CHAPTER XXVIII.

POETRY OF THE WAR.

THE Spanish war was a great inspiration to the poets of the country and many stirring poems were the result. While many volumes would be required to publish them, some of the best and most appropriate are herewith presented.

THE REG'LAR ARMY MAN.

HE AIN'T no gold-laced "Belvidere,"
Ter sparkle in the sun;
He don't parade with gay cockade,
And posies in his gun;
He ain't no "pretty soldier boy,"
So lovely, spick and span;
He wears a crust of tan and dust,
The Reg'lar Army man;
The marchin', parchin',
Pipe-clay starchin',
Reg'lar Army man.

He ain't at home in Sunday-school,
Nor yet a social tea;
And on the day he gets his pay
He's apt ter spend it free;
He ain't no temp'rance advocate;
He likes ter fill the can;
He's kinder rough an', maybe, tough,
The Reg'lar Army man;
The rarin', tarin',
Sometimes swearin',
Reg'lar Army man.

No State'll call him "noble son!"
He ain't no ladies' pet,
But let a row start anyhow,
They'll send for him, you bet!
He don't cut any ice at all
In fash'n's social plan;
He gits the job ter face a mob,
The Reg'lar Army man;
The millin', drillin',
Made for killin',
Reg'lar Army man.

They ain't no tears shed over him
When he goes off ter war;
He gits no speech nor prayerful "preach"
From Mayor or Governor;
He packs his little knapsack up
And trots off in the van,
Ter start the fight and start it right,
The Reg'lar Army man;
The rattlin', battlin',
Colt or Gatlin',
Reg'lar Army man.

He makes no fuss about the job,
He don't talk big or brave,
He knows he's in ter fight and win
Or help fill up a grave;
He ain't no "mamma's darlin'," but
He does the best he can;
And he's the chap that wins the scrap,
The Reg'lar Army man;
The dandy, handy,
Cool and sandy,
Reg'lar Army man.

—Joe Lincoln.

THE WARSHIP DIXIE.

THEY'VE named a cruiser "Dixie"
—that's what the papers say—
An' I hears they're goin' to man her
with the boys that wore the gray;
Good news! It sorter thrills me and
makes me want ter be
Whar' the ban' is playing "Dixie,"
and the "Dixie" puts ter sea!

They've named a cruiser "Dixie."
An' fellers, I'll be boun'
You're goin' ter see some fightin' when the "Dixie" swings aroun'!
Ef any o' them Spanish ships shall strike her, East or West,
Just let the ban' play "Dixie," an' the boys'll do the rest!

I want ter see that "Dixie"—I want ter take my stan'
On the deck of her and holler, "Three cheers fer Dixie lan'!"
She means we're all united—the war hurts healed away.
An' "'Way Down South in Dixie" is national to-day!

I bet you she's a good un! I'll stake my last red cent
Thar ain't no better timber in the whole blame settlement!
An' all their shiny battleships beside that ship are tame,
Fer when it comes to "Dixie" thar's something in a name!

Here's three cheers and a tiger—as hearty as kin be;
An' let the ban' play "Dixie" when the "Dixie" puts ter sea!
She'll make her way an' win the day from shinin' East ter West—
Jest let the ban' play "Dixie," and the boys'll do the rest!

—Frank L. Stanton.

A TOAST TO COMMODORE DEWEY.

At a dinner given to Commodore George Dewey at the Metropolitan Club, Washington, November 27, 1897, just before he started for the Asiatic station, the following prophetic toast was offered, and received with enthusiasm:

FILL all your glasses full to-night;
The wind is off the shore;
And be it feast or be it fight,
We pledge the Commodore.

Through days of storm, through days of calm,
On broad Pacific seas,
At anchor off the Isles of Palm.
Or with the Japanese;

Ashore, afloat, on deck, below,
Or where our bull dogs roar,
To back a friend or breast a foe
We pledge the Commodore.

We know our honor'll be unstained,
Where'er his pennant flies;
Our rights respected and maintained,
Whatever power defies.

And when he takes the homeward tack,
Beneath an admiral's flag,
We'll hail the day that brings him back,
And have another jag.

YANKEE DEWEY.

YANKEE DEWEY went to sea,
Sailing on a cruiser,
He took along for company,
Of men and guns, a few, sir.

Yankee Dewey; Ha! Ha! Ha!
Dewey, you're a dandy;
With men and guns and cruisers, too,
You're certainly quite handy.

He sailed away to the Philippines,
With orders for to snatch them,
And thrash the Spaniards right and left,
Wherever he could catch them.

And Yankee Dewey did it, too,
He did it so complete, sir,
That not a blooming ship is left,
Of all that Spanish fleet, sir.

Oh, Yankee Dewey, you're a peach,
A noble, gallant tar, sir;
You're "out of sight," you're out of reach,
We hail you from afar, sir.

We greet you with three rousing cheers,
For you and your brave crews, sir;
For the deeds you've done and the victory won,
For Yankee Doodle Doo, sir.

Yankee Dewey, keep it up,
You certainly are handy,
With men and guns and cruisers, too,
Oh, Dewey, you're a dandy.

—O. H. Cole.

CAMP CALLS.

To the various camp bugle calls soldiers attach words that reflect this "soldier's privilege" of grumbling to the rhythm of the calls. The following are sample jingles:

I CAN'T git 'em up!
I can't git 'em up!
I can't git 'em up in the morning.
I can't git 'em up,
I can't git 'em up,
I can't git 'em up at all!
The corporal's worse than the sergeant,
The sergeant's worse than lieutenant,
And the captain's the worst of all!

* * *

Go to the stable,
All ye that are able,
And give your horses some corn.
For if you don't do it,
The captain will know it,
And give you the devil
As sure as you're born!

* * *

Oh, where has that cook gone,
Cook gone,
Cook gone;
Where has that cook gone?
Where the aitch is he-e-e?

Twenty years till dinner time,
Dinner time,
Dinner time,
Twenty years till dinner time,
So it seems to me-e-e!

* * *

Come and git your quinine,
Quinine, quinine, quinine!
Come and git your quinine,
And your pills!

* * *

Soupy, soupy, soup—
Without any beans!
An' coffee, coffee, coffee—
The meanest ever seen!

THE FLAG GOES BY.

HATS off!
Along the street there comes
A blare of bugles, a ruffle of drums,
A flash of color beneath the sky:
Hats off!
The flag is passing by!
Blue and crimson and white it shines
Over the steel-tipped, ordered lines,
Hats off!
The colors before us fly!
But more than the flag is passing by,
Sea-fights and land-fights grim and great,
Fought to make and to save the state;
Cheers of victory on dying lips;

Weary marches and sinking ships;
Days of plenty and years of peace
March of a strong land's swift increase;
Equal justice, right and law,
Stately honor and reverend awe;
Sign of a nation great and strong,
To ward her people from foreign wrong;
Pride and glory and honor, all
Live in the colors to stand or fall.
Hats off!

WHEELER AT SANTIAGO.

