 29th, 1877, the Electoral Commission of five Senators, five Representatives, and five Judges of the Supreme Court was created to decide on the doubtful returns. Of the fifteen eight were Republicans and seven Democrats, and by a strict party vote the thirteen Electoral votes were given to the Republicans and *Rutherford B. Hayes* declared elected.

The memorable events of his term (1877-81) were the resumption of specie payments on Jan. 1st, 1879; the passage of the Bland Silver Bill, restoring the silver dollar to the list of coins, making it legal tender, and providing for the coinage of not less than 2,000,000 nor more than 4,000,000 each month; and the rapid growth of the National or Greenback-Labour party. Hayes was followed in 1881 by *James A. Garfield*, whose contest with the Senators from New York over the distribution of patronage led to his assassination by the hand of a crazy applicant for office. *Chester A. Arthur* then became President, was followed in 1885 by *Grover Cleveland*, who was succeeded in 1889 by *Benjamin Harrison*, who was in turn succeeded in 1893 by Grover Cleveland. In 1897 *William McKinley* became President, and his period of office was signalized by a war with Spain (1898) and the advent of the United States as a Colonial Power.

States and Territories of the United States.

States.	Area in sq. M.	Pop. in 1890	States	Area in sq. M	Pop. in 1890
1. Alabama	51,540	1,513,017	28. New York	47,620	5,997,853
2. Arkansas	53,045	1,128,179	29. North Carolina	48,580	1,617,947
3. California	155,980	1,208,130	30. North Dakota	70,195	182,719
4. Colorado	103,645	412,198	31. Ohio	40,760	3,672,316
5. Connecticut	4,845	746,258	32. Oregon	94,560	313,767
6. Delaware	1,960	168,493	33. Pennsylvania	44,985	5,258,014
7. Florida	54,240	391,422	34. Rhode Island	1,085	345,506
8. Georgia	58,980	1,837,353	35. South Carolina	30,170	1,151,149
9. Idaho	84,290	84,385	36. South Dakota	76,850	328,808
10. Illinois	56,000	3,826,351	37. Tennessee	41,750	1,767,518
11. Indiana	35,910	2,192,404	38. Texas	262,290	2,235,523
12. Iowa	55,475	1,911,896	39. Utah	82,190	207,905
13. Kansas	81,700	1,427,096	40. Vermont	9,135	332,422
14. Kentucky	40,000	1,858,635	41. Virginia	40,125	1,655,980
15. Louisiana	45,420	1,118,587	42. Washington	66,880	349,390
16. Maine	29,895	661,086	43. West Virginia	24,645	762,794
17. Maryland	9,860	1,042,390	44. Wisconsin	54,450	1,686,880
18. Massachusetts	8,040	2,238,943	45. Wyoming	97,575	60,705
19. Michigan	57,430	2,093,889			
20. Minnesota	79,205	1,301,826			
21. Mississippi	46,340	1,289,600			
22. Missouri	68,735	2,679,184			
23. Montana	145,310	132,159			
24. Nebraska	76,840	1,058,910			
25. Nevada	109,740	45,761			
26. New Hampshire	9,005	376,530			
27. New Jersey	7,455	1,444,933			
			Territories.		
			Arizona	112,920	59,620
			New Mexico	122,460	153,593
			Oklahoma	38,830	61,834
			District of Columbia	60	230,392
			Alaska	531,410	31,795
			Total	3,501,410	62,654,045

Presidents of the United States.

1. George Washington 1789-97.
2. John Adams 1797-1801.
3. Thomas Jefferson 1801-09.
4. James Madison 1809-17.
5. James Monroe 1817-25.
6. John Quincy Adams 1825-29
7. Andrew Jackson 1829-37.
8. Martin Van Buren 1837-41.
9. William H. Harrison 1841.
10. John Tyler 1841-45.
11. James K Polk 1845-49.
12. Zachary Taylor 1849-50.
13. Millard Fillmore 1850-53.
14. Franklin Pierce 1853-57.
15. James Buchanan 1857-61.
16. Abraham Lincoln 1861-65
17. Andrew Johnson 1865-69
18. Ulysses S. Grant 1869-77.
19. Rutherford B. Hayes 1877-81
20. James A. Garfield 1881.
21. Chester A Arthur 1881-85
22. Grover Cleveland 1885-89
23. Benjamin Harrison 1889-93.
24 Grover Cleveland 1893-97
25. William McKinley 1897-1901.

X. Constitution and Government of the United States

by *James Bryce*,

Author of 'The American Commonwealth'.

The United States form a Federal Republic — that is to say, a Republic created by the union of a number of separate commonwealths, each of which retains some powers of government though it has yielded others to the Federation as a whole. The circumstances under which this Union took place have been already described in the historical sketch. It was established by the adoption of an instrument called the Constitution drafted by a Convention which met at Philadelphia in 1787, accepted and ratified by the (then 13) States in the years 1788-91. The Constitution prescribes (1) the structure of the Federal Government and the respective functions of its several parts, (2) the powers of the Federal Government and restrictions imposed upon it, (3) the relations of the Federal Government to the States and of the States to one another, (4) certain restrictions imposed upon the States. It does not specify the powers of the States, because these are assumed as pre-existing; the States when they created the Federal Government having retained for themselves most of the powers which they previously enjoyed.

The Constitution is the supreme law of the land, binding everywhere upon all authorities and persons. It can be altered in either of two ways: (a) The Federal Legislature may by a two-thirds vote in each of the two Houses prepare amendments and send them to the States. If ratified by the State Legislatures or by Conventions (*i.e.* assemblies elected by the people for the purpose) in three-fourths of the States, they take effect and become part of the Constitution. (b) The legislatures of two-thirds of the States may require the Federal Legislature to call a Constitutional Convention to prepare amendments to the Constitution. These amendments when ratified by three-fourths of the State Legislatures or State Conventions (as the case may be), take effect as parts of the Constitution. Fifteen amendments have been actually made, all drafted by the Federal Legislature and ratified by the State Legislatures. As the States created the Federation and as they still exercise most of the ordinary functions of government, it is convenient to describe them first.

The States and their Government. There are now 45 States in the Union. Although differing very greatly in size, population, and character, they have all of them the same frame of government. In all of them this frame is regulated by a constitution which each State has enacted for itself and which, being the direct expression of the popular will, is the supreme law of the State, binding all authorities and persons therein. Such a constitution always contains a so-called Bill of Rights, declaring the general principles of the government and the primordial rights of the citizen, and usually contains also a great number of administrative and financial regulations belonging to the sphere of ordinary law. The habit has grown up of late years of dealing, by means of these instruments, with most of the current questions on which public opinion calls for legislation. These constitutions are often changed by amendments which (in most States) are passed by the Legislature by certain prescribed majorities and then submitted to the vote of the people. When it is desired to make an entirely new constitution, a special body called a Convention is elected for the purpose, and the instrument drafted by it is almost invariably submitted to the people to be voted upon.

State Governments. The Legislature. In every State the Legislature consists of two bodies, both alike elected by the people, though in districts of different sizes. The smaller body (whose members are elected in the larger districts) is called the Senate and varies in number from 9 to 51. The larger body is usually called the Assembly or House of Representatives and varies in number from 21 to 321. The suffrage has now everywhere been extended to all adult males who have resided in a certain (usually a short) period within the State. In three States (Wyoming, Colorado, and Utah) it is enjoyed by women also and in several women vote at municipal or school committee elections. The Senate is usually elected for four years — sometimes, however, for three, two, or even one. The House is usually elected for two years. Both Houses have similar powers, save that in most States Money Bills must originate in the House of Representatives. The powers of these Legislatures are limited, and in the case of the newer constitutions very strictly limited, by the State Constitution. If they pass any statute contravening its provisions, or infringing any of the restrictions it has imposed, such a statute is void. All members of State Legislatures are paid, usually at the rate of about $ 5 a day. They are generally required by law and almost invariably required by custom to be resident in the district from which they are chosen.

These legislative bodies are not greatly respected, nor is a seat in them greatly desired by the better class of citizens. In a few States, such as New York, Pennsylvania, and Louisiana, there is a pretty large proportion of corrupt members.

The State Executive. In every State the head of the Executive is the Governor, elected by popular vote for a term of (rarely one) usually

two, three, or even four years. He receives a salary of from $1000 to $10,000. He is responsible for the execution of the laws and the maintenance of order in the State, whose militia he commands. He has, except in four States, the right to veto any bill passed by the Legislature, but the bill may be re-passed over his veto by a majority (usually two-thirds) in both Houses. He is assisted by a Secretary of State and several other officials, who, however, are not named by him but elected directly by the people.

The State Judiciary. In eight States the Judges are appointed by the governor; in all the rest they are elected either by the people or (in five States) by the State Legislature for terms varying, for the Superior judges, from two to twenty-one years, eight to ten years being the average. In four, however, they hold for life. Their salaries range from $2000 to $10,000 per annum, but in most states do not exceed $5000. Such salaries, coupled with the uncertainty of re-election, have been found too small to attract the best legal talent, and complaints are often made that the Bench is not as strong as the Bar which practises before it. Corruption, however, is rare, especially among the judges of the higher courts. There have not been more than three or four States in which it has been proved to exist, and in some of these it does not exist now. It is, of course, the function of the Courts to determine, when a case comes before them, the validity or invalidity of a State Statute which is alleged to transgress any provision of the State Constitution. Very frequently they are obliged to declare such statutes to be unconstitutional; and in this way the Legislature is effectively restrained from destroying the securities which the Constitution provides.

Local Government, Rural and Urban. The organization of local government is within the province of State Legislation and there are many differences between the systems in force in different States. As regards the cities (the term applied in America to any municipality), the scheme of government is usually as follows.

There is always a Mayor, the head of the executive, elected for one, two, or three years, receiving a substantial salary, and charged with the maintenance of order and general oversight of municipal affairs. There is always a legislature, consisting either of one or of two representative bodies elected for short terms, generally in wards, and (in most cases) receiving salaries. The other officials, including the police justices and local civil judges, are either elected by the people or appointed by the Mayor, with or without the concurrence of the Legislature. The tendency of late years has been to vest larger and larger powers in the Mayor. In some cities there is a distinct board of Police Commissioners (sometimes appointed by the State), and in most the management of the Public Schools is kept distinct from the rest of the municipal government and given to a separately elected School Committee.

As regards Rural Government, two systems may be distinguished,

in the one of which the township, in the other the county, is the administrative unit.

The township, called in the New England States the Town, is a small district corresponding roughly to the Commune of France, or the Gemeinde of Germany. Its area is in the Western States usually 6 sq. M. and its average population from 500 to 2000. Its inhabitants choose annually a small number (usually six or seven) officials, who manage all local affairs, roads, police, poor relief, and (in some States) sanitary matters, collect local taxes for these purposes, and also choose one or more local justices. In the New England States and in most parts of the West the inhabitants are accustomed to meet at least once in spring, in some places several times a year, to receive the reports of their officers, vote the taxes, and pass resolutions upon any other business that may be brought before them. This gathering is called the Town Meeting. Schools are usually managed by a separate School Committee, but sometimes by the *township officers*.

Above the township stands the county, whose area averages (in the Western States) 5-600 sq. M. In the older States it is usually smaller. Its business is administered by a board of (usually) three to five persons, elected annually and receiving small salaries. The county has charge of prisons, lunatic asylums, main roads, and in some States of the alms-houses provided for relief of the poor. In other States this function is left to the townships, which administer a little out-door relief. Pauperism is not a serious evil except in the large cities; in most rural districts it scarcely exists.

This Township and County System prevails over all the Northern and Middle States and is on the whole purely and efficiently administered.

In the other parts of the Union, i.e. in all or nearly all of the former Slave States, there are no townships; the unit of government is the county, to whose yearly elected officers all local business whatever is intrusted. The Southern counties are generally somewhat larger but not more populous than those of the Northern States. Local government is altogether less developed and less perfectly vitalised in this part of the country, but within the last twenty years sensible progress has been made — least, of course, in the districts where the coloured population is largest, such as Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina. Townships are beginning to appear in some States and the growth of education makes the School Districts and Committees an important factor in giving the people interest in local affairs.

The Americans are as a rule well satisfied with their system of rural local government, which in many respects might serve as a model to Europe, being more free and popular than that of Germany or France or Italy, more complete than that of England. With their municipal government on the other hand the liveliest discontent

exists. The larger cities especially have in most cases fallen into the hands of unscrupulous gangs of adventurers, commonly known as Rings, who monopolise the offices and emoluments, job the contracts for public works, incur large debts for the city, and in some few cases enrich themselves by plundering the public funds, while occasionally securing impunity by placing their creatures and dependents in judicial posts.

Many attempts have been made to bring about reforms by changing the frame of municipal government, but so far no great success has been attained. The root of the evil seems to lie partly in the presence in these great cities of a vast multitude of ignorant voters — mostly recent immigrants from Europe — who, since they pay little or no direct taxation, have no interest in economy; and partly in the indifference of the better class of citizens, who are apt to neglect the duty of voting at municipal elections, or when they do vote condone the faults of a Ring which professes to belong to their own political party. The smaller cities, down to those with a population of from 8000 to 10,000, present similar though less glaring faults, and on the whole it may be said that municipal government is the one conspicuous failure of American democracy.

Distribution of Powers between the States and the Federal Government. When the people of the United States created the Federal Government by the adoption of the Constitution, the States retained in their own hands all power, authority, and jurisdiction which was not delegated to the Federal Government. Accordingly the field of State action remains not only wide but undefined. It includes the maintenance of law and order within the State, control of the State militia and police, the organization of local government both urban and rural. The whole field of ordinary law as well civil as criminal, comprising the law of marriage and other family relations, of property and inheritance, of contracts and torts, of offences at common law or otherwise, is within the scope of State legislation. So also is the law relating to trade within the State, including the law of corporations and the regulation of railways and canals, as well as the control of education, charities, the care of the poor, and matters pertaining to religion. The State courts have of course a jurisdiction commensurate with the sphere of State legislation; *i.e.* they try all causes arising under State law and punish all offences against it. The State has also an unlimited power of taxing all persons and property (except as hereinafter mentioned) within its area, of borrowing money, and of applying its funds as it pleases.

The powers and jurisdiction of the Federal Government on the other hand are restricted, being those, and no others, which have been either expressly or by implication conferred upon it by the Federal Constitution. They therefore admit of being specified and are the following.

Control of the Conduct of War.
Relations with Foreign States.
Offences against International Law.
Army and Navy.
Commerce with other Countries and between the States.
Post Offices and Post Roads.
Patents and Copyright.
Duties of Custom and Excise.
Coinage and Currency; Weights and Measures.
Naturalization;
with the power of imposing and inflicting penalties for offences connected with the matters foregoing.

On all these subjects the Federal Legislature has the exclusive right of legislating, and the Federal Executive and Judiciary have, of course, the right and duty of enforcing such legislation. There are also a few subjects, including bankruptcy, which the Federal Legislature may deal with, but which, if left untouched by Federal Statutes, State legislation may regulate. There was at one time a uniform Federal bankrupt law; at present there is none, and the matter is regulated by each State in its own way.

Besides this allotment and division of power, the Constitution imposes certain restrictions both on the Federal Government and on the State Governments. The former is disabled from suspending the writ of *habeas corpus* or passing an *ex post facto* law, from abridging the freedom of speech or of the press, or the right of bearing arms, from making certain changes in legal procedure, from giving any commercial preference to any particular State, from establishing or prohibiting any religion. Each State, on the other hand, is restrained from making any treaty or taking other international action; from coining money or making anything but gold or silver coin legal tender; passing any *ex post facto* law or law impairing the obligation of contracts; setting up any but a republican form of Government; maintaining slavery; denying the right of voting in respect of race, colour, or previous condition of servitude; abridging the privileges of a U. S. citizen or denying to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws; depriving any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law. Neither can any State, except with the consent of the Federal Legislature, impose any duty on exports or imports, or keep ships of war or troops (except its own militia) in time of peace.

Where there is a doubt as to whether a particular power is possessed by one or other authority, the legal presumption is in favour of its being possessed by a State, because the original States were all of them self-governing commonwealths with a general power over their citizens; while the legal presumption is against the Federal Government, because the powers it has received have been enumerated in the Federal Constitution. However it is not deemed necessary that these powers should have been all expressly mentioned. It is sufficient if they arise by necessary inference.

Structure of the Federal Government. The Federal Government consists of three departments or organs, which the Constitution has endeavored to keep distinct: *viz.*, the Legislature, the Executive, and the Judiciary. The powers of these three extend over every part of

the interests of private individuals and are pushed by the miscellaneous crowd of unrecognized agents called the 'Lobby'. In each House each of the great parties is in the habit of holding from time to time party meetings to determine its policy in the House, and the decisions of the majority at such meetings are deemed binding on the members and usually obeyed. This is called 'going into caucus'.

