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CLASS AND FACULTY '97, EAU CLAIRE HIGH SCHOOL.

THE LEADER CO., PRINTERS, EAU CLAIRE, WIS.

25. Julia Johnson.
30. Cora Mayo.
16. Helen Deming.
15. Tilla Gilbertson.

22. Earl Hall.
41. J. Waterbury.
33. Olaf Rostad.
29. Susie Strang.

39. Ambrose Mabbutt.
19. Charlotte Gray.
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6. Miss Wyman.
35. Geo. Schroeder.

36. Emma Skatvold.
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12. Lyda Ahneman.
2. Miss Holcomb.
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THE KODAK.

VOL. III. EAU CLAIRE, WIS., JUNE 3, 1897. NO. 5.

THE TRAINING OF THE IMAGINATION.

TILLA A. GILBERTSON.

June, with its accompaniment of flowers and sunshine, is the graduating time of spring into summer, the ripening of the youth of the year into the more perfect maturity. During this month on such platforms as this, there will stand thousands of young people to receive diplomas which will be symbols of past work, well done, and a stimulus to future efforts.

To most these diplomas will be helps toward placing them among the successful breadwinners of the day and to this end much of the training which they stand for is, and should be, of a practical nature. But breadwinning is not the only end, education should not be to train the practical faculties alone, not to enable us to merely gain a livelihood, but to fit us to enjoy and obtain out of life the highest and noblest pleasure. Such enjoyment may be obtained through the cultivation of that God-given faculty, the imagination. A faculty through which we may make common life beautiful, sweeten its sorrows and lessen the power of its misfortunes. In youth this faculty takes the form of fancy, yeilding pleasures which in after life can never be equaled, the loss of which Lowell mourned when he said:

> "I have nothing 'twould pain me to lose,
> I have no more castles in Spain."

In Hawthorne's story of the winged horse possibly he means to symbolize fancy. He tells us of the hard-headed practical farmer who put no faith in the wonderful horse, of the old man who had a dim recollection of having seen it in his youth, and of the little child who had seen and believed in it with all his heart. The world of fancy in the child may be a part of what Wordsworth called, "The heaven which lies about him in his infancy." Imagination is fancy trained. Spenser shows how it may become our refuge from the sorrows of this life when he calls it "The world's sweet inn from care and wearisome turmoil."

It rules over two-thirds of the universe, carries us back to the events of the past and shows us the wonderful progress of centuries. By its aid the future rises before us and we can partially grasp ideas that can never be fully comprehended. The truths of geology and of astronomy; the infinity of time and distance can only be reached through this wonderful faculty.

The greatest power of the imagination is that by it we may fashion our ideals and aims and it is our aims which will determine whether life is to be a success or a failure. True, high aims will not always bring success, but failure when our purposes are high is better than success with lower aims. "'Tis not what man does that exalts him but what man would do."

Music, painting and literature, are the studies through which the imagination can best be trained. The Greeks made music and literature, especially poetry, one of the chief sources of their boys education. Through the study of that greatest of Grecian poets, Homer, not only facts were obtained, but the youth's soul was stirred by the beautiful examples offered of patriotism and bravery.

So may we by the study of literature awaken higher ideals and become a better and healthier nation. It is a study open to all and one which, when the taste for it is once found, will be continued through life. By it we may make "a true paradise on earth, a garden of Eden without its one drawback; for all is open to us including and especially the fruit of the Tree of Knowledge." Here we may associate with the greatest philosophers, poets and statesmen and benefit by their lofty thoughts. The opportunity to read good literature enables us to choose the very best companions. "It admits us to the company of saint and sage, of the wisest and wittiest at their wisest and wittiest moments, enables us to see with the keenest eyes, hear with the finest ears and listen to the sweetest voices of all time; more than that it affords a solace in sorrow and companions in joy." It may truly be said, "One's literary preferences reveal his true self."

In behalf of the class of '97, I greet the friends assembled here. We, as classmates, are now ready to enter a new life—"Here beginneth a new song"—We would not be useless and idle dreamers, we wish to join the ranks of the world's workers and would heed Carlyle's injunction to "do the duty which liest nearest." But we will also remember that as it is essential to train the eye to observe, so it is to train the inner eye to perceive the beauties and wonders which lie beyond the actual in the ideal.

Eagerly we salute the varying fortunes to come, the duties that will appear, the trials that are to increase strength, and also will we gladly

welcome the sweet influence of fancy that will cheer and brighten our paths.

THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY.

LYDA AHNEMAN.

The question of public lands is generally regarded as the driest of historical deadwood, but much that is important in history is connected with this subject.

The Northwest Territory came into prominence at a most interesting period in our history, and has had an important part in our national progress.

When, early in the settlement of the country, grants of land were made, little or no attention was paid to their extent or limits. As the continent became more densely settled, claims overlapped and this led to years of strife. The country in dispute, was that now forming the states of Ohio, Indianna, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, and was called the Northwest Territory. Each of the larger states laid claim to all or a part of this territory and the smaller states regarded this with strong and jealous disfavor. Maryland, however, rose to the occasion, and suggested an idea, which, though seeming unimportant at first, was the cause of great and unforseen consequences.

When the articles of confederation were about to be presented to the several states for ratification, and a question arose as to how the claims upon this western territory were to be settled, a motion was made that, "Congress have sole power to fix the western boundary of such states as border upon the Mississippi, and lay out the land beyond the boundary in separate and independent states."

To carry out such a plan it would be necessary for each state to surrender to the United States, its claim, and thus create a domain which would be owned by the government. So bold a step found no favor at the time, and no state save Maryland voted for it. But her course was well considered; and she pursued it resolutely and was rewarded with success. The other states decided to cede their claims to the government and then Congress declared, after much debating, that such lands as should be given her should be sold in lots to immigrants and the money used for federal purposes, and new states should be formed there and given the same rights as the original thirteen. It furthermore declared that compensation should be made to states that had incurred expenses defending this territory during the war. With these conditions the Northwest Territory became the property of the half formed nation.

The Northwest Territory was a subject for important legislation. By the adoption of the ordinance of 1787, it was provided that not more than five nor less than three states should be formed from the territory. The ordinance provided for the universal religious and civil freedom of all except criminals, and set apart one section in each township for the support of common schools, and two entire townships for the establishment of a university, declaring that "religion, morality and knowledge, being necessary to good government, schools and the means of education, shall forever be encouraged."

These provisions made for the advancement of education, have been carried out in the states formed from this territory. Though in the older states, no constitutional provisions had been made for education, in nearly all the new state constitutions, educational interests were acknowledged and no part of the country has been more prompt to respond to the impulse toward a broader education than the Northwest.

The country has been settled by New England people and has attracted the best class of immigrants. It declared against slavery early in its history, and when the war came no part of the country responded more nobly to the call for men than the great Northwest.

Under these influences the Northwest has produced such men as Grant, Sherman, Stanton, Garfield and McKinley.

The Northwest is a power in the nation and in the last election it was openly acknowledged that the decision of the Northwest would determine the election.

Gradually this territory has been settled and divided into states. The great variety of occupation and scources of wealth make this a home for those seeking fortunes The beauty of the lakes, rivers, rugged hills and rolling prairies, attraets the pleasure seeker, and the delightful climate calls the weary laborers from large cittes to seek rest and quiet in the suburbs of our towns. Surely few people are so blessed with manifold comforts as those of the Northwest Territory.

THE FINANCE OF THE PERIOD.

FRED D. BROWN.

Of all the difficulties which engaged our forefathers in the dark days succeeding the Revolution none so much threatened the dissolution of the new born nation as those involving the finances. To debt must be ascribed the cause of most, if not of all the riots and insurrections which nearly precipitated the country into the throes of anarchy; and also from

that same cause may be traced the secret of the movement which ended in the formation and adoption of the constitution.

Throughout the confederation the finances were in a most deplorable condition. At the close of the war the government found itself heavily in debt and almost without credit. The Continental currency had become worthless and in its depreciation originated the social disturbances which were destined to agitate the country.

The first step toward establishing a firm footing for the finances was to build up the credit, which required the prompt payment of the interest on the debt amounting to $2,000,000. To meet this, together with the current expenses congress, had but one resource—requisitions upon the States. The task of thus raising a revenue was most discouraging. The framers of the Articles of Confederation being firm believers in state soverignty, had refused to endow congress with any real soverign power, and under the Articles it was perhaps the most impotent body ever at the head of a government. Prominent among its weaknesses was its inability to levy either direct or indirect taxes and with this began the downfall of the confederation. The States alone, controlling all the resources of the country, could and did levy taxes, but with the single purpose of meeting their own expenses and debts with little intention of paying the full amount of the quotas demanded by congress.

The requisitions failing to a great extent the government was forced to the expedient of contracting new loans. No better illustration of the credit inspired by the American government can be had than some of the fruitless attempts to obtain these loans. Even France, who had been so generous, refused in 1783, to forward any more money. Spain would loan no more and a domestic loan was an impossibility. The Dutch government also refused the States, but by paying exorbitant rates a loan was obtained from the Dutch bankers. This together with the proceeds from the final loan from France, enabled the government to pay the interest on the foreign debt and maintain a semblance of credit in Europe.

In 1781, Robert Morris was appointed Superintendent of Finance, and had he been able to carry out his proposed changes in the financial system, this condition of virtual bankruptcy might have been avoided. He attempted to substitute business methods and prompt payments for the disordered and debased administiation of his predecessors. But to make his payments he must have money, to obtain money taxes must be levied and this the States refused to do to any adequate extent.

Even before the adoption of the Articles of Confederation congress had foreseen these difficulties in raising revenue under its clauses. It had twice proposed amendments allowing it to levy import duties, but both times it was balked. Discouraged by these failures it made no further attempts to obtain an adequate revenue by proposing amendments to the Articles.

During the same year that the last proposal failed an event occurred which greatly accelerated the decline of the credit. The treasury stood in an alarming crisis. Morris had been obliged to overdraw on the bankers in Europe and was about to draw more when congress disapproving of this course proposed to make another appeal to France. To make matters worse the army officers had at this time demanded either pay or security. These incidents utterly discouraged Morris and he resigned. In his letter he said, "To increase our debts (that is, by more borrowing from France), while the prospect of paying them diminishes, does not consist with my ideas of integrity. I must therefore quit an office which becomes utterly unsupportable." In the light that he had taken this step in despair of seeing justice done American creditors or the finances firmly founded, his resignation could not but have a decidedly evil effect. If the man who knew more about American finances than anyone else, had given up all hope of financial recuperation, then indeed there must have been cause for grave fears. It was the finishing touch put upon the ruin of both domestic and foreign credit.

To remain under the Articles of Confederation which provided the government with no resources, while its liabilities rapidly increased, meant inevitable ruin to the nation. Since it was almost impossible to amend them the outlook was exceedingly dark and no one could see an end to the situation. The idea that the government must be established on entirely new lines had not yet dawned upon the people. But the total inadequacy of the Article of 1781, to preserve the independence which had been so dearly purchased, was fully demonstrated by the disturbances of 1786, particularly Shay's Rebellion and the paper money craze. Finally there spread through the country the demand for revision ultimately finding form in the Annapolis Convention, which, though a failure in itself, paved the way for the Constitutional Convention.

After the constitution was adopted and the government organized with Alexander Hamilton as Secretary of the Treasury, the finances were for the

first time placed on a firm foundation. Hamilton's first step was to provide sufficient revenue for the current expenses. This accomplished he began the great work of securing the adoption of his financial schemes, viz: the finding of the debts of the Confederation, the assumption of State debts, and the establishment of a National Bank. With the adoption of these measures the public credit rose like the Phoenix from its ashes and the government received that financial stability and perfect bond of union which characterizes it today.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS AND SPAIN.

W. J. CAMERON.

Among the few great men who figured prominently during the critical period of United States history, John Quincy Adams holds a place as one of the first.

He was one of those stern and uncompromising Puritans, who seemed to take great pleasure in the performances of a duty, especially if it were a disagreeable one. His manners were stiff and arrogant. He told the truth bluntly whether it hurt or not. Though one of the best of men in his own family and little social circle, outside of these he had few warm friends, seeming rather to have a talent for making enemies.

As a statesman, he stood foremost among men; always eager and zealous in the execution of what he deemed to be right, regardless of friends, party or politics. He possessed that cool and undaunted courage which feared neither threats nor plots. His integrity, conscientiousness and stern justice, were conspicuous in his every function.

As an orator he was an admirable model of blended enthusiasm and sobriety. He coupled great eloquence and a power of facination with much severe reason. Like the courser described by the classic poet: "His high metal under good control, gave him Olympic speed and shot him to the goal." Cool and collected, capable of deep thought and strong feeling, he blended his thought and emotion in a luminous expression presenting his arguments in a frigid yet eloquent and persuasive manner.

As Secretary of State in Mr. Monroe's administration, the heaviest burden of labor and responsibility rested upon Mr. Adams. The most important and most perplexing questions fell under his department. Domestic breaches had been healed, but foreign breaches gaped with threatening jaws. War with Spain seemed imminent. Already the United States had direct disputes of a threatening character pending with that nation concerning the boundaries of Louisiana. Naturally enough the boundaries in this half explored wilderness were not marked with that indisputable accuracy which many generations and much blood-shed had achieved in Europe. Of all the unsettled boundaries, that of Louisiana was the most uncertain, and territory enough to make two or three states might be included in it. Such doubts and disputes proved a ready source of quarrel which was scarcely diminished by Gen. Jackson marching about in unquestionable Spanish territory plundering and ravaging after his lawless energetic fashion.

Mr. Adams' only alternative therefore was to conclude a treaty between the enraged Spain and the rapacious United States, but even this was by no means promising. With so much wrong and so much right and such a wide obscure realm of doubt between the two, a peaceful agreement might justly seem not only beyond expectation but beyond hope.

A serious obstacle in Mr. Adams' way lay in the ability of Don Onis, the Spanish minister. A cool, calculating, crafty man and ever attentive to his duties, he was an ambassador well chosen for his important task. But fortunately this so dangerous negotiator was no less anxious to conclude a treaty than was the Secretary of State.

Mr. Adams with the advice and assistance of Mons de Newville, the French minister, seemed to have marked out the exact line to which the pressure of Spanish difficulties would compel Don Onis to advance. He drew this line sharply and taking his stand upon it, the Spaniard with all his craft and pleading could not to the very end prevail upon him to make any important alterations. Days, weeks, months passed, and yet he stood rigidly still while Don Onis reluctantly approached him foot by foot. Solemnly protesting that he could not make another move, he almost implored Mr. Adams to advance in turn and meet him. Many an alarming and tedious pause there was, but after each halt progress was renewed. At last an agreement was reached without any concession even in detail upon the part of the Secretary of State.

The United States was to receive Florida. In return she agreed to settle the disputed claims of several of her citizens against Spain to an amount not exceeding five million dollars. The claims of Spanish subjects against the United States were wholly expunged. The western boundary was so established as to secure for this country the much coveted outlet to the shores of the "South Sea," as the Pacific Ocean was then called south of the Columbia River. The line was also run along the southern banks of the

Red and Arkansas Rivers, leaving all the islands to the United States and precluding Spain from the right of navigation. Mr. Adams had achieved a marked triumph and he justly called it "a great epoch in our history."

Such in brief was the character and one of the many great achievements of Mr. Adams, one of America's greatest and ablest statesmen. Stricken down with paralysis in tne halls of Congress, the stern old fighter lay dying almost on the very field where he had fought and won so many battles, and in the very traces where he had taken and given so many mighty blows. "This is the last of earth! I am content!" were the last words of this noble man. He lies buried "under the very portal of the church of Quincy." The memorial tablet inside the church bears the words: "Alteri Saeculo"—surely never more justly or appropriately applied to any man than to Mr.Adams. Though hardly abused and cruelly unappreciated in his own day yet subsequent generations already begin to look upon him as one of America's greatest men. While we admire him for his pre-eminence in ability and acquirements, we honor him for his profound inalterable honesty of purpose and broad noble humanity of aims.

THE THREE GREAT COMPROMISES OF THE CONSTITUTION.

GRACE G. CERNAGHAN.

The thirteen American colonies were founded at different times and under different circumstances. The whole course of their development, their political institutions, their religious views and their social relations were entirely different. That interchange of ideas and sympathy which comes from close commercial relations, was rendered almost impossible by the inadequate means of travel. As a consequence, the people of the different states saw little of each other and cared less.

Local prejudices were so intense that such near neighbors as Massachusetts and Connecticut looked upon each other with jealousy and distrust. Under such conditions, it was inevitable that our federal constitution should be based upon compromises.