INTO the thick of the fight he went, pallid and sick and wan,
Borne in an ambulance to the front, a ghostly wisp of a man;
But the fighting soul of a fighting man, approved in the long ago,
Went to the front in that ambulance, and the body of Fighting Joe.

Out from the front they were coming back, smitten of Spanish shells—
Wounded boys from the Vermont hills and the Alabama dells;
"Put them into this ambulance; I'll ride to the front," he said,
And he climbed to the saddle and rode right on, that little old ex-Confed.

From end to end of the long blue ranks rose up the ringing cheers,
And many a powder-blackened face was furrowed with sudden tears,
As with flashing eyes and gleaming sword, and hair and beard of snow,
Into the hell of shot and shell rode little old Fighting Joe!

Sick with fever and racked with pain, he could not stay away,
For he heard the song of the yesteryears in the deep-mouthed cannon's bay—
He heard in the calling song of the guns there was work for him to do,
Where his country's best blood splashed and flowed 'round the old Red, White and Blue.

Fevered body and hero heart! This Union's heart to you
Beats out in love and reverence—and to each dear boy in blue
Who stood or fell 'mid the shot and shell, and cheered in the face of the foe,
As, wan and white, to the heart of the fight rode little old Fighting Joe!

—James Lindsay Gordon.

BIRTH OF THE FLAG.

IN THE camp where the heroes had gathered 'round Liberty's altar alight,
The Spirit of Freedom in anguish abode through the perilous night,
And the joy that is only a mother's, filled her heart at the burst of the morn—
Encradled in war's red manger—a child among nations was born.
Clasped in the arms that shall shield him, the suckling waxed lusty and fair,
Safe as the cub of a grizzly when the dam guards the mouth of the lair;
Grew in his strength and his beauty, grew in his pride and his worth—
Pride of the mother that bore him, peer of the prides of the earth.

For sign that all others may know
him, for sign that his people
are free,
For his camps and his courts and his
temples, for emblem on land
and on sea,
This gift from the spirit that bore him,
that brought him from dark-
ness to light:
"Alike to thine honor unsullied, keep
ever these ribbons of white;
To cherish the valor of freemen, in
token of blood they have shed,
To herald thy wrath and thy power,
are given these streamers of
red;
From the skies that shall smile on thy
fortunes, I have taken this
union of blue
And decked it with stars that shall
guide thee, for the stars in their
courses are true."

To honor that banner uplifted, his
people anear and afar,
The faithful who serve him in coun-
sel, the fearless who serve him
in war,
The strong ones who sweat o'er their
labor, the rugged ones fresh
from the soil,
The stout ones who buy, sell, and bar-
ter the bountiful fruitage of toil,
Came from their homes and their har-
vests, came from their marts
and their hives.
And, proving the love that they bore
it, gave pledge of their fortunes
and lives
That it should be refuge from tyrants;
it has been and ever shall be,
And the slave that shall seek it for
shelter, shall rise without
chains and be free.

—Richard Linthicum.

HOL' DEM PHILUPPINES.

MISTAH DEWEY, yo's all right,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Made yo' point an' won yo' fight,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
If dem natives get too gay
Make dem walk de Spanish way,
Show dem dat yo's come to stay,
Hol' dem Philuppines!

Doctah Dewey, doan' yo' care,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Let dat German ge'man swear,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Reckon dat yo' saw dem first,
Jus' yo' say to wienerwurst:
"Come en take dem if yo' durst!"
Hol' dem Philuppines!

'Fesser Dewey, yo' is wa'am,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Reckon yo' can ride de storm,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Tell him dat yo' will not grieve
If old Diederichs should leave—
Keep dat razzar up yo' sleeve,
Hol' dem Philuppines!

A'm'al Dewey, watch yo' kyards,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Folks all sen' yo' best regyards,
Hol' dem Philuppines!
Make dem fo'iners lay low,
If dey 'sist to pester so,
Make dem take dah clothes en' go,
Hol' dem Philuppines!

—George V. Hobart.

THE BRAVEST SAILOR OF ALL.

I KNOW a naval officer, the bravest
fighting man;
He wears a jaunty sailor suit, his cap
says "Puritan."

And all day long he sails a ship between our land and Spain,
And he avenges, every hour, the martyrs of the "Maine."

His warship is six inches square, a washtub serves for ocean;
But never yet, on any coast, was seen such dire commotion.
With one skilled move his boat is sent from Cuba to midsea,
And just as quickly back it comes to set Havana free.

He fights with Dewey; plants his flag upon each island's shore,
Then off with Sampson's fleet he goes to shed the Spanish gore.
He comes to guard New England's coast, but ere his anchor falls,
He hurries off in frightful speed, to shell Manila's walls.

The Philippines so frequently have yielded to his power,
There's very little left of them, I'm certain, at this hour;
And when at last he falls asleep, it is to wake again
And hasten into troubled seas and go and conquer Spain.

—Ella Wheeler Wilcox.

OUR SOLDIER'S SONG.

"When the destruction of Cervera's fleet became known before Santiago the soldiers cheered wildly, and, with one accord, through miles of trenches, began singing 'The Star Spangled Banner.'"

SINGING "The Star Spangled Banner"
In the very jaws of death!
Singing our glorious anthem,
Some with their latest breath!

The strains of that solemn music
Through the spirit will ever roll,
Thrilling with martial ardor
The depths of each patriot soul.

Hearing the hum of the bullets!
Eager to charge the foe!
Biding the call to battle,
Where crimson heart streams flow!
Thinking of home and dear ones,
Of mother, of child, of wife,
They sang "The Star Spangled Banner"
On that field of deadly strife.

They sang with the voices of heroes,
In the face of the Spanish guns,
As they leaned on their loaded rifles,
With the courage that never runs.
They sang to our glorious emblem,
Upraised on that war worn sod,
As the saints in the old arena
Sang a song of praise to God.

—David Graham Adee.

THE DISINTEGRATION OF A MULE.

"Our fleet engaged the enemy in a brilliant combat. The battle is a brilliant page in Spanish history. The Spanish Minister of Marine said that it was difficult for him to restrain his joyful emotions."—Spanish Dispatches.

ALL HAIL the sailors brave and cool
Of Dewey's bold flotilla;
For Spain has lost another mule
Away off in Manila.

A piece of shell took off his tail,
He grinned the shattered bomb at.
"It is our fleet," he said, "that meet
The foe in brilliant combat."

A solid shot took off his ears;
He smiled a smile of mystery,
And said, "This will turn out a
Brilliant page in Spanish history."

His larboard legs were shot away,
Yet still with smile sarcastic,
"I am not mad," he said, "or sad;
I'm just enthusiastic."

Another shot! What fragments those
That littered up the bay so?
That mule so coy just died of joy—
The Spanish papers say so.

—Harry B. Smith.

THE OREGON.

TURN back thy prow, O Oregon,
Toward thy Western home;
No foeman's ship will bar thy way,
Or cross thy track of foam.
By day, by night, like hounds in leash
No more thy engines strain
To reach the sepulchre where sleeps
Thy sister ship, the Maine.