The Executive. The President of the United States is chosen by persons who are elected in each State for that purpose and that purpose only. In every State the voters (*i.e.* the same voters as those who elect members of Congress) elect on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November every fourth year a number of Presidential electors equal to the total representation of the State in Congress (*i.e.* two Senators *plus* so many members of the House of Representatives). Thus New York has 36 Presidential Electors, Pennsylvania 32, Delaware and five other small States only three each. These Electors meet subsequently and vote for the President. Should no person voted for receive a majority of the votes of all the electors appointed, the choice of a President goes over to the House of Representatives, which elects by States, each State having one vote only, and an absolute majority being required. Although it was originally intended that the Presidential electors should be free to choose whatever person they thought best, it has long since become the rule that they shall vote for the candidate nominated by the party which has chosen them as electors; and they are in fact nothing more than a contrivance by which the people, that is, the party which commands a majority of votes, chooses the President. However, as the election takes place by States, and as even a very small popular majority in a particular state can throw the whole electoral vote of that State for one candidate, while in one or more other States a very large popular majority can do no more than throw the electoral vote of the State for the other candidate, it sometimes happens that the candidate who gets the majority of the electors' votes, and is therefore chosen, has not obtained a majority of the total popular votes cast. Another consequence of this device is that whereas the contest is always very keen in States where parties are equally balanced, it is quite languid where one party is known to have a majority, because the greater or smaller size of that majority makes no difference in the general result over the whole Union. The Presidential electors are now usually chosen by a popular vote all over each State, but they were at one time chosen by the State Legislatures, and also for a time, in many States, by districts. Michigan has recently reintroduced the district plan.

The President must be thirty-five years of age and a native citizen of the United States. He is legally re-eligible any number of times, but custom (dating from George Washington) has established the rule that he must not be re-elected more than once. He receives a salary of $50,000 (10,000*l.*).

The President's executive duties are of five kinds:

(a). He is commander-in-chief of the Army and Navy (and of State militia when in Federal service) and commissions all officers.

(b). He appoints all the chief and many minor officials, but the consent of the Senate is required, and is sometimes withheld, except to what are called Cabinet offices.

(c). He has a general supervision over the whole Federal administration and the duty of seeing that the (Federal) laws are duly executed. Should disorder arise anywhere which the State authorities are unable to suppress, they may invoke his aid to restore tranquillity.

(d). He conducts the foreign policy of the nation, and negotiates treaties, which, however, require the approval of the Senate. The power of declaring war rests with Congress.

(e). He may recommend measures to Congress, and has the right, when a bill passed by Congress is sent to him, of returning it with his objections. If in both Houses of Congress it is again passed by a majority of two-thirds in each House, it becomes law notwithstanding his objections; if not, it is lost. This so-called Veto power has been largely exercised, especially by recent Presidents. Between 1881 and 1888 no fewer than 304 bills, most of them private or personal bills, were vetoed, and very few were repassed over the veto.

The Administration or Cabinet consists at present of eight ministers, *viz.*: Secretary of State (who has the conduct of foreign affairs), Secretary of the Treasury (Finance Minister), Secretary of War, Attorney General (Minister of Federal justice as well as legal adviser), Secretary of the Navy, Postmaster General, Secretary of the Interior (with charge of Indian Affairs, of the management of the public lands, and of pensions), Secretary of Agriculture. None of these, nor any other officer of the Government, can sit in Congress. They are appointed and dismissible by the President, and are primarily responsible to him rather than to Congress, which can get rid of them only by impeachment, a process applicable rather to specific offences than to incompetence, and not applicable at all to mere divergence of policy from that which the majority of Congress desires. The Cabinet is therefore something quite different from what is called a cabinet in European countries. It does not relieve the President of responsibility; he may consult it as much or as little as he pleases, and he need not be guided by its advice.

The Federal Judiciary. There are four sets of Federal Courts:

(a). The District Courts, 55 in number, in which the District Judges sit, receiving salaries of $5000.

(b). The Circuit Courts, held in the nine judicial circuits, and served by the Circuit judges, now 18 in number (salary $6000), together with a judge of the Supreme Court, one such judge being allotted to each circuit.

(c). The Circuit Courts of Appeal, entertaining appeals from the District or Circuit Courts.

(d). The Supreme Court, consisting of a Chief Justice and

eight puisne justices who sit at Washington and have original jurisdiction in cases affecting ambassadors, or where a State is a party to the suit. In other cases they are a Court of Appeal from inferior Federal Courts. The salary is $8000 ($8500 for the Chief Justice).

All these judges are appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate, and hold office for life, unless removed by impeachment. Only four have ever been impeached, and two of these were acquitted. A place on the Supreme Bench is much desired and prized; and the permanence of tenure secures a pretty high average of knowledge and capacity, considering the smallness of the salaries paid also in the inferior Federal courts.

The jurisdiction of the Federal Courts extends over the whole Union, but is limited to certain classes of cases, civil and criminal, the most important whereof are the following.

Cases affecting ambassadors and other foreign ministers, cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, controversies to which the United States shall be a party, controversies between States, or between citizens of different States, or between a State, or any of its citizens, and any foreign State or its subjects or citizens, cases arising under the Federal Constitution, or some law or treaty duly made by the Federal government. If, as frequently happens in the three last-mentioned sets of cases, the action has begun in a State Court, there is a full right to have it removed into a Federal Court, and this may be done even in an action which was supposed to involve questions of State Law only, if in the course of the proceedings some point of Federal Law arises. The result of these arrangements is to secure to the Federal Courts the cognizance not only of all international and inter-State questions, but also of all those which in any way depend upon Federal Legislation. Thus the arm of the National Government is extended over the whole Union, each Federal Court having an officer called the U.S. Marshal to execute its judgments, and being entitled to demand the aid of the local authorities in case of resistance.

There is nothing special or peculiar in the powers of the Supreme Court, or of the American Federal Courts generally; nor have they, as is sometimes supposed, a right to review and annul the acts either of Congress or of the State Legislatures. The importance of their functions arises from the fact that in the United States the Constitution is the supreme law of the land everywhere, so that if any Statute passed by Congress, or any Constitution enacted by a State, or any Statute passed by a State Legislature, conflicts with the Federal Constitution, such Statute or State Constitution is as a matter of law invalid and null, and must be treated as such by all persons concerned. The authorities whose function it is to ascertain and determine whether it does or does not conflict with the Federal Constitution are the Courts of Law; and as the Supreme Federal Court is the highest court of appeal in all questions involving the

Federal Constitution, all important and difficult cases are carried to it and its decision is final. The Courts, and especially the Supreme Court, of each State exercise a similar function in cases where a State Statute is alleged to be in conflict with a State Constitution, the latter, of course, as being a law of higher degree, prevailing against the former. No court, however, pronounces upon the validity of a law unless in an action or other regular legal proceeding between parties, for the decision of which it becomes necessary to settle whether or no the law is valid. (In a few States, the Governor or the Legislature may consult the Supreme Court on constitutional points, but the opinions so given by a Court are not deemed to be binding like a judgment in an action.) As in all questions of Federal Law the State Courts are bound to follow and apply the decisions of the Federal Courts, so also in all questions of State Law, when these come before a Federal Court, such Court ought to follow and apply the decisions of the highest court of the particular State in question. That is to say, the Federal Courts are not higher than the State Courts, but have a different sphere of action, nor are they, except as regards questions arising under the Federal Constitution, called to overrule decisions of the State Courts.

General Working of the Federal Government. The salient feature of the Federal or national Government is that it consists of three departments, each designed to work independently of the other two. Thus the Federal Executive, the President and his Ministers, are independent of Congress. The President is elected (indirectly) by the people, and cannot be displaced by Congress (except by impeachment). The Ministers are appointed by the President, and cannot be dismissed by Congress nor even restrained in their action, except in so far as legislation may operate to restrain them; and as Congress is debarred from intruding into certain administrative details, its legislation cannot reach these. The President cannot dissolve Congress, which is elected for a fixed period, and cannot check its legislation, if there is a majority of two-thirds against him in both Houses. The conduct of foreign affairs, however, and the making of appointments belong partly to him and partly to the Senate, so that in this sphere he and one branch of Congress are closely associated. The third department, the Judiciary, is independent of the other two, for though its members are appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate, they cannot be ejected from office except by impeachment. All these departments are deemed to derive their respective powers directly from the people, Congress and the President by election, the Judges from the Constitution which the people enacted and which it is their duty to interpret. Thus the principle of Popular Sovereignty is consistently carried out. That principle is, however, even more conspicuous in the State Governments, because in them not only are all the leading officials directly elected by the people, and (in the great majority of the States) the

judges also, but also because the people constantly legislate directly (without the intervention of the State Legislatures) by enacting State constitutions or constitutional amendments. Although, however, in this aspect the Federal Government (and still more the State Governments) may appear to be very democratic, the following important restrictions have been provided to prevent sudden or violent change. (a) The Legislature, which is the strongest power, is divided into two coördinate and jealous houses. (b) The Legislature is further restrained by the veto of the President. (c) The Legislature is limited to certain subjects and disabled from certain kinds of action. (d) The President is held in check by Congress, which can refuse money, and by the Senate in foreign affairs and appointments. (e) He has, moreover, only a very small standing army at his disposal.

Conjoint Working of the Federal and State Governments. Although the Federal Government is in constant action by its laws, its officials, and its judges over the territory included in the States, comparatively little friction arises between the two sets of authorities. As respects elections, all State elections are conducted under State laws, Federal elections to some extent under Federal laws, so far as these have prescribed certain rules, but chiefly under State laws, because Congress has left many points untouched. As regards finance, all direct taxation is imposed by the State Legislatures, while the Federal Government raises its revenue by duties of customs and excise. The chief difficulties which have been felt of late years are connected with the divergences of law between the different States, especially as regards marriage and divorce, and with the control of commerce and the organs of transportation, especially railroads. The Federal Government can legislate only with regard to trade between the States and to navigable waters within more than one State and railroads so far as they carry traffic between States. Many intricate problems have arisen as to the respective scope of Federal and State action on such matters; but these have, since the Civil War, been peaceably adjusted by the Courts as interpreters of the Constitution.

Extra-State Dominions of the United States. Washington, the capital of the Union, stands in a piece of ground comprising 70 sq. M. which has been set apart as the seat of Federal Government, and is governed by three Commissioners appointed by the President. It is called the Federal District of Columbia. Alaska (purchased from Russia in 1867) is also directly governed by Federal officials (named by the President) and by statutes of Congress. As its population consists almost entirely of semi-civilized or savage Indians, it has no share in the government of the Union. The same remark applies to the Indian Territory lying to the W. of the State of Arkansas, where, however, the principal Indian tribes have made great progress in education and settled habits.

There are also three *Territories* (Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma). The Union is a union of States only, and these districts,

still thinly peopled, have not yet been admitted to the dignity of Statehood. Each Territory however enjoys local self-government, having a legislature of two Houses which can pass Statutes, subject, however, to the unrestricted authority of Congress to annul them and legislate directly. In each of these there is a Governor appointed by the President; and part of the law in force has been directly enacted by Congress.

Each Territory sends a delegate to the Federal House of Representatives who is allowed to speak but not to vote.

Practical Working of the Government. The Party System. The character of the political institutions of the country has been so largely affected by the political parties that a few words regarding their organization and methods are needed in order to understand the actual working of the Government.

Since the adoption of the Federal Constitution in 1788-89, the people of the United States have been, except for a few years (from about 1818 till 1826), pretty sharply divided into two parties. Occasionally, three or even four parties have appeared; these however have been short-lived. From 1789 till 1818 the two great parties were the Federalists and (Democratic) Republicans; the Federalists then disappeared, while from about 1830 till 1854 the Republicans, now called simply Democrats, were opposed by a party called Whigs. In 1856 a new party who took the name of Republicans came into being, carried the Presidential Election of 1860 and have continued until now contending with the Democrats. Minor present parties are the Prohibitionists and the so-called 'Populists' or People's Party (comp. Section ix of Introd.). Both the two great parties have created and maintain themselves by exceedingly strong and well ordered organizations, existing over the whole country as a body of political machinery far more effective than has ever been seen elsewhere. The causes which have made such machinery necessary are chiefly these three.

Elections are very numerous, because all the chief State and City officials and all members of representative assemblies are chosen by the people and chosen for short terms. Even those official posts which are not directly conferred by popular vote, such as all the Federal offices, are usually held at the pleasure of the President or some other high official, who has for the last sixty years been accustomed to appoint members of his own party to them, dismissing those whom he finds on coming into power, if they belong to the opposite party. The desire to have or to retain these posts furnishes a strong personal motive for exertion on behalf of a party, because one's livelihood may depend upon it. Moreover the social equality which prevails generally in America prevents the masses from being disposed to follow men conspicuous by rank, wealth, or intelligence, and makes it necessary to have organizations in order to supply the absence of that spontaneous allegiance and natural grouping which do

much to hold parties together socially in the free countries of the Old World. As there are in the United States comparatively few persons with sufficient leisure to devote themselves to political work from purely public motives, it has been thought necessary that this work should be done by those who have a pecuniary interest in the success of their party; and these persons, making such work their profession, have been able to carry this political machine to an unprecedented point of effectiveness.

In every local area which elects an official or a representative (such as a City Ward or a Rural Township) each of the two great parties has a local association which selects from the resident members of the party a candidate to be run for every elective post or office at the next election. The meeting of the local members of the party which makes this selection is called a Primary Meeting. Where an election is to take place for a wider area (such as a Congressional district or a State Assembly district, or a City) the candidate is selected by a party meeting called a Convention, consisting of delegates from all of the primaries within that area. Where the election is that of the President of the United States, the party candidate is selected by a very large body called the National Nominating Convention, consisting of delegates chosen by Conventions held in the several States. The number of delegates to this greatest of all Conventions is double that of the number of Presidential electors plus two delegates from each Territory, that is to say, it is at present 900.

Very rarely does any candidate offer himself for election to any post unless he has been selected by a Primary or a Convention as the party candidate. Sometimes, however, in local elections (especially in cities) a third organization is created in view of a particular election or group of elections, which nominates what is called an 'Independent' or 'Citizens' candidate, outside the regular organizations of the two great parties. And when a third or fourth party (such as the Prohibitionists or the so-called People's Party) exists, it establishes in that part of the country where it has substantial strength, an organization like that of the Democrats or the Republicans; and nominates its candidates in the same way. Great importance is attached to 'getting the nomination', because a large number of voters in each party are disposed (especially in great cities) to adhere to the candidate whom the organization has chosen, with comparatively little regard either to the precise shade of his opinions or to his intellectual capacity. Great pains are therefore bestowed on securing the nomination, and where there are two local factions within a party, the strife between them over the nomination is often more bitter than that between the hostile parties. Bribery, personation, and even physical violence are sometimes resorted to in order to carry a nomination of delegates in a Primary or of candidates in a Nominating Convention; so that in many States it has been deemed needful to pass laws for regulating these party meetings and preventing corruption or

unfairness in connection with them. So, also, when the control of the nomination for the Presidency lies between two prominent and popular party leaders, the Convention is a scene not only of active and protracted intrigue behind the scenes, but of passionate excitement during the voting.

This system of party machinery, and the habit which the voters have of supporting those candidates only whom the official machine nominates, have become one of the main causes of misgovernment in the largest cities. In those cities there is a large poor and comparatively ignorant multitude which, since it pays an exceedingly small part of the local taxation, has a very slight interest in economical and prudent administration. It falls easily under the dominion of leaders belonging to its own class who care little for real political issues, but make their living out of the city offices and the opportunities of enrichment which such offices supply, and it votes blindly for the candidates whom those leaders, through their control of the organization, put forward as the 'regular party candidates'. These candidates are, of course, in league with the men who 'run the machine'; and when they obtain office, they reward their supporters by posts in their gift, sometimes also by securing for them impunity from punishment, for in the lower parts of some cities the nominating machinery has fallen into the grasp of cliques which, if not actually criminal, occasionally use criminals as their tools. Another source of the strength of these dangerous elements in politics has lain in the profuse use of money. Bribery has been not uncommon, both in City, State, Congressional, and Presidential elections. Efforts, however, which seem likely to be successful, have lately been made to repress it by the adoption in nearly all the States of laws creating a really secret ballot. Some States have also sought to limit election expenditure; and it may be said generally that the spirit of reform is actively at work upon all that relates to the election system. Intimidation is rare, except in the Southern States, where it is still occasionally, though much more rarely than twenty years ago, practised upon the negroes. Seeing that the great majority of the negro voters are illiterate and possessed of little political knowledge, white men otherwise friendly to the coloured people justify both this and the more frequent use of various tricks and devices as the only remedies against thee vils which might follow the predominance of the coloured vote in those States, where the whites are in a minority.

As visitors from Europe, who usually spend most of their time in the great cities, are apt to overestimate these blemishes in the democratic institutions of the U. S., it is well to observe that they are far from prevailing over the whole country, that they are not a *necessary* incident to democratic institutions but largely due to causes which may prove transitory, and that they do not prevent the government both of the Nation and of the States from being, on the whole, efficient and popular, conformable to the wishes of the people and

sufficient for their needs. — There is no *Established Church* in the United States, nor is any preference given by the law of any State to any one religious body over any other body, although such was formerly the case in the older States, and might be now enacted, so far as the Federal Constitution is concerned, in any State. However all the States have, each for itself, pronounced in favour of absolute religious equality and embodied such a provision in their respective constitutions. When questions relating to the temporalities of any ecclesiastical body or person come before the courts of law, they are dealt with by the ordinary law like other questions of contract and property. Religious feeling seldom enters into political strife, and there is a general desire to prevent its intrusion either in Federal or in State matters.