The first serious contest in the federal convention, forwarded by members from New Jersey, was that between the delegates from the large and small states on the question of representation in the national legislature. That it should consist of two houses was agreed, but the advocates by a purely national system wished to have a proportionate representation of the people in each house, while the up. holders of the federal system insisted upon an equal representation of states. This caused long and hot discussions and it was not until the absolute refusal of a formidable minority of the smaller states threatened a dissolution of the union itself, that a compromise was agreed upon by the conditions of which equal representation in the senate was granted to all the states.

The debate over the second great compromise of the constitution marks the beginning of the struggle between the pro-slavery and anti-slavery parties in the United States, which resulted in that long series of compromises by which the irrepressible conflict was postponed until the North had waxed strong enough to confront the dreaded spectre of secession and summoning all its energies in one stupendous effort enercise it forever.

Was representation in the lower house to be proportioned to wealth or to population and if the latter, were all the inhabitants to be counted? There was in all the southern states and most northern, a peculiar species of collective existence which might be described either as wealth or population. As human beings, slaves might be described as population, but in the eyes of the law they were mere chattels. Slaves were decreasing in the northern states while south of Mason and Dixon's line, they were the chief wealth of the states. Hitherto, no one in either section of the country ever thought of considering slaves as a part of the population, but now two men of South Carolina insisted that slaves were part of the population and as such, must be counted in ascertaining the basis.

The strife broke forth in great earnestness and it was so bitterly contended on both sides that it was feared no conclusion could be reached, until Wilson, of Pennsylvania, suggested that in regard to representation five slaves should be considered equal to three freemen. The question of direct taxation was one of the greatest duestions. If taxation was to be distributed according to population it made a great difference whether slaves were to be counted as population or not. If slaves were to be counted, the south would have to pay more than their equitable share into the federal treasury; if slaves were not to be counted, it was argued that the north would be paying less than their equitable share.

Thus we see that in politics, as well as in algebra, it makes all the difference in the world whether you start with a plus or with a minus.

Madison offered the second compromise in which the slave figured three-fifths of a freeman. He proposed the same method of getting over the difficulty of representation and his compromise was adopted. One chief cause for the assembling of the convention

was the necessity of confering upon the general government the power to regulate the commerce of the whole country and to obtain an adequate revenue When this subject was taken up, two serious considerations presented themselves; the entire control over commerce would include a power to tax exports as well as imports and a power to prohibit slave-trade. Both these would operate unfavorably upon the south.

The third compromise related to the obolition of the foreign slave-trade and the power of the federal government over commerce. All the southern states except South Carolina and Georgia, wished to stop the importation of slaves; but the physical conditions of rice and indigo culture exhausted the negroes so fast that these two states felt that their industries would be dried up at the very source if the importation of free negroes were to be stopped. South Carolina would consider the vote to abolish the slave-trade as a polite way of telling her she would leave the Union.

The New England states thought congress should regulate commerce and not the states, otherwise the Union would be rent to pieces. The southern delegates acted as a unit in insisting that congress should not be empowered to pass navigation acts, except by a two-thirds vote of both houses.

This would have tied the hands of the federal government most unfortunately. Hence, we find material for another compromise between New England and the south. Three of the eastern states consented to the prolongation of the foreign slave-trade until 1808, and in return South Carolina and Georgia consented to the clause empowering congress to pass navigation acts and otherwise regulate commerce by a simple majority of votes. The New England states agreed that congress should be forever prohibited from taxing exports The compromise was carried. The Anti-Slavery party have been censured for this "ungodly compromise with slavery."

But we must remember that the wisdom of a course of action is determined by its results. Whether the doing is right or wrong is determined by what is or might be foreseen of these results. The wisest men of the convention truly believed that twenty years would see not only the end of foreign slave-trade, but the restriction and diminution of slavery itself. These three great compromises laid the foundation for our present federal constitution—the first by conceding equal representation to the states in the senate enlisted the smaller states in favor of the new scheme and by establishing a national system of representation to the states in the lower house, prepared the way for a government that could endure. The second—at the cost of giving disproportionate weight to the slave states, gained their support for the more perfect union that was about to be formed. The third—at the cost of postponing for twenty years the obolition of the foreign slave-trade, seemed absolute free trade between the states, with the surrender of all control over commerce into the hands of the federal government. After these state steps had been taken, the most difficult and dangerous part of the road had been traveled, the remainder though extremely important was accomplished far more easily. It was mainly the task of building on the foundation already laid.

THE TREATY OF PARIS.

HELEN PEARL DEMING.

Assembled in the House of Lords on the fifth day of December, 1782, were the Lords and Commons, anxiously waiting for the appearance of the king. In the audience were many prominent American ladies, who received marked attention, perhaps because they presented in their evident interest in the proceedings a great contrast to their seemingly cold English cousins.

It was one of those dismal, foggy days for which London is so renowned and as a roar of artillery announced His Majesty, King George the Third, there was a silence and everyone leaned a little forward the better to see His Royal Highness. He entered, wearing his robes of state and took his seat upon the throne. Holding the scroll containing his speech he said, not however, with his usual easy and impressive delivery, but with evident embarrassment and a choking utterance: "Adopting as my inclination will always lead me to do with decision and effect, whatever I collect to be the sense of my parliament and my people, I have pointed all my views and measures in Europe as in America, to an entire reconciliation with the colonies;" here he paused, either overcome by emotion, or confused in reading by the darkness of the room, but in a moment continued, "and offer to declare them free and independent states."

At last had come that for which the people of the Thirteen Colonies,our statesmen and many European diplomats, had for so long been striving—peace. The Revolutionary war was now practically at an end·

The situation of the colonies during the long negotiations necessary before a definite treaty could be drawn up was extremely critical. Most of the European powers, however, had acknowledged their independence previous to the signing of the treaty;

Sweden and Denmark in February, Spain in March and Russia in July of 1783.

Provisional Articles were signed November 30, 1782, and between that time and the signing of the Preliminary Articles, efforts were made on both sides to secure changes in the Provisional Articles.

There were questions of boundaries to be settled; the Americans were troubled at the idea of being called on to pay old debts to British merchants, and the British ministry also desired to secure more favovable commercial arrangements with the colonies.

Preliminary Articles of Peace were signed at Versailles, January 20, 1783, by John Adams, our Minister at the Hague, John Jay, our Envoy at the Court of Spain, and H. Laurens, our Commissioner at the South.

The Court of St. James sent Mr. Fitz Herbert and Mr. Oswald to meet the American commissioners, who were men of rare ability and purest patriotism, and well knew how to work for the best interests of their country.

Congress had instructed our commissioners to consult the French Court (represented by Vergennes) in everything relating to the treaty.

Jay insisted upon having for the first article the acknowledgment of the states and as both he and Adams thought Vergennes was working against this, it was inserted in the treaty without his knowledge.

The Preliminary Treaty was also kept secret from the French Court. When Franklin communicated to Vergennes the news of the signing of this Preliminary Treaty, he was harshly reproved for his ungenerous distrust of France. In Franklin's reply to Vergennes we have one of the best instances of the diplomacy of that most diplomatic of statesmen.

In fact so little did Vergennes take the matter to heart that within a few days he agreed to lend the United States $1,111,111,00, toward enabling them to meet the expenses of the ensuing year.

When Congress received the information that the commissioners had disregarded its instructions it was considerably embarrassed, but a motion of censure failed to pass.

John Adams, faithful to the industries of the North, secured as one article, the right to fisheries in eastern waters, and the right to dry fish on the uninhabited lands of the East,

Laurens, who would not desert the interests of the South, which he represented, procured by his persistency another article, "prohibiting the carrying away of any negroes or other property on the withdrawal of British troops and ships from the United States."

The United States should be proud of the fact that in the discussions of these details the many disagreements were overcome by England yielding on the more important questions.

We must also give to France just mention as being the chief means of our success, for in the opinion of most European statesmen, her magnanimity in adopting the cause of a people so obscure as the Thirteen Colonies then were, was in the main decisive of their success. It was, as has been well said, "a generous recognition of efforts which without that recognition would have been vain."

While these negotiations were proceeding in Europe, military operations in America were almost at a stand. The prospect of peace had put an end to the flagging efforts of the states. The news that the Preliminaries of Peace were signed was first received in a letter from Lafayette. Congress issued a proclamation accordingly, and the cessation of hostilities was published in the camp at Newburgh, just eight years after the battle of Lexington.

On September 3, 1783, the definite Peace Treaty was signed at Paris, with England, by the United States and Spain, through their commissioners, David Hartley, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin and John Jay.

It consisted of ten articles including those already mentioned, fixed the boundaries of the United States at the Great Lakes and the Gulf, the Atlantic and Mississippi, and made the navigation of the Mississippi "free and open to the subjects of Great Britian and the United States."

No sooner was peace declared than British manufactured goods began pouring into the country and British agencies were immediately established at the chief centres of trade. Our minister at London, John Adams, was treated with provoking disrespect. Our financial condition was gloomy. Great Britian continued her aggravating policy of yielding nothing while gaining all she could. Peace had been declared. The country was in a transitional state and the new government, as yet untried, must adapt itself to changed conditions; its principles, so boldly declared must be put in practice. Its statesmen, possessed of unusual intellectual ability and political experience wrought out for us a system of government which we are proud to claim as the best.

Such, in brief, is the story of the laying of the corner-stone of the foundation of this great republic. So wise were the plans of its founders and so carefully was the superstructure builded, that foes without and foes within have strived in vain to destroy it.

To those men, to whose wisdom and foresight we are indebted for our form of government, we do

gladly accord a place in history equal to that of the heroes of the Revolutionary war.

THE SIEGE OF YORKTOWN.

GERTRUDE A. DONALDSON.

In her efforts to subdue the American revolution Great Britian had two schemes of operation; the first, to separate the New England states from the other colonies; the second, to capture and control New York and Philadelphia, making these centers of recovered territory. But these plans had failed and as her last resort she turned her attention to the south.

Lord Cornwallis was placed in command of the British troops with orders to subdue and make a permanent conquest of Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas; but so effectually was he opposed by the Americans under General Greene that he was obliged to withdraw to Virginia.

Here he was met by Generals Lafayette and Washington, and his victories were so closely followed by defeats that he took refuge in Williamsburg, where he received orders from Lord Clinton, who, ignorant of Washington's presence in Virginia, feared an immediate attack upon New York.

He commanded Cornwallis to send 3,000 men to that post, and to fortify Yorktown and Gloucester. Accordingly, in the first week of August, 1781, he transferred his entire force of about 8,000 men to these points.

Yorktown was at this time but a small village on a high bank where the long peninsula, dividing the York from the James river, is less than eight miles wide. Gloucester lies on the opposite side.

The water here is broad, deep and bold, and on the whole a very advantageous position for one with a superior navy.

On the same day that Cornwallis fortified Yorktown, Washington, assured of the assistance of Count de Grasse, who, with a French fleet of twenty-eight vessels, had just arrived from Cuba, determined to move, with the French army under Rochambeau and the best part of the American army, to the Chesapeake

Clinton, now discovering his mistake in thinking New York about to be attacked, sent a fleet to the assistance of Cornwallis. But no haste was made, and when at last it arrived at the Chesapeake, De Grasse was already there, blockading the mouth of the river. After a short engagement, the fleet turned back, and Cornwallis' hope of aid from New York died.

Washington, with 9,000 men, and the French with 7,000, now approached nearer Yorktown, and by skillful moves so surrounded the two villages, that with the aid of the fleet, the escape of the British army was impossible.

Cornwallis, fully appreciating his critical position, determined to make a desperate effort to escape. On the night of the 16th of October, he began to transfer his troops to the other side of the river, intending, with their united strength, to break through the lines at Gloucester, and by rapid marches push for New York.

Probably he never could have succeeded. However, the elements interposed. At midnight a storm arose, which prevented all from crossing and in the morning those, who had succeeded, returned and again took their places behind the works which were rapidly crumbling away under the fire of the enemy's guns.

Further resistance was useless and plans were made for capitulation. On the morning of October 17, an officer, waving a white handkerchief, appeared on the wall. He was met by an American officer, and conducted to the rear of our lines, where he delivered messages to the effect that hostilities be suspended for twenty-four hours, and two commissioners from each army be appointed to determine upon terms of peace.

To this Washington agreed, and on the 18th, the commissioners met at the Moore house, a short distance in the rear of the American army, and drew up fourteen articles, providing for the surrender of the garrisons, and the disposition of the ordnances, stores, ships and Loyalists.

The next morning, these articles were submitted to Cornwallis, and about eleven o'clock, they were signed "in the trenches." Thus Cornwallis, the greatest British general in America, and his army, which had been the scourge of the South for fourteen months, were prisoners of war.

At two o'clock in the afternoon of October 19, the British army, led by General O'Hara, marched out of its lines with colors cased, and drums beating a British march.

The road, along which they passed, was lined with American and French soldiers. On one side, the commander-in-chief and Lafayette, in charge of the Continentals and militia; on the other, Count de Rochambeau, commanding the French. The captive army moved on between the lines slowly and sadly, yet gracefully, amid universal silence.

All eyes sought in vain for the British leader, who throughout the entire war, had been the object of such dread, but the proud commander, pleading illness, held himself back from the humiliating scene,

sending O'Hara to surrender his sword; which was received by General Lincoln.

In the field, a squadron of French hussars formed a circle, into which the regiments marched and deposited their arms. Returning to their tents, through the same lines, they were permitted to rest a few days, and then sent to the various camp prisons.

Thus the third and last scheme for conquering America was a failure. The entire British army, with the exception of a few troops at New York, was destroyed, the hope of obtaining the southern territory dashed to the ground, and the success of the "rebel" revolution was assured.

OUR NEW ENGLAND ANCESTORS.

CHARLOTTE SIMPSON GRAY.

In these later days it is good for us to study the character of the New England pioneer. Courage and truth ran in his blood and stamped his countenance as clearly as the sovereign's head attested a gold coin of the realm.

Whether in city or in hamlet, a certain royal spirit and bearing seemed inherent in the nature of that kingly and elect race. Men never lost this, either living at ease or crouching upon pine needles in the primeval forests with ax and gun and powder horn beside them.

The New England mothers too, carried themselves in a gentle, stately fashion. Loving and tender, yet strong in character, no grander women than they ever performed God's service.

Home, school and church, were the New Englander's trinity of blessings, and they ever taught the "doctrine" to their children as the foundation of all social life.

There is no greater refreshment for a mind filled with the noise and worry of the present than to be carried away from itself into the far away past and to be enabled to realize something of the daily life, to participate in the joys and sorrows and revel in the quaint and strange humors of our New England ancestors.

Upon the artist's canvas and from the poet's rhyme, we catch pleasing pictures of quaint log cabins, old farm houses and cheerful fire sides, now and then glinted with the lights of romance.

As we see the New Englander cutting down the trees about his little log hut, clearing the ground and planting the seed that he might supply his family with food, we realize what the making of a home meant to him. When going upon a journey or into the fields to work, his gun and powder horn were ever at his side to serve as a protection from the Indians or wild animals.

So severe were the New England winters and the log houses so rudely built, that unless one kept close to open fire place, he was nearly frozen while his face was almost scorched.

As there were no spinning and weaving factories to furnish material for clothing, New England mothers must spin and weave at home. This method of spinning the cotton into thread was by the use of a forked stick called a distaff, held under the left arm. With the right fore finger and thumb the cotton was drawn out and twisted, its size and quality being determined by the delicacy of the touch as it passed through the fingers. Then it was wound upon a stick called a spindle and afterwards woven into cloth.

Thus their's was truly a home made with hands, from the hewing of the logs for the house to the weaving of the spun cotton into cloth, and can we wonder that the love of home was so marked a trait of the New England character?

After home and religion, learning was the object nearest the hearts of the New England fathers, although their school advantages were necessarily limited. In some of the districts, the children went from house to house to school while in others there were rudely built school houses.

Far more attention was paid to the education of the boys than to the girls. The latter were instructed rather in the arts of house keeping, while their brothers were thrust at once into the Latin Grammar and the minds trained in earliest youth in that study as then taught, have made their deep and noble impression upon the nation.

Little attention was given to the study of mathematics, but great attention was paid to penmanship; spelling was naught if the writing were only fair.

Select men were appointed to look after the children, especially their ability to read and understand the principles of religion and the capital laws ot the country. The New England scbool-masters believed as did many of the New England parents in the efficacy of Solomon's well-known proverb and "the rod" ever formed an important part in a youth's education.

However, dear were home and school to the New Englander's heart; his religion stood forth as something far beyond and was indeed the ruling power of his life. He duly wore the air of one having a right upon earth, because chosen to accomplish tasks set for him by Almighty God.