Oh, nobly hast thou played thy part—
Though half the world away,
Like arrow to its mark ye sped,
To join and win the fray.
Go back, O Oregon, in peace;
'Mid wondrous deeds, and bold,
Thy rush of fourteen thousand miles
Shall evermore be told.

—Ninette M. Lowater.

EIGHT LONG MILES TO SIBONEY.

IT'S eight long miles to Siboney—
You've got to walk or lie;
For there's them that's wounded worse'n you
In the carts that's jolting by—
The carts that's jolting by—good Lord!
Packed full of battered men.
And I guess their girls won't know them
If they see them home again.

It's eight long miles to Siboney—
And the road ain't of the best.
That's far enough, God knows, between
A strong man and his rest!
But when you've fought through hell all day,
And your wounds is stiff and sore,
Why, you've had your fill of hardships,
And you don't want any more.

We're human ammunition,
And we're spent like shot or shell—
But we're winning for the Government,
And they'd ought to treat us well.
But maybe they get reckless,
And they goes it kind of blind,
For they knows there's plenty more like us
That's pressing up behind.

Oh, Uncle Sam! we take our pay,
And we'd better work than talk—
But it's eight long miles to Siboney,
And wounded has to walk.
You needn't spare us fighting,
For we ain't afraid to die—
But take care of those that's hurted now,
And they'll serve you by and by.

—Caroline Duer.

THE OLD FLAG FOREVER.

SHE'S up there—Old Glory—where lightnings are sped;
She dazzles the nations with ripples of red;

And she'll wave for us living, or droop
o'er us dead—
The flag of our country forever!

She's up there—Old Glory—how
bright the stars stream!
And the stripes like red signals of lib-
erty gleam!
And we dare for her, living, or dream
the last dream
'Neath the flag of our country forever!

She's up there—Old Glory—no ty-
rant-dealt scars
Nor blur on her brightness, no stain
on her stars!
The brave blood of heroes hath crim-
soned her bars—
She's the flag of our country forever!
—Frank L. Stanton in Atlanta Constitution.

VICTOR BLUE.

"Mole St. Nicholas, June 13.—Lieutenant Blue just returned after a detour of seventy statute miles' observation of the harbor of Santiago de Cuba. He reports Spanish fleet is all there."—Sampson.

VICTOR BLUE! What a name it is
For a deed of old renown—
How it stirs the blood, how the fancy
wakes
And brushes the cobwebs down!

Why, you see the flag, its stars and
stripes,
You hear the bugles play,
And you know some deed of desperate
need
Has come to blaze the way!

Admiral Sampson paced his deck,
With troubled brow and eye,
While the lights of Santiago flared
Afar against the sky!

He knew that there, in the inner bay,
In a fancied safe retreat,
The Spanish admiral, close and snug,
Had taken his hunted fleet.

But which were the ships and where
they swung
Far back in the winding strait,
Was a little point he wanted to fix
For the pending joint debate!

A light came into the Admiral's eye—
His clouded brow grew free
As he said to his orderly waiting
there—
"Send Lieutenant Blue to me!"

In the shadow that night a little craft
Slipped off from the flagship's side,
And, turning, steered for the Cuban
shore,
Borne in on the Carib tide—

And Victor Blue was there alone,
Serene and well content—
Rejoiced at heart to be off again
On the Spanish fox's scent.

He cut the brush—he forged the
swamp
In a trackless, wide detour—
But the hills, to the rear of the 'leag-
uered town,
Were his box and compass sure.

He heard the sudden clatter of
hoofs—
He crouched in the tropic grass—
Then he saw two sabred and booted
Dons,
With a strange oath, come and
pass!

On through the rank, thick under-
brush
He cut and burrowed his way
Till he caught, thro' the tall palmetto
trees,
A gleam of the distant bay;

Higher he climbed—and higher still
He crept to the towering knoll—
When, lo! beneath him the harbor lay
Like a long, indented bowl!

Need I tell the rest?—how the news came back
To Sampson and gallant Schley;
How Blue had focused Cervera's fleet
With his own—and his good friend's—eye?

How he came through the perils of instant death—
The death of the hangman's noose—
Unravelling quite, with his double sight,
The Spanish admiral's ruse?

How he told the names of the hiding ships
In the cays of the winding strait,
And settled a doubtful point or two
For the pending joint debate!
—John Jerome Rooney.

M'ILRATH OF MALATE.

Acting Sergeant J. A. McIlrath, Battery H, Third Artillery (Regulars); enlisted from New York; fifteen years' service.

YES, yes, my boy, there's no mistake,
You put the contract through!
You lads with Shafter, I'll allow,
Were heroes, tried and true;

But don't forget the men who fought
About Manila Bay,
And don't forget brave McIlrath,
Who died at Malaté.

There was an act to sing about—
An eighteen-carat deed,
To shine beside the sister gem
Of Switzer Winkelried!

Yes, I was with him, saw him—well,
You want to hear it all—
It is a braver story than
A mighty city's fall!

The night was black, save where the forks
Of tropic lightning ran,
When, with a long, deep thunder-roar,
The typhoon storm began.

Then, suddenly above the din,
We heard the steady bay
Of volleys from the trenches where
The Pennsylvanians lay.

The Tenth, we thought, could hold their own
Against the feigned attack,
And, if the Spaniards dared advance,
Would pay them doubly back.

But soon we mark'd the volleys sink
Into a scatter'd fire—
And, now we heard the Spanish gun
Boom nigher yet and nigher!

Then, like a ghost, a courier
Seemed past our picket toss'd
With wild hair streaming in his face—
"We're lost—we're lost—we're lost!"

"Front, front—in God's name—front!" he cried:
"Our ammunition's gone!"
He turned a face of dazed dismay—
And thro' the night sped on!

"Men, follow me!" cried McIlrath,
Our acting Sergeant then;
And when he gave the word he knew
He gave the word to men!

Twenty there—not one man more—
But down the sunken road
We dragged the guns of Battery H,
Nor even stopped to load!

Sudden, from out the darkness poured
A storm of Mauser hail—
But not a man there thought to pause,
Nor any man to quail!

Ahead, the Pennsylvanians' guns
In scatter'd firing broke;
The Spanish trenches, red with flame,
In fiercer volleys spoke!

Down with a rush our twenty came—
The open field we pass'd—
And in among the hard-press'd Tenth
We set our feet at last!

Up, with a leap, sprang McIlrath,
Mud-spatter'd, worn and wet,
And, in an instant, there he stood
High on the parapet!

"Steady, boys! we've got 'em now—
Only a minute late!
It's all right, lads—we've got 'em whipped.
Just give 'em volleys straight!"

Then, up and down the parapet
With head erect he went,
As cool as when he sat with us
Beside our evening tent!

Not one of us, close shelter'd there
Down in the trench's pen,
But felt that he would rather die
Than shame or grieve him then!

The fire, so close to being quench'd
In panic and defeat,
Leap'd forth, by rapid volleys sped,
In one long deadly sheet!