XI. Aborigines and Aboriginal Remains,

by

Professor O. T. Mason,

of the Smithsonian Institution.

The aboriginal history of the United States divides itself into two chapters, the *Archaeologic* and the *Ethnographic*. The former relates to a period about whose beginning there is much dispute and whose close shades into the latter imperceptibly. The ethnographic chapter opens with the romantic adventures of Ponce de Leon (p. 401) in Florida with the Timucua Indians and is not yet closed.

I. **Archæology.** The archæologist from abroad will find in the United States no such imposing ruins as meet his eyes everywhere in the Old World. Not even with Mexico or Central America or Peru can the ruins scattered over the Federal Republic enter into competition. The same is true of the age of these relics. It has been both alleged and disputed with vehemence, and that by eminent authorities on both sides, that at Trenton (p. 228), Madisonville and Comerstown in Ohio, Little Falls in Minnesota, Table Mountain in California, and elsewhere, palæolithic man, away back in glacial times, left traces of his existence. But the true remains of antiquity within the borders of the United States are the shell-heaps, bone heaps, and refuse-heaps; the ancient quarries, workshops, and mines; evidences of primitive agriculture; graves and cemeteries; mounds and earthworks; pueblos, cliff-dwellings, and cave-dwellings; trails, reservoirs, and aqueducts; pictographs and sculptures; relics of ancient arts and industries; crania and skeletons belonging to vanished peoples. And these relate to a grade of culture upon which all advanced races once stood. These remains and relics are quite unevenly distributed over the States, just as populations and industrial centres are scattered to-day.

Shell-Heaps, Bone-Heaps, Refuse-Heaps. Along the Atlantic Coast, up and down the great affluents of the Mississippi, on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico and of the Pacific Ocean, are vast accumulations of shells, left by former savage tribes. Mingled with the

shells are bones of the dead and the apparatus which they used in their lifetimes. In each locality the mollusks whose remains are discovered were of those species which still abound in the region. The most celebrated shell-heaps are found along the New England shores, in the Chesapeake Bay, throughout Florida, in Mobile Harbour, on the Tennessee River, at Santa Barbara and San Francisco in California, and about the shallows in Washington State. Bone-heaps are found on the plains of Dakota and are the remains of ancient buffalo feasts. The refuse-heaps are all that is left on ancient Indian camp sites, and there is scarcely a town in the Union that is not near one or more of these old habitations of the past.

Quarries, Workshops, and Mines.† The aborigines of the United States had no other industrial life than that which belongs to the stone age. They quarried quartz, quartzite, novaculite, jasper, argillite, steatite, catlinite, slate, mica, volcanic rocks, always from the best sources of the material. The quarrying was, of course, simply the opening of shallow pits and drifts, by means of the rudests tools of wood, antler, and bone; and in the exercise of the most rudimentary engineering. They blocked out the art product at the quarry, leaving millions of spalls and rejected pieces, which resemble somewhat the so-called palæolithic implements. They manufactured these substances by flaking, chipping, pecking, boring, sawing, and grinding, using as tools hammers, saws, drills, polishers, etc., of stone and other materials at hand. Copper abounded in the W. central states, the raw material coming from Keweenaw and Ontonagon counties, Michigan. This copper was not smelted, but treated as a stone. It was cold-hammered on stone anvils with stone hammers, ground into shape on sandstone, and finished after the manner of a stone implement.†† All the relics of the ancient Americans of this region are of the neolithic type, though the tourist will doubtless be told that this is not true and will be shown all sorts of marvellous things.

Primitive Agriculture.††† Not only are finished implements recovered that must have been used in rude tillage; but, in S. Michigan especially, the whites found that they had been anticipated. Garden beds or rows were discovered, where maize, pumpkins, beans, and other indigenous plants had been cultivated.

Graves and Cemeteries.†††† The best-known antiquities of the

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† *Holmes*, Am. Anthropologist, Wash., iii, p. 24, and elsewhere.
Moorehead, Prim. Man in Ohio, N.Y. 1892, Chap. IV.

†† *Whittlesey*, Smithsonian Contributions, Vol. xiii.

††† American Antiquarian, Vols. 1 and 7.

†††† *Yarrow*, Mortuary Customs. I. Am. Rep. Bur. Ethnol., Wash., pp. 87-204, fig. 1-47.
Moorehead, Prim. Man in Ohio, N.Y., 1892, Chap. V. See also *Short*, N. Americans of Antiquity (Harpers).
Archæol. Explor. Lit. & Sc. Soc. of Madisonville, 1879, p. ii; appendix.
J. Cincin. Soc. Nat. Hist., iii; 1 and 3.
Thruston, Antiq. of Tennessee.
Yarrow, in Wheeler, 'Survey W. of 100th Merid.' VII

United States are the ancient cemeteries, the mounds, and the earthworks. It is very difficult to discover an Indian grave to the E. of the Alleghenies or to the W. of the 100th meridian. Within those limits they occur everywhere. The disposal of the dead was different in all the families of tribes. Inhumation, embalmment, inurning, surface disposal, aërial sepulture, aquatic burial, cremation all had their advocates and practitioners. The most celebrated cemeteries are at Madisonville (Ohio), near Nashville (p. 357), and near Santa Barbara (p. 497).

Mounds and Earthworks. The mound and earthwork region includes W. New York, N. W. Pennsylvania, W. Virginia, N. Carolina, S. Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, E. Missouri, S. Michigan, Wisconsin, and Dakota.

'Within this territory are the copper mines of Lake Superior, the salt mines of Illinois and Kentucky, the garden beds of Michigan, the pipestone quarry of Minnesota, the extensive potteries of Missouri, the stone graves of Illinois and Tennessee, the workshops, the stone cairns, the stone walls, the ancient roadways, and the old walled towns of Georgia, the hut rings of Arkansas, the shelter caves of Tennessee and Ohio, the mica mines in South Carolina, the quarries in Flint Ridge (Ohio); the ancient hearths of Ohio, the bone beds and alabaster caves in Indiana, the shell-heaps of Florida, oil wells, and ancient mines and rock inscriptions'. [*Peet*, 'The Mound-Builders: their works and their relics' (Chicago; p. 35).]

Both mounds and earthworks are, however, to be seen sparingly everywhere. The largest mounds in the United States are in Illinois, opposite St. Louis (p. 349), and no one should spend a day in that city without taking a trip across the great steel bridge and visiting the *Cahokia Mound* near E. St. Louis. In the neighbourhood are over fifty others of enormous size. In the cemetery at Marietta (p. 296), and at Grave Creek, on the Ohio river, 12 M. below Wheeling (p. 293), may be seen mounds of great size.† The most famous tumulus in the United States is the *Great Serpent Mound* (p. 347), which, with the land adjacent, is the property of the Peabody Museum, in Cambridge (p. 94).††

To the E. of the Rocky Mountains, the most interesting remains are the earthworks. And of these there are two sorts, those designed for defence and those erected for ceremonial purposes. The former are found on bluffs and tongues of land with precipitous sides. These natural forts are strengthened by ditch banks and stone heaps and gateways covered within and without by mounds. The latter, on the contrary, are in exposed plains. Their ditch banks are in circles and polygonal figures and the parts are arranged as for religious and social occasions.

Besides those already mentioned the following defensive and ceremonial works may be mentioned (all in Ohio) — the Great Mound, at Miamisburg; Fort Ancient, Warren Co.; the Newark Works; the *Alligator* Mound,

† *Putnam*, An. Rep. Peabody Mus., Cambridge, Mass, xii and xiii, pp. ii & 470.

†† *Putnam*, Century Magazine. March and April, 1890.

near Granville; the Stone Fort, near Bourneville, the Fortified Hill in Butler Co.; the Liberty Township Works; and the Hopeton Works.

Consult *Thomas's Catalogue* for full list (Bulletin of the Bureau of Ethnology, Washington); also Smithsonian Contributions, Vol. I.

Pueblos, Cliff-dwellings, and Cave-dwellings. In the drainage of the Colorado and the Rio Grande, within the boundaries of Colorado, Utah, New Mexico, Arizona, and the N. tier of Mexican states are the pueblos and the cliff-dwellings. Twenty-one pueblos along the Rio Grande, between 34° 45′ and 36° 30′ N. lat., are still inhabited by two different stocks of Indians, the Tañoan and the Keresan. The Zuñi, residing near the W. border of New Mexico, on the 30th parallel, speak an independent language; and the Moki, on the reservation of the same name, N.E. Arizona (see p. 465), dwelling in seven towns or pueblos, belong to the Shoshonean linguistic stock. Besides these inhabited villages of stone and adobe, there are many hundreds in the territory just named that have long been tenantless, and most of them are in ruins. The largest of them and by far the most imposing ruin within the United States is the *Casa Grande* (see p. 518), or *Casa de Montezuma*, which, Bancroft says,† has been mentioned by every writer on American antiquity. The material is adobe made into large blocks. Three buildings are standing, one of them sufficiently preserved to show the original form. The largest collection of ruined pueblos in this region yet examined was surveyed by the Hemenway S.W. Expedition in 1888. The group lies on the Salado river, near the town of Phœnix (p. 518).†† In the cañon regions bordering and opening into the Colorado river channel, especially upon the San Juan and the Dolores and their tributaries, are to be found cliff and cave dwellings innumerable. These are easily explained by the nature of the geologic formations. In the precipitous walls there are strata of soft stone sandwiched between layers of hard material. The action of the elements has carved out these soft layers, leaving a roof above and a floor below upon which the ancient cliff-dweller built his home. Indeed, he did not wait for the frost and the rain to do the work, but with his pick-axe of hard basalt dug out a cave for himself by making a tiny doorway in the face of the cliff and excavating behind this as many chambers as he pleased. Many of these cliff and cavate habitations are high up and difficult of access, but they overlook long valleys of arable land.††† The relics found in this region are the envy of collectors, and the natives still manufacture excellent pottery, to imitate the old. The ancient is far superior in quality to the new, and hundreds of dollars are paid for a single piece, though fragments of the finest ware may be had for the picking up.

Trails, Reservoirs, and Aqueducts. For the purposes of war and

† *Bancroft*, Native Races, N. Y., 1875, IV, 621-635.

†† *Cushing*, in the Compte Rendu of the Berlin meeting of the Society of Americanists.

††† *Bancroft*, Native Races, N. Y., 1875, IV, 650 661.

trade the savages traversed the United States from end to end. They had no beasts of burden save the dog, consequently they made portages from stream to stream, carried their canoes and loads across on their backs, and then pursued their journey. The traces of these ancient paths of primitive commerce may yet be seen. In the same rude manner these savages had learned to store up and conduct water for home use and for irrigation. Especially in the South West are the works of this class to be studied.

Pictographs and Sculptures. The very ancient people and their modern representatives had attained to that form of writing called pictographic. The traveller will see in museums all sorts of figures scratched on bark, painted on skin or wood, etched on bone or ivory, engraved on pieces of stone, and he will often come upon the same designs sketched on cliffs and boulders. These constitute the written language of the aborigines. In true sculpture they were not at all adept and they had no alphabetic writing. Once in a while mysterious bits of stone turn up with Cypriote or other characters thereon, but they never belonged to the civilization of this continent.

Relics of Ancient Art. As before mentioned the native tribes were in the neolithic stone age. Therefore, it is not exaggerating to say that the whole surface of the United States was strewn with relics. In every ancient grave, mound, or ruin they abound. The tourist will have no trouble to find in every town a museum containing these objects and in every hamlet some one whose house is packed with them. So desirable are they that thousands are fraudulently made and palmed off upon the unwary. These spurious objects find their way into foreign collections and very much embarrass the problems of archæology.

Crania and Skeletons. Much difficulty has been encountered by archæologists in distinguishing the crania of the truly prehistoric American from those of the Indians encountered by the early explorers. The problem is further embarrassed by artificial deformations and by changes produced by the pressure of the soil. Excellent collections exist in Cambridge, Philadelphia, Washington, Cincinnati, and St. Louis.†

Ethnography. The native tribes that once covered the entire domain of the Union belonged to fifty independent linguistic stocks. Some of these were spread over vast areas, for example, the Algonkian, Athapascan, Iroquoïan, Muskhogean, Shoshonean, and Siouan. But the majority of stocks occupied small areas, chiefly along the Pacific coast.††

But a wonderful change has come over the surface of the United States in two centuries. Excepting a few small settlements of In-

† For the best résumé of the literature on the Archæologic Chapter, see *Winsor*, Narr. & Crit. Hist. of Am., I. pp. 328-412 (Boston, 1889).

†† See exhaustive account in VII An. Rep Bur. Ethnol., Wash., 1891, pp. 1-142, with map.

dians here and there, they are gone from the Atlantic States. Only the Cherokees in North Carolina, the Seminoles in Florida, the Iroquois in New York, and the Chippewa tribes about Lake Superior remain to the E. of the Mississippi river. The aboriginal title gave way to the title of discovery, and the feeble Indian title of occupancy has been swept away by the tide of European imigration.

There are at present, as regards title and legal status, several kinds of Indians in the Union.

1. Citizen Indians. The State of Massachusetts and the United States in certain cases have conferred upon Indians the full rights of citizenship.

2. In a few states, notably New York, reservations are granted to Indians and they are protected in their tribal rights therein.

3. Roving Indians are still at large in greater or smaller bands, especially in the Rocky Mountain region.

4. In acquiring its S.W. territory from Mexico the United States inherited three kinds of Indians: the Pueblo Indians, the Mission Indians, and the wild tribes. The status of these is most confusing.

5. But the great mass of Indians in the Union are in some sort of relation to the United States and hold their lands by (1) Executive Order, (2) by Treaty or by Act of Congress, (3) by Patent to the tribe, (4) by Patent to individuals.

For the relinquishment of their ancient homes the United States has also entered into agreements to pay to the tribes certain annuities in money and goods. Under these circumstances there are some of them who are the richest communities in the world. In the Osage tribe every man, woman, and child is worth $1500. The five civilized tribes in the Indian Territory and the New York Iroquois preserve their autonomy and make their own laws, but also have a government agent. Many thousand Indians have their lands 'allotted' and thus have lately become citizens, the title to the land being inalienable for 25 years.†

XII. Physiography of North America,

by

N. S. Shaler,

Professor of Geology in Harvard University.

Although the traveller in North America may be most interested in the people or their social and material accomplishments, he will find it desirable at the outset of his journey to consider the physical conditions of the land, the nature of the climate, soil, and under earth: — circumstances which have gone far to determine the history and development of the people who have come to the country from the old world.

The continent of North America is in many ways sharply contrasted with that of Europe. The last-named land consists mainly of great peninsulas and islands, which are geographic dependencies of the great Asiatic field. It is, indeed, a mere fringe of the great Eurasian continent. North America, on the other hand, is a mass of land distinctly separated from other areas, with a relatively undiversified shore, and with an interior country which is but slightly divided into

† See Rep. Commn. Ind. Aff. (Wash., 1891) and Thayer in *Atlantic Monthly*, Oct., 1891.

isolated areas by distinct geographic features such as seas or mountain-chains. This geographic unity of the N. part of the New World is due, as is the case with all its other conspicuous features, to the geological history of the country; it will therefore be well to preface the account of its detailed features by a very brief description of the steps by which its development was brought about.

In the Laurentian age, the earliest epoch which geologists can trace in the history of the earth, the continent of North America appears to have consisted of certain islands, probably lying in the neighbouring seas beyond the present limits of the land, the positions of which are as yet unknown. In the Cambrian period we find the Laurentian rocks, which were formed on the older sea floors, raised above the ocean level, and constituting considerable islands, the larger of which were grouped about Hudson's Bay, there being smaller isles in the field now occupied by the Appalachian Mountains and in that of the Cordilleras, as we should term those elevations which lie between the E. face of the Rocky Mountains and the ranges which border the Pacific Coast.

From the débris of the ancient islands which prefigured the continent, together with the deposits of organic remains accumulated in the seas, the strata of the Silurian and Devonian ages were formed. These in turn were partly uplifted in dry land, thus adding to the area of the imperfect continent by the growth of its constantly enlarging island nucleus. Yet other marine accumulations, formed in the now shallowed seas, afforded the beginning of the carboniferous strata. The accumulation of these beds and the slow uprising of the land soon brought the continent to a state where there were very extensive low-lying plains forming a large part of what is now the Mississippi Valley, as well as the field now occupied by the Allegheny Mts., which then had not been elevated, and forming a fringe along the E. coast of the continent. On these plains there developed extensive bogs, which from time to time were depressed beneath the level of the sea and buried beneath accumulations of mud and sand, thus affording the beginning of the coal beds which constitute so important a feature in the economic resources of the country.

After the close of the great coal-making time the Allegheny Mountains were uplifted, and the ranges of the Cordilleras begun in earlier times were much increased in extent. From this period of the new red sandstone or Trias, we may fairly date the probable union of the original scattered islands of the continent, which had now taken much the shape it has at present. The great interior sea, the remnant of which now forms the Gulf of Mexico and which in the earlier ages had divided the Cordillerean from the Appalachian lands, still extended as a narrower water far to the N., but in the Jurassic and Cretaceous time, this Mexican Sea shrank away with the uplifting of the land, and its place was occupied by a vast system of fresh water lakes stretching along the E. front of the Rocky Mountains.

These basins endured for many geological periods; they were, however, gradually filled with the detritus from the mountains of the West.