Well may we long for that simplicity of faith and certainty of heaven and happy reunion with loved ones which they left so triumphantly, so gloriously.

Truly these New England ancestors formed good building material for a great nation and their endurance, enterprise and heroism, cannot be too highly honored.

HISTORY OF THE ORDINANCE OF 1787.

FRANCES HART.

One hundred and twenty-five years ago that portion of the United States, which now comprises the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin, was a wild country of forests and prairies. Here and there along on the rivers were a few fur-trading posts, but the Indians roamed through the woods and prairies untrammeled by laws or rulers.

This land in the beginning was no more a part of the United States than Canada now is, but was gained from the French as a result of the French and Indian war in 1754.

Thomas Jefferson may be credited with first conceiving the idea of colonizing and civilizing this section. It was through his influence that Virginia in 1783, surrendered to the United States her title to a portion of this land. Jefferson drew up a set of laws for its government, which was called the "Ordinance of 1784."

This bill however, was killed by a single vote because of the clause which it contained prohibiting slavery.

Nathan Dane, of Massachusetts, suggested that about three hundred men, soldiers of the revolution, emigrate to this territory with their families and colonize it. This plan was heartily endorsed by Washington, but nothing was ever done with it.

About this time Jefferson went to Faance, and so for a time very little was done in regard to the land north of the Ohio.

In 1785, Rufus King, of Massachusetts, tried again to have Jefferson's bill passed, but again it failed.

In 1787, on the motion of Nathan Dane, the bill including the prohibition of slavery was passed unanimously.

The Ohio company was then formed in Boston, and Rufus King's plan was carried out. The soldiers bought from the government at a very low price about six million acres of land, and the Indian titles were released by treaty; emigration to the west began and within a year twenty thousand people became settlers along the Ohio.

The "Ordinance of 1787," has often been called the greatest legislative act in American history.

EARLY AMERICAN LITERATURE.

GERTRUDE BELLE HAINER.

No critical task is more difficult and delicate than that of estimating the rank and analyzing the achievements of American authors. The task is doubly great in giving the early writers their merited places as the colonies were settled for the most part by emigrants from England, and as the language was the same and the literatures were mutually influential in Britain and America, it is not always easy to say where one begins and the other leaves off.

England might rightly claim this part of our literature as a part of English literature, and how could it be otherwise? Could anyone expect that an Englishman could undergo a literary revolution simply by crossing the ocean? Yet we cannot exclude these English writers from our consideration for now they are Americans, but the history of American literature is only the history of English literature under new geographical and political conditions.

The birth-epoch of our American literature was in the year sixteen hundred seven and its first lispings were heard along the tides of the James River and the shores of the Chesapeake during the Elizabethan age, at one of the most favorable times, when the very air of England seemed electrified and the very talk on the street corners was far richer than ever before since the great days of Anthenian poetry.

Judged however, by the strict definition that "Literature is the written record of valuable thought having other than merely practical purpose," we have almost no early American literature for the literature at this time was not written for its own sake. Books were written and sent to England that the colonists might repel the charges falsely made by those who had visited America; to send back some tidings to that safe, regulated world which they had left for the sake of colonizing America. Then that dusky creature, the savage proprietor of the continent with whom the colonists came in contact, was of untold interest to the English on both sides of the ocean. Scarcely was there a book written in which some mention was not made of him.

The literature was also created by the necessities of the time for the practical purpose of setting forth and defining the rights of the people. The recent victories won for the freedom of the press made it possible for a man to speak of the government and the eloquent, convincing and patriotic pamphlets and speeches of Patrick Henry, Benjamin Franklin and James Otis have outlined the age for which they were written and form a distinct and important part in our early American literature. They are perhaps the

first characteristically American literature we have. Other early writings include history, sermons, poetry and some examples of miscellaneous prose. What land can surpass Hutchinson, Bancroft, Motley, Prescot and Parkman as historians? The sermons of Jonathan Edwards have had a permanent influence on our literature.

Poetry at this time did not seem to be appreciated by the people, but later Poe the pioneer poet together with Longfellow and Whittier clearly show in their writings the characteristics of the people.

About the same time Irving and Cooper came into prominence. Irving's writings giving the legendary history of the country along the banks of the Hudson indicated the dawn of imaginative writings in American literature. Cooper has cast a halo about the Indian character and the American scenery.

Another important factor which had a marked influence upon the production of literature was the founding of colleges and libraries. From the Latin phrase: "Scholares vernacula lingua intra colegii limites nullo praetextu utuntor," the standard of the school as pertains to languages may be measured. Following these were the newspapers and magazines. From the time of the revolution, when the thirteen colonies became united, the literature has been no longer divided but has become national in its character.

Behind literature is race and behind race, climate and environment. We are a nation composed of all the races of the world and though our national life has been too short to see the full results of this in literature, what we have already done makes us sanguine of as great success in letters as we have achieved in science. As to climate we may say at present the greater literary productions of the world seem to appear in the lands of the winter fires and the evening lamp, by the stormy sea which our ancestors braved and loved for a thousand years. The environment of western life has influenced our later lireraturе and the field of literature moves westward as truly as the center of the population in the successive census maps.

On account of the isolation of the United States we are less apt to be attacked in war and our money and men may be kept at home. Thus we can devote more time to literature. A people essentially peaceable in all its classes is sure to be a tolerably well educated people and this affords a good basis for literary work.

On the whole, taking the nation in its social economy, in its scientific a ıd literary productions it compares favorably with the presentation made by any other land in the same period.

THE OUTCOME OF THE FEDERAL CONVENTION.

EARL C. HALL.

For ten years previous to the adoption of the constitution, the states had been governed by the Articles of Confederation, and the country had fallen into a deplorable condition. Distress was on every hand. The states had become very jealous of each other, and had no respect for Congress. Many neglected or even refused to pay their alloted shares of interest on the public debt. Congress could with difficulty secure a quorum. It was powerless to enforce, and little or no heed was taken of its advice. Foreign nations refused to make treaties with such a loose and feeble government, and Washington upheld them when he said, "We are one nation today and thirteen tomorrow, who will treat with us on these terms." Nor would they make commercial treaties, preferring to take advantage of the weakness of Congress. Great Britian still refused to carry out the terms of the treaty of 1783, in which she acknowledged the independence and sovereignty of the United States. Our credit was gone, Congress could borrow money only at exhorbitant rates of interest. In short the government was despised abroad and disobeyed at home, and its condition was daily becoming more lamentable, yet it was only this dire necessity that sufficiently aroused the people to their need of a better government. But when the condition of the country waa fully realized, a convention was assembled, to find some possible means of establishing of the government on a more solid basis. It met at Independence Hall, Philadelphia, May 14, 1787, and it has been said that no body of men ever met for a task of such vast importance to the welfare of mankind, or needing so much the highest powers of statesmanship. At first it was thought that by remodeling the Articles of Confederation, the existing evils of the government might be brushed away. But after much thought, and many months of deliberation, it became more and more evident that no mere revision of the old form of government would be adequate to the future exigencies of the American government. But what the convention finally accomplished is now known to the whole civilized world. The constitntion which it adopted, has been called "The most sacred of political documents." It has fulfilled the purpose for which it was intended in every respect. What it has effected for the country, is only made manifest in the comparison of the condition of the government before and after it was put into effect. While under the Articles of Confederation, the union was rapidly approaching its dissolution, under the provisions of

the constitution it was made to prosper, and was soon in such a thriving condition, that it commanded the respect of the individual citizens, of the several states, and in a brief time of foreign nations. Under these promising conditions we see the first real republic take its place among the powers of the world—internal dissentions disapated, our credit restored, our treasury a thing of reality, commercial revival and prosperity restored. Instead of thirteen independent sovereignties, fomenting discord and prosecuting their petty strifes by preying upon the commerce of their neighbors, and thus involving themselves in bankruptcy by continuous wars, and rendering themselves defenseless against foreign enemies, they were now peacefully preserved from the terrible consequences of separation, and transformed into one powerful nation, much better able to contend with the many evils which beset a new government. We, living as we do, in this advanced age of progress and civilization, are too apt to underestimate the importance of the constitutional convention, as a factor in the life of the United States as a nation. When the convention decided that the constitution should take the place of the Articles of Confederation, it did more for the improvement of the country, and more toward placing the country in the position which it now occupies among the nations of the earth, than anything else that has occured since our independence.

Although the country has now become very great, and advanced to a high state of civilization, and occupies an important position among other nations, yet all these qualities may be attributed to the direct influence of the constitution. The constitution has also brought great influence to bear on the civilization of the whole world. The old countries of Europe have sought to profit by it, and to model after it. The whole New World, once the possession of foreign monarchies, has gradually become stimulated by the principles of liberty which are imbeded in the constitution; until now, there is not an independent government this side of the ocean, which is not similar to our own. However, the real outcome of the Federal convention is yet obscure, as the constiiution is continually growing. Yet it may be safely said that the same constitution, which has accomplished so much for the country, and guided it through so many trials and perils, will guide it safely through the years to come.

COMMERCIAL WAR BETWEEN THE STATES.

MABEL E. HEPBURN.

Before the Revolutionary War the commerce of the United States was mainly carried on with Great Britain. At its close the opinion so long maintained by England, that the colonial trade belonged exclusively to her, could not at once be changed; on the other hand, each state began to realize that it had the power to trade with any country it chose.

Nearly all of them gave some power to Congress to regulate trade, but the different laws of trade in each state made it very difficult for her to act. There had been but very little commercial dealing between the states, because as the occupation was chiefly agriculture, each district for the most part supported itself; the different parts of the country knew very little about each other and so there was local prejudice and jealousy.

The principle of trade at this period was not that when two nations or parties trade together both must be the gainers or one will stop trading, but was based on the theory as in gambling or betting that what one gains the other must lose, and as all wished to be gainers, they severally tried to keep out the "Monster Trade" or only to admit him when they were positive that they would not be injured in the contest.

This theory greatly retarded the commercial trade but increased the commercial treaties with foreign nations. Each state made separate treaties and on account of the unequal laws of the several states, the commerce was driven from port to port and the breach between the states was widened still further. Maryland by lower duties gained the commerce of Virginia, and the New England states drove commerce from their ports by their too strict regulations.

Just before the Federal Convention met, the rivalries between the states were at their height, commercial leagues of different states were formed for securing trade by reduction of duties. All proposed plans for harmonizing the conflicting interests of the different states, only made matters worse and the several states began to make war on one another.

After Massachusetts and New Hampshire had passed laws prohibiting commerce with England and Rhode Island had followed their example, the southern states began to fear, that as they had no ships of their own to carry their products the North would charge high rates and cause them to be losers.

The narrow opinion of the south was expressed by Thurston of Virginia, when he said: "Perhaps we might better encourage the British than the eastern marine." As these three states Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Rhode Island, had excluded English commerce, Connecticut threw her port open to their commerce. This was followed by duties laid on goods from other states, Pennsylvania contended with Dela-

ware. Both New York and Maryland discriminated against New Jersey; New York's behavior at this time was especially selfish.

These acts wereresented and revenged by New Jersey when she laid a tax of eighteen hundred dollars on the light-house New York had built on Sandy Hook; Connecticut also agreed to stop all trade with New York.

All these resolutions made by the legislatures of the separate states bore resemblances to those made before a war. The onlv way to remedy these rivalries was a free intercourse of the states with one another in social life, commerce, and trade. This remedy was applied we are happy to say, and this policy has been carried into effect during all the period of our national existence, but at the critical period an appreciation of its value had not yet been attained. But for the speedy remedy applied by the convention these troubles would in all probability have ended in a great civil war, from which would have resulted life long hatred between the states. Thirteen little soverign states now might have been set up.

A few great minds as Hamilton, Franklin and Patrick Henry realized the great danger of having thirteen little republics and reasoned that the same fate would befall them as the little republics of Rome and Greece and they would be plundered by England, France and Spain. A sentiment for union grew. Patrick Henry expressed this larger view when he said: "The distinction between Virginia, New York and New England are no more, I am not a Virginian, I am an American."

The danger of disruption which had been so increased by the commercial war between the states was averted by the work done by the convention of which Washington, Hamilton, Franklin, Roger Sherman, George Mason and James Madison were members.

They secured this great union by the adoption of the present Constitution, which provides for free trade between the states and makes another commer cial war between the states impossible.

EDUCATION IN NORTH WEST TERRITORY.

MARY FRANCES JOHNSON.

The constitution of the United States, which Gladstone describes as "The most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by brain and purpose of man," marked the birth of a new nation. A nation founded upon the rights of man sustained only by his intelligence and ability to govern himself.

Nation building was an experiment, and one of its necessities was the education of the masses to fit them for self government. After the war the North West Territory, established by the Ordinance of 1787, was by far the most conspicuous part in the reconstructed Union.

To give the history of the progress of education in this territory, one must first consider the movement of the rival ecclesiastical forces of the old east to capture, for religious purposes, this new land of promise.

Before the Revolution the unanimity of theological belief was most favorable for establishing a common school system in the Eastern states, while in the Central and Southern Provinces the diversity of religious sects made the establishment of a common school system an impossibility; but the war for independence introduced into New England seeds of ecclesiastical competion, and immediately all the different religious bodies made haste to take possession of the land of North West Territory.

The result was that before the common school could be supported by lands set apart for that purpose the country was occupied by collegiate seminaries mainly available for the families of the wealthier classes.

A second hinderance to the building up of a common school system was the social lines which were strictly drawn by the original occupants of the territory, although enforced companionship to meet a common danger tended toward democracy in public affairs. For the first twenty-five years the emigration was from the southern states, where social discrimination was even more strongly marked; on the other hand, both Massachusetts and New York had large tracts of land here and did not care to build up rival commonwealths.

The extreme poverty of the people was also a hinderance to educational advancement. The war had left the people almost penniless and their one hope was the cultivation of the land in the west. Even the possession of school land apportioned by the people at first was little more than a "prophecy for an indefinite future," and the income from this land was often lost on account of ignorance. The trouble with the Indians, until close of second war with Great Britian, and the bad condition of the roads did not favor these educational projects.

But in spite of all these hinderances there were a few men like Daniel Webster, Dr. Manasseh Cutler and Col. Putnam, who were determined to organize a common school system.

Probably the one institution of higher learning that has done the most valuable work with the most slender means, is the Miami University of Ohio, for

the entire fees were but fifteen dollars per term and among those from this university who have worked their way out and up into conspicuous positions in the West, we find one President of United States, four governors, four senators and many judges and lawyers. Certainly this shows that American education performed a service for its citizenship. The universities and colleges of the states though distinctively denominational institutions, were compelled to cooperate to a greater or less degree with the slow upward progress of the common school.

At first the common practice was to use the amall sums of money gathered from leased land to pay the tuition to such schools as might be organized in the state. Gradually in the more prosperous counties the private seminary was evolved into a common district school; then in 1806, a portion of Ohio was districted; in 1835, the college of teachers formed of prominent literary and school men, met in Cincinnati. This body became a great power in the land and it was through their efforts that the states took up the general supervision of the schools.

Ohio was formost in North West Territory, not only in population and general advancement but also in education. The history of education in this state, as in most of the other states, was made up of many disappointments and many failures, especially on account of lack of money; but the people being true Americans, could not or would not give up hope, but steadily worked onward taking every advantage until now not only the common schools but colleges and universities of North West Territory compare favorably with any others in the land.

GLIMPSES OF LOG-CABIN LIFE IN THE NORTH WEST.

JULIA M. T. JOHNSON.

At the outbreak of the Revolution, the tide of imigration had at last set in for the West. The restless, adventurous pioneer still pushed on and penetrated deeper and deeper into the wilderness. Often were they rudely checked, but at this time they ran all manner of risks with a cool, reckless courage that was almost sublime.

It was native New England thrift, that sent the early settlers of the Western Reserve, across the wooded solitudes of New York and over the mountains of Pennsylvania. They brought with them its fruit and flower, as only this could bear the hardships of the journey, the western wilderness or the rigors and the dangers of the new life.

The journey from the east was in itself a terrible experience. Not only were railroads and canals unthought of then, but the stage coach and the road along which it was to be drawn were still in the future. The springless wagon or the sled, loaded with household goods, farming implements, weapons of defense and food, with wife and children stowed in the corners, were the chief vehicles of transportation, and the roads a mere path through the woods, along which room for passage must be cut.

The needs of shelter, religion and education were recognized as among the first things to be considered in each new settlement.

The task of making new establishments in this wilderness was very difficult. The early land laws allowed from three to four hundred acres, and no more, as the settlers seemed to regard this as enough for one family, and believed that any attempt to get more would be sinful.