A cheer went up along the line
As breaks the thunder call—
But, as it rose, great God! we saw
Our gallant Sergeant fall!

He sank into our outstretch'd arms
Dead—but immortal grown;
And Glory brighten'd where he fell,
And valor claim'd her own!

—John Jerome Rooney.

THE MISSING ONE.

I DON'T think I'll go into town to see the boys come back;
My bein' there would do no good in all that jam and pack;
There'll be enough to welcome them —to cheer them when they come
A-marchin' bravely to the time that's beat upon the drum—
They'll never miss me in the crowd—not one of 'em will care
If, when the cheers are ringin' loud, I'm not among them there.

I went to see them march away—I hollered with the rest,
And didn't they look fine, that day, a-marchin' four abreast,
With my boy James up near the front, as handsome as could be,
And wavin' back a fond farewell to mother and to me!
I vow my old knees trimbled so, when they had all got by,
I had to jist set down upon the curb-stone there and cry.

And now they're comin' home again! The record that they won
Was sich as shows we still have men, when men's work's to be done!
There wasn't one of 'em that flinched, each feller stood the test—
Wherever they were sent they sailed right in and done their best!
They didn't go away to play—they knowed what was in store—
But there's a grave somewhere to-day, down on the Cuban shore!

I guess that I'll not go to town to see
the boys come in;
I don't jist feel like mixin' up in all
that crush and din!
There'll be enough to welcome them
—to cheer them when they
come
A-marchin' bravely to the time that's
beat upon the drum,
And the boys'll never notice—not a
one of 'em will care,
For the soldier that would miss me
ain't a-goin' to be there!
—S. E. Kiser.

THE NEW ALABAMA.

THAR'S a bran' new "Alabama"
that they're fittin' out for sea,
An' them that's seen her tell me she's
as lively as kin be;
An' them big Havana gin'ruls better
open wide their gates
Ef she's any like her namesake of the
old Confed'rit States!

A bran' new "Alabama!" She orter
be the best
That ever plowed a furrow in the
ocean—east or west!
An' I'm shore that she'll be heard
from—jest open wide your
gates
Ef she's any like her namesake of the
old Confed'rit States!

I bet she's full o' sperrit! I bet her
guns'll keep
The Spanish cruisers huntin' fer a har-
bor on the deep!
She'll storm the forts an' take 'em—
she'll batter down the gates
Ef she's any like her namesake of the
old Confed'rit States!

A TOAST TO OUR SHIPS.

WHY do our battleships scour the
main,
What need of big cruisers to thrash
old Spain
When we have a surplus of Yankee
pluck,
And the Hist, the Hornet and Wam-
patuck?

The Spaniards scoffed at our navy of
tugs,
Manned by ignorant sailors and
thugs;
But a different tune is sung since they
struck
The Hist, the Hornet and Wampa-
tuck.

They blockade, cut cables, pass forts
and fight;
They are in it at all times, day or
night,
And Hidalgoes flee when these three
run amuck,
The Hist, the Hornet and Wampa-
tuck.

A toast to brave Jungen, Helm and
Young,
May their praises loud and long be
sung;
One foot on the table, boys, "Here's
luck"
To the Hist, the Hornet and Wam-
patuck.

THE HERO DOWN BELOW.

IN THE awful heat and torture
Of the fires that leap and dance
In and out the furnace doors that
never close,
On in silence he must work,
For with him there's ne'er a chance
On his brow to feel the outer breeze
that blows.

For they've locked him in a room,
Down below,
In a burning, blazing tomb,
Down below,
Where he cannot see the sky,
Cannot learn in time to fly,
When destruction stalketh nigh,
Down below.

Though his name is never mentioned,
Though we see or know him not,
Though his deeds may never bring him worldly fame,
He's a man above the others—
And the bravest of the lot—
And the hero of the battle, just the same.

He's the man who does the work,
Down below,
From the labor does not shirk,
Down below,
He is shoveling day and night,
Feeding flames a-blazing bright,
Keeping up a killing fight,
Down below.

MISTER SOJER MAN.

I AIN'T got time ter fool wid you,
Mister Sojer Man;
Never did look good in blue,
Mister Sojer Man.
'Sides dat, I got my wuk ter do—
Feed myse'f en' fambly, too;
Ain't got time ter fool wid you,
Mister Sojer Man!

Go 'long now en' fight yo' fight,
Mister Sojer Man;
Fling dem bombshells lef' en' right,
Mister Sojer Man.
Got ter hoe dat cotton white,
Keep dat nutgrass out er sight;
Go 'long now, en' fight yo' fight,
Mister Sojer Man!

TO ADMIRAL SCHLEY.

HAIL! Hero of our Southern battle seas!
No wreath of crumbling laurel leaves thy brow entwines;
America would mete thee more enduring fame,
And in her heart thy name and deed enshrines.

"PRIVATE JONES."

I USED to boss him in the store
And oversee his work,
For I had charge of one whole floor
And he was just a clerk.
To-day it's different, if you please;
We've changed respective pegs,
I'm private in the ranks—and he's
Got stripes
Down
His
Legs.

The girls, whose smiles were once for me,
Now scarce vouchsafe a glance,
Such great attraction can they see
In decorated pants.
The erstwhile clerk no longer my
Indulgence humble begs.
I'm down below. He's up on high,
With stripes
Down
His
Legs.

It's "Private Jones, do this and that."
In haste I must bestir—
To Jenkins, on whom oft I've sat,
I'm told to answer "Sir!"
One born to rule, it's come to pass
Of woe I drink the dregs—
I'm in the army with, alas!
No stripes
Down
My
Legs.

—Edwin L. Sabin.

HOBSON AND HIS CHOSEN SEVEN.

COME, kings and queens the world around,
Whose power and fame all climes resound!
Come, sailors bold and soldiers brave,
Whose names shall live beyond the grave!
Come, men and women, come, boys and girls,
Wherever our flag to the breeze unfurls!
Come one, come all, let none stand back,
Come, praise the men of the Merrimac!
Out from the water, out from the fire,
Out from the jaws of death most dire!
Far up in the fame and light of heaven,
See Hobson with his chosen seven!

THE NEGRO SOLDIER.

WE USED to think the negro didn't count for very much—
Light-fingered in the melon patch, and chicken yard, and such;
Much mixed in point of morals and absurd in point of dress,
The butt of droll cartoonists and target of the press;
But we've got to reconstruct our views on color, more or less,
Now we know about the Tenth at La Guasima!

When a rain of shot was falling, with a song upon his lips,
In the horror where such gallant lives went out in death's eclipse,
Face to face with Spanish bullets, on the slope of San Juan,
The negro soldier showed himself another type of man;
Read the story of his courage, coldly, carelessly, who can—
The story of the Tenth at La Guasima!

We have heaped the Cuban soil above their bodies, black and white—
The strangely sorted comrades of that grand and glorious fight—
And many a fair-skinned volunteer goes whole and sound to-day
For the succor of the colored troops, the battle records say,
And the feud is done forever, of the blue coat and the gray—
All honor to the Tenth at La Guasima!