In the Tertiary period, the last great section of geologic time, North America gradually assumed its existing aspect. The Great Lakes before mentioned were gradually filled, the lowlands of the S. states and of the Atlantic coast to the S. of New York rose above the sea, and the mountains of the Cordilleras gained a yet greater measure of elevation. In the closing stages of this Tertiary time there came the glacial epoch, during which the ice sheets, now practically limited to Greenland and Alaska, were extended so as to cover nearly one-half of the continent, the margin of the snowy field being for a time carried as far S. as the Potomac and the borders of the Ohio River at Cincinnati, mantling the region to the N. with an icy covering having a depth of several thousand feet. At this stage of the geological history the N. portion of the land was deeply depressed, while the S. portion was much elevated. When the ice went off, the continent, at least in its E. part, remained for a time at a lower level than at present. Only in what we may term the present geologic day has the continent quite recovered from the singular disturbance of its physical and vital conditions which the ice time brought about.

One of the most important results of the geological history of North America has been the development of this continent to a point where its surface is characterized by certain broad and simple topographic features. It is, indeed, on many accounts, the most typical of the greater land-masses. The eastern and western shores are bordered by tolerably continuous mountain ranges: those facing the Atlantic extend though with various interruptions from Greenland to Alabama; those next the Pacific from the peninsula of Alaska to Central America. South of the Rio Grande these Cordilleras form the attenuated mass of the continent in which lie Mexico and the states of Central America. Between these mountain ranges and the neighbouring oceans there is a relatively narrow belt of plains or low-lying valleys. The principal portion of the continental area, however, lies between these mountain systems in the form of a great shallow trough. The southern half of this basin constitutes the great valley of the Mississippi. Its northern portion is possessed by various river systems draining into the Arctic and Atlantic Oceans, of which the Mackenzie and the St. Lawrence are the most important. The last named river system is peculiar in the fact that it is the greatest stream in the world which is fed mainly from lakes.

If we could contrast this over-brief story of the geological development of North America with a similar account of the leading events which have taken place in Europe, we should readily note the fact that the former land has had a relatively simple history. Fewer mountain systems have been developed upon it, and consequently its shores lack the great peninsulas and islands which are so characteristic a feature in the old world. To this same architectural sim-

plicity we may attribute the generally uniform character exhibited by the interior portions of the continent.

The conditions of the ancient history of North America have served to provide its fields with an abundant and precious store of the materials which fit its lands to be the seats of a varied and complicated economic life. Of these underground resources we can only note the more important. First among them we may reckon the stores of burnable material: — coals, petroleum, and rock or natural gas, substances which in our modern conditions have come to be of the greatest consequence to mankind. The *Coal Deposits* of North America are on the whole more extensive, afford a greater variety of fuel, and are better placed for economic use than are the similar deposits of any other continent. They range in quality from the soft, rather woody, imperfectly formed coals known as lignites, to beds which afford the hardest anthracites, coals so far changed from their original condition that they burn without flame much in the manner of charcoal. The greater part of the good coals lie in the region to the E. of the Mississippi, while the lignites and other poorer fuels are found in the country between that great river and the Pacific Ocean. The excellent coals both of the E. and W. were generally formed during the carboniferous age; the lignites and other poorer materials of this nature were almost altogether accumulated in the Cretaceous and Tertiary periods.

The *Petroleum* of North America occupies a larger portion of the country and affords a more ample supply of the material than those of any other land save the region about the shores of the Caspian Sea, known as the Baiku district. The best of the American wells lie in the basin of the Ohio River. Traces of similar deposits occur at various points in the Cordilleras and on the coast of California. All the more valuable petroleum deposits of America lie in rocks below the lowest coals in strata of the Devonian and Silurian ages, where they were formed by slow chemical change of the fossil remnants of ancient marine life. The abundance of these accumulations of petroleum in North America is due to the fact that the beds in which the fluid has been formed lie in horizontal attitudes, in a position where the fluid has been retained by the unbroken strata notwithstanding the great pressure of the rock gases which tend to drive it forth to the surface.

The *Natural* or *Rock Gases* which of late years have played an important part in the industries of this country, serving for fuel and for illuminating purposes alike, owe their origin and preservation to the same conditions which have brought about the accumulation of petroleum. These substances, though the one is fluid and the other gaseous in form, are chemically akin, and are indeed only varied results of the same natural actions. They are both alike often formed in rocks where the strata abound in fossils. The reason why these materials do not often occur in Europe is probably due to the

fact that the strata of that country have been so much ruptured and tilted by the mountain-building forces, which have affected almost every part of that country, that oil and gas have alike escaped to the surface of the earth by passages which these dislocating actions have provided for them. In North America on the other hand, where vast areas of strata still lie in substantially the same position in which they were formed, the substances have been to a great extent retained in the rocks where they were produced.

The store of rock gases known to exist in this country will probably be exhausted within twenty years of the present time. The resources in the way of petroleum are also likely to be used before the middle of the next century. The fuel in the form of coal exists in such quantity that there is no reason to apprehend a serious diminution of the store for many centuries or perhaps even thousands of years to come.

Next in importance after the fuels of North America, we may rank the ores from which *Iron* can be manufactured. These exist in great quantity in almost every important district of the continent, and at many points they are very advantageously placed in relation to supplies of fuel and to the transportation routes. The largest, though not the richest, store of iron ores in North America lies in the district of the Appalachian Mountains between the Potomac River and S. Alabama. In this field the ores have the general character of those which have afforded the basis of the great industry in Great Britain. As in that country, these Appalachian deposits are very favourably placed in relation to coke-making coals with which they are to be smelted. The other conditions for the development of the great industry are in this district also very favourable, so that experts in the matter look to this field as likely to be the principal seat of iron production in North America.

Next after the Appalachian field, the most important deposits of iron ore in North America lie in the region about the head of Lake Superior. In this field the deposits are of a very high grade, but they are much more costly to mine than those before referred to and they are unfortunately far removed from the coking coals of Pennsylvania and Kentucky, which are the nearest good fuels to the Lake Superior mines. It is now the custom to convey these ores mainly to the coal district about the headwaters of the Ohio River. The Cordillerean district abounds in iron ores, but as these Western iron ores are rarely near coals fit for use in furnaces, they cannot be regarded as of great economic importance. The ores from the region to the E. of the Mississippi afford the basis for an iron manufacturing industry which has already equalled that of Great Britain, and at its present rapid rate of growth gives promise of exceeding that of all European countries before the end of the present century.

The *Copper Deposits* of North America are to be ranked as next in importance to those which afford iron. Ores of this nature are

extensively diffused in the older rocks of this country, but it is only in N. Michigan and in the Cordilleras that they have been proved to have great economic value. In the Michigan district the material occurs in a metallic form, and in such abundance that, notwithstanding the very high price of labour in that region, the product of the mine goes to the world's markets under conditions which enable the establishments to compete with the production of any other country. In the Cordilleras of North America the metal occurs, as is usual in other lands, in the form of ordinary ores, but the deposits are of such great extent and richness that they have proved very profitable.

The mines producing *Zinc* and *Lead* are now practically limited to Missouri and the Cordilleras, though a portion of the former metal is still obtained from New Jersey. A large part of the lead which now enters the markets of this country is obtained from the silver ores of the Rocky Mountain district, and as it is won as a bi-product, it is produced at a low cost.

The *Gold and Silver Fields* of North America, which have considerable economic value, are altogether limited to the mountainous district in the W. part of the continent. The S. portion of the Appalachian system afforded in the early part of this century, with the cheap slave-labour of that country, profitable mines of gold, but efforts to work the deposits since the close of the Civil War have proved universally unprofitable. There are a few successful gold mines in Nova Scotia, but they are commercially unimportant. The evidence goes to show that the Cordillerean region alone is to be looked to for large supplies of the precious metals.

Various other metalliferous ores exist in North America and play a subordinate part in its mining industry. *Tin* occurs at many points, but it has so far proved unprofitable to work the deposits, the main reason for the failure being the cost of labour involved in the work of production. Doubtless the most important of these less valued elements of mineral resources which the continent of North America affords is the group of fertilizing materials which of late years have come to play so important a part in the agriculture of this and other countries. The *Phosphate Deposits* of the S.E. part of the United States, particularly those of South Carolina and Florida, are now the basis of a large industry.

The soils of North America have, as the agricultural history of the country shows, a prevailingly fertile nature. In the region to the E. of the Mississippi within the limits of the United States over 95 per cent of the area affords conditions favourable for tillage. This region of maximum fertility extends over a portion of the area to the W. of the great river, but from about the 100th meridian to near the shores of the Pacific the rainfall is prevailingly insufficient for the needs of the farm. Crops can in general only be assured by a process of artificial watering, and the whole of the great Cordillerean field within the limits of the United States, and a large portion of that area in the

republic of Mexico, a district amounting to near one-third of the continent, which would otherwise be fit for agriculture, is rendered sterile by the scanty rainfall. On this account the continent has as a whole less arable land in proportion to its size than Europe; moreover, more than one-fifth of its fields lie so far to the N. that they are not suited for agriculture; thus not more than three-fifths of the continent is naturally suited for husbandry. It should be noted, however, that the fields richest in metals lie in the arid districts, and that in this part of the realm there are areas aggregating more than 50,000 sq. M. which can by irrigation be made exceedingly productive and will afford a wide range of crops.

The climate of North America is prevailingly much more variable than that of Europe. Between the arctic regions and the warm district of the tropics, there are no mountain barriers, and the land is so unbroken by true seas that the winter winds are not tempered or obstructed in their movement. The result is that the summer heat, even as far N. as the northernmost cultivated districts of Canada, is great and commonly enduring, while the winter's cold occasionally penetrates to the borders of the Gulf of Mexico, even S. Florida being liable to frosts of sufficient severity to destroy the more sensitive tropical plants. The only portion of the United States which has tolerably equable atmospheric conditions, is the coast belt of the Pacific from San Francisco to the S. This region has a climate in many ways resembling that of N. Africa.

The peculiarities of surface and of climate which result therefrom give rise in North America to certain classes of storms which are little known in any other land. In the region of the Cordilleras great whirling movements of the air arise in places where the barometer is low, which move with considerable speed to the E. across the country. Passing beyond the Atlantic coast-line, these great circular storms, which generally have a diameter of several hundred miles, continue their way over the ocean, and often after a due time appear on the coast of Europe. In the landward part of their journey these storms rarely have such severity as to damage property. It often happens, however, especially during the spring season, that on the S.E. face of these advancing cyclones, small but very intense whirlings of the air are produced, which are known as tornadoes. These accidents often give rise to winds of singular intensity, movements of the air so energetic that they may disrupt the stoutest buildings, throw railway trains from the track, and by the upward rush of the atmosphere in their centres lift the bodies of men and animals to the height of hundreds of feet above the earth. Fortunately the paths of these tornadoes, or hurricanes, as they are locally called, are relatively very narrow, and the distance to which they course in their N.E. movement is short. The breadth of their destructive path rarely exceeds half-a-mile, and the distance to which the destruction is carried is generally less than twenty miles. Although occasional

visitations of this nature have been experienced throughout all the United States to the E. of the Rocky Mountains, the district in which they are really to be apprehended and where they are likely to prove in a considerable measure destructive to life and property, appears to be limited to the N. and central parts of the Mississippi Valley, and the basin of the Ohio River north of Central Kentucky.

The waters of the Gulf of Mexico and of the neighbouring Carribbean Sea, as well as the shores of the main land and islands of that realm, constitute a field where another class of air-whirlings, the marine cyclones, also termed hurricanes, are frequently developed. These storms are much more enduring and more powerful than those formed upon the land; they often march from the regions where they are developed slowly up the Atlantic coast of the United States until they gradually penetrate to a realm of the sea where the air next the surface is so cool that they no longer receive the impulse which led to their development. These marine cyclones find their parallel in similar atmospheric convulsions which affect the Indian Ocean and the China Seas. In both realms the disturbance of the atmosphere is due to the heated condition of the air next the surface of the ocean, and its consequent upward movement into the upper parts of the aerial realm. The whirling movement is the simple consequent of this ascent of the air through a narrow channel. It finds its likeness in the whirling imparted to the water in a wash-basin when it flows through the opening in the bottom of the vessel.

Another class of atmospheric actions in a measure peculiar to North America is found in the 'Cloud Bursts', or sudden torrential rains, which occasionally though rarely occur in the E. portion of the Cordilleras. In these accidents, though the region is on the whole arid, the rain occasionally falls over an area of limited extent with such rapidity that the air becomes almost unbreathable, and dry stream beds are in a few minutes converted into raging torrents. Although in their characteristic intensity these cloud bursts are limited to certain parts of the W. mountain district, a conspicuously rapid precipitation occasionally occurs in the more E. portion of the United States.

In its original state, that in which it was found by the first Europeans who landed on its shores, the E. part of North America was seat of the greatest forest of broad-leaved trees, intermingled with pines and firs, which the world afforded. Although this noble Appalachian forest has suffered much from axe and fire, it still in part remains in its primæval state, forming a broad fringe of arboreal vegetation from the Gulf of St. Lawrence to Central Texas, extending inland to the central portion of the Ohio Valley and up the Mississippi to near its confluence with the Ohio and Missouri Rivers. To the N. and W. of this great woodland lay a region of generally treeless plains. The district of the Cordilleras was scantily forested, and along the Pacific Coast and on the W. slope of the Sierra Nevada from Central California to the N., extended noble forests of narrow-leaf

trees. Across the N. part of the continent the heavy growth of timber, somewhat stunted by the severity of the climate, extended from the Pacific to the Atlantic shores. As a whole the continent bore an ampler mantle of forest growth than any part of the old world beyond the limits of the tropics.

The traveller who for the first time visits North America should take care not to hamper his vision by pre-conceptions as to the beauty of natural scenery based upon the physiography of the old world. As a whole the aspect of the N. continent of the new world differs greatly from that of the old. In the former land there are none of those admirable combinations of snow-clad mountains and fertile valleys which lend such a charm to the scenery of Switzerland. In general the surface lacks those elements of detail which contribute so much to the picturesque aspect of a landscape. The scenery of North America is generally characterized by a largeness of mould and simplicity of outline dependent on the relatively uncomplicated nature of its geological history. The plains are vast and but little varied by elevations. The mountains of the Appalachian district have a singular continuity in their ridges, which, though it gives them a certain architectural beauty, deprives them of detail The grander elevations of the Cordilleras, though attaining to about the altitude of the Alps, rise from a much more elevated base than the Swiss mountains, and therefore make a less striking impression upon the eye. At few points on the continent do mountains or even considerable hills come near to the coast, and the result is that the shore line has a monotony of aspect which is much contrasted with the sea margin of Europe.

The lovers of picturesque beauty in nature may well seek in North America the charm of its primæval forests, the beauty of its great plains when they bear their spring-time flowers, and the attractions which are presented by the greater rivers with their noble valleys and often marvellous gorges. Of these cañons or defiles cut by the streams, those of the Cordilleras are by far the greatest in the world. That of the Colorado and that of the Yosemite, each in its way eminently peculiar, and differing one from the other in origin and in aspect, are doubtless the most striking features of the continent, for they are unequalled in any other land.

The history of the aborigines in North America shows that this continent was only moderately well fitted for the nurture of races in their steps of passage from the primitive condition of man towards the ways of civilization. Though a remarkably fertile region, and abounding in game, the land contains none of those fortunate peninsulas, or districts walled about by mountains or the sea, which in the old world have afforded such admirable cradle-places for infant states Thus it came to pass that in this country any tribe which attained some advance in civilization and became worth plundering was subjected to unending incursions from the neighbouring more savage folk. Only in Mexico and Central America did any of the primitive tribes advance beyond the stages of barbarism. The better fortune of those countries was probably due in the main to their more secluded positions. Moreover in North America the primitive people found no animals which were well suited for domestication or could render much help to man. The only beast which gave much promise of such aid, the bison, though a domesticable animal, has proved on the whole intractable and unfit for the uses of man.

The united conditions of the continent which made it on the whole unsuited for the nurture of peoples in the first stages of their advance has been an advantage to the European folk who have been transplanted to this part of the new world. The simple geographic character of the country has made access to its different parts relatively easy, and brought about its subjugation to the uses of man with marvellous rapidity. Some have feared that owing to the lack of diversities in the conditions of the continent, the people developed upon it would have an excessive uniformity in character and quality. The history of the populations, however, seems to show that the variety in climate, in soil or under-earth products,

and in the occupations which these features require of people, are sufficient to ensure considerable difference in the folk developed in different sections of the land. Under the mask of a common language, which, though varied by provincial peculiarities, is a perfect means of communication among the greater part of the folk to the N. of Mexico, the acute observer will detect varieties in essential quality quite as great as those which separate the people who dwell in different parts of Great Britain, France, or Germany. Though in some part these peculiarities may have been due to the diverse origin of the folk, they are in the main to be attributed to the effects of the local conditions of climate and occupations.

It is evident that the climate of North America, except those parts which have a subtropical character and the regions of the Far North which are too cold for tillage, are admirably suited to the uses of the European peoples from the states in the N. part of that continent. The descendants of the colonies from England, France, and Germany planted on this soil more than two centures ago between Florida and Labrador have all greatly prospered. They have increased in numbers at a more rapid rate than their kindred of the old world, their average life is as great if not greater, and their endurance of labour of all kinds is in no wise diminished. The history of the Civil War shows that in the essential qualities these men of the new world have lost nothing of their primitive strength.