The building of the log-cabin did not occupy more than three or four days and generally the neighbors helped in building it. First the clap-boards for the roof were split with a large frow, four feet long, and as wide as the timber would allow. They were used without planing or shaving. The puncheons for the floor were made by splitting trees eighteen inches in diameter, and hewing the faces of them with a broad-ax. The doors, chimney and necessary furniture were then made. Many times when the log-cabin was completed a party was given in honor of it.

At all house-raisings, log-rollings and harvest parties, everyone was expected to do his work faithfully. If he shirked from so doing, he never received any help, when he needed it. He was also expected to do his full share of military or scouting duty, if not he was 'hated out as a coward.'

A log house was distinguished from a log-cabin when it was made of hewn logs and plastered its crannies stopped with stones, and a shingled roof.

Log-cabins were often the abode of a modest refinement, though commonly made far from convenient, for they were without windows and had only a hole at the top for the smoke to escape.

The furniture of the table, for several years after the settlement of the country, consisted of a few dishes, plates and spoons, wooden bowls and trenchers. If these were scarce, gourds and hard shelled squashes were used.

These articles of furniture corresponed very well with the articles of diet. Johnny-cake served as bread, but milk and mush was the standard dish.

The women did the offices of the household, milked the cow, prepared the food, spun the flax and made the garments of linen.

The men hunted, fished, ploughed and gathered

the harvest. They alone exposed themselves to danger and fought the Indians.

"The settler might well have said,
Our forest life was rough and rude,
And dangers closed us round;
Oft through our cabin, wintry blasts
Would rush with shriek and moan;
We cared not though they were but frail,
We felt they were our own."

Many a noted American was brought up in one of these humble log-cabins. His earliest recollections were of the rude roof, the protecting fort, the encircling woods, and the perils of the red skin scalp-hunters. Often were his infant slumbers disturbed by the yell of the Indians and the scene of his boyish sports was a dense and somber forest. No elegant college buildings were theirs, no large libraries, but the man of culture was there to teach and the youth with brains to learn.

Although the early settlers had to suffer they also had pleasant times. Many of them thought it was the happiest time in their lives. Custom made the solitude and independence of their life—happiness.

They did not come to seek gold but came as home seekers and home builders.

A PICTURE OF COLONIAL HOME LIFE.

JOSEPHINE A. KELLEY.

James Russell Lowell says: "Old events have modern meanings; only that survives of past history which finds kindred in all hearts and lives."

Nothing appeals more strongly to sentiment than the actual record of past lives written in the faded ink of bygone years Such a manuscript, written in a close, stiff hand on pages yellow with age, stitched between homemade brown paper covers, was found stored away under the garret eaves of an old roof. The record covered forty-nine years. Beginning at the age of sixteen years, Elizabeth Porter kept a weekly chronicle of the events of the preceding week. Brief as are the entries, they convey an impression of life in colonial days—those during the Revolution and later, which we may profitably compare with the life of the present.

Many of the homes of those who were considered wealthy were of ample size. A broad hall with an open stairway leading to the floor above, divided large rooms on either side. Another hall at right angles, led to the little door yard filled with lilacs and syringas. The south entrance had a flagged walk and a small gate opened into a large space where carriages drove up, the front door with its great brass knocker being seldom used.

The long room which was reserved for state occasions only, consisted of a room longer than it was wide and generally furnished better than any other room in the house. Tables occupied the center of the room, while at each end was a small table for a lamp or candelabra. It was used only for tea parties or receptions.

When the long room was filled it was with a jolly and contented company. The old fashioned fire place with its huge audirons, its back-logs and fore-logs between which small wood glowed like a furnace, crackling and roaring wtth enticing warmth.

It was the custom to send the tea around first, and a strong and trusty hand was necessary to carry the large waiter with its precious burden of old-time china.

But turn from the homes of the comparatively rich to those of the middle classes, or those which held the earlier colonists. These were chiefly rustic abodes, unpainted and dingy, with vast kitchen chimneys above which in winter, hung squashes to keep them from frost, guns to keep them from rust and great strings of dried apples and other fruits. A living room, two or three sleeping rooms, and a loft were considered ample space for the family.

A table may today be seen in Pilgrim Hall at Plymouth, upon which in the kitchen of living room of those early days, stood a wooden bowl, filled with a stew composed of the fowl and game, which our forefathers found so abundant in the forests. To this was sometimes added a deep platter which held a venison pasty or pie. Barley bread or rye dumplings were not wanting, but the white flour of wheat was too rare to be used save as an extreme delicacy for invalids or for an honored guest. Oysters and clams were plentiful, but vegetables were not known in the variety which we enjoy. Wild grapes and plums lent color and variety. And home brewed ale and the sassafras beer were not disdained as beverages.

But all this homely abundance is in sharp contrast to the bowl of boiled clams with coarse salt and the flagon of water which furnished this same table when the Pilgrims were waiting for the ship which should bring the longed for relief to a starving colony. And yet it was over this scanty provision that the holy man gave sincere thanks to God—who as he devoutly said "hast given us to suck of the abundance of the seas and of the treasures hid in the sand."

The children in those homes were nurtured wisely but not with too much tenderness.

We do not deny the patriotism and worth of the more wealthy classes among the Pilgrims or that they made as great sacrifices for the struggling commonwealth as many others, but was it not from men and women like these, from plain living and simple

manners, that self-reliance and strength of purpose are born?

If we need to study the lives of great men to be reminded that "we can make our lives sublime," do we not also need the annals of the yeomen, the pioneers of our land to prove to us that from the quiet home life of a God fearing community come the qualities which are needed in a strife between right and wrong—a contest for liberty and freedom of conscience?

There are books in our public library which read thoughtfully and carefully, will bring us into a closer touch with those strong souls who bore the toil and dangers of those stormy days, that we may inherit peace and prosperity. And we may well begin with the charming stories of Jane Austin, Standish of Standish, and Betty Alden, to get the desired insight to the home life of the Colonists, the reality of whose story holds a charm that no purely fictitious romance can attain.

Let us study these times closely, and make ourselves more worthy of our noble ancestors, whose lives and homes, though humble, were types of the noble simplicity which develope true heroism and real strength of character.

"Let not ambition mock their useful toil,
Their homely joys and destiny obscure.
Nor grandeur hear with a disdainful smile
The short and humble annals of the poor.
The applause of listening senates to command,
The threats of pain and ruin to despise,
To scatter plenty o'er a smiling land,
And read their history in a nation's eyes,
Their lot forbade."

But, no, their history has been read with throbbing heart through nearly three centuries that have gone by since that little band of Pilgrims sowed the seed which has grown into a mighty nation.

WASHINGTON'S INAUGURATION.

MARY McDONOUGH.

On the 30th of April in the presence of a great concourse of people, Washington stood face to face with the Chancellor of State in the open balcony of the Federal Hall in Wall street, New York, and solemnly made the promise which was to start the complex machinery of a government, wholly new in the world's history. His inauguration was not marked with the pomp and show that has characterized so many inaugurations since, most especially that of our newly elected President.

Presidential inaugurations of late years mean quite as much an event in our social as in our political life. The eyes of the nation are upon the city of Washington at this time, whose many festivities is the subject of much thought and enormous expense. Every corner of the United States is represented by people eager to participate in the characteristic gaieties. It is undoubtedly true that the social doings attending the inauguration of either President Cleveland or McKinley would rival the wealth and splendor of the courts of Europe. Our American journalists and reviewers have denounced in strongest language the extravagance attending the Coronation of the Czar of Russia. Correct enough, this; but we must not forget that the enormous expenditure of money which it takes to elect and inaugurate a president of the United States would fully equal that which was expended at the late coronation, notwithstanding the fact that a Russian coronation has taken place only once in nineteen years, while our presidential elections come every four years. Our first president's inauguration, however, was attended with simple and pure hearted enthusiasm of the people and genuine and heartfelt respect for the man before them. Always master of himself, Washington could not this time conceal his agitation in the address.

The leading theme of his discourse being personal, he touched but lightly on measures of practical administration deferring in this respect to the wisdom of congress. But he made suggestions highly favorable to amending the Constitution in response to the general wish. He devoted every energy to press forward such legislation that might knit the people of all states into a harmonious Union.

He performed his new duties with the heartiness of a man who thoroughly trusts himself for the capacity of taking pains. Statesmanship was now his whole duty; and this was perhaps more strongly characteristic of him than of any other president, in so much that he had more difficulties to overcome in giving the new government pre-eminent standing from the first. His policy was to make the states a nation, to stir the people out of their pettiness as colonists—and give them national character and spirit.

It was not only a government to be created but a body of opinion must sustain it, and make it worth believing in, winning obedience as well as compelling it.

This was Washingtons dream of a true government which although strictly new, was in due time inaugurated. The constitution was put in force with very little opposition, although it was adopted unanimously by only three of the thirteen states. No pains were spared nor was any personal sacrifice too great to make the government both great and permanent.

Thus we see, that this epoch in the life of our immortal Washington was full of the spirit of unselfishness and truth, the same spirit that influenced his

entire life and that self same influence which made America free, her people sovereign and her government liberal.

ONE NATION OR THIRTEEN?

MINNIE A. McDONOUGH.

One Nation or Thirteen? This was one of the most vital questions which confronted our forefathers at the close of the Revolutionary war and continued to confront them for several years. The final answer might have been in favor of several nations, causing this question to be classified among the troubles of the present day, had it not been for the grand and noble work of such men as Thomas Jefferson, John Adams and Gen. George Washington.

At the close of the war, the colonies, which had by their efforts and sacrifices, achieved their independence, were loosely bound together. The cause of liberty, dear to every colonist's heart, had given a common aim to stern Puritan of Cape Cod and the haughty Virginian by the Chesapeake. When this cause was removed there was nothing left to bind them together and much to separate them.

That such a question ever existed is hard for us to realize; but when we consider their geographical positions, each colony having its own coast line and harbors, thus making them very little dependent on each other; that many communities were separated from one another by mountains, barren lands, swamps and bays; also the differences of race and religion, we can more easily understand the lack of national sentiment to which Washington referred when he said, "We are one nation today and thirteen tomorrow."

The Articles of Confederation authorized a Congress consisting of one house presided over by a president chosen by the delegates of different states, which could recommend measures, but not enforce them. It had very few powers, could not enforce treaties or laws when made, nor lay a tax of any kind for raising money. Congress was always looked upon as a revolutionary body and was treated as such. The states never paid any money; they made treaties with each other; British goods came over from England and entered our ports; our money went over to England in boxes and barrels, and the states in order to have money enough to pay their debts, had to issue paper money, but Congress was powerless. Such was the condition of the country at that time.

The Hartford Convention of 1780, asked that the states let Congress tax according to population and spend the revenue in paying the public debt. Twelve states consented, but Rhode Island would not. A joint commission which had its seat at Mount Vernon, met March, 1785, to settle a dispute about the Chesapeake Bay and Potomac River, and it was there they saw the need of commercial and monetary laws. They drew up a report setting forth the need of legislation on currency and commerce in general. A meeting of the states was called at Annapolis, 1786, but few attended. So the Convention of 1787, was called at Philadelphia, all the states being present but Rhode Island, who is likened to one of the sons of an old man, who with his thirteen sons is represented as having landed in America, where he built a beautiful home and lived happily for several years, when the sons grew tired of their parents and decided to set up each a cabin of his own, near the old homestead. But trouble began at once, one had his husbandry stolen, another's crop failed and another's sheep were eaten by the wolves and so on, until the twelve sons decided to ask their father's forgiveness and go back and live in the old home, which they did. But the thirteenth would not ask forgiveness and after three years hung himself. This thirteenth son is the one who is likened to Rhode Island, who would not join in the convention. This convention was composed of some of the most influential men of the time, Washington being chairman. What was done during the session was not fully known for many years, but we now know that the principal thing was the framing of a new constitution which was adopted Sept. 5, 1787.

If the United States had continued to be divided into thirteen separate independent states or rather nations, there would have been a continual war and strife between them, a constant rivalry and jealousy among the people, while Congress would not have been obeyed nor treated as a ruling body. Such unstately affairs, undignified proceedings, would in time, have caused the interference of some foreign nations.

But now it is one nation, a nation which is placed among the greatest of the world, there being a perfect union between the states and a love of country by the people, the power of the people being vested in Congress, which is honored and obeyed at home and treated with interest and respect abroad. It is a nation that has set the example by which a number of nations have gained their freedom from the tyranizing rule of other countries.

So the United States of America will continue to be the greatest, noblest and grandest nation to the end of time and as Mr. Herbert Spencer says, "The Americans may well look forward to the time when

they will have produced a civilization grander than any the world has ever known."

OUR ATTITUDE TOWARDS ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

AMBROSE J. MABBUTT.

The United States quietly enjoying the blessings of Liberty, derived from her struggle for Independence was at the outbreak of the French Revolution, thrown into dangerous excitement which did not easily abate.

It was but honorable and just that America, greatly indebted to France for services of the past, should manifest her sympathy and interest in her desperate attempt for freedom.

The abuse of ages had at last wrought out its inevitable consequences and France for a time was controlled by murderous hands but upon Napoleon's appearance affairs assumed a more orderly aspect and instead of a throng of rioting mobs France became a nation of soldiers.

Retaliating now for alliances formed against the Revolution she ere long became the master of greater Europe, and was emboldened at length, to a declaration of war against Great Britain. England and France each sought now by various means to embroil the United States on her own side though its relations with European powers had hitherto been almost unnoticeable.

Though public sentiment strongly favored France, Washington resolved with determined firmness to keep from the entanglements of Europe's ambitious wars and in the heat of public discontent issued to all belligerent powers a proclamation of neutrality.

Judging from the demonstrations accorded the arrival of Genet, that an alliance was to be formed with France, England in utter disregard of our neutrality, inflicted serious injuries upon our commerce, but perceiving by the attitude of Congress that longer continuance meant immediate war, she ceased her depredations and all disputes were ended by the Jay Treaty.

Though distasteful in the extreme as was this treaty to the American people it was, after the most bitter and violent opposition, ratified by a barely passing vote, thus avoiding, possibly a dissolution of the Union. As a result France confided no longer in the friendly expressions of the United States and flushed by Napoleon's successes determined to crush the commerce of England.

She now considered the United States as England's practical ally and as a consequence thereof the commerce of the United States was subjected to unjust attacks and seizures, which actions of France could not but further separate her from the United States.

Ever willing to do France justice the United States yet desired to free herself from the claims of France and owe to herself the liberty she was enjoying. Napoleon's victories had made the French government arrogant; France and the United States no longer bore a common interest.

The publication of the X. Y. Z. dispatches together with the nature of the recent Decree which was bitterly obnoxious to our commerce, irritated the public to open condemnation of the French Directory. Becoming convinced, after suffering a few naval defeats that the United States would tolerate no foreign interference, France, by indirect measures, sought for peace which was concluded with Napoleon.

Turning its attention to England, who meanwhile had impressed our seamen, Congress, while discussing means for their protection, received from abroad fresh cause for provocation from both England and France,—England's blockading the European continent from the Elbe to Brest, France's retaliating with the Berlin Decree,—thus did each declare by its acts that no neutral should trade with the other. England, still further resenting, issued her orders in council, while Napoleon, equal to the task, retorted with the Milan Decree. While these measures remained in force the commerce of the United States was doomed to hopeless ruin.

Failing to affect any change with the Embargo Law, Congress substituted the Non-Intercourse Law, at the expiration of which, France having annuled the effect of her Decrees upon the United States immediately received the benefits of our commerce.

Thus have we traced the attitude of the United States towards the two great contending powers of Europe engaged in a fierce struggle of ambitious warfare, avoiding as long as possible each danger of being dragged into a war from which nothing but debt, loss of trade and commerce and financial ruin could result.

Washington's proclamation of neutrality had irritated France to an accusation of unfaithfulness. History indeed shows that the United States was under obligation to France, but there was every reason outside the letter of compact why the United States should refuse to engage in European wars.

Furthermore, the treaty of 1778, the conditions of which France claimed to justify her right in expecting some return from the United States was made with France under a monarchial government and not under a revolutionary government as afterwards existed.

Moreover by declaring war against Great Britain,

France had assumed the offensive, and therefore could claim no aid from a treaty that created a purely defensive alliance. The United States had enforced its neutrality regardless of either nation, England's insults were resented as well as those of France, she had given neither an advantage over the other.