—B. M. Channing.

TAPS.

TAPS—for the day is finished,
And the moon, in her silvery light,
Whips up from the low horizon
To the star-flecked clouds of night.

Taps—and the day's hard duty
Is o'er, and the time for rest
Sounds forth in its pointed cadence,
And the blowing bugler's blest.

Taps—their duty is ended.
The dead lie side by side.
"Lights out" the bugler's sounding
As they start on their long last ride.

Such is their journey homeward—
To "taps" o'er the broken sod,
To wake on the morn with souls new born
At the "reveille" of God.

—Henry Edward Wallace, Jr.

THE COWARD.

HIT? Yes, I wuz hit, but then
So wuz lots of other men.
Don't feel much like braggin', fer
All the rest wuz braver, sir.
When the fierun' begun,
Somethin' whispered, "Cut an' run!"
Chances wuz that either I
Would have to skip, or stay an' die.
Then the thought of mother came,
An' I didn't feel the same—
Seemed to starch me up a bit,
An'—in a minit I wuz hit.
Mother she wuz brave, you see—
Father died when I wuz three—
Worked, she did, both day an' night
To keep the boy he left fixed right.
'Member when I wuzn't well,
How she watched an' dosed me, tel
I wuz up an' 'round again.
Medicine wuz bitter then,
An' mother'd say, "You, Willie, stan'
An' take your pellet like a man!"
When the shots wuz thick that day,
An' Jimmie Brewer by me lay
Limp an' bleedin' in the sand,
An' I heered the Cap's command—
"Steady, boys, an' fire low!"—
Seemed to feel my courage go;
Almost wisht I hadn't come;
Almost wisht I wuz to hum;
Then—an' Lord, it sounded queer!—
In the din I seemed to hear
Mother, sayin', "Willie, stan'
An' take your bullet like a man!"

—Richard R. Wightman.

REVEILLE.

THE morning is cheery, my boys, arouse!
The dew shines bright on the chestnut boughs,
And the sleepy mist on the river lies,
Though the east is flushing with crimson dyes.
Awake! awake! awake!
O'er field and wood and brake,
With glories newly born,
Comes on the blushing morn.
Awake! awake!

You have dreamed of your homes and your friends all night;
You have basked in your sweethearts' smiles so bright;
Come, part with them all for awhile again—
Be lovers in dreams; when awake, be men.
Turn out! turn out! turn out!
You have dreamed full long I know,
Turn out! turn out! turn out!
The east is all aglow.
Turn out! turn out!

From every valley and hill there come
The clamoring voices of fife and drum;
And out on the fresh, cool morning air
The soldiers are swarming everywhere.
Fall in! fall in! fall in!
Every man in his place.
Fall in! fall in! fall in!
Each with a cheerful face.
Fall in! fall in!

—Michael O'Connor.

"DO NOT CHEER."

After the Spanish fleet had struck its colors off the harbor of Santiago on July 3d, Captain Philip, of the battleship Texas, ordered his crew not to cheer. He assembled his men and gave thanks to God for the victory which we had that day gained.

THE smoke hangs heavy o'er the sea,
Beyond the storm-swept battle line,
Where floats the flag of Stripes and Stars,
Triumphant o'er the shattered foe.
The walls of Morro thunder still their fear;
Helpless, a mass of flame, the foeman drifts,
And o'er her decks the flag of white.
Hushed voices pass the word from lip to lip,
And grimy sailors silent stand beside the guns,
"Cease firing. An enemy is dying. Do not cheer."

"An enemy is dying. Do not cheer."
Thy servants' glorious tribute to Thy name,
Christ, Lord, who rules the battle well,
Who, watching, guards our destinies,
And seeth e'en the sparrows fall.
Redly, through drifting smoke, the sun looks down
On silent guns and shot-pierced bloody wreck,
Long lines of weary men, with heads bowed low,
Give thanks, in presence of Thy reaper grim.
Thy will be done, O Lord, Thou rulest all.

—J. Herbert Stevens.

IN MEMORIAM.

It was a strange coincidence, and a fitting end for a noble old seaman who had given his life to the service of his country, that Rear Admiral W. A. Kirkland, U. S. N., and late commandant at Mare Island, Cal., should die the day peace was declared.

CEASE firing!" Lo, the bugles call—
"Cease!" and the red flame dies away.
The thunders sleep; along the gray
Smoke-shrouded hills the echoes fall.

"Cease firing!" Close the columns, fold
Their shattered wings; the weary troops
Now stand at ease; the ensign droops;
The heated chargers' flanks turn cold.

"Cease firing!" Down, with point reversed.
The reeking, crimson saber drips;
Cool grow the fevered cannon's lips—
Their wreathing vapors far dispersed.

"Cease firing!" From the sponson's rim
The mute, black muzzles frown across
The sea, where swelling surges toss
The armored squadrons, silent, grim.

"Cease firing!" Look, white banners show
Along the graves where heroes sleep—
Above the graves where men lie deep—
In pure soft flutterings of snow.

"Cease firing!" Glorious and sweet
For country 'tis to die—and comes
The Peace—and bugles blow and drums
Are sounding out the Last Retreat.

—Thomas R. Gregory, U. S. N.

THE TORPEDO-BOAT.

SHE'S a floating boiler crammed with fire and steam;
A toy, with dainty works like any watch;
A working, weaving basketful of tricks—
Eccentric, cam and lever, cog and notch.
She's a dashing, lashing, tumbling shell of steel,
A headstrong, kicking, nervous, plunging beast;
A long, lean ocean liner—trimmed down small;
A bucking broncho harnessed for the East.
She can rear and toss and roll
Your body from your soul,
And she's most unpleasant wet—to say the least!

But see her slip in, sneaking down, at night;
All a-tremble, deadly, silent—Satan-sly.
Watch her gather for the rush, and catch her breath!
See her dodge the wakeful cruiser's sweeping eye.
Hear the humming! Hear her coming! Coming fast!
(That's the sound might make men wish they were at home,
Hear the rattling Maxim, barking rapid fire),
See her loom out through the fog with bows afoam!
Then some will wish for land—
They'd be sand fleas in the sand
Or yellow grubs reposing in the loam.

—James Barnes.

A STIRRUP CUP.

A Song for the War Correspondent.

A HEALTH all round ere the last bell rings,
Ere the signals shift and the whistle sings;
There's a moment yet while the trains delay,
We've turned life loose on the world to-day!
On an unknown quest for East or West,
East or West on the unknown way.

For some went South when the Cuban rose,
And some turned North to the Yukon snows.
By sledge or steamer, by mail or freight,
From the Koord Kabul to the Golden Gate,
We've gone the rounds of the world-wide bounds,
From the Hoang-Ho to Magellan Strait.

We stood by the guns when the impi broke,
And the field glass strained through the whirling smoke;
We scrawled the dispatch by the thorn-bush fire,
Then a hundred miles to the telegraph wire!
A ride by night, from the field or fight,
A rattling scoop or an Angel Choir!