Fortunately for the transplanted population of America, the conditions of soil, climate, and earth-resources permit the people to continue on the ways of advancement in the occupations of life which were trodden by their forefathers in the old world. The agriculture and the mechanic arts required no change whatever on the part of the immigrants; the nature of the country seemed to welcome them to the new-found shores.

XIII. Climate and Climatic Resorts of the United States,

by

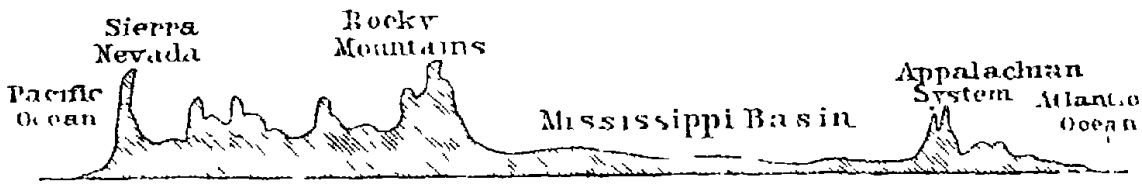
Edmund Charles Wendt, M. D., of New York.

Without some knowledge of the physical geography and topography of a country, an intelligent appreciation of its climatic peculiarities is not possible. This is particularly well seen in relation to the climatology of the United States. Extending from well-nigh arctic to almost subtropical regions, and from the level of the sea to elevations of nearly 15,000 ft.; covering a vast expanse of partly arid inland territory, and showing an enormous coast-line laved by two great oceans, it should not be surprising that every conceivable variety of climate may be found within its borders.

As compared with Europe, perhaps the most noteworthy feature of the American climate consists in its greater range of temperature and comparative dryness. The E. is also strikingly colder than the W. coast as well as the European countries of corresponding latitudes. This circumstance has led to much confusion, and has given the United States an undeserved reputation of being everywhere colder than Europe. It is quite true that, if New York, for example, be compared to cities of the same latitude, like Naples, Madrid, and Constantinople, or if Boston be contrasted with Rome, the American towns will be found decidedly colder. On the other hand if cities on the W. coast, like San Francisco or Portland, be selected for comparison, only trifling differences will appear.

Variations of Temperature. The mean annual temperature varies to

the extent of over 40° Fahr. in different parts of the Union. Extremes of actually recorded temperatures extend from -56° Fahr. to 121° Fahr. in the shade, a range of 177°. Taking the mean temperature of July as representing the hot season, we find in different sections of the country variations of more than 30° — *viz.* from 60° to over 90° Fahr. Again taking Jan. as a representative cold month, we find a range of over 50° — *viz.* from 10° Fahr. to above 60°. Now it must not be forgotten that in the United States. perhaps more than elsewhere, temperature and climate are not merely questions of so many degrees of latitude. The lines for similar annual means (isothermal lines) are considerably modified by ocean currents and winds, besides being deflected by the interposition of lofty mountain-chains.



The Mountain Ranges. The two main ranges are the *Appalachian System in the E. and the Cordillerean System* (Rocky Mts. and Sierra Nevada) in the W. As will be seen later on, the W. highlands have a climate peculiar to themselves. They run from N.W. to S.E. for nearly 5000 M., *i.e.* from Alaska to Mexico, and gradually slope to the E., so as to fill in from one-third to one-half of the N. American continent. The E. or Appalachian system extends in a S.W. direction from Nova Scotia to Alabama, a distance of over 1500 M. Its width averages hardly one-fifth, and the elevation of its peaks and plateaus not one-half that of the W. highlands. Hence its effect on local climate is much less pronounced (Guyot). Between these great mountain ranges the vast *Mississippi Basin* stretches out for thousands of miles, from truly arctic regions to the warm waters of the Gulf of Mexico. This basin also includes the *Great Lake district, one of the prominent features of the N. states.* The climate of this region is controlled by the vast expanse of these veritable 'inland oceans'.

Three Main Climatic Divisions. In accordance with the brief description just given, we recognize three main climatic divisions in the United States.

1. An *Eastern Region,* extending from the foot of the Rocky Mts. to the Atlantic seaboard, and including the entire Appalachian system.

2. The *Plateau and Mountain Region of the Western Highlands.*

3. The *Pacific Slope,* to the W. of the Sierra Nevada range.

The peculiarities of each region may be briefly stated as follows:

1. The Atlantic seaboard is moderately moist, and, in general, rather equable. It is, however, subject to summer 'hot spells', and winter 'cold snaps' of a very trying kind. The altitude of the Appalachian system is not sufficient to very materially affect the distribution of heat, winds, and rainfall, so that the change is a gradual one, as we approach the dry interior zone of the Great Mississippi Basin.

The latter region, about 1,245,000 sq. M. in extent, is in general warm and moderately equable. Extensive forests supply adequate moisture to the air, but where trees are sparse, the atmosphere becomes excessively dry. The Great Lakes temper this region on the N. and the Gulf of Mexico warms it on the S. Nevertheless Europeans often complain both of great summer heat and extreme winter cold; sensations which the thermometer rarely fails to justify. The numerous local departures from this general condition cannot be considered here.

2. The Plateau and Mountain Region is dry and cold. The higher peaks are Alpine in character. The great plateaus, situated between the border chain of the Sierra Nevada and the Rocky Mts., are on an average 5000 ft. above sea-level. Some of them are fully 6000 ft. high. The climate there is harsh, cold, and very dry. It is a common mistake, however, to suppose that these elevated plateaus are merely barren wastes. Especially at the lower levels richly fertile valleys are everywhere found to alternate with sandy treeless tracts, salt lakes, and marshy wastes. That there are corresponding differences in local climates can only be alluded to in this place. During the height of summer the days are hot, but as soon as the sun sets, the air grows chilly, and the nights are always cold.

3. The mountain slope of the Pacific is characterized by abruptness and great irregularity. Its climate is varied. The narrow strip bordering on the ocean is much warmer, more humid, and very decidedly more equable than corresponding interior latitudes and the Atlantic coast. This Pacific section is farther distinguished by a well-marked wet season, corresponding to the E. winter, and an equally well-defined dry season, corresponding to the E. summer. Moreover, cool summers and mild winters, as well as the complete absence of those extreme variations, which elsewhere mar the climate of the States, render the Pacific coast pleasantly conspicuous. It is here that some of the most popular winter and summer health resorts have been established.

Some Special Features. In regard to temperature, it is significant that, in spite of the wide range of the thermometer, something like 98 per cent of the entire population inhabit those regions in which the annual means extend from 40° to 70° Fahr. only. Roughly calculated, therefore, the average annual temperature of the whole United States is 55° Fahr. But foreigners are of course more interested in the extremes of heat and cold, which are disagreeably perceptible in almost all the states. The most delightful season of the year is unquestionably the so-called 'Indian summer', *i.e.* the few Autumn weeks which precede the actual onset of winter. It would be difficult to imagine anything more exhilarating than the crisp air, brilliant sunshine, clear blue skies, and grateful temperature characterizing the closing days of an 'Indian summer' at its best.

The summer temperature is everywhere higher than in Europe, with the exception of certain districts on the Pacific slopes already alluded to. The hottest regions of the country are naturally the southernmost parts of the southernmost states (Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, etc.). Here the annual mean rises to 75° Fahr., which is almost that of tropical climes. In the valley of the Lower Colorado, in California and Arizona, the summer mean rises to 90° Fahr. In Texas temperatures of 110°, and in Arizona and parts of California of 115°, are no great rarity, and yet here the great dryness of the atmosphere makes the heat seem less oppressive than in humid regions at a much lower range of temperature. In almost all the states of the Union several extremely hot days are to be looked for every summer. And in the more prolonged 'hot spells' the mortality from heat-stroke and diarrhœal diseases becomes alarming to a degree quite unknown in Europe. The severity of the winter is most felt in the elevated parts of New England, the higher plains of N. Minnesota and Dakota, and the lofty mountain plateaus of the Rockies. There the usual mean may descend below 40° Fahr. In upper Minnesota the winter mean is only 10° Fahr. On the whole, it may be said that American winters are more severe than those of Europe, always excepting, of course, the S. states. In the Atlantic and Middle states the winter is generally steady. Ice and snow may be counted on during one-half of the three coldest winter months. But to the W. of the Mississippi great irregularities are experienced. Mild and open periods there alternate with intense cold and violent storms. As we approach the Pacific increased mildness is observed. Continuous snow and ice are unknown along the whole W. coast from Vancouver to San Diego. Moreover, the temperature is so equable there that the winter mean is only 5-15° below that of summer. In the S. occasional cold storms are experienced, although the thermometer at New Orleans, for example, rarely descends below the freezing point. Yet the S. winter is fitful and at times trying. It begins and ends early, lasting from about Nov. until February. But there is absolutely no periodicity in the various irregularities observed, so that elaborate calculations based on averages may be rudely upset by the eccentricity of certain seasons. It is always well to be prepared for 'any kind of weather' in the United States.

Rainfall. The rainfall is quite unevenly distributed through the United States. In the E. section it is abundant, while the great W. plains and prairies are often parched with prolonged drought This has led to the general employment there of irrigation, without which agriculture could not flourish. In the strip along the Pacific coast a very plentiful precipitation occurs. The heaviest deposit of rain takes place in the borderlands of the Gulf, namely the S. parts of Louisiana, Mississippi, and Alabama, the E. part of Texas, and the W. coast of Florida. The annual quantity of water amounts to about 65 inches there. But at Philadelphia it is 45 inches, and at

Chicago only about 30. All over the E. the rainfall is abundant in spring and summer. It usually occurs in heavy showers, often accompanied by violent electrical discharges. On the Pacific coast, apart from the regularly recurring winter rains, little or no precipitation of water takes place. But at a short distance inland profuse summer rains are again observed. In the mountainous highlands heavy winter snows augment the annual volume of watery precipitation. The most arid tracts of the United States are in W. Arizona, S. Nevada, and S.E. California. The annual rainfall there descends from 15 to 8 inches and less. Broadly speaking the United States may be said to be favoured by an abundance of rain, with a relatively small proportion of rainy days. Fogs occur in the seaboard states, but they are neither as frequent nor as heavy as those known in many European countries.

Winds. The prevailing winds of the United States are westerly, like those of other countries situated in middle latitudes. Around the Gulf of Mexico the main current of the atmosphere moves in an E. or S.E. direction. Along the Atlantic coast region the predominating winds are S.W. in summer, and N.W. in winter. In a large S.W. district, including Nebraska, Kansas, Colorado, Arkansas, Texas, New Mexico, Utah, and Arizona, the summer winds come from the S., and the winter winds have a N. direction. In the region of the Rocky Mountains the winds are so irregular that none of them can be said to be 'prevalent'. In the tract between the Mississippi and the Appalachian ranges, both summer and winter winds are S.W. and W. It may be borne in mind that in the United States the S.W. winds blow over an expanse of warm water, while the N.E. winds hail from a frigid ocean, and the N.W. from frozen deserts.

Storms and Blizzards. The regularly recurring winter storms are most violent on the E. seaboard. The term 'blizzard' is employed to denote the blinding snow-storms with intense cold and high winds, which have their true home only in the W. but which are sometimes observed in the Atlantic States. †

Climatic Resorts.

The custom of spending the winter in the South and the summer at the seaside has nowhere assumed more formidable proportions than in the United States, and a few of the more important climatic resorts are named and characterised below. Comp. also the notices throughout the Handbook.

Winter Resorts. The best known winter-stations are in Florida, California, the Carolinas, Georgia, and Virginia. A large proportion of the invalids visiting these regions are the victims of consumption, but sufferers from gout, rheumatism, neurasthenia,

† A violent blizzard occurred in New York on March 12th, 1888. The snow was piled up in drifts of 10-30 ft., stopping all communication.

chlorosis, anæmia, diseases of the kidneys, affections of the heart, insomnia, chronic bronchitis, asthma, and over-work are often signally benefited by a stay at one or other of the resorts named below. In making one's choice of a winter's residence, the factor of accommodation should not be lost sight of; and it may be stated generally that the sanitary arrangements of American health-resorts are far superior to most places of the kind in Europe. In some of the hotels every conceivable modern comfort and luxury are provided (comp. pp. 402, 493, 505).

In *Florida* (RR. 76-82) the temperature is equable, the atmosphere is neither too dry nor too moist, the sunshine abundant, and the soil sandy. Consumptives do well there, especially in the early stages of the disease. The only drawback is the possibility of malaria; but the dangers arising from this source have been grossly exaggerated. — *Southern California* has, perhaps, the most delightful climate in the world (comp. p. 499). The air is genially warm and dry, yet not enervating as in more tropical climates, and more salubrious general conditions can nowhere be found. *Santa Barbara* (p. 497), *Los Angeles* (p. 499), and *San Diego* (*Coronado Beach*; p. 505) are among the chief resorts, the first named showing the least variation between the day and night temperatures, while the other two enjoy an almost total immunity from fog. At San Diego the coast-winds are sometimes inconvenient for invalids with throat-troubles. *San Bernardino* (p. 502) is more inland and has a rather bracing, but not irritating, climate, which some consumptives find more beneficial than that of other Californian resorts. *Monterey* (p. 493), *Santa Cruz* (p. 494), *Pasadena* (p. 500), *Redondo Beach* (p. 500), and *San Rafael* (p. 487), have all their special advantages. — *Thomasville* (p. 398), in Georgia, and *Aiken* (p. 393), in South Carolina, are much frequented by weak-chested persons, who find benefit in the balsamic fragrance of their pine forests. The advantages of *Asheville*, North Carolina, have been sufficiently indicated at p. 386. *Old Point Comfort* (p. 372), *Virginia Beach* (p 371), and *Newport News* (p. 371), in Virginia, are fashionable intermediate stations for invalids on their way back to the North. — *Lakewood* (p. 247), in New Jersey, and *Cumberland Gap Park*, in Tennessee (comp. p. 382), are also favourably known. — *Colorado Springs* (p. 468), *Manitou* (p. 469), and *Saranac Lake* (p. 186) are the chief resorts for the high-altitude treatment of consumption.

Summer Resorts. *Newport* (p. 76), *Nahant* (p. 101), *New London* (p. 71), *Narragansett Pier* (p. 72), *Bar Harbor* (p. 114), *Long Branch* (p. 63), *Atlantic City* (p. 248), *Cape May* (p. 249), and parts of *Long Island* (p. 61) are the most fashionable Seaside Resorts. Sea-bathing in the United States differs somewhat from British and Continental practices. Permanent bath-houses on the beach take the place of bathing-coaches, and the institution of bathing

masters is almost unknown. Men and women bathe together. The temperature of the water of the Atlantic Ocean in summer is so warm (often exceeding 70° Fahr.), that bathers frequently remain in it an hour or more, apparently without harm.

The chief Mountain Resorts are in the *Catskills* (p. 176), the *Adirondacks* (p. 183), the *White Mts.* (p. 134), the *Green Mts.* (p. 130), the *Berkshires* (p. 150), and the *Alleghenies* (pp. 341, etc.).

The United States contains nearly 9000 Mineral Springs. While, however, these waters are chemically equal to any in the world, it must be admitted that their scientific employment for the cure of disease has not hitherto been developed as at the famous European spas. *Saratoga Springs* (p. 198) has, perhaps, the best claim to ranking with the latter in its mode of life and methods of treatment. The celebrated *Hot Springs*, *Arkansas*, are described at p. 456. Among the most popular Sulphur Springs are *Blount Springs* (Ala.), *Blue Lick Springs* (Ky.), *White Sulphur Springs* (p. 342), *Sharon* (p. 175), and *Richfield Springs* (p. 206). — Good Iron Waters are found at *Sharon* (p. 175), *Cresson Springs* (p. 258), *Schooley's Mt.* (p. 215), and *Milford* (N. H.). — *Crab Orchard* (Ky.), *Bedford* (p. 257), and *Saratoga* (p. 198) have good Purgative Springs. — Among well-known Thermal Waters are those of the *Hot Springs*, *Arkansas* (see above), *San Bernardino* (p. 502), *Calistoga* (p. 488), and *Salt Lake* (p. 480).

XIV. The Fine Arts in America.

a. Painting and Sculpture,

by

William A. Coffin.

Marvellous progress in the fine arts has been made in the United States since the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia in 1876, when popular interest in Art received a decided impulse; and for something more than a decade the influx of American artists returning in large numbers from study in the European art centres, principally from Paris, has had a strongly marked influence on the tendencies of the American school. Before proceeding, however, to the consideration of the conditions in which American art stands before the public at the present day, it is pertinent to give briefly some account of its earlier history.