Washington, whose sincere regard and intense sympathy for the French cause, would be but gross insult to doubt, sacrificed his popularity, suffered himself to bitter scorn and personal abuse, but with that never dying love for his country and countrymen, withstood all with his unalterable firmness, which his successors nobly followed, and thus was a weak young nation rescued from the disgraceful task of serving Ambition's greedy designs.

THE FRENCH IN WISCONSIN.

CORA BELLE MAYO.

During the seventeenth century, all European nations claimed the right to take possession of land in America, by discovery or exploration. By this right, Wisconsin together with other Northwestern territories, was claimed by the French, a social, ambitious people, not inclined to colonize as were the sturdy, strong-minded Puritans.

Many missions were established however, among the Indians, by the Jesuit Fathers who were almost the first French explorers. One of these missions established by St. Francis Xavier, had its origin, at least ten years before William Penn founded his model city on the banks of the Delaware. From this time onward, the French did all in their power to retain possession of the Northwest, and prevent its settlement by the English.

Previous to the time of Jean Nicollet's voyage, the French in general, had superstitious ideas, about the Northwest, and regarded it as a land of fabulous wealth. When in 1638, Nicollet, a fearless, well educated Frenchman came to negotiate with the Wisconsin Indians, he was greatly disappointed with the country. He sailed up the Fox River and heard of the Mississippi from some Indians, but returned home without making any great discoveries. His account of the voyage was truthful and well rendered and his maps have since proved very valuable, but the people then paid little attention to them, and twenty years elapsed before the mystery which enveloped this now well known region was entirely dispelled.

In 1658, Radissou, continued the exploration of Nicollet, discovering the Mississippi near its source and exploring Lake Superior. He also originated the great fur trade with Canada, using the St. Lawrence and Great Lakes as water routes.

The traders were the explorers who had the sympathy of France, as they now brought money rapidly into her coffers by means of this fur trade. The Jesuit Fathers were the only ones who might have won for her a second empire in the "wilds of America." They were the firm friends of the Indians and had France kept the confidence of the latter as firm and unshaken, as when the Jesuits alone, first lived and worked among them, who can tell how far her dominion might now extend? But the confidence of the red man received a blow from which it never recovered, when La Salle, a fierce hater of the Jesuits, became jealous of their increasing power and built a fort at Rock St. Louis with the evident intention of forming an independent kingdom. The Indians detected his purpose at once and distrusted all the white men in consequence.

It is a common belief that the French and Indians dwelt together as peaceably as "cooing doves" and it is true that the two nations were, and still are, closely united by intermarriage. But from 1737 on account of their cruel treatment of the Foxes, the French could rely on very few tribes for aid. The former friendship of the Indians had been converted into hatred and contempt.

When the Indian revolt was at its height, Charles Langlade, a Green Bay trader commanding a small force, frightened many Indians into a return to French allegiance, surprising a town and burning their grand chief at a cannibal feast. But the triumph was only momentary and the efforts of the bravest were in vain. About the middle of the century the English came into possession of the Northwest, and Langlade returning to Green Bay, founded there the first permanent settlement in this state "The humble monument of a fallen Empire."

Still the French with the scanty remnant of their Indian forces, made one more desperate effort for the retention of Wisconsin, and the conspiracy of Pontiac against the English might have successfully driven them from the Northwest had not the Wisconsin Indians come to the rescue. The prompt action of the tribes who undermined the despotism of France, saved the English cause and paved the way for the great struggle for independence which took place the next year.

Wisconsin still continued to be the favorite landing place of French immigrants. Milwaukee was only a pretty little village of Indian wigwams, until the close of the last century when Jean Mirandeau and Jacques Vicau made a settlement there.

Jacques Vicau afterwards went to Green Bay where he started the first grocery store there and also engaged extensively in commerce. The early history of La Crosse, Praire du Chien and Portage is also connected with the French.

Although French history in Wisconsin has its dark side as well as its beautiful one, we cannot but honor our early pioneers who explored the Great Lakes, Mississippi, Fox and Wisconsin rivers thus making known the great water routes by which commerce was extensively carried on and immigration rapidly increased.

JOHN PAUL JONES AND THE AMERICAN NAVY.

DELOS R. MOON, JR.

Born and brought up on the seacoast of Scotland, John Paul Jones early acquired a strong desire for a sailor's life. When twelve years old he was apprenticed to a Mr. Younger, in Whitehaven, England, who was engaged extensively in the American trade. Here he received a good common school education, and he also studied navigation and French, in the first of which he became very proficient. His first voyage at the age of thirteen was to this country. where his brother had emigrated before him. He was much impressed with the New World and became thoroughly American in his sympathies. He continued in the service of British trading vessels until 1773, when his brother died, and Paul went to Virginia to settle his estate, heretofore he had always been known as John Paul, but at this time he took the surname Jones. He at once took up the American cause, despising England's position as regarded the colonies. "I was indeed born in Britain," he said, "but I do not inherit the degenerate spirit of that fallen nation, which I at once lament and despise." When the war of the Revolution broke out, he enlisted with enthusiasm in the service of his adopted country, and was made a first lieutenant in the navy. The foreign commerce of the country was destroyed by the war, and the ship owners sought renumeration by fitting out their ships as privateers for the purpose of harassing England's commerce. Paul Jones was one of the most daring of these cruisers. In 1777, he was sent to France. From Brest as headquarters he conducted a remarkable expedition to the coast of England in his old ship, "Ranger." He landed at Whitehaven, having become thoroughly acquainted with the port in his boyhood. He entered the harbor by night and spiked the guns of the fort, and also burned some of the shipping; a fleet of over two hundred colliers escaped only by chance. For this mild retaliation of the atrocities committed along the American coast, the English named him the "Private Jones." Returning to France the next year he was given an old Indiaman to be fitted out as a man of war. He named her the "Bon Homme Richard," in compliment to Benjamin Franklin's almanac, the "Poor Richard." He again sailed for England with two consorts, the "Alliance" and the "Pallas." He went up the Firth of Forth in Scotland, and was only prevented from attacking Leith, by a westerly gale. On his way south again he fell in with a fleet of merchant vessels under the convoy of the frigate "Serapis" of fifty guns, and the "Countess of Scarborough" of twenty-two guns, just off Flamborough Head on the coast of Yorkshire. He signalled his consorts to pursue them, although his crew was weakened by men being taken to man prizes, and he also had about two-thirds as many prisoners on board as he had crew. Captain Laudias, of the "Alliance," who had been insubordinate all through the cruise wished to retreat and he spoke the "Pallas" to that effect, saying that if the English ship carried fifty guns there was nothing else to do. The "Serapis" was new, while the "Richard" was old and carried but twenty-eight guns. I was an hour after sunset under a full moon, when the "Richard" came within hail of the "Serapis." Captain Pearson, of the latter, hailed the Richard twice, Jones replied with a cannon shot, and the "Serapis" also opened fire, and the greatest naval battle of the revolution was begun. After two hours of desperate fighting the "Serapis" surrendered. For this victory Jones was largely indebted to his subordinate officers, especially Lieutenant Dale. When Pearson delivered his sword to Jones he is reported to have said: "I cannot, sir, but feel much mortified at the idea of surrendering my sword to a man who has fought me with a rope aronnd his neck;" to which Jones returning his sword replied: "You have fought gallantly, sir, and I hope your king will give you a better ship." Afterwards when Jones heard that Pearson had been knighted for his gallant, though unsuccessful action, he said, "He deserved it, and if I ever fall in with him again, I will make a lord of him." The next morning all the surviving men were transfered to the "Serapis," and at ten o'clock the "Bon Homme Richard" went to the bottom. While this desperate fight was going on, the "Pallas" had engaged, and taken the "Countess of Scarborough," while the "Alliance" had occupied herself between both vessels. Jones took his prizes to Holland and turned them over to the French government. He then set sail for America. Congress gave him a vote of thanks and in

1786, a gold medal, while the king of France, Louis XVI, gave him a gold-hilted sword, and decorated him with the military order of merit. After spending some time in America seeking employment, our naval hero returned to Paris, as agent for all prizes taken in Europe under his own command. The war now being over John Paul Jones now known as the Chevalier Jones, in 1788, entered the service of Catherine of Russia, and became as enthusiastic a Russian as he had been an American. He was given a command in the Black Sea, with the rank of rear-admiral, to act against the Turks, but in less than eight months the jealousy and rivalry of the Russian commanders brought about his recall. He was summoned to St. Petersberg on the pretext of receiving a post in the Black Sea, but he was left in a restless idleness, until a two years formal leave of absence was granted him. On his virtual dismissal Paul Jones returned to Paris, soured and disappointed. He died in that city on July 18, 1792. English writers speak of him as a pirate and a ruffian, but Mr. Abbot, who has written the history of his life, brings him out as a conscientions, brave and patriotic man. One English writer says, "Naval skill and bravery he certainly had, but his letters prove him to have been boastful and quarrelsome." He writhed under the suspicion of being an adventurer, and he again and again repelled the charge. English contemporary accounts generally speak of him as a pirate. His life has given rise to much romance. Cooper, Duma and Allan Cunningham, have celebrated him in their novels, and many authors have also chronicled his adventuresome life in biographies.

BRITISH SENTIMENT IN REGARD TO AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

ESTELLA MAE O'BRIEN.

The doctrine that governments are instituted to insure to the governed the common right of life, liberty, and property, and failing in which it is the right of the people to substitute for them the form they deem best adapted to secure those ends, is the cornerstone of American independence.

It was with sentiments such as these deeply engraved upon their hearts and minds that our ancestors, who cherished for their mother country a deep affection which naught but the hand of persecution could uproot, by a violation of their most sacred traditions, chafed under the galling yoke of tyranny.

It was not until the Acts of Trade and the Writs of Assistance were enforced that the anger of the colonists became so intense that disruption seemed imminent. The Stamp Act came next and was met with determined and unexpected resistance from the colonies. Pitt now appears in Parliament after a long absence, condemns the Stamp Act and applauds the resistance of Virgirnia and Massachusetts.

The crafty George, and Grenville his prime minister, remained resolute while Lord Rockingham and his colleagues held that Parliament was competent to tax the American colonies but that such a course was "unjust and impolitic, sterile of revenue and fertile of discontents." These sound doctrines were inculcated by Edmund Burke in orations, some of which will last as long as the English language.

This most obnoxious act was soon repealed, but the reconciliation did not last long, however, for the king's haughty spirit would not acknowledge defeat and a tax was now laid on tea and paper, though a popular sympathy was with the Americans. The colonists now adopted resolutions condeming the acts of Parliament and petitioning the king for a redress of grievances but he stubbornly refused them a hearing.

A Declaration of Rights was now prepared by the Americans and though it had no effect in England it led to the Second Continental Congress in 1775, which provided for an army and prepared to resist England.

The anger of Great Britain had now reached its highest; the Americans on the other hand were determined not to yield and the battle of Lexington and Concord ushers in the "mighty Revolution."

In England the king and ministry were resolved on war, while the people and a small majority in Parliament proposed conciliation.

After France had recognized the Independence of the Americans, the Rockingham party realized that the colonies were lost forever and that the only effect of continuing the war would be to divide resources which it was desirable to concentrate.

It was now that the Earl of Chatham so lately known as Pitt, the defender of American rights, appeared in Parliament for the last time. "His entire sympathies were changed his blood boiled at the degradation of his country. What ever lowered her among the nations of the earth, he felt as a personal outrage to himself. He had made her so great. He had been so proud of her. He remembered how twenty years before she had called upon him to save her. He remembered the sudden glorious change which his energy had wrought, the long series of triumphs, the days of thanksgiving the nights of illuminations." Fired by such recollections, he

determined to separate himself from those who counceled the government to grant the independence of the colonies.

War was continued until on October 19, 1781, came the crisis when the army of the Potomac under Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown.

The news of the surrender was received in America with every demonstration of joy. Word was sent to the President of Congress in Philadelphia with the greatest possible speed, and the glorious news was heralded throughout the country. In the afternoon the members of Congress proceeded in a body to the church to return thanks to God. Resolutions were passed later, thanking the army and providing for the erection of a monument to commemorate the great victory. Grand bonfires and illuminations ended the day's rejoicing.

In France Louis XVI., ordered a general thanksgiving throughout his realm to give due respect to so great a victory gained in America.

In England all was gloom and dismay, but the king was still firm and uncompromising, and declared that he would never "be in the smallest degree an instrument" in making peace at the expense of separation from America.

Parliament at last awoke from its torpidity and the king was authorized to make peace. An address was made to the throne on February 22, 1782, in favor of discontinuing the war, and in March the House passed a resolution stating that it would regard as an enemy anyone attempting to further the war in America.

These resolutions were gratefully received by the Americans, and in England, general demonstration. of joy ensued.

On the third of September, 1783, a treaty was formally ratified by England. The struggle of the Revolutionary war had been crowned with successs The completeness of the victory, together with its magnitude, added to the general rejoicing for it was now evident that the death knell of British misrule had been sounded in America.

GROWTH OF THE SPIRIT OF UNION IN THE COLONIES.

OLAF B. ROSTAD.

Our country has today a constitution more than one hundred years old, which has served as a model for all later republics. Our country has today millions who believe in the strength and endurance of the constitution upon which we have based our hopes for the future. We believe in it, for we have seen it in operation and can find few if any faults in it; we have spent our lives under its influence; it has showered blessings upon our oft times unthinking and ungrateful heads.

We accept this almost as a matter of course, forgetting that the constitution was a growth, a growth of national union out of the need for a commercial union. We may trace the growth of the spirit for union from a little interstate navigation company to the federal constitution of 1787.

Scarcely had the Revolutionary war closed when the union of the colonies and the authority of congress began to weaken. Patriotism, which lately had burned with such a fierce flame, now seemed barely to glow with a sullen red; there seemed to be a relapse from the unselfish concern each state had had for the other during their common hour of peril. Public credit, even among our allies, was in ill repute. England did her utmost to keep the states apart; Spain was intriguing on our western border; frontier Indians were on the war path; trade destroyed by war could not regain its former importance because of the conflicting commercial laws of the states.

Washington saw that the remedy lay in union. "The East and West," said he, "must be cemented together by interests in common; otherwise they will break asunder. Without commercial intercourse they will cease to understand each other and will be ripe for disagreement." With this avowed object, he took the lead in a company for extending the navigation of the Potomac, and the two states, Maryland and Virginia, who were interested in the project, agreed to adopt a uniform system of commercial regulations. As the navigation scheme grew, Pennsylvania and then Deleware were invited by Maryland to join the league. Four states were now willing to pass uniform trade laws, but Virginia, through the influence of James Madison, invited the other nine states to join these four in a convention at Annapolis, nominally for the purpose of discussing a commercial union of the United States.

Happily, America has never been in want of true men in an exigency. At this time two men became leaders and took the largest part in the shaping of the country's policy of government. These two men differed widely in character yet each supplemented the other in his efforts for obtaining the safety of his country and his countrymen. Hamilton, the genius, the self-reliant, intuitive man, whose far reaching vision was impatient of minds of more limited horizon, whose honor, whose statesmanship and whose faithfulness in his ideas of the first principles of government, have always been unquestioned.

Madison far seeing, patient, politic, and above all a statesman, who could win followers to his standard by his persuasive reasoning.

Those two men stood far above their political contemporaries. Both of them were delegates to the Annapolis convention; both desired not only commercial union but a political union that would provide for a centralization of power in Congress and make an executive as well as a legislative body. Both had looked forward eagerly to the Annapolis convention hoping that something might be done toward the accomplishment of this desire. Delegates from only five states were present and the convention decided not to attempt any work. At this moment of defeat, Hamilton drew up an inspiring address to the states, to accompany the proposal carried by the convention, inviting all the states to meet the succeeding year to deliberate not only upon uniform commercial regulations, but upon other matters of importance to the government and the Union.

The next year the convention met which has since been known as the constitutional convention, and here a constitution was formed to take the place of the interstate agreement by which each state, whether large or small, whether populous or half-settled, could have but one vote, by which one state could thwart all constitutional reform, five states could stop all legislation, under which the power of Congress was limited to little more than that of an advisory council, and the right of regulating foreign and domestic commerce was appropriated by the separate states. In place of this a constitution was drafted giving us a secure government, safe for the individual, firm as a central power, yielding enough for state strength, harmonious as a whole, and above all equal to all future growth. Here it was that our pioneers of good government tore down the rotten old stockade and built a fort over whose ramparts Division, Anarchy, and Civil Strife have never appeared unchallenged. When we remember how conservative the people were as to the convention, how prejudiced against centralization of the power of government, we begin to see how great were the obstacles confronting the delegates.