When the bucks broke loose from the tribe reserve,
We sketched the scalping, and saw them swerve
When the pistols cracked and the rush was stayed

By the crackling line of the News Brigade.
Up the Peace with the Plains Police—
In the Alkali hell our bones are laid.

The big gong clangs from the depot wall;
The whistles shriek and the signals fall;
Around the curve and along the bay—
We're out once more on the open way.
East or West, or cursed or blessed,
We've turned life loose on the world to-day.

—Frank L. Pollock.

HOSANNAH AND HUZZAH.

ERE ever the guns are silenced;
Ere ever the mandate, Peace!
Shall fall on the raging nations,
Shall bid all their warfare cease;
Ere ever the lamb in slumber
Lies safe 'neath the lion's paw,
We will cry to the East: Hosannah!
We will call to the West: Huzzah!

A hymn to the God of Battles,
Who giveth the conq'ring sword,
Who harks to the cry for justice,
Who bends for the weak one's word;
A hymn for the grandest triumph,
E'er given the world to cheer,
We will lift that the East may hearken,
We will sing that the West may hear.

Far over the waving banners
The foundry's flame-plumes swirl;
And over the stoker blazons
The flag which we helped unfurl,
But if o'er our hearth stone hovers
The glory of sacrifice—
We will make to the East no moanings,
We will make to the West no cries.

The fires of conquest kindle;
The clang of our sword sounds far;
The lion purrs as he watches
His whelp at the game of war.
But ere we forget in our triumph,
And lest we grow faint in our cause,
We will cry to the East Hosannahs,
We will shout to the West Huzzahs.

—Grace Duffie Boylan.

THE MARINES AT CAIMANERA.

YOURS to brunt the ambush'd foeman; yours the vanguard, as of yore;
Yours to hoist and hold the standard 'mid the death hail on the shore;
Yours to scent the flume of venom borne upon the breath of hate,
While the spectred bush re-echoed, as the bullets sought their fate:
"Well done, marines! well done!"

Well done, marines!
With Manila's hardy fighters—serried monsters' mighty play—
With the gory girdled heroes blocking Santiago Bay—
Place the gallant soldier-sailors, first the bayonets to breast;
Blaze the chaparral forever over Caimanera's crest:
"Well done, marines! well done!"

Well done, marines!
Blazon this upon the 'scutcheon of the soldiers of the sea;
On the scroll of fame inscribe it; write it bold in history.

In our rear the yellow fever raged at
Siboney
To cheat us out of glory.

When no bloody Spaniards are left to
run,
Cuba will be won,
Our duty will be done;
Dead and living every single one
Has carved his way to glory.

HELEN GOULD.

NOBLE is the work you're doing,
Helen Gould,
Mercy's methods e'er pursuing, Helen
Gould—
Plucking from the fairest bower
Many a beauteous full-blown
flower,
And, where bleeding feet press, strew-
ing, Helen Gould.

Gold with you is more than booty,
Helen Gould,
Blessed power and grateful duty, Hel-
en Gould;
And, with gentleness and grace
You have toiled, until your face
Glows with rich angelic beauty, Helen
Gould.

Ah, the soldier boys, returning, Helen
Gould,
Of your goodness fast are learning,
Helen Gould,
And the deeds of your fair hand
Have the praise throughout the
land,
And a fame unique are earning, Helen
Gould.

There are cheers for you and praying,
Helen Gould;
For the friends of your arraying,
Helen Gould,
Reach from ocean unto ocean
And in praises or devotion,
Blessings on your head are laying,
Helen Gould.

"Angel of the camp" they name you,
Helen Gould,
As in kindly thoughts they frame you,
Helen Gould;
And, in camp or social whirl,
As a patriotic girl
All America will claim you, Helen
Gould.

MIGHTY FINE.

JEFF lived jes' off the ol' plank
road,
On a farm that wus two b' four,
He didn't hev much t' say t' folks
Becuz he wus humble an' pore;
But whenever anythin' pleased his eye
His withered ol' face 'd shine.
An' we'd hear him say in his quiet
way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

Once a Senator came t' the County
Fair,
An' he talked t' th' G. A. R.,
How they fought in th' war o' Sixty-
one.
Th' Army man an' the tar;
An' when he'd cracked up Lincoln
some
Es a man almos' divine,
We heard Jeff say in his quiet way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

An' when las' spring th' President said
He'd do up ol' haughty Spain
Fer doin' a villainous, treacherous
deed
Like th' blowin' up o' th' Maine,
Ol' Jeff he threw his paper aside,
In a pleased way, I opine,
An' we heard him say in his quiet way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

An' when th' President called fer men
An' a million answered th' call,
An' th' warn't 'nough guns t' go eround,
Ol' Jeff growd suddenly tall,
"I'm proud o' my country, boys," said he,
Es he chawed at th' end of a twine;
An' we heard him add in accents glad:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

Ol' Jeff hed a boy o' twenty-three,
An' a strappin' good feller, too,
An' when he heard th' wus goin' t' be war
He put on a suit o' blue;
An' when he started off t' th' train
Ol' Jeff never made a sign,
But he turned t' th' crowd an' said aloud:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

An' when he read o' th' Manila fight,
How Dewey had smashed a fleet,
An' all the village went rippin' mad
An' hollerin' in th' street,
Ol' Jeff came down through his garden plot
An' he leant on th' harbor vine,
An' we heard him say in his quiet way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

He never hollered ner shouted eround,
That sort, y' see, wa'nt ol' Jeff's way,
But he felt, you bet, in his good ol' heart,
Thet th' navy was come t' stay!
Thar wus po'try, too, in them gentle words,
A po'try we couldn't define,
When he'd turn an' say, in his quiet way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

He'd borrer th' papers o' neighbors near
An' he'd read 'em all through at night,
An' then drop in at th' grocery store
An' tell what he thought o' th' fight.
When Hobson went int' th' mouth o' hell
An' laughed at th' Spanish mine,
We heard Jeff say in his quiet way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

An' when th' report came over th' wire
How they'd stormed San Joo'n hill,
An' many a man wus dead an' gone
An' many a heart wus still,
Ol' Jeff, though he knowd thet his boy
Wus one thet made th' incline,
He wus heard t' say in his quiet way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

An' when they brought th' pore lad back
In a narrer box o' pine,
An' th' village band played th' grim dead march,
An' th' hull town got in line,
An' th' minister said how brave he wus,
An' every eye filled with brine,
We heard Jeff say in a chokin' way:
"Say, boys, thet wus mighty fine!"

—Harold MacGrath.

HIS BLOOD.

Colonel Roosevelt is by descent French, Scotch, Dutch and Irish.—Current Newspaper Information.

ZEES TAYODORE, ze "Ridaire Rude,"
Who led ze charge at Caney,
Possess a coorazh verra good,
Mon Dieu! He's von of many!
Ze papaires talk ze man upon
And praise hees hero-eesm;
Zey like zees new Napoleon,
Nor ees eet strange he please zem,
Pourquoi? He ees a Frenchman!