Previous to the Revolutionary period we find a Scottish artist named *John Watson* painting portraits in Philadelphia about 1715, and another Scotsman, *John Smybert*, similarly occupied in Boston from 1725 to 1751. *John Singleton Copley*, born in Boston in 1737, began to paint portraits there about 1751. He went to London subsequently, became a Royal Academician in 1779, and died in London

in 1815. He painted many celebrities of his time in the Colonies, and his works are among those most highly valued in early American art. *Benjamin West*, born at Springfield, Pennsylvania, in 1738, painted portraits in Philadelphia in 1756, went to Italy in 1760, and thence to London in 1763. He was elected president of the Royal Academy on the death of Sir Joshua Reynolds in 1792. He died in London in 1820, and his works, both portraits and compositions, are to be found in collections in the United States and England. At the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts in Philadelphia one of his most celebrated pictures, 'Death on the Pale Horse', is in the permanent collection, and the Boston Museum possesses his 'King Lear', another notable work. *Charles Wilson Peale*, who was a colonel in the Continental army, painted portraits of Washington and other men of the time that are of historical and artistic interest. *John Trumbull*, son of Jonathan Trumbull, Colonial Governor of Connecticut, a graduate of Harvard and (like Peale) a colonel in the army who had previously given his attention to the art of painting, gave up his commission and went to London to study under West. He is best known as a painter of military pictures representing the battles of the Revolution and the French and English war in Canada, and also painted numerous portraits and miniatures. An interesting collection which includes the most important of his works belongs to the Yale University and is on exhibition in the galleries of the art school connected with the institution at New Haven (see p. 66).

Gilbert Stuart, born at Narragansett, Rhode Island, in 1755, is the most famous of all the portrait-painters of the Revolutionary period, and his work compares very favourably with that of his contemporaries in Europe. He was a pupil of West in London and returned to America in 1792. He settled in Boston, after painting portraits two years in New York, Philadelphia, and Washington, and died there in 1828. The best portraits of Washington are those from his hand, and the list of his other portraits is a long one, including many of the best-known men in the first Congresses of the United States and military and civic dignitaries. Portraits by Stuart are in the collections at the Museum of Fine Arts, Boston (p. 90); at the Metropolitan Museum (p. 45), the Lenox Library (p. 38), and the New York Historical Society (p. 42), New York; and at the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, Philadelphia (p. 237). *John Vanderlyn* and *Thomas Sully* (an Englishman who came to America at an early age) were portrait-painters of note contemporary with Stuart and Trumbull. *Washington Allston*, born in South Carolina in 1779 and a graduate of Harvard in the class of 1800, went to London to study in the schools of the Royal Academy in 1801. He settled in Boston in 1818, and painted historical and religious subjects as well as portraits, and is considered one of the most talented of American artists. One of the best of his works is the 'Jeremiah' in the Yale University collection at New Haven (p. 66), and there

are others at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts and elsewhere. *Samuel F. B. Morse* (1791-1872), the inventor of the telegraph, who graduated at Yale in 1810 and was a pupil of Allston, devoted himself to historical painting in the beginning of his career in the first quarter of the present century.

On the 8th of November, 1825, a number of young artists and students in New York established the New York Drawing Association. On the 16th of January, 1826, they chose from their number fifteen artists who were directed to choose fifteen others, and the thirty thus selected constituted a new society which was called the National Academy of Design. Among the first fifteen of these founders of the Academy were *Thomas S. Cummings*, *William Dunlap*, *Asher B. Durand*, *John Frazee*, and *Henry Inman*. Among the second fifteen were *Thomas Cole*, *William Jewett*, *Rembrandt Peale*, *John Vanderlyn*, and *Samuel Waldo*. *Thomas Cole* was the first American landscape-painter, and *Durand* and *Thomas Doughty* were prominent among those who followed his lead in taking up this branch of painting. *Inman* was a noted portrait-painter, as were *Waldo* and *Jewett*, *Vanderlyn* (who has already been mentioned), and *Rembrandt Peale*. In the years following the founding of the Academy *G. P. A. Healey* (who went to Paris to study under Baron Gros and Couture), *Thomas Rossiter* and *William Hunt* of Boston (pupils of Couture), *William Page*, *Daniel Huntington*, *Charles L. Elliott*, and *Robert W. Weir* among others gained wide reputations as portrait and figure painters, and in landscape *John F. Kensett* and *Sanford R. Gifford* became especially famous. Some of the contemporaries and the immediate successors in point of historical sequence of these men, elected to membership in the Academy or chosen as Associates, from about the middle of the forties to the beginning of the seventies, form what is sometimes referred to as the 'Older School' of American painters. The Academy held its seventy-third annual exhibition in the spring of 1898, and its seventeenth autumn exhibition the same year.

In sculpture the first American artists to be noted are *John Frazee*, *Hiram Powers*, and *Horatio Greenough*, one of whose representative works is the equestrian statue of Washington in the Capitol grounds at Washington (p. 277). Frazee was born in 1790 and Powers and Greenough in 1805. *Thomas Crawford*, *Randolph Rogers*, *Thomas Ball*, *W. W. Story*, and *Henry K. Brown*, whose equestrian statues of Washington in Union Square, New York (p. 33), and of General Scott at Washington (p. 288) are especially worthy of mention among the achievements of the earlier American sculptors, should be grouped with Frazee, Powers, and Greenough, though they are chronologically later. This summary brings us to the period uniting the old and new, the time when American art, having made for itself a dignified place in the national civilization, was conservative in its processes and faithful to time-honoured traditions and had not yet felt to any appreciable degree the influences of the great revival

that followed the appearance of Delacroix and Géricault, the famous men of 1830, and the Fontainebleau group in France. We find *Huntington*, *Baker*, *Le Clear*, *Eastman Johnson*, *J. B. Flagg*, *Hicks*, and others prominent as portrait-painters; *Guy*, *J. G. Brown*, *Henry*, *Loop*, *Mayer*, and *Wilmarth*, noted painters of figure subjects; *F. E. Church*, *Bierstadt*, *Cropsey*, *Bellows*, *Whittredge*, *Thos. Moran*, *De Haas*, *David Johnson*, *James M. Hart*, *Wm. Hart*, and *McEntee* the chief painters of landscapes, marines, and cattle-pieces, and *J. Q. A. Ward* and *Launt Thompson*, the sculptors of the day. We find in their work sincerity of purpose, much artistic feeling, and individuality. Except in a few cases, however, there is little to show that their art had developed under other than indigenous influences.

American art at the present time, broadly speaking, means art in New York, for though there is much that is of value produced in Boston and Philadelphia and something worth noting here and there in some other cities, the best work of the artists in these places is usually seen in New York. In considering the modern 'Movement' in New York it is fair to say that we cover the whole country, and the condition of the fine arts in the United States may be measured by applying the gauge to what is to be seen in New York. If a few individual factors be thus omitted, it does not affect the test as a whole. This is nearly as true of New York in the United States as it is of Paris in France and much more so than of London in Great Britain. It was in 1877 and 1878 that the first of a little band of artists that has now grown into an army almost, and is sometimes styled the 'New School' and sometimes the 'Younger Men', made their appearance in New York and excited public interest by their work at the Academy exhibitions. They came from their studies in Paris and Munich and with characteristic American promptitude founded a society of their own. Some of the home artists who were in sympathy with their aims joined with them, and the new Society called the American Art Association was formed at a meeting held in New York on June 1st, 1877, at which *Augustus St. Gaudens*, *Wyatt Eaton*, *Walter Shirlaw*, and *Mrs. R. W. Gilder* were present; and before the first exhibition was held in the spring of 1878 the names of the following artists, among others, were placed on the roll of the Society: *Olin L. Warner*, *R. Swain Gifford*, *Louis C. Tiffany*, *J. Alden Weir*, *Homer D. Martin*, *John La Farge*, *William Sartain*, *W. H. Low*, *A. H. Wyant*, *R. C. Minor*, and *George Inness*. The name of the organization was changed in February, 1878, to the Society of American Artists, and it was incorporated under that title in 1882. It has held exhibitions in New York every spring since 1878 with the exception of 1885. Its discarded title, the American Art Association, has meanwhile been assumed by a business company, which conducts sales of collections and deals in works of art. The Society of American Artists has now 125 members, about twenty of whom reside in Europe, and is a progressive, vigorous body,

whose yearly exhibition is one of the most important events in the American art world. Whatever feeling of antagonism to the Academy may have existed at the outset of the new movement has now disappeared, and the Academy and the Society are friendly rivals. But young artists have been coming from Europe and establishing themselves in New York for the past twenty years, and their number increases steadily and rapidly. These younger men are very good painters as a rule; the space at the Academy is too limited to give room for their work and that of the Academicians and associates and other men who, though they do not belong to the Academy, hold a position in American art by reason of long residence and recognized ability; and the Society has been expected to offer the vigorous young school a fitting place to exhibit. It has done this, especially in the past twelve years, since 1886, most successfully. It has recently, in connection with the Architectural League of New York and the Art Students' League, secured a permanent home and spacious galleries in the new building of the American Fine Arts Society (the executive society of the alliance) at No. 215 West 57th St.

The highest standard of excellence is maintained at the exhibitions of the Society of American Artists, where the visitor will obtain an impression of what motives and purposes inspire the younger men and will see a collection of works of art that for individuality in conception and cleverness of treatment may justly be ranked with the best displays offered in the European capitals. The exhibitions at the Academy are somewhat larger, but uneven in quality, though the younger men are usually pretty well represented and the best work of the older school is there shown. Comparison between the two exhibitions will be found to be instructive and interesting. The number of American artists who are well trained is now very large. This is due to study abroad, the strong influence of the French schoo on the younger men, and the methods now followed in the instruction of pupils in the art schools. The number of those who do thoroughly good work and are individual in the presentation of their motives is altogether too great to give more than the names of a few of them. Perhaps it will not be invidious to mention those of *Homer*, *Chase*, *Dewing*, *Mowbray*, *Brush*, *Weir*, *Cox*, *Thayer*, *Blashfield*, *La Farge*, *Low*, *Millet*, *Tarbell*, *Vinton*, *Blum*, *Maynard*, *H. O. Walker*, *H. B. Jones*, *Tryon*, *Donoho*, *Platt*, and *Horatio Walker* among the most prominent painters, and *St. Gaudens*, *French*, *Warner*, *MacMonnies*, *Hartley*, *Adams*, and *Elwell* among the sculptors. The American artists who reside abroad are frequently represented in the New York exhibitions, and *Sargent*, *Abbey*, *Harrison*, *Dannat*, *Gay*, *Bridgman*, *Melchers*, *Pearce*, *Hitchcock*, *Vail*, *McEwen*, and others are as well known at home as in Paris. When at the Universal Exhibition at Paris in 1889 the American section in the fine arts department included the works of the artists at home and abroad, it was conceded by many that in interest, in technical excellence, and in

individuality the American exhibition ranked second to none but that of France itself. At the World's Fair, held at Chicago in 1893, the home section was the largest and most interesting, and the works exhibited were generally allowed to surpass the collections of other countries in individuality while rivalling them in technical excellence. The intelligent observer who comes to the United States and takes the opportunity to study American art as it is to-day cannot but be impressed with the value of its present achievement. The high place it is destined to occupy in the future is plainly indicated in the startling rapidity of its progress and the earnestness of purpose of the artists who are each day adding to its renown.

The visitor to New York will find in the autumn an exhibition of current American art at the Academy; in November and December an exhibition of the New York Water Color Club, a young society organized in 1890, whose purpose it is to hold annual exhibitions in the art season before the holidays; in February and March the regular annual exhibition of the American Water Color Society, at the Academy (one of the best and *most interesting* of all the exhibitions); and in April and May the regular annual exhibitions of the Academy and the Society of American Artists. In addition to these there are usually, throughout the season, numerous special exhibitions in the galleries of the dealers of the works of individual artists, and at the American Art Association and the Fifth Avenue Art Galleries there is a constant succession of exhibitions — some of them often of great importance, as when notable private collections are shown before being sold at auction. The *Metropolitan Museum* (p. 45), with the valuable additions made recently, compares very favourably with the great galleries of Europe. The exhibitions of the Architectural League, held annually in Jan., are interesting to the non-professional visitor, as the scope of the exhibition includes decorative art, and the architectural portion of the display has many popular as well as technical features. For those who wish to be informed as to the facilities for instruction in the fine arts in New York it may be mentioned that the schools of the Art Students' League, where there are over a thousand pupils on the rolls, rank with the schools of Paris in the quality of the work produced by the students, and that excellent schools are maintained also by the National Academy of Design, the Metropolitan Museum, and the Cooper Union.

In Philadelphia annual exhibitions of American art are held at the Pennsylvania Academy of the Fine Arts (founded in 1805), and the permanent collections are valuable and interesting. Exhibitions are also held by the Art Club of Philadelphia and by the Philadelphia Society of Artists. In Boston the collections of the Museum of Fine Arts are of great value both from the artistic and the historical standpoint, and exhibitions of the work of American artists are given each season by the Boston Art Club and other societies. In most of the larger cities, such as Chicago, St. Louis, and Cincinnati, and in many towns in the East and West there are art institutions and schools, and exhibitions to which New York artists are among the contributors are held with considerable regularity.

b. Architecture,

by

Montgomery Schuyler.

The sources of the settlement of the United States were so many and so various that we should expect to find a corresponding variety in the building of the colonies. As a matter of fact, however, by the time the settlements upon the Atlantic seaboard had become suf-

ficiently established to project durable or pretentious buildings, the English influence had become predominant, and the colonists took their fashions from England in architecture as in other things. The Spanish settlements within the present limits of the United States were unimportant compared with those farther to the South. The trifling remains of Spanish building in Florida and Louisiana are not to be compared with the monuments erected by the Spaniards in Mexico, where some of the churches in size and costliness and elaboration of detail are by no means unworthy examples of the Spanish Renaissance of the 17th century. The only considerable town on the Atlantic coast that is not of English origin is New York, which was already a place of some importance when the New Netherlands were ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Breda in 1667. It was built in the then prevailing fashion of Holland. The 'Flemish Renaissance', which has lately appealed to English architects as containing valuable suggestions for modern building, did not impress the new masters of New Amsterdam. The crow-stepped gables and steep tiled roofs of the Dutch settlers were displaced by dwellings and warehouses of English architecture executed by English mechanics. It is unlikely that any specimen of Dutch architecture was erected, either in New York or in Albany (which retained its Dutch characteristics longer), after the beginning of the 18th century. There are now no Dutch buildings left in New York, and it is believed that there is but one in Albany. There are, however, here and there Dutch farmhouses left on Long Island and in New Jersey; a manor-house of the Van Rensselaers, patroons of Rensselaerswyck, has been re-erected at Williamstown (p. 155), whither it was recently removed from Albany; there is an occasional Dutch church in the oldest parts of New York State and New Jersey; and part of the Philipse manor-house, now the City Hall of Yonkers (p. 166), is of Dutch architecture. These relics are all of the 17th century and are interesting rather historically than architecturally. They do not invalidate the rule that by the time the colonists were able and disposed to erect buildings of any architectural pretensions, their models were the contemporary buildings of England.

The public buildings of the colonial period were mainly churches, and these, where they were more than mere 'meeting-houses', were imitated from the churches of Sir Christopher Wren and his successors. Of these St. Michael's (p. 391), built in 1752 in Charleston, is the most conspicuous and perhaps the most successful. Burke, in his 'Account of the European Settlements in America' (1757), says of it: 'the church is spacious and executed in very handsome taste, exceeding everything of that kind which we have in America'. The design is attributed, on the strength of a contemporaneous newspaper paragraph, to 'Mr. Gibson', but this is probably a mistake for Mr. Gibbs, the architect of St. Martin's-in-the-Fields in London and the Radcliffe Library at Oxford, being at the time one of the most successful of English architects and perhaps the most distinguished

of the immediate followers of Wren. The resemblances between St. Michael's and St. Martin's tend to strengthen this conjecture. St. Paul's (p. 29) in New York (1767) was the most important of the colonial churches of the city and in style resembles St. Michael's, being ultimately inspired by Wren's city churches in London.

A local tradition refers the design of the College of William and Mary (p. 372), at Williamsburg, Va., to Sir Christopher Wren himself, but the architecture scarcely bears out the legend. It is, however, in Virginia and in Maryland that the colonial architecture is seen at its best. The great tobacco-planters of those colonies formed a real landed gentry, such as could scarcely be said to exist in any other of the colonies, excepting the holders of manorial grants on the Hudson River, who were much fewer in numbers. The farmers of New England and Pennsylvania were a yeomanry and there were very few landed proprietors in New England who could rival the scale of living of the tobacco-planters, whose estates and agricultural operations were extensive, whose habits were hospitable and commonly extravagant, and who lived up to their easily acquired incomes. They possessed real 'seats', and these are the most pretentious and the most interesting examples of colonial domestic architecture. Such mansions as Brandon, Shirley, and Westover in Virginia (see p. 370), and Homewood and Whitehall in Maryland, testify to a high degree not only of social refinement on the part of their owners but of skill on the part of the artisans who built them, for the profession of architecture was almost if not quite unknown to the colonies. The architecture of these mansions consisted in a simple, almost invariably symmetrical composition, often a centre with wings connected with it by a curtain wall, in a careful and generally successful proportioning of these parts and of the stories, which were usually two and very rarely more than three, and in the refined though conventional design and skilful execution of the detail, especially of the detail in woodwork. The porch was the feature of the front, and in houses of much pretension generally exhibited an order, consisting of a pair of columns sustaining an entablature and a pediment. The bricks were imported from England, or often, in the northern colonies, from Holland, and stone was sparingly employed. Many of the country seats of the landed gentry have been piously preserved, but in towns the colonial houses have been for the most part destroyed. Annapolis (p. 274), in Maryland, named after Princess Anne, has been left on one side by the march of improvement and remains to show many specimens of the Georgian architecture, which still give it a strong resemblance to an English town that has remained inactive for a century.