If we view the constitution, the foundation, upon which the structure of our national life is so firmly based, we marvel, seeing its greatness, its strength, its consistency, that anything built by human hands should be so perfect. We do not hold this constitution a relic, an instrument which served only the purpose of the times but the warrant of our equality, our welfare, onr freedom, and the future prosperity of our glorious Union.

JOHN JAY.

DAYLA ROTHSTEIN.

In the making of a nation there are always a few names which stand pre-eminent. Perhaps the foremost in affairs of state and politics at the most critical period in our history is that of John Jay.

Born in 1745, he inherited the piety, the independence, and the keen sense of justice which were the natural birth rights of the Jay family.

At the early age of 19, after leaving school, it became his duty to write an "Address to the English People" of which Jefferson said, although ignorant of the author "It is certainly a production of the finest pen in America."

During the course of his illustrious life Jay was often called to offices of great responsibility and trust, and he never once failed.

On being chosen President of Congress, his popularity was shown by the great satisfaction of the people. When Minister to Spain, his rank as a statesman was established, and when he was appointed the first Chief Justice of the United States, Washington wrote him: "In nominating you for the important station which you will now fill, I not only acted in conformity with my best judgment, but I trust I did a grateful thing to the good citizens of the United States."

In the trouble with Great Britain, he, as Special Envoy succeeded in getting England to pay to the citizens of the United States $10,345, which again asserted his ability as a statesman.

Before arriving from England, he was elected Governor of New York and filled this office successfully. Neither during that time nor at any other time in which he held a public office, did he dismiss any man on account of his politics.

After having taken active part in public life for 28 years, he retired to Bedford, N. Y., where he spent the remainder of his life.

He was very much interested in agriculture and wrote to Judge Peters on one occasion, that a frost had killed his water-melons when they were as large as marbles. Farther on in the letter he says, "I believe you and I derive more real pleasure and satisfaction from attending our vines and fruit trees, than most conquerors from cultivating their favorite laurels." Planting trees he called an innocent and most rational amusement.

After his retirement he took no active part in politics, but was well versed on the topics of the day and was often asked for information which he kindly gave.

He had one peculiartiy of not answering a question in a direct way. In one instance when asked if he

thought Washington had written his farewell address himself answered, "I always thought Washington capable of writing his own addresses.

During the last 12 years of his life, his health was delicate and he died in 1829. Perhaps the most fitting tribute that can be given him, is in what Chief Justice Jones said. "Few have passed through life with such perfect purity, integrity, and honor and no man did more for the welfare and prosperity of his country." His public reputation as a patriot and statesman of the Revolution was second only to that of Washington.

ONE HUNDRED YEARS OF NATIONAL LIFE.

EMMA M. SKATVOLD.

As we are drawing near the close of another century in this world's history, would it not be interesting to note the changes in our own country within the last one hundred years? Are we better off than we were one hundred years ago? Was the Revolution for better or worse? Are we able to show to the world that we are an energetic, industrious people?

Let us glance back and see how the comparison stands. In 1789, the territory of the United States consisted of a narrow strip of land along the Atlantic coast, extendiug from Maine to Florida. The settlements were chiefly between the monntains and the coast, very few emigrants having ventured west of the Alleghanies. Today we rank as the third in extent of territory, by purchase or annexation, having increased our dominions until we reach from shore to shore, from Canada to Mexico, with the last purchase, Alaska, not far away. And besides, the climate of our country is such that no acre of that vast area, except on the high mountains, is unavailable for pasturage or cultivation.

The people of the colonies were almost wholly dependent on foreign countries for the necessaries of life, while at the present time, on account of the diversity of climate, the American people are virtually independent of the rest of the world for clothing and substantial food of all kinds with the exception of tea, coffee, chocolate, raw silk and India-rubber, which have in time become essential to the comforts of the people.

In those early days the people traveled by coach and on horseback and transportation was carried on by animal power, such as by pack-horses over the mountains, in wagons drawn by horses or oxen, or in scows or flat boats on the rivers. Such modes of travel could not keep apace with the activity of the colonists and in a short time the great national road was laid from Cumberland in Maryland to the Ohio River. Shortly after, the Erie Canal was opened and the first railway made. The building of such roads have proceeded so rapidly that at the present time we have enough to reach from here to the moon.

We, of '97, with our facilities for supplying our needs and comforts, have but a faint conception of the troubles and difficulties which beset our forefathers as they were laying the foundations of our republic. The people were poor and the government itself was poor, the states and the Continental Congress were involved in debts. England, under her system of "perfectly free trade," had swept every dollar, every piece of gold from the country. In 1791, the debt was about nineteen dollars per man, woman and child of the population. In 1890, the debt was about fourteen dollars for each, with manifold more facilities for reducing it.

The American people have been characterized the only debt-paying nation in the world and a glance at the varied resources may account for this, Notice the vast mineral wealth discovered within the Union during the last century; the facilities for carrying on international and foreign trade; the inventions which have promoted mechanical industries; all these are sources of wealth and have indirectly afforded means of paying the National debt.

In this comparison, we must not forget the manufactures and trade which have grown so rapidly within the last century. During the war the able-bodied colonists being in the army, the people at home made for themselves in their crude way the domestic articles which were needed and which before they had obtained from England. Their trade had degenerated into mere barter on account of the scarcity of money. Discoveries and inventions have paved the way to better days and machinery has so lightened manufacturing, that it has become one of the greatest industries of the present time. The invention of the cotton-gin has established a perpetual and profitable industry in the South. By means of the new tools for rockboring, the metals of the West may be readily mined. These inventions afford labor for the people, and to a working nation come peace and prosperity.

There is still another contrast. The facilities for extending the truths of Christianity and promoting education are vastly greater today than they were a century ago. The different churches have showed unwonted zeal in preaching the gospel to destitute portions of the Union especially during the latter half of this century. They have founded societies and institutions to educate the people and delegates

from several churches met, discussed and settled some important questions, which had, up to this time, formed a barrier between different denominations and prevented, to a great extent, the spread of the gospel. Now we find instead of a strife and controversy, peace and harmony; instead of each church isolated as it were from all others, Union churches and Sunday schools scattered over the prairies and among the woods. Together with the churches have grown up the sohool houses and educational institutions. From the few little log school houses of the colonies we turn to the numerous colleges and academies of today. Upon our schools will depend the preservation of our nation in the future. To have good laws and good government we must educate the people. We want honest, upright and diligent citizens, and we want loyalty to the flag and nation.

This is secured through our schools, where a spirit of patriotism is infused into the pupils and they are taught to respect and submit to a higher authority. In this way we get our intelligent citizens capable of preserving our good government and able and willing to stand by the stars and stripes in times of peril.

And now we come back to our first question, has our republic, our government been for better or worse? The answer is obvious. We rank among the first nations of the world in civilizatiou, industries and science.

And with a firm pilot at the wheel, with a crew of able bodied men, and with a favorable wind, may the good old "Ship of State" sail on and on, over calm seas and under fair skies, and may "her ways be ways of pleasantness and all her paths be peace."

COUNT ARANDA'S PROPHECY.

WM. L. SMITH.

Nearly three centuries had elapsed since the discovery of America. It was already settled to some extent in the East and the people revolting from English misrule had secured their independence.

They scarcely exceeded three millions of souls scattered from Maine to Florida. Just recovering from the effects of revolution the country had not yet reached its former heights of prosperity.

Labor was regarded as no disgrace, so this just-minded self-helping people in that respect at least would not disgrace their ancestry. And what a field for exercising their talents was laid open to them. What boundless resources and mysteries to be sought out. And not contented with what they possessed they continually sought out new lands and adventures.

Their's was the opportunity to overcome distance, to promote commerce, to open a land, in fact the long sought El Dorado; what unpassable mountains to be tunneled, the swift rivers to be crossed; what arid deserts to be reclaimed for cultivation and cities to be built.

In accomplishing these ends did they not even harness the very waterfa lls and cataracts? And the progress they made was indeed wonderful. Today we see the results of their labors in the large and prosperous cities, in the many wide and fruitful farm lands, where formerly vast forests spread but gradually faded away before the advance of civilization. The railroads, the telegraph and the submarine cables are but the products of their ingenuity. And with all these possibilities in view was it an exaggeration for the French ambassadors to declare when they were forced to give up Canada, that it was but a stepping stone to American independence? We see that they were right even if it was made as an excuse.

Yet, another man, Count Aranda, appears, who makes a more startling prophecy. He was a Spaniard, one of the greatest men of his day. John Jay, although he and the Count did not regard each other kindlv, says of him in a letter to Benjamin Franklin, "Truly he is a great man." He was of noble birth and had been intrusted with the reins of government in his own country and also had been Minister to France, where he had taken part in many important diplomatic affairs. Yet in the face of all misgiving, he makes a prophecy full of meaning and far reaching in the following words: "This federal republic is born a pigmy. A day will come when it will be a giant, ev en a colossus formidable in these countries; liberty of conscience, the facility for establishing a new population on immense lands, as well as the advantages of the new government, will draw thither farmers and artisans from all the nations; in a few years we shall watch with grief the tyrannical existance of this same colossus."

How true the intervention of time has proved this to be. From a pigmy has she not grown to be a colossus? Does she not tower among the nations? She, though at first despised and looked down upon by other nations, has step by step pushed her way to the frout and now we may justly be proud of our old country aud flag.

A country not only the seat of liberty, of conscience, but also "the land of the free and the home of the brave."

And shall we and future posterity ever allow the honor and power rightly gained to decline and sink into oblivion? No, a thousand times no. Let come

what may the nation must survive and be the shield for oppressed, defender of liberty and the loved home and country of all true Americans.

THE RISE OF POLITICAL PARTIES,

ALBERT STEINFELDT.

Previous to the adoption of the constitution, political parties in the strict sense of the term, did not exist in the United States. The machinery of the new government had no sooner been put into operation, however, when the two first great parties of the United States were formed.

Congress, a new and unfamiliar body, sitting in New York was recognized as a serious restriction upon the rights of states. This was sufficient to bring out a sharp dividing line between those who wished to construe the powers of the Federal Government strictly so as to retain as much power as possible for the states, and those on the other hand who favored a strong central government.

The former with Jefferson at their head called themselves Republicans while the latter were known as Federalists. Jefferson's theory of goverment was aimed wholly at the exaltation of individual rights. To him the States were the governments agents, and were less likely to oppress the individual than a distant, indifferent, Federal government.

The Federalists on the other hand thought that the interest of the New Republic could be best conserved by the developement of influential classes such as manufacturers and national bankers.

Alexander Hamilton, the recognized leader of the Federalists, was without doubt the foremost man of his age and through his paper known as the "Federalist" he made great effort to advance the cause of his party.

But the allied efforts of all the intelligent men in the United States was not able to overcome the natural tendency toward broadening the rights of sufferage, a policy which was strongly advocated by the Republicans.

After John Adams administration the Federalist party exerted very little influence upon American politics and in 1816 it died out alltogether.

During the eight years administration of Monroe there was little or no party strife. There seemed to be no dividing lines as heretofore, every one calling himself a Republican. People seemed in every way satisfied with the way the affairs of the government were handled. The country prospered as at no other time in its history and for these reasons it is known as "the era of good feeling "

The North naturally was the stronghold of protection, while the South which had but few manufacturers thought the North was receiving all the benefits of the measure and it exerted its influence in opposition to this new element in American politics.

While this era was marked by the absence of party contest there was an issue forcing itself upon the country which furnished material to divide the people once more into two sharply defined political parties.

This was the American syetem of high tariff and internal improvements.

By the war of 1812, the United States had been suddenly and violently transformed from a purely agricultural into a largely manufacturing country and the necessity of protecting the infant industries soon became apparent. From this time the two great parties have continued to make the tariff the leading issue in every campaign, except at such times, when questions calling for more immediate attention have pressed themselves to the front.

There have been times when the great struggle of our general election has seemed more an affair of offices and sectional advantage than of principle, but on the whole political parties of our country have been an effective agency in serving the cause of good government.

Through such organizations voters are educated upon the use of the ballot; they are taught that in a republican government, individual responsibility is the initial point in all legislation, and in all administration.

Such organizations are the only means through which we can bring about any great reform, and it should be the earnest endeavor of every good citizen to make principle triumph over the machine in political parties. If this is done we can safely trust the will of the majority to decide which party shall administer the government.

DIFFICULTIES IN THE WAY OF PEACE NEGOTIATIONS.

SUSIE M. STRANG.

When the news reached England that General Cornwallis had surrendered and war in America had ceased for a time, the topic most discussed, throughout the realm was,—can the negotiations for peace now be satisfactorily settled, or must both nations again take up arms.

As peace commissioners the Colonies had sent Benjamin Franklin to Paris,and instructed him not to sign any articles of peace, unless France would affix her signature, as she had been a great help to us

during the war, and we could show our gratitnde by thus deferring to her opinion.

John Jay was sent to the Court at Madrid, where if possible he was to persuade Spain to enter into a treaty of alliance with America, but she would not consent to become allied to us, though she was by no means a friend to England.

Henry Laurens had been sent to Holland, but while on his way there was captured by a British Man-of-War, taken to England and confined in the London Tower This necessitated the appointment of another minister to take his place, so John Adams was chosen,and by his great perseverance succeeded in gaining admittance to the Court at the Hague; here he secured a treaty with Holland, recognizing our independence.

This was the second power in Europe to do this and our position throughout the continent was thus greatly strengthened.

The commissioners were instructed by Congress to hasten and conclude negotiations as soon as possible, but many difficulties had to be overcome, many trips taken across the English Channel and North Sea, and many sleepless nights spent by the patriotic, untiring ministers before England would release her claims to the Colonies, and salute them rather as a sister than as mother.

Up to this time Lord North had been Prime Minister of England, and it was under his control that the war had been conducted, but on hearing of Cornwallis' surrender and knowing the bitter feeling the rest of his colleagues held for him, he now resigned. The next day after the retirement of his ministry the King sent for Lord Shelbourne and proposed his taking the administration, but this Shelbourne refused as "absolutely impracticable," and urged him to send for Lord Rockingham; the King at first would not think of it on the ground of his ill health, his low opinion of Rockingham's ability, and his preference for Shelbourne over any of his opponents. But these objections were all over-ruled, and Rickingham became Prime Minister, in one of the most trying !and critical times in English history. Much was expected of him, by the Americans, as he had been in sympathy with them. He was a man of true aad honest convictions, but on account of his ill health was hardly the one to occupy the office he now held.

There were many difficulties in his path, which made it very hard for him to work; forone,the King refused to see him personally on any business whatever, especially the American question, but would send all his messages and replies through Shelbourne, this of course delaying negotiations for peace.

Franklin, in Paris watched all the changes in England, and at last wrote to Shelbourne concerning peace, who in turn sent over Richard Oswald, a man well adapted to such an uudertaking to begin negotiations. Franklin sent back his terms and asked that Canada be ceded to the Colonies to pay for the losses they had suffered during the war.

At this juucture, things were again delayed for a short time Chas. Fox, foreign minister, wishing to take the negotiations into his own hands, thinking that this came under his department of business, sent Thomas Grenville to consult with Franklin. Franklin introduced him to Virgennes, the French minister, and entertained him well while in Paris, but refused to do business with him. Fox became so enraged at this that he took the first opportunity offered him by Rockingham's death, in July, to resign from office together with Burke and other colleagues. Shelbourne was now persuaded to become Prime Minister, and have full control over all departments.

The message, Franklin had sent by Oswald, did not reach him until he had come to his new office. Oswald was again sent back to conclude negotiations He, Virgennes and Franklin met and after dicussion had just about come to a definite undertsanding when John Jay arrived from Spain, While at Madrid, he had become convinced that Spain wished to have the war in America continued, to further her own interests, hoping that she might in this way recover Gibralter.

He therefore suspected the good faith of France and thought the negotiations should be continued by the Colonies as an independent nation, and without the help of any other power.

Adams coming from Holland agreed with him, and since the two formed a majority of the American Commissioners, they voted to break the instructions from Congress, and come to an agreement without the help of France. So, in November 10, 1782 the Provisional Articles which to form the definite treaty whenever a settlement could be made were signed and sealed to the great joy of all concerned, for it meant much to the American colonists. It meant that they were no longer colonists, but that a nation had been born which was to take its place among the greatest of the nations and to continue, as we believe until the time when all people would be one.

OUR POSTAL SERVICE.

GLENN A. TYLER.

In tracing our national progress during the last hundred years, we cannot fail to be impressed with

the many wonderful and useful inventions and the important part they have played in raising the United States to the highest position among the nations of the world.

That the invention of the cotton-gin, telegraph, telephone, electric cars and thousands of other labor saving contrivances have all been important factors in our national progress is evident to all.