I ken nae mon sae fu' o' fire
  An' weel renoon deservin'
As he that fought mid reek an' mire,
  Wi' nae retreat, nae swervin,'
When Spanish shell an' Spanish gun
  Besmeared the groun' sae redlie;
But his was nae the race to shun
  Tho' sword an' shot be deadlie,
    For, trulie, he's ae Scotchman!

It vas not gueer dis Roosevelt
  Vas sooch a prave gommander;
I dells you I mineself haf felt
  As pold as Alexander;
It vas der ploot, mine friends, der
    ploot,
  Dot mages der vearless soldtier;
An' dere vas none von ha'f so goot—
  Remember vot I toldt you—
    As his, vor he's von Dutchman!

Av course our Teddy's bould and
    brave,
  How ilse could he be other?
No foiner lad, Oi well belave,
  E'er woman had for mother.
Av coorse he drubbed thim Spanyards
    haard
  Down there at Santiago;
He's not the spalpeen to be scared
  At any div'lish Dago,
    Because, begob, he's Oirish!

Vraiment! Zees Tayodore ees grand!
  Parceque he ees a Frenchman;
But dinna reck ae Scot is bond
  To serve as any's henchman;
Dere vas no nation on der earth
  So bold as vas der Deutscher;
An' ivery mon av anny worth
  Is Oirish in the future,
    As Teddy is this prisent!

—W. D. Fox.

GUAM.

AN AGE of wonders dawned on
  Guam,
Beneath the touch of Uncle Sam!
A time of restlessness and light
To take the place of peace and night!
Ah, Guam, asleep upon the ocean's
    breast,
Lulled by the soft Pacific into rest,
Unending as the sea is, and as still,
Why need you wake to wonders and
    to ill?

You are so very little, Guam, that you
Are but a misty speck upon the blue
Infinity of earth, and Guam,
Although 'tis well to be of Uncle Sam,

That is not all of peacefulness nor
    rest,
As you have known them on the gen-
    tle breast
Of your Pacific, where through all the
    years
You never knew our world of hopes
    and fears.

Ah, dear, delicious, distant, doleless
    isle,
Asleep for ages where those soft skies
    smile,
How rude would your awakening be
Roused by a new world's energy!

Ah, gentle Guam, keep shut those
    eyes of yours,
Care not for what is not upon your
    shores;
You are so little, Guam, away so far,
The busy world might leave you as
    you are.

An age of wonders, sorrows, cares,
In which each state and nation shares!
They call it dawn. Guam, is such light
A greater blessing than your night?

It may be, Guam; or if it be or not,
What harm can be, if only one small
    spot
On all the earth is left still unop-
    pressed,
Where man may stop and breathe and
    rest?

—W. J. Lampton.

A SONG OF THE FIGHT.

O THE glory and the story of the fight,
The dashing of the war-steeds in the strife—
The charge, and the retreat,
And the flag the winding-sheet
Of faces staring starward from the strife,
Lost to life—
And the wailing of the mother and the wife!

O the glory and the story of the fight!
The leaving for the battleground of Fate,
With glory for the goal,
Where the cannon-thunders roll,
And kisses for the woman at the gate
Who shall wait
For the unreturning footsteps, long and late!

O the glory and the story of the fight!
Blow, bugles, o'er the flowering meadows—blow!
But when the fight is done—
Wake ye each trampled one
That sought to see the sun of glory glow!
Bugles blow!
But the dead beneath the drooped flags shall not know!

ARMY DIET.

MY father says 'at sojers is
The braves' mens 'at ever was;
'At when they hears the shots go "Whiz!"
They don't mind it a bit, bekuz
The whiz means 'at you ain't got hit,
An' so they ist don't keer a bit.

Pa says 'at sojers knows a lot,
An' they can walk "ist like one man,"
An' aim so well 'at every shot
Will hit a sneakin' Spaniard, an'
He says they have to eat "hard tacks"
An' carry "raccoons" on their backs.

But when I ast him why they do
He ist busts out a-laughin,' nen
He says, "You know a thing or two,
My son!" an' laughs an' laughs again,
An' says, "'At's ist the very thing—
The sojers eats the tax, 'i jing!"

THE YOUNGEST BOY IN BLUE.

When the Second Naval Battalion of Brooklyn occupied the old Thirteenth regiment armory, the boys vied with each other in contributing books, pictures, flags, etc., to help brighten the old company rooms.

Pinned on the bulletin board one night, among a lot of warlike orders, were found these unsigned verses:

OLD Uncle Sam has a fine, new boy,
The youngest of all in blue;
He's the Naval Reserve, with lots of nerve,
And plenty of courage, too.
So give him a place in the family, lads,
We've plenty for him to do.

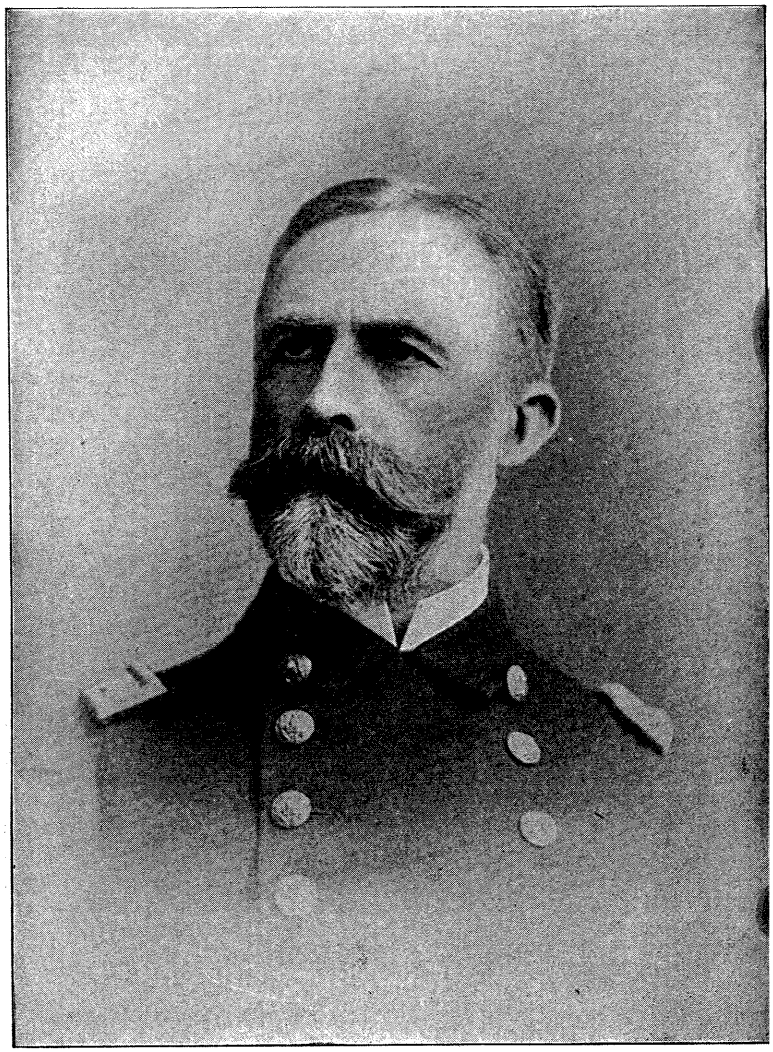
At sea he chaffs the sailor men,
And joins in their daily work
With all his might (though he'd rather fight),
For he never was built for a shirk.
So sling his hammock up for'ard, lads,
And teach him to use the dirk.