The colonial architecture continued to prevail after the close of the politically colonial period. The first Capitol of the United States at Washington was a very good specimen of it, although the design of it has been obscured by the later additions in a different taste. Although the plan which was accepted was the work of an amateur,

the work of construction was assigned to a trained architect, to whom the design of the building was really due. At the instigation of Jefferson, then President and himself a dabbler in architecture, the architect attempted to compose an 'American order' by conventionalising the foliage of plants peculiar to this continent. Some of the capitals engendered by this essay are to be seen in the interior of the Capitol (p. 279), but it is upon the whole fortunate that no attempt was made to employ them in the exterior decoration. The building was burned by the British in 1814, but was rebuilt with additions and variations during the next decade. To the same period belong the State House of Massachusetts at Boston, the City Hall of New York, and the Merchants' Exchange of Philadelphia, all specimens of educated and discreet architecture, as it was at that time understood in Europe.

The inspiration of these works and of others like them was distinctly Roman. The Greek revival that was stimulated in Europe by the publication of Stuart's work on Athens was somewhat belated in reaching the United States, where the Roman Renaissance of Wren and his successors was in full possession. The Grecian temple was adopted at the national capital as the model of a modern public building about 1835, with such modifications as were compelled by practical requirements. The Treasury, of the Ionic order, the Doric building of the Interior Department, commonly called the Patent Office, and the Corinthian General Post Office were among the first fruits of this cult. From Washington it gradually spread over the United States, Girard College (p. 239) at Philadelphia and the Sub-Treasury and the Custom House at New York being among the finest and most monumental of the American reproductions. For the next 15 years the Grecian temple in stone or brick was commonly adopted for churches as well as for public buildings, while it was reproduced in wood for dwellings of architectural pretensions, either in town or country. In 1851 the extension of the Capitol at Washington was begun. It consists of two wings, fronted with Corinthian colonnades, making the extreme length of the building 750 feet, and the addition of a central dome of cast iron, which attains the disproportionate height of over 300 feet and is, in other respects, not very successfully adjusted to the building which it crowns. The Capitol thus completed became the model for American public buildings. Nearly all the State Houses have followed its general disposition and have included a lofty dome.

Although there are some earlier churches in a style which the designers of them believed to be Gothic, the Gothic revival in the United States may be said to have begun with the erection of Trinity Church (p. 28) in New York in 1846, which remains, perhaps, the most admirable piece of ecclesiastical architecture in that city. Within a few years thereafter Gothic had almost entirely superseded classic architecture as a style for churches, although in commercial buildings

the models of the Renaissance were preferred, and these were imitated in fronts of cast-iron to an extent quite unknown elsewhere. The Gothic designers, however, insisted upon the applicability of their style to all uses and made many essays of more or less interest, in public, commercial, and domestic building, of which there are examples in all the Atlantic cities.

Up to this time, although among the leading American architects were Germans and Frenchmen as well as Englishmen, and an increasing proportion of native designers who had made their studies at the Ecole des Beaux Arts, or in the office of Continental architects, the architecture of the country had upon the whole been a faint and belated reflection of the current architecture of England. This continued to be the case during a brief season of experiments with 'Queen Anne'. But at this time there arose an American architect whose personal force, manifested for the most part in his own free version of the Southern French Romanesque, very deeply impressed his contemporaries and his successors and greatly affected the building of the whole country. This was *Mr. H. H. Richardson* (1838-86), who came into a national celebrity with the completion of Trinity Church, Boston, in 1877, when the author was thirty-nine years old. In the nine years of life that remained to him, he made such an impression upon his profession that almost every American town bears traces of his influence. His own most noteworthy works, besides Trinity, are the county-buildings at Pittsburg (p. 263), the Senate Chamber, the Court of Appeals, and the Western Staircase of the Capitol of New York at Albany (p. 172), the Albany City Hall (p. 173), the Cincinnati Board of Trade (p. 345), Sever Hall and Austin Hall at Cambridge (p. 94), and a warehouse in Chicago (p. 315). As might have been expected, he has had many imitators, but the extent and the value of his services to American architecture are best seen in the work of architects who have recognized the force that lay in his simple and large treatment, and have recognized also that the force of this treatment was independent of the detail he employed and of the style in which he worked. This lesson has been learned and applied by the architects of many of the towering 'elevator buildings' erected for commercial purposes, which are so marked features of the American cities, and are the unique contribution of American architects to their art. The introduction of the elevator made possible a great increase in the number of stories of a commercial building, which before that introduction were usually limited to five, whereas quite three times that number have been proved to be practicable and profitable. The earliest of the elevator buildings were the Western Union building (p. 29; since partly destroyed and rebuilt) and the Tribune building (p. 30) in New York, and these are but twenty years old. The architectural problem presented by these structure was entirely new, and no precedents could be invoked for theis treatment. Many of the different solutions of it offered by American

architects are of high ingenuity and interest. Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago offer numerous commercial buildings that are impressive and admirable pieces of architecture, although the conditions of their erection have compelled the designers to disregard many accepted canons of their art, and they seem voluntarily to have disregarded many others. Some of these structures are unmistakable and tolerably consistent examples of historic styles, but others, equally successful, are impossible to classify.

While American architects have been compelled to contribute to architecture a new type in the elevator building, they have won successes not less genuine, though of course less startling, in domestic architecture. Here also they are almost equally independent of convention, and this, as is often apparent in their successful essays, not from ignorance but from deliberate choice. The discipline of the schools has enabled a designer to produce work that is clearly scholarly and as clearly not scholastic. Dwellings of recent erection are to be found in the suburbs of Boston, in the new 'West Side' of New York, on all three 'sides' of Chicago, and indeed in all the chief towns of the North and North-West that are so far from being examples of styles that they betray a complete freedom of eclecticism and that are yet evidently the work of accomplished and artistic designers. The massiveness of the Romanesque in which Mr. Richardson worked sometimes even in his hands degenerated into a coarseness and clumsiness that are especially repugnant to the spirit of domestic architecture. His imitators have exaggerated these defects and omitted the qualities which in his work atoned for them, and the most successful of recent American dwellings that can be classified as Romanesque are of a lighter and more enriched Romanesque than that which he employed. The French Renaissance of Francis I. has appealed to many of the architects as a style at once free and picturesque and at the same time refined, and some interesting houses have been done in it, especially in New York (comp. p. 37) and Philadelphia. In country-houses, also, American architects have had their successes, and a fairly comprehensive view of their achievements in this kind can be had from a sojourn at any of the watering-places on the coast of New England or New Jersey. Architecturally as well as otherwise Newport is the most interesting of these.

The European historians and critics of architecture who have so long been insisting that 'Art is not archæology' may find in the current building of the United States that precept reduced to practice. An absolute freedom is the rule alike among competent and incompetent architects, subject with the former class to the artistic unity of the resulting work. In commercial and domestic architecture, along with much wildness and crudity, this freedom has produced much that is interesting and suggestive to the European student of architecture, and that gives good hope for the progress of architecture in the United States.

XV. Sports,

by

Henry Harmon Neill.

Only within recent years have outdoor sports become a popular form of amusement in the United States, previous to that time base-ball and trotting alone claimed attention. To-day, however, nearly every game familiar to Englishmen is played in the Eastern half of the country, and many are known throughout all the states. The growth has been so rapid that its postponement until the present generation now seems surprising. Perhaps the explanation is that in a new country outdoor labour is so general as to forbid outdoor play; or that Americans have until recently been too busy to amuse themselves except after sundown.

To enter into the spirit of American pastimes, an Englishman need only learn to admire the gait of the trotting horse and to admit the merits of base-ball as a substitute for cricket. All other sports are conducted substantially upon English models. The *Running Horses* (*i.e.* race-horses) are all of English blood, and the tracks are becoming annually more like those of Great Britain, straight and hilly courses replacing the level oval mile once universal; the *Yachts* are growing more substantial in build and more English in model; *Football* as played in the States is a modification of the Rugby game; *Lawn Tennis*, *Cricket*, *Lacrosse*, *Golf*, and *Polo* are played in the same way in both countries; while *Rowing* and *Canoeing* are equally popular on each side of the Atlantic.

Though the theory that **Base-ball** is a development of '*Rounders*' is vehemently disputed, the 'National Game' is easily understood by anyone familiar with the old English pastime. It is played in every village, town, and city, and by every school, college, university, and athletic club in the country; but the games most worth seeing are those of the (professional) *National League*, in New York, Boston, Brooklyn, Cincinnati, Chicago, Washington, Philadelphia, Pittsburg, St. Louis, Baltimore, Cleveland, and Louisville. The club 'representing' each of these cities plays a series of home and home games with every other; the winner of the greatest number is the champion of the year. Minor 'Leagues' are the *Eastern*, *Atlantic*, and *Western*, with clubs in the smaller cities. The best amateur games are those of the colleges (especially *Harvard*, *Yale*, *Pennsylvania*, *Princeton*, *Georgetown*, and *Cornell*) and of the larger athletic clubs. The season begins in May and ends in October. A base-ball team consists of nine men, including the pitcher, catcher, and seven fielders. Large salaries (sometimes $ 10,000 a year) are paid to the best professional players, and the game is the vehicle of a considerable amount of betting in the western states.

Horse Races. See p. 17 under New York. Other meetings are held during the season in or near Chicago, St. Louis, Cincinnati, Louisville, New Orleans, Washington, Saratoga, and elsewhere; but the racing there is not very good.

Trotting Races take place during the season, from May to Sept., on 1500 tracks in the United States owned by as many associations, and at all county and state fairs as well as on many private tracks at brood-farms and elsewhere. Stakes, purses, and added moneys amount to more than $ 3,000,000 annually; and the capital invested in horses, tracks, stables, farms, etc., is enormous. The tracks are level, with start and

finish directly in front of the grand stand, and are either 1 M. or ½ M. in length. They are always of earth, and are usually elliptical in shape, though the 'kite-shaped track' was for a time popular for its increased speed. In this there is one straight stretch of ⅓ M., then a wide turn of ⅓ M., and then a straight run of ⅓ M. back to the start and finish. The horses are driven in two-wheeled 'sulkies' of little weight, and the handicaping is exclusively by time-classes. Records of every race are kept by two national associations. Horses that have never trotted a mile in less than 2 min. 40 secs. are in one class; those that have never beaten 2.35 in another; those that have never beaten 2.30 in a third; and so on down to 2.5, which has been beaten but a dozen times. Races are always trotted in heats, and the winner must win three heats. With a dozen entries (or even six or eight, the more usual number) a race may thus occupy an entire afternoon, and require many heats before a decision is reached. Betting is common at every meeting, but is not so prominent as at running tracks. The best trotting races are to be seen at the tracks of the 'Grand Circuit' and the 'Western Southern Circuit'. These give meetings, of from four to eight days each, in or near New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburg, Cleveland, Buffalo, Rochester, Springfield, and Hartford in the Eastern States, and at Sturgis (Mich.), Grand Rapids (Mich.), Chicago (Ill.), Independence (Iowa), Fort Wayne (Ind.), Cambridge City (Ind.), Terre Haute (Ind.), St. Louis (Mo.), Nashville (Tenn.), and Columbia (Tenn.). — The best brood-farms for the development of trotting horses are in Kentucky and California. Each farm has an annual auction-sale of its produce, either at home or in New York City. At the stables of Mr. Robert Bonner in New York City are some of the fastest trotters in the world; they may be seen upon application to the owner by letter.

Hunting is much in vogue in the neighbourhood of New York, though the place of a fox is generally taken by a 'drag'. There are frequent meets with one of the packs of *Meadow Brook*, *Rockaway*, *Orange*, or *White Plains*. Boston, Philadelphia, and Washington also support packs. The wild fox is hunted in the *Geneseo Valley* (N. Y.) and at *Media* (Pa.). Near the cities the sport is indulged in mainly by active business men who cannot spare more than an afternoon for it.

Shooting and Fishing are generally free to all-comers during the legal season, though the number of game and fish-preserves is increasing. The *Game Laws* are different in each of the States and Territories, and cannot be condensed. The periodical 'Fur, Fin, and Feather' (111 Warren St., New York City), contains them all, with the latest amendments.

Of the 33,000 sq. M. in the state of *Maine* more than one-half is an almost uninhabited wilderness of forest. Here are 1500 lakes, thousands of streams and rivulets, and miles upon miles of hunting-grounds, where the sportsman may find large game and small and fishing and shooting of almost all kinds. His visit should be made not earlier than the middle of July, when the black fly has passed, and should continue until after the first of October, when the open season for deer, caribou, and moose begins. By law he may fish in fresh water from May to Sept inclusive, and hunt from Oct. to Dec. inclusive, the greater sport being permitted from the day the quieter ceases Bears, foxes, wild-cats, and wolves he may kill at any time, and opportunities for doing so are not unlikely to occur. Ducks, geese, loons, and herons abound; and small game of every kind is common. The region may be entered at *Greenville*, on *Moosehead Lake* (p. 110), the largest sheet of water in the State. Here guides may be obtained at $3 per day, who furnish canoes, cooking utensils, and tents. It is best, of course, to camp out. For this, one guide is required for each visitor; food will cost about $1 per day, and other equipment may be purchased beforehand, or hired at Greenville or any other point selected for entering the woods. A good rifle, a pole (fishing-rod), lines, flies, reels, stout boots, and plenty of blankets — these are the necessities, and beyond these one may take an outfit as complete or as modest as desired. Care should be taken in the selection of guides. In July and Aug. it is not easy to get good ones. A party of four, with four or five guides, is as large as is desirable.

The *Rangeley Lakes* (p 119) are more accessible than Greenville, but the sport there is not so good; the wilderness, however, may be penetrated in canoes from either point for hundreds of miles, with increasing chances of game.

The *Adirondack Region* (p. 183) has a smaller area than the Maine wilderness, and the shooting is not so good. Deer may be met with, however, the open season lasting from Aug. 15th to Nov. 1st. But although large hotels, steam-launches, and even railroads are now found throughout the Adirondacks, the trout-fishing is still excellent The season lasts from May 1st to Sept. 15th. A large part of the region is owned by the State and reserved as a public park. August is the best month for a visit; and the sportsman may go directly to one of the hotels in the region, relying upon the guides, provisions, and equipments there to be found.

There is also good hunting in the mountains of Pennsylvania, the Virginias, Tennessee, and North Carolina; and in the Far West the biggest game is found. Deer are abundant, too, in Louisiana, Mississippi, Florida, and Alabama, and venison has within recent years been cheaper than beef in the markets of New Orleans. But the limits of this article forbid more than a mention of these facts.

Wild Fowl abound on the coast from Maine to Florida; the season for duck, etc., usually opens about Sept. 1st and continues to April.

Tarpon Fishing in the deep-sea water off Florida, best from Feb to May, is a superb sport (comp. p. 397).

Buffaloes are nearly extinct. There are not over 1000 on the continent; of these 500 are in Yellowstone Park, where the sound of a gun is never heard. Another herd is preserved in the Corbin Park, New Hampshire (p. 129).

The *Mountain Sheep* and *Rocky Mountain Goat*, in the Far West, are generally protected by law from Jan to Sept.; in some states they cannot be legally killed at all.

Bicycling. The roads in the United States are not good, except near large cities and in a few eastern counties. They are, however, constantly being improved, and long tours, even across the continent, are now often made. The *League of American Wheelmen*, with over 100,000 members and divisions in every State, is doing what it can to improve the country roads, and its great influence gives hope of success. Already by political action, it has secured for the wheelman many rights formerly denied him, including the freedom of public parks, in almost all cities, on an equality with other vehicles. Clubs exist in every city. Annual race-meetings are held in each State during the riding season; and other meetings are not infrequent. Chief among the latter is the annual 'Wheel about the Hub' (third Frid., Sat., & Sun. in Sept.) of the *Boston Bicycle Club* (the oldest in America, dating from 1878). The *Cyclists' Touring Club* of England is represented in the United States by a Chief Consul at Boston (Mr. Frank W. Weston, Savin Hill, Dorchester) and Consuls in many towns and cities; and manufacturers or dealers, from whom information may be sought and wheels hired, are to be found in almost every town.

Lawn Tennis. The annual *All-comers Tournament* is held at Newport in August; the winner plays the champion of the year before for the championship at singles. A *Western Championship Tournament* at doubles occurs in Chicago in July, and an *Eastern* in New York, Philadelphia, or near Boston; the winners of these meet at Newport. The *Ladies Championships* are decided in Philadelphia. All these are open to members of recognized clubs, American or foreign. There are many minor tournaments during the season (May to Oct), usually open to strangers. A *Tropical Championship Tournament* is held in St. Augustine, Florida, during the winter. The *National Association* is the governing body, and there are clubs and courts in every city.

Cricket. The best clubs are in Philadelphia (see p. 231); in New York and Chicago a few Englishmen play, and some of the colleges have elevens. The game, however, has never secured a good foothold, being generally considered too Alexandrine as compared with base-ball.

Golf has recently become very popular in the United States, and golf links have been laid out all over the country. There is an *Association of American Golf Clubs;* and annual competitions are held for the Open and Amateur Championships. Comp. p. 18.