Every branch of industry, every class of society, every department of government has felt the influence of this wonderful spirit of invention. But nowhere is its effect more plainly shown than in our postal service, which from the merest rudiment seveenteen seventy-six, has grown to be one of the most extensive and perfect postal systems in the world.

Quite unconscious of its wonderful benefits, we have almost come to regard it as we do the sunlight, as a matter of course. But suspend its workings even for one day and we would begin to realize how much of the happiness and prosperity of the nation depends upon the perfection of our postal organization. In fact, so important a part does the postal system play in the economy of any country that it may always be taken as a fair index to that nation's degree of enlightenment.

In the early part of the history of this country there was no system or regularity in the distribution of mail. Letters were carried to their destination by the the passing traveler or in the more thickly settled parts of the country by the weekly stage coach. Later, different states made certain regulations for carrying mail, but the cost of postage was so great that few could enjoy the pleasure of correspondence.

In seventeen ninety-two, postage ranged all the way from six to twenty-five cents according to the distance. It might be collected at either end of the route but was more commonly obtained from the receiver. This gave rise to much dissatisfaction as the receiver feeling that he had not gotten the worth of his money, regarded it very much in the light of a swindle. As an illustration, "My great grand-father after moving to Wisconsin received at one time six letters for which he paid a dollar and a half, not one of which was of the least value to him, all being from strangers inquiring about the new country."

For over fifty years very little change was made in this system. But with the gradual improvement in our railway and steamship service came naturally an improvement in our postal service. This advance has so facilitated the distribution of mail that now in a few hours time it is carried to all parts of this great country.

Contrast the time taken for a letter to cross the Atlantic fifty years ago with its present rate of speed and consider the vast improvement achieved in this line also.

A visit to the post-office department at Washington impresses one with the extent and vastness of its work. Many thousands of men, women and children are employed and as may be supposed, the expense of carrying on this great postal organization is enormous.

Up to eighteen fifty-one the service was self supporting, but since that time, with the exception of one year, the expenses have somewhat exceeded the income. Yet there is good reason to believe that the post-office department will in time not only pay expenses but yield at least a small income.

So important to the commercial and social world have the telegraph and telephone system become, that there is a strong public sentiment in favor of their being placed under government supervision. The pneumatic system is also a possibility of the near future. With these additions, our Postal Service would not only be self supporting but would yield a large revenue to the government.

When we consider that at no distant day our government must find other methods of support than a tax on imported goods, the question in itself is of no small importance. But of far greater importance would be the bringing of the people of this great nation into still closer social and commercial relations. Then even more truly than at the present day could we justly call "all the world our neighbor."

THE STUDY OF HISTORY.

JAMES L. WATERBURY.

The study of history reveals to us the progress of the human race, through its continuous evolution. It discloses to us those mighty spirits which have left their mark on all time and surrounds with the great influence of past ages.

History is the most human of all knowledge. It is a study of humanity as it exists. No other knowledge can be of more importance than that which tends to give us sounder notions of our human and social interests. We need to have clear principles about the moral nature of man as a social being; about the elements of human society; about the nature and capacity of the understanding. We want landmarks to guide us in our search after worthy guides or true principles for our social or political action. Let no one suppose that a thorough

knowledge of our social system can be obtained by simply looking at the state of civilization actually around us. We can acquire it only as we understand its elements and its ways. It would be impossible to remodel existing institutions without the least knowledge of how they were formed; to deal with social problems without the idea of how society arose; to establish a creed without the knowledge of the many creeds which have risen and vanquished before. It is only when our ideas have been tested and compared with other phases of social life that we are certain that they are immutable truths.

The same holds good in our political existence. The laws which we now have were formed by the long efforts of previous generations. Our ideas of government have been gathered from nations which have existed before. Turn which ever way we will we will find our political systems and our laws provided for us.

The civilization which we have attained today is the result of the combined labors of many. It is the accumulated efforts of all mankind around us and before us. All the inventions on which we depend for existence were slowly worked out by the necessities of man centuries ago. If we study Egyptian civilization we find that all the arts of life were brought to perfection. Nearly all the sciences we now have had their beginning in the development of that race. It is to them that we owe the art of writing, one of the most essential elements of human progress. The Greeks furnish us with the great example of intellectual greatness. They carried the arts to a height whereon they stand as examples of all time. Every form of poetry was exhausted and perfected. Philosophy and science were developed by the Greek mind to which until the last few centuries little has been added. No other nation has perhaps given greater gifts to the world than the Romans. She gave us her law, the most perfect political creation of the human mind—the law which is the basis of modern law.

It is to these grand forms of civilization that we owe the essential elements of our future progress. Without these landmarks, with no knowledge of the gradual steps of civilization of what man has done or could do, all reforms would be in vain. Human progress would be impossible.

The opportunity which is presented to us is matchless, but matchless also is our responsibility. Each race has left us a rich legacy of ideas and inventions of past ages, has given to us its experiences, has presented to us the elements of their civilization. We need now to group these powers and gifts into a whole; to discover some complete and balanced system of life. We need to extract all older forms of civilization to combine and harmonize them in one—a system of life which shall embody some of the completeness and symmetry of the earlier societies of men; the zeal for knowledge and improvement which marks the Greek; the deep social spirit of Rome; its genius for government, law and freedom; and above all the moral element that so strongly marks the medieval ages. We must combine these with the knowledge activity and variety of modern life that we may leave to succeeding generations a grander civilization enriched with the years of our own experiences and the rapid development of science and art.

PIONEERS OF THE PERIOD.

BESSIE ADELE WRIGHT.

At the outbreak of the Revolutionary war, the people of the colonies still all dwelt either on the coast or along the banks of the streams, flowing into the Atlantic. When the fight at Lexington took place, they had no settlement beyond the Alleghany Mountains.

It had taken them over a century and a half to spread from the Atlantic to the Alleghanies. In the next three quarters of a century, they spread from the Alleghanies to the Pacific Ocean.

In doing this, they not only deposed the Indian tribes, but won land from its European owners. As all the lands were acquired after they were already a people by themselves, the Americans began their work of western conquest, as a separate and individual nation.

The southern part of our western country was won and settled by the people themselves, acting as individuals or groups of individuals, making their own fortunes in advance of any act of the government.

The Northwest Territory, on the other hand, was acquired by the government, the settlers merely making their settlements in the shelter of the army.

Their greatest trial was the Indians, who continued in active warfare after peace had been made with Great Britain. Their presence has caused settlement to go on at unequal rates of speed in different places, being hindered in one place only to become greater in another. If the Indians had been helpless, North America would have an altogether different history. They have shrunk back before the advance of the settlers only after a fierce and hard resistance?

The people who came to the states, formed from the Northwest Territory, were not from the same, but from different eastern states. The settlers in Ohio were mostly from Virginia, Massachusetts and

Connecticut, and were intelligent and well educated, many of them army officers, who, after the war, came to seek a home and better their fortunes in the West.

They journeyed in parties, three or four families together, but the difficulty of traveling prevented their taking many comforts with them to their new homes.

In getting to their final homes the settlers sometimes were obliged to sail down a river and this was very dangerous. The Indians watched the Ohio and its tributaries with special care and took their toll from the people who went down it. No boat was safe on it. If the war parties, lurking along the banks, came upon a boat moored on the shore, or driven thither by the wind or current, the crew were at their mercy. Grown bold by success, they often launched boats to attack the crew. In such attacks, they were often successful, for they made the attacks only when the odds were in their favor; yet they were sometimes beaten back with heavy loss.

Some settled on the plains and in the little valleys, and others moved into the forest. After clearing a space, they built log-houses and a fort. They lived in the fort only when there was war with Indiaus and then not in winter.

At other times, they all separated out to their farms to work. Their life was one long struggle; the forest had to be felled, deep snows, forest fires and all other dangers of a wilderness life endured.

Their life was a lonely one; their farms were far apart and the forest came to their doors; yet a strong friendship existed between all the settlers from the eastern states.

People also came from Europe; many of them farmers and mechanics and many men of ability and education. They were willing to work and soon had good rude homes. They wore the Indian dress, as it was more durable and cheaper.

In Wisconsin, the French made many settlements which have grown into large cities. In many cases, what are now cities were founded by one family or perhaps by only one man. The people from the east brought with them their manners and customs, which differed from the French, and this explains some of the relations of the two peoples.

The Indians were hostile to the settlers and trouble between them was constant. They were trained for warriors from their youth up and were proficient in the use of the bow and arrow, and their fortifications were the dense forests. They could hide in the deep tangled vines and underbrush and it was impossible to discover their whereabouts. If over-powered, they would fight till death rather than surrender.

Countless stories are told of midnight assault on lonely cabins; of the deaths of brave men and women; of cabins defended with such courage that the Indians were defeated.

These were the neighbors with whom the settlers in Wisconsin and Illinois had to contend. Still these people prospered and were happy. They had few social times like ours and few amusements or luxuries. They tried to live a good life and also to educate their children well.

There is a marked contrast between the pioneer life and modern life. The one has run its career and left few survivors; the other has but commenced and looks forward to the achievement of its high aims. The one relied on its pluck, muscle and heroism for its success; the other on its inventions and wealth. Both have their virtues and vices, their merits and demerits.

The few survivors of the olden times believe them purer and better than our own. And looking back, we cannot, but admire those old settlers and soldiers for their perseverance and bravery.

OUR JURY SYSTEM.

GEOBGE W. SCHROEDER.

For centuries the jury system has been cherished as the safeguard of Saxon liberty. Ever since the days of Magna Charta, individual freedom and impartiality of justice have revered the jury as their guardian and protector.

In this advanced age, however, we frequently hear it pronounced a failure. Cries of denunciation are uttered against it and many of our leading jurists, even advocate its abolition. Prophecies are made by noted writers that the days of the jury system are numbered and that something will be substituted better qualified to distribute justice, and at the same time to keep in harmony with the advancing institutions of the present.

The test of any institution is present utility. Does our jury system stand this test? Before we receive a favorable substitute for it we must answer that it does.

Throughout the whole system of jurisprudence there exists a clear distinction between law and fact. Law is a science whose principles are ascertained in reported cases. Its conclusions are reached by logical deductions from these principles. Facts on the other hand require for their determination nice estimation in which formal logic is of no value. In the determination of such questions lies the value of the jury system.

The only possible substitute for it is the judge. By his position the judge is removed completely from the sphere wherein the laws are mostly violated and is far from the current of popular life. He is free from the busy activities of the commercial world, and is therefore less fitted to decide questions of fact than the citizen whose daily life is a training in such decisions. As a rule such men are selected to act as jurors who have had a wide experience in questions of this character where common sense is of far more value than professional skill. A single magistrate long accustomed to decide a particular class of cases becomes set and biased in his views. With a strong feeling of the responsibilities resting upon him and trained to consider all possible form of technicalities in evidence presented, he cannot fail to grow hardened and unfeeling in criminal cases. Hamlet spoke from life when he said, "Truly the hand of little employment hath the daintier sense."

We frequently hear the assertion that the average intelligence of the juror is too low; that the better class of citizens cannot be induced to act on a jury.

To this argument we can only answer that the man who is so absorbed in the scramble after riches that he cannot spare a few days to serve his state is not the ideal person to act as a juror. If a man has not patriotism enough to fufil the obligations placed upon him by his country and his state he is not fit to hold the reins of jusice in his hands. We may well pass him by and turn to the laborer the honest every day toiler who by persistency and honesty gains his small horde. He is the man who is capable of fulfilling the trust reposed in him by his community and is capable of regarding the preservation of his own free institutions as a sacred duty.

The jury system is an education of our people. The juror is called upon to weigh carefully and consider every argument presented and to give his decisions accordingly. This naturally gives him skill in deciding questions arising in every day life and as the eminent jurist Judge Robert C. Pittman says, "It teaches men to practice equity, every man learns to judge his neighbor as he himself would be judged and this is the soundest preparation for free institutions."

The jury system has ever guided the progress of humanity onward to the zenith of its perfection and we hope that it is not the nature of our people to allow it to be swept away by the waves of sophistry and egotism.

It is the enemy to arbitrary power. It protects the poor man against the enormous and u iscrupulous power of the great corporations. Its principles are interwoven in the growth of every free government. It is the "ægis" of individual liberty. May it never be done away with until the words of Beethoven "Peace on earth good will toward man" shall be fully understood by all humanity.

VALEDICTORY.

FELLOW CLASSMATES:—

"We of to-day" says Emerson, "lie in the lap of immense intelligence and are made the receivers of its truth and the agents of its activity."

To no person should these words convey more meaning than to him who has had the advantage of an education.

As we leave the schoolroom we bear great responsibilities with us. Let us pledge ourselves tonight to be true to ideal which our instructors have placed before us. "On God and God-like men let us build our trust" and with a pure purpose and noble ambition consecrate our lives to the high causes of the world. Unity of aim and interest during the last four years have bound us together in the closest ties of friendship; each one of us starting out can feel that he is not alone but thirty classmates are anxiously, prayerfully watching his course. Fellow Classmates—Farewell.

GENTLEMEN OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION:—

Under your wise management we have been provided with excellent schools and an able corps of teachers; if at times we have seemed a thankless crowd think not that it was from ill will or lack of appreciation of your efforts. Attribute it rather to the thoughtlessness of youth and accept our grateful acknowledgement of your kindness.

KIND TEACHERS:—

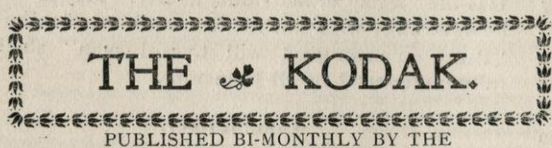
Once more a student generation attests your patience and forgiveness.

The class of '97 will no longer answer "here" to your roll call; but your words of wisdom and kindly advice will give us strength and courage to answer "here" to every call in life of right and duty.

STUDENTS OF THE HIGH SCHOOL:—

"Learn from others faults to correct your own." With you rests the good name of the high school. Remember that three hundred faithful, industrious students can hardly maintain the reputation of a school against the foolish acts of ten idlers. Frown down the student who has not the welfare of the school at heart. Defend your school as the good citizen defends his country by keeping its laws and attending faithfully to your work.

Dear companions of our happiest years, to you we will say, Good-bye in the old yet dearer way—God be with you.



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Assistants.....William Oien, '98; Richard Hollen, '99
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Officers of Senior Class.

President.....Fred Brown
Vice President.....Ambrose Mabbutt
Secretary.....Emma Skatvold
Treasurer.....Tilla Gilbertson
Class Color—Orange and Purple.
Motto—Constantia terras regit.

Let every reader of the KODAK notice the "ads" and if possible patronize those who have been kind enough to patronize us.

The KODAK wishes to congratulate the class of '97 upon the success it has just achieved and hopes that whatever undertaking any of its members may enter upon they may be equally successful.

Our exchanges will have to excuse us this time for not having an exchange column, as the editor of that department is also business manager for this issue. We will try and not let it happen again.

With this issue of the KODAK we take great pleasure in presenting our many readers with our third annual picture of the graduating class and faculty. Not wishing to reflect on the previous classes, yet we feel perfectly justified in stating that it is one of the brightest and largest of the classes turned out by the E. C. H. S. We might also truthfully say that it is the handsomest. We attribute this latter statement largely to the fact that the faculty figure prominently in the group. The picture is the handiwork of "The Canova Studio," and is an excellent example of composition and careful workmanship. The Canova is to be congratulated upon its success. The picture shows a high grade of artistic posing, lighting and expression combined, with perfect chemical manipulation.

97'S MOTTO.

Talk about enterprise! A majority of English students in the Senior Class and yet they have a Latin motto. And those who failed to attend the decisive meeting are the most dissatisfied with the result. If these very ones had lived up to the meaning of the motto as faithfully as the Latin students, there would have been no occasion for this disgruntled spirit. They may probably in the future learn the value of co-operation.

COMMENCEMENT.

The question of class exercises has been the means of much discussion, especially by the School Board. They have seen fit to change the old established custom, of having each student who graduates, have a part in the graduating exercises, and to employ some person or persons from abroad to do the orating, while the class is to sit by and listen. That such a course is unwise and unfortunate is obvious, for many reasons. While each student is required to write a paper (which he does not read), he will not exercise the same care which he would, were he to appear before the public, and give his own production. Then, there is an intimate relation between the student and his Alma Mater, which is seriously marred by such a course. Indeed the intimate relations which cluster around the day of graduation has been taken away; and the literary mother of that student has been robbed of the devotion which rightly belongs to her. Farther, it detracts from the interests which the parent takes in the graduation of his child. It is an occasion which the parent enjoys but once; and it is his province to enjoy that right, that once. The tediousness of the occasion is an argument for the change. No parent nor member of the community will become unduly wearied at such a time. Certainly such an argument does not come from one who has a proper appreciation of the regard which a parent has for his child, and which community has for her own. To say the least, such an argument is not commendatory to the pupils, nor to the teachers who have given them their instruction. Prom the standpoint of expense, certainly it can be no more economical. It must be more expensive to secure talent from abroad than to take our own free gratis.