Polo and Court Tennis have their headquarters at Newport. — **Lacrosse** is mainly a Canadian game, but there is a Lacrosse League in the cities of the Atlantic coast, and the game is played at several colleges.

Rowing. The *National Association of Amateur Oarsmen* is the governing body, and holds an annual regatta, over a different course each year. Other associations are the *New England*, the *Middle States*, the *Harlem*, and the *Southern*. The best eight-oared crews are those of *Harvard*, *Yale*, *Columbia*, *Cornell*, *Wisconsin*, and *Pennsylvania Universities*. Harvard and Yale usually race at New London (p. 71) in June; the others either there or on the Hudson River or at Saratoga.

Canoeing. The *American Canoe Association* holds an annual meeting in Aug., usually in Northern New York. There are canoeists on almost every stream in the country, and many clubs. Sailing is developed at the expense of paddling; in other respects the customs are similar to those in England

Football. The game played is a development of the Rugby game, but is played with teams of eleven a side instead of fifteen. *Yale*, *Harvard*, *Princeton*, *Pennsylvania*, *Cornell*, *West Point*, and *Annapolis* have the best elevens. They play in Nov. in New York or on their home grounds, having previously met minor teams from other colleges and from the athletic clubs. Chicago has an eleven of college graduates, and the game is making rapid headway elsewhere. Its season is very short, however, beginning in Sept. and closing with November.

Bowling ('Ten-Pins') is a favourite amusement of both sexes, throughout the United States, and alleys are attached to most gymnasia and athletic club buildings, as well as to many summer-hotels and amusement-halls.

Athletics. The track events are the same as those contested in England, though long-distance and cross-country running has far fewer lovers, and the short races (100 yards to ½ M.) are more generally contested. An innovation is the very short sprint (30-50 yards), often contested at indoor winter games. In hurdling and jumping the standards are very high; walking is not much practised. The owner of the first pair of 'spiked shoes' ever used in the United States, and the winner of the first amateur foot-race ever run here, are still comparatively young men. In weight-throwing the rules differ radically from the English. The chief athletic clubs (outside of New York) are the *Boston A. A.*, the *Columbia A. C.* (Washington), the *Southern A. C.* (New Orleans), the *Crescent A. C.* (Brooklyn), the *Olympic A. C.* (San Francisco), the *Buffalo A. C.*, the *Detroit A. C.*, the *Duquesne A. C.* (Pittsburg), and the *A. C. of the Schuylkill Navy* (Philadelphia). Most of these hold spring and autumn meetings; and indoor games are held in armouries and other large halls, so that the season practically lasts throughout the year. It is at its height, however, in June and Sept. Many of the colleges send representatives to the *Intercollegiate Athletic Association's* meeting in New York in May; Harvard, Yale, Pennsylvania, and Princeton lead the others. These and many others hold annual meetings in May.

XVI. Educational, Charitable, Penal, and Industrial Institutions.

The object of many visitors to the United States is to study its systems of schools, prisons, or charities, or to inspect the working of its leading industrial establishments. For such visitors the subjoined brief index-lists may be serviceable.

a. Educational Institutions,

by *Professor Nicholas Murray Butler* of Columbia University.

Public Education is regulated by the several States. The United States Bureau of Education, established in 1867 (Dr. William T. Harris, present Commissioner of Education), maintains a library and educational *museum at Washington* and issues an annual report. It has, however, no direct authority over education in the States.

Each State maintains an elaborate system of public schools; those of the N. and W. States (*e. g.*, New York, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Michigan, Minnesota, Iowa, California, etc.) are especially well organized and administered. In addition to providing free elementary and secondary education, many of the W. States maintain free universities, the original funds for the endowment of the same having been derived from the sale or rental of public lands given by Congress for the purpose. The largest of these is the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor (p. 301), with over 3000 students. The *University of Wisconsin at Madison (p. 323) and the University of California* at Berkeley (p. 450) are also worthy of special notice.

As a rule, however, the great colleges and universities are private foundations managed by a corporation or board of trustees. Of these the oldest and most influential is *Harvard University (founded in 1636)* at Cambridge (p. 94). In 1897-98 the gross annual expenditures of Harvard, including the cost of new buildings, exceeded $ 1,000,000. About 4000 students are now in attendance. The other great universities of this class are Johns Hopkins University at *Baltimore (p. 272, founded in 1876)*, which has had a profound influence on higher education in America; Columbia University in New York (p. 52; founded as a college in 1754, reorganized as a university in 1890); Cornell University at Ithaca (p. 208; founded in 1865); Yale University (p. 65; founded in 1700); Princeton University (p. 228; founded as a college in 1746); the University of Pennsylvania (p. 241); and the University of Virginia, Charlottesville (p. 340; founded in 1819). *Among* the newly founded institutions are the Catholic University of America at Washington (p. 288), and the University of Chicago (p. 316).

There are nearly 400 colleges in the United States in addition to the great universities. Well-known colleges are Amherst (p. 71), Williams (p. 155), Hamilton (Clinton, N. Y.), Miami (Ohio), Lafayette (p. 250), Rutgers (p. 228), Knox, and Stanford (p. 491).

The leading colleges exclusively for women are Wellesley (p. 70), Vassar (p. 167), Smith (p. 156), and Bryn Mawr (p. 255).

Of the great technical schools for the training of engineers, architects, etc., the most worthy of a visit are the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (p. 88), Stevens Institute of Technology (p. 56), Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute (Troy, p. 160), and Rose Polytechnic Institute (Terre Haute, p. 347).

Of city school systems the best are, perhaps, those of Minneapolis (p. 327), Indianapolis (p. 339), Denver (p. 458), Boston and Brookline (R. 5), and Cleveland (p. 294). Duluth (p. 330), Detroit (p. 298), Springfield (p. 68), and Denver have the finest high-school buildings and equipment. Kindergartens will be found in the public schools of New York, Washington (p. 27), Boston, Philadelphia (p. 230), San Francisco (p. 481), and elsewhere

b. Correctional and Charitable Institutions,

by *Warren F. Spalding.*

Penal Institutions. New York State Penitentiaries at Sing Sing (p. 166) and Auburn (p. 208). — Institutions on Blackwell's Island (p. 55). — Eastern Penitentiary at Philadelphia (p. 238; the only prison in the country managed on the 'separate system'). — Western Penitentiary, at Allegheny (p. 266). — Massachusetts State Prison at Charlestown (p. 95). — Boston House of Industry, at Deer Island (p. 96). — Northern Illinois Penitentiary, at Joliet (p. 323). — Ohio Penitentiary, at Columbus (p. 290). — California State Prison, at San Quentin (Cal.).

Reformatories. New York State Reformatory, Elmira (p. 216). — Massachusetts Reformatory, Concord (p. 124). — Reformatory Prison for

Women, South Framingham, Mass. (p. 69). — Pennsylvania Industrial Reformatory, Huntingdon (p. 257). — Michigan Reformatory, Ionia (Mich.).

Lunatic Hospitals and Asylums. Mount Hope Retreat for the Insane, Baltimore (p. 273). — Eastern Michigan Asylum for the Insane, Pontiac (Mich.). — State Lunatic Asylum, Utica (p. 206). — Willard Asylum for the Insane, Willard (N.Y.). — Massachusetts Lunatic Hospital and Asylums at Worcester (p. 68), Danvers (Mass.), Westborough (Mass.), and Tewksbury (Mass.). — Ohio Asylums for the Insane at Columbus (p. 290), Toledo (p. 297), and Cleveland (p. 294). — Hospital for the Insane in Philadelphia (p. 241). — Illinois Eastern Hospital for the Insane, at Kankakee (p. 339). — Hospital for Dipsomaniacs and Inebriates at Foxborough (Mass.).

Institutions for the Blind. Perkins Institution for the Blind, Boston (p. 93). — Illinois Institution for the Education of the Blind, Jacksonville (p. 452). — New York Institutions for the Blind, at New York (p. 43) and Batavia (p. 210). — Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, Philadelphia (p. 230). — Ohio Institution for the Education of the Blind, Columbus (p. 290).

Institutions for the Deaf. The most important of these are at Northampton (p. 156), Flint (Mich.), New York City (p. 53), Columbus (p. 290), Indianapolis (p. 339), Jacksonville (p. 452), Hartford (p. 66), Philadelphia (p. 230), Knoxville (p. 382), and Delavan (Wis.).

Reformatories for Youth. Among the largest of these are the institutions at West Meriden (Conn.), Plainfield (p. 229), Baltimore (p. 268), Carroll (Md.), Westborough (Mass.; for boys), Lancaster (Mass.; for girls), Lansing (p. 301), Jamesburg (N. J.), Randall's Island (p. 55), Rochester (p. 210), Westchester (N.Y.), Lancaster (Ohio), Cincinnati (p. 344), Philadelphia (p. 230), Morganza (Pa.), Providence (p. 72), and Waukesha (p. 321).

c. Industrial Establishments.

I. Metallic Industries and Machinery. Homestead and Braddock Steel Works, near Pittsburg (see p. 266); Pennsylvania Steel Co., at Steelton (p. 255) and Sparrow's Point (p. 269); Cambria Steel Co., Johnstown (p. 258); Illinois Steel Co., Chicago (p. 311); iron and steel works at Cleveland (p. 294), Buffalo (p. 211), Wilmington (p. 267), Bethlehem (p. 249), and Birmingham (p. 384); agricultural machinery at Chicago (p. 311; McCormick), Louisville (p. 353, Avery), Columbus (p. 290), Akron (p. 307), Springfield (p. 343), Canton (p. 290), and Hoosick Falls (p. 149); sewing machines at Bridgeport (p. 65) and Elizabeth (p. 228); silver and plated goods at Providence (p. 72), New York (p. 6; Whiting Co.), Meriden (p. 66), Taunton (p. 80), and Attleboro (p. 74); bicycles at Hartford (p. 66); stoves at Troy (p. 160) and Buffalo (p. 211); wire at Worcester (p. 68); safes at Cincinnati (p. 344); smelting works at Denver (p. 458); locomotives at Philadelphia (Baldwin's; p. 238), Schenectady (p. 204), and Altoona (p. 257). — II. Textile Industries. Cotton at Manchester (p. 129), Lawrence (p. 106), Fall River (p. 80), New Bedford (p. 100), Lowell (p. 128), Chicopee (p. 156), Baltimore (p. 268; cotton-duck), Charleston (p. 390), Charlotte (p. 375), and Augusta (p. 393); woollens at Lawrence (p. 106), Lowell (p. 128), and Providence (p. 72); linen at Willimantic (p. 70); carpets at Philadelphia (p. 230) and Lowell (p. 128); silk at South Manchester (Conn.) and Paterson (p. 215); shirts and collars at Troy (p. 160). — III. Food Products. Flour at Minneapolis (p. 327) and St. Louis (p. 349); malt liquors at St. Louis (p. 349), Milwaukee (p. 319), and Rochester (p. 210); wine at St. Louis (p. 349), Charlottesville (p. 340), and in California (comp. p. 488); meat packing at Chicago (p. 318), Kansas City (p. 452), and Omaha (p. 438); sugar at Brooklyn (p. 57) and Philadelphia (p. 241). — IV. Glass and Pottery. Trenton (p. 228); Elwood (Ind.); Findlay (Ohio); Pittsburg (see pp. 264, 265). — V. Carriages. Columbus (p. 290); South Bend (p. 297; Studebaker); Concord (p. 129); Cincinnati (p. 344); New York (p. 6; Cunningham). — VI. Railway Rolling Stock. Pullman (p. 318); Buffalo (p. 211; Wagner); Dayton (p. 343); Philadelphia (locomotives; p. 238); Altoona (p. 257). — VII. Ships. Philadelphia (p. 241); Chester (p. 267); Wilmington (p. 267); San Francisco (p. 481); Cleveland (p. 294); Superior (p. 331; whalebacks); Bath

(p. 112; sailing vessels). — VIII. Paper. Holyoke (p. 156); Springfield (p. 68; envelopes). — IX. Oil. Cleveland (p. 294); Bayonne (N. J.); Memphis (p. 359; cotton seed oil); New Orleans (p. 415; cotton seed oil). — X. Tobacco. St. Louis (p. 349); Richmond (p. 366); Durham (p. 375); Jersey City (p. 56). — XI. Fire-Arms. Springfield (p. 68); Hartford (p. 66). — XII. Boots and Shoes. Lynn (p. 101); Brockton (p 100). — XIII. Pianos. New York (Steinway); Boston (p. 81; Chickering). — XIV. Watches. Waltham (p. 124); Elgin (p. 438); Waterbury (p. 67). — XV. Electric Works. Lynn (p. 101; Thompson-Houston); Schenectady (p. 204); Newark (p. 228; Edison). — XVI. Marble Quarries of Vermont (Rutland; p. 126) and Tennessee (Knoxville; p. 382).

XVII. Bibliography.

The following is a very small selection of the most recent, interesting, and easily accessible books on some of the main topics on which visitors to the United States should be informed. A few records of the impressions of English travellers are included. Numerous other works of local interest are referred to throughout the text of the Handbook. The asterisks indicate publications of special interest and importance.

**The American Commonwealth, by *James Bryce* (new ed., 1893; the best and most comprehensive account of the political and social institutions of the United States). — *De la Démocratie aux États-Unis, by *C. A. H. de Tocqueville* (1835; trans. by *Henry Reeve*, with notes by *Francis Bowen*; and introduction by *D. C. Gilman*, 1898). — *The Federalist, a series of essays by *Hamilton*, *Madison*, and *Jay* (1787-88; ed. by *H. C. Lodge*, 1888). — *Constitutional and Political History of the United States, by *Prof. H. von Holst* (trans. by *J. J. Lalor*; 1876-85). — History of American Politics, by *Alex. Johnston* (1882). — *American Political Ideas, and *Civil Government in the United States, two lucid little books by *John Fiske* (1885 and 1890). — *Our Government, by *Macy* (1887). — See also the *Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, ed. by *Prof. Herbert B. Adams*.

Histories of the United States, by *George Bancroft*, *J. B. McMaster*, *Justin Winsor*, *R. Hildreth*, *J. Schouler*, *B. J. Lossing*, *Henry Adams*, *J. C. Ridpath*, *T. W. Higginson* (for children), and *J. A. Doyle* (best general short history). — The American Colonies previous to the Declaration of Independence, and The English in America by *J. A. Doyle* (1869 and 1882-87). — A Short History of the War of Secession, by *Rossiter Johnson* (1888). — History of the Civil War in America, by the *Comte de Paris* (1875-88). — The American Revolution (Part I, 1766-76), by *Sir George Otto Trevelyan* (1899). — The Story of the Revolution, by *Henry Cabot Lodge* (1899). — History of American Industries, by *B. J. Lossing* (1879).

*The United States, by *Prof. J. D. Whitney*, is a mine of information on the physical geography and material resources of the country (1889), while The United States: A Study of the American Commonwealth, edited by *Prof. N. S. Shaler* (1894), is still more comprehensive in its scope. Comp. *Élisée Reclus'* Nouvelle Géographie Universelle (vol. xvi, 1892), and *Henry Gannett's* United States (vol. ii of North America in *Stanford's* Compendium of Geography, new issue, 1898).

The American Geological Railway Guide, by *James MacFarlane*, is a unique compilation, showing the geological formation at every railway station.

*A Visit to the States, by *Joel Cook* (letters reprinted from the 'Times', recommended for reading on the voyage across the Atlantic; 1887-88; two series, 1*s.* each). — *Some Impressions of the United States, by *E. A. Freeman* (1883). — American Notes, by *Charles Dickens* (1842). — White and Black in America, by *Sir George Campbell* (1889). — Three Visits to America, by *Emily Faithful* (1884). — To-day in America, by *Joseph Hatton* (1881).

— Through the Light Continent, by *William Saunders* (1879). — Jonathan and his Continent, and A Frenchman in America, by *Max O'Rell* (1889 and 1891). — Our Kin across the Sea, by *J. C. Firth* (1888). — The Land of the Dollar, by *G. W. Steevens* (1897). — The Land of Contrasts, by *J. F. Muirhead* (1898).

Maps. The leading *General Maps* of the United States are those of the General Land Office and the U. S. Geological Survey (Washington). The former also publishes a series of maps (10-18 M. per inch) of those states in which public lands have existed (*i.e.* all except those on the Atlantic seaboard). — The only official *Detailed Maps* of any part of the United States are those of the Geological Survey, published on three scales (1 : 62,500 or about 1 M. per inch; 1 : 125,000 or 2 M. per inch; and 1 : 250,000 or 4 M. per inch). About 600,000 sq. M. have been surveyed, in various parts of the country. These maps can be obtained only on application to the Director of the Geol. Survey. The U. S. Coast Survey is producing charts of the coast, which may be obtained at Washington or from the agencies of the Survey in the large maritime cities. Charts of the Great Lakes, published by the U. S. Corps of Engineers, may be purchased from the Chief of Engineers (Washington). The maps of the Wheeler and Hayden Surveys, covering extensive regions in the West (4 M. per inch), can now be obtained only of second-hand booksellers. Maps of the whole or parts of their states have been published by the Geological Surveys of New Jersey, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania, Kentucky, Wisconsin, Missouri, Arkansas, Texas, Minnesota, California, etc.