Finally it is no credit to our school, which we believe to be second to none in the state, and we sincerely hope that our usually excellent board, will speedily see it in the same light, and remove the unintentional reproach.

THE G. A. R. ENCAMPMENT.

It was indeed, an honor for the city of Eau Claire to extend her hearty welcome to the members of the Wisconsin department of the Grand Army of the Repnblic, the most prominent and the most honored representation of the American people. It was a delight for the citizens to throw open their doors of hospitality and bid them enter—the members of that noble institution—the remnant of those armies, who, through those long and bloody years, 1861-'65, bore the "stars" and "stripes" over many a hard fought field and mountain, that our Union might be perpetuated, and the glory of this great Republic be maintained at its paramount height. Yes, it was a pleasure that can be hardly over-estimated for our city to be the rallying place of those gray-haired veterans, that they might grasp each others callous hands, which nearly forty years ago had gripped the musket, and recall with sadness mingled with amusement, the events that characterized those years when our country was purged with civil war.

Not only did the members of the G. A. R. throng our brilliantly-lighted streets, but our city availed herself of the opportunity of greeting three other distinguished orders, the Wisconsin Division of the Sons of Veterans, heirs to their fathers fame, the Woman's Relief Corps and the Ladies of the G. A. R., by whose helping hands many poor soldier's distress is relieved. Distinguished personages from all over the state including the Commander-In-Chief Clarkson, Gov.Scofield,Department Commander Jones,Ex-Governors Upham, Peck and Hoard, met to exchange their views regarding the army and the administration.

The Sawdust city might well be congratulated upon its magnificent and brilliant display in the line of decorations; and frequently murmurs of applause and admiration were expressed by passing pedestrians. All the business houses lining the course of Barstow, were beautifully decorated with flags and bunting, while portraits of the great heroes adorned the scene of illuminations. The "medieval" arch seemed to be the center of attraction for the gazing multitudes; it was in fact, the most striking feature, ever employed on a public occasion in the annals of our city; its surface blazed with innumerable gas-jets, while countless numbers of electric lamps added their lustre to the splendor of the arch.

On Wednesday evening, the 19th, a magnificent banquet was tendered the visitors at the Light Guard armory, about twelve hundred guests being present. The following day Col. Gray was elected department commander. Minor elections also occurred. In the afternoon a grand parade graced the streets of Eau Claire, there being about two thousand school children in line, and a large number of veterans. In the evening of Thursday, the 20th, a splendid program was arranged, at which time prominent speakers delivered addresses. The convention of the Grand Army of the Republic then broke up, each member declaring that never in the history of the G. A. R., had so hospitable a welcome been given them.

It is sad to reflect upon the fact that the time is not far distant when those representatives of the civil strife will have left us—to be buried beneath the sod which contains their leaders that have gone before them—Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, Hancock—yet the 19th and 20th of May, 1897, will never be forgotten by the people of Eau Claire; those days will ever be firmly fixed in the hearts of the citizens, as an endearing occasion, when they welcomed the Wisconsin Department of the Grand Army of the Republic.

We are sorry to see that a lethargy is fast taking hold of our school. It seems indeed as if we all needed some kind of an invigorator to awaken us from the dullness into which we have fallen. The Literary Society has been struggling for two years against this evil, but attributed the cause to the unusual interest taken in athletics by our students. But Alas! Athletics themselves are feeling the effects of the lifeless spirit which has manifested itself among our scholars.

The Athletic Club failed to send a track team to the Inter Scholastic Contest this year simply because the condition of its finances wouldn't allow it. As the actual expenses are not very high it makes a very poor showing for the club.

The Athletic Club was rather slack about the management of its business affairs the last year and this is one reason why it is in such straightened circumstances.

Let the club know the whereabouts of every dollar which it owns and invest its money, only in such transactions as will yield the best returns.

Although the Athletic Club is not a money making concern, cash is indispensible for its success. If it will appoint such discrete business managers as will look out for the best interests of the club it will have the necessary means for its support and some to spare.

Considering the excellent showing the boys did at Madison a year ago, there is no reason whatever, why a track team should not be sent down and so it

will if each member does his duty keeping the true object of the society before him.

CLASS DAY.

A notable event of the week was the Class Day exercises held in the Assembly Room, Wednesday, June 2. The stage and walls were elaborately decorated with palms and flowers. The program was pronounced by a large audience of students and their friends to be one of the most entertaining ever given at the school. Each number was admirably rendered and created much applause. A much appreciated source of amusement was the "Class of '97" composed by Emma Skatvold, Minnie McDonough and Glenn Tyler. The following was the program given:

CLASS DAY PROGRAM,

1. Piano Solo, ... Susie Strang
2. Presidents Address ..... Fred Brown
3. Class History, ... Helen Deming
4. Statistics, ... Cora Mayo
5. Piano Solo ..... Grace Cernaghan
6. Class Poem, ... Ambrose Mabbut
7. Class Prophecy, ... Gertrude Hainer, Dayla Rothstein
8. Presentation, ... Mary McDonough
9. Advice to Lower Classmen, ... Will Smith
10. Class Song, ... Josephine Kelly
11. Play, ... Members of Class

Class Day was first observed by the class of '95. It was omitted last year and as this most enjoyable of days have been revived this year, let us hope that it will be continued by the succeeding classes.

Program for Commencement Exercises held at Opera House, June 3.

Music, "Raymond Overture" ..... Thomas
Oration and Salutatory, "The Training of the Imagination." ..... *Tilla A. Gilbertson
Music, Selection from Faust, ... Gounod
Address, ... President T. B. Pray
Music, "Lover's Declaration," ..... C. Kegel
(Duet for Cornet and Trombone.)
Oration and Valedictory, "Our Jury System." ..... Geo. W. Schroeder
Music, Selection from Donizetti's Opera, "The Daughter of the Regiment."
Presentation of Diplomas by the President of the Board of Education.
Music, "Midway Plaisance Two-Step." ..... Theo, M. Toban
*Chosen by the class,

NOTES.

The Alumni held their annual reception and banquet at Putnan's Hall, Friday evening, June 4.

We were greatly disappointed in not being able to issue the KODAK at the regular time. Our inability to do so is owing entirely to the delay of the Seniors in sending in their pictures, the plate not arriving until yesterday.

The annual banquet and reception given in honor of the Senior Class by the Juniors will be held at Griffin Rifles Armory, Tuesday, June 8.

We take pleasure in calling the attention of our readers to the advertisement of the Wisconsin Business University, on the back of the cover of this issue of "KODAK." The fact that the responsibility of the Wisconsin Business University is vouched for by every bank in La Crosse, and that fully 90 per cent of the graduates are now occupying positions, makes comment upon our part unnecessary.

PICK-UPS.

A FRESHMAN'S TALE OF WOE.

I am sick and tired of lessons,
They're not one bit progressing,
The (x plus y) s and (z plus y)'s
Bothers my head and gives me the blues.

And then, oh dear how hot it is
No wonder the girls can't keep a "frizz,"
But then they look so nice and cool
As if they liked to come to school.

But if I were a Senior though
And had a seat in the very back row
Or if I was'nt quite so fresh,
I rather come to school I guess.

I can see where my fish pole's standing
Temptingly demanding
To go and fish for trout
Just as soon as school is out.

The angle worms are waiting
To be dug and used for baiting
For the hooks are getting rusty
And the fishing basket dusty.

There's my old hat behind the door,
But I can wear it never more
For developed is my brain
And to wear it is a strain.

But here's those (qui) s and (quae)s to learn
Though what good it'll do I can't discern—
Oh, when will come that happy day
When I can lay my books away?

TIM.

In Const. Class—Guy Boyington wanting to get a writ of habeas corpus out for the recovery of his cow.

Scholar—"Whenever a grant of land is given to the state for the purpose of "infernal" improvements, the state may carry on such work." We doubt if any such work is needed.

In Merchant of Venice.

Teacher —"What is the substance of Scene V-2?"

Scholar—"Lancelot was joshing Jessica."

You're not the only "Hall" in the building.

Joe Culver's sudden spurt to the front.

You're not the only "Brewer" outside of Milwaukee.

Why is Steinfeldt so often seen strolling westward?

Prof. Phillips won the "booby" prize at Pres. Brown's reception.

Miss Holcombe, in Eng. Hist.—"I don't take much interest in marriages in general."

In Latin—

Jesse Towne—"He killed him with these words."

Anyone finding the "steps" lost in the parade by Vincent Brewer are kindly requested, to return the same.

Dick Kepler, our determined freshman who resolved to make a proud High School record, appears to have succeeded in getting to the front (seat).

We wonder why the Parsonage on Earl street is such a great resort for young people. Perhaps it is for religious purposes but we doubt it.

Too bad! the moon shines in Stanley for the summer vacation.

Question—"Why does Sid McG. visit the 3rd ward so often?'

Perhaps S. R. may know but we doubt it.

Question in Chemistry—"How are matches made?" (Birdie I.)

"I wonder if the Prof. means Kepler, Allen or Sloan matches, I could tell how Kepler's are made."

Allen singing in an undertone coming from Omaha depot, "I wish I were single again."

Have any of our readers in their possession Brice's Constitution, if so please return to Prof. Phillips.

The wish of all the school—that Stanley Bartlett's feet would hereafter be left at home.

WHEN SCHOOL DOORS CLOSE.

Vacation comes and then what fun
There is in Summer's joys,
From morn 'till night all is delight
No cares our thoughts annoy.

By rippling stream thro' glades serene
Before dawn's tints are fading,
With line and rod you slowly trod
Where speckled trout lie hiding.

In lowly glade 'neath leafy shade
You sit with idle thoughts
And watch the flight at dizzy height,
Of yonder soaring hawk.

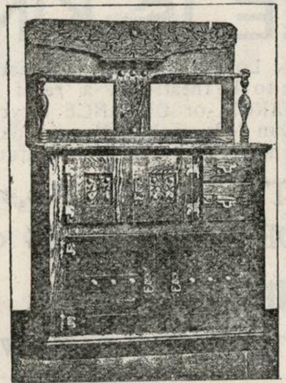
The swimming hole a cherished goal
Which youths for pleasure frequent
The headlong dash, the sounding splash
The shouts of pure contentment.

At dewy eve all can conceive
The joys on mirrored lakes
Whose surface broke by steady stroke
Transforms a wavy snake.

A lifted latch the melon patch
Presents at moonlight hours
A thumping sound, a ripe one found
A flight for secret bowers.

With pleasant dreams sleep ends the scene
Of youthful pranks of glee
From morn 'till night is all delight
Youths minds are ever free.

"GAMM."



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FREE

To the girls and boys of the High School are the services of our eye specialist. When your eyes grow tired, your head aches, or, the letters run into each other, DON'T delay, come and find out where the trouble is, it costs nothing, and we guarantee to correct it, if you say so.

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JEWELERS AND OPTICIANS.
PARKER BUILDING.

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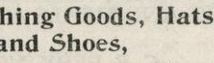
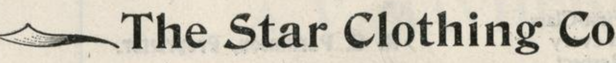
with prices, on all the FINE SPRING SUITS in which We have excelled this season. We are selling them at cost or below, on account of a change in the firm on July 1st.

Furnishing Goods, Hats and Shoes,


We are selling the same way.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EAU CLAIRE, WIS.

BICYCLE IS KING!

They crowned him long ago. Lovers and maidens of Eau Claire and Chippewa Falls no more flock to the theatre as a relief from parlor wooings; they take their MONARCH or DEFIANCE bicycle and float away into green fields and sylvan dells or along the new bicycle path to lake Hallie to breathe the free health giving ozone of nature.

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Opposite the Galloway House.

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Correct Styles and Moderate Prices.

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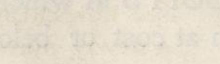

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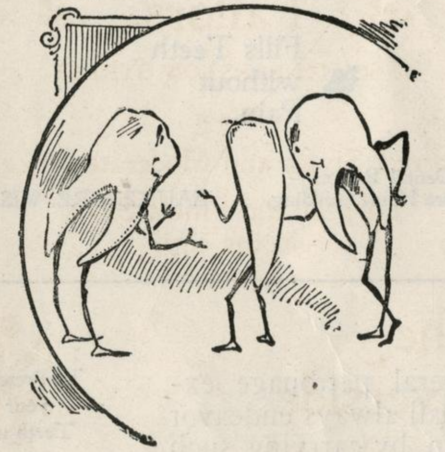
Barn open night and day. Telephone No. 16.

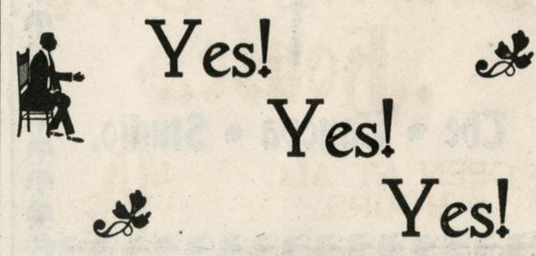
J. M. SIGNOR, EAU CLAIRE, WIS.

If They Could Talk



How would those unsound teeth implore you to come to us and have them made as good as when they first came...sounds impossible, maybe they want relief, they're entitled to it, and so are you, when relief is to be had so easily. Teeth filled without the least particle of pain. Call at my new office and see all the latest improvements in dentistry.....

TRUAX B'LD'G. 3rd. Floor. **C. L. REMINGTON, Practical Dentist.**



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HONEST SHOES AT HONEST PRICES!

Are the only kind we keep. They wear well and are as true as a die. We do business on the level, with the one exception of the downward inclination of our Prices

KOSMO & SWANSON,

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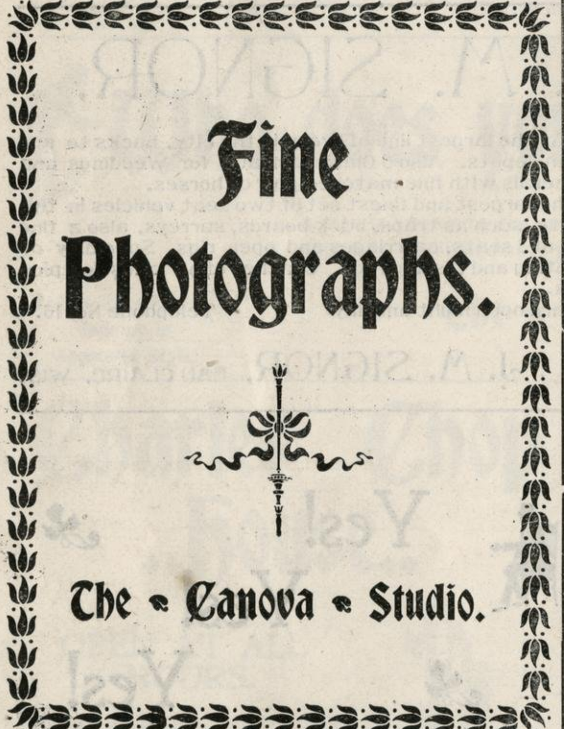

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To High School Scholars.....

WE wish to thank you for liberal patronage extended, and say that we shall always endeavor to merit your favors and esteem, by carrying such goods as you require, of best grades only.

We hope you may all enjoy your vacation and return to your studies in fall with renewed vigor.

Yours for Perfect Goods only, **Playter's Drug Store.**

To Preserve your Teeth use our Daisy Tooth Powder.

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The Hero

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Call at THE KEYSTONE, 208 South Barstow St., and examine them.

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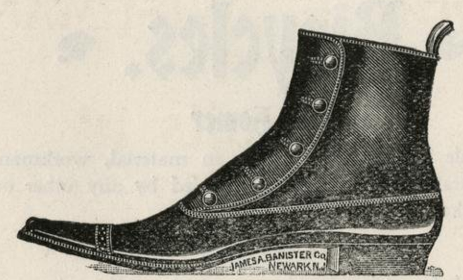

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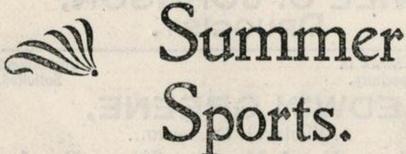

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