On land he elbows and jostles about,
Or marches all day in the sun,
With a cheery smile for every mile,
And a frolic when day is done;
But when you get in a skirmish, men,
He doesn't know how to run.

Then fill your mugs to the young'un, lads,
Who mixes with every crew;
On land or sea, wherever he be,
We'll always find him true,
And we'll give him a place in the family, lads,
For there's plenty for him to do.

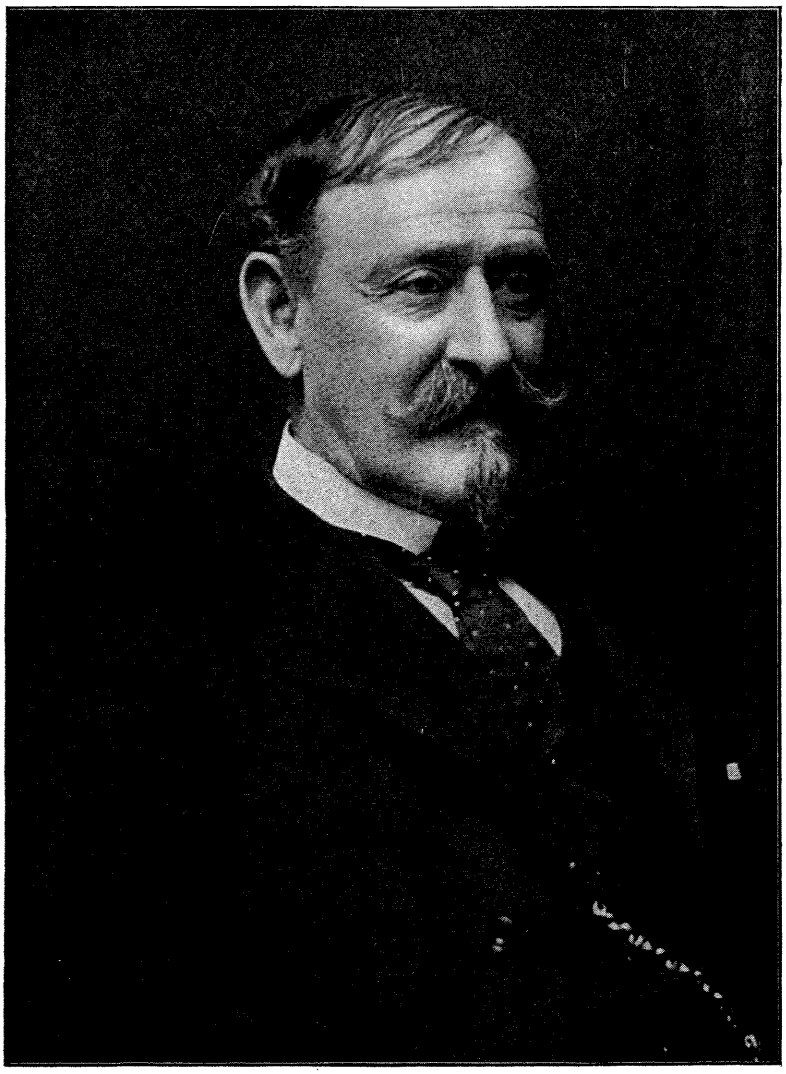
George Dewey

George Dewey, the third to hold the rank of Admiral in the United States Navy, is a Vermonter by birth and is in his sixty-first year. He graduated from Annapolis before the Civil war, served under Farragut and was specially commended for gallantry at the battle of Mobile Bay. At the beginning of the Spanish-American War he was a Commodore commanding the Asiatic squadron. His victory at the battle of Manila is unparalleled in naval history. Congress created the rank of full Admiral for him, to which he was at once appointed.

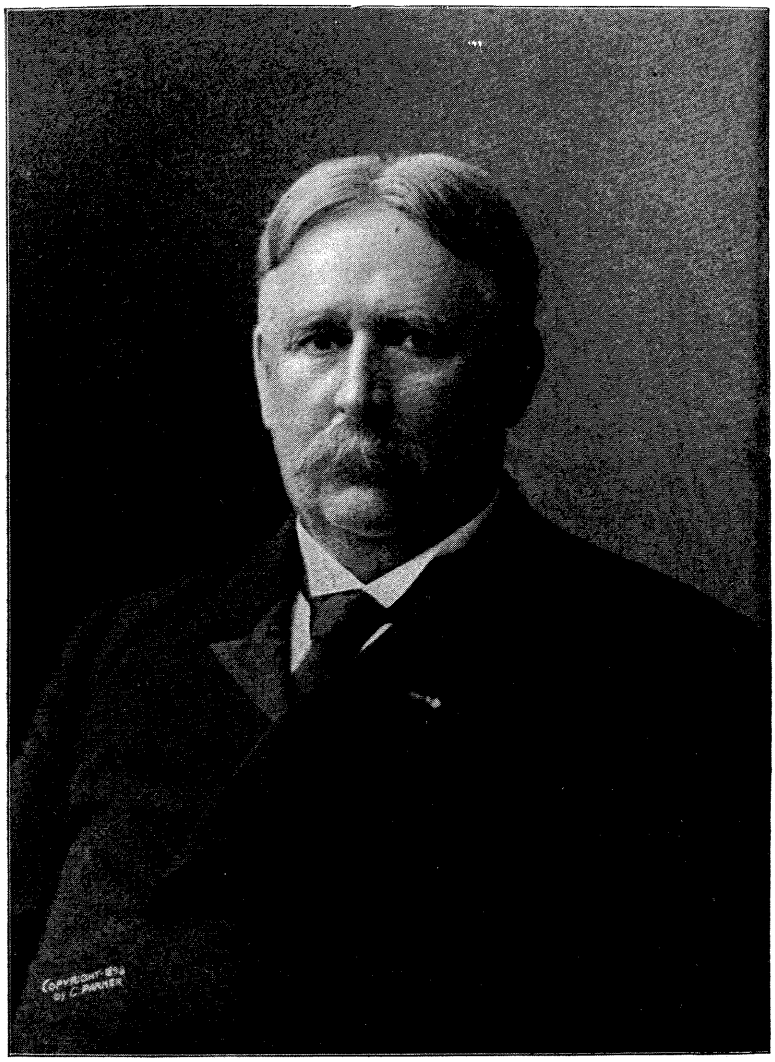


W. T. Sampson U.S.N.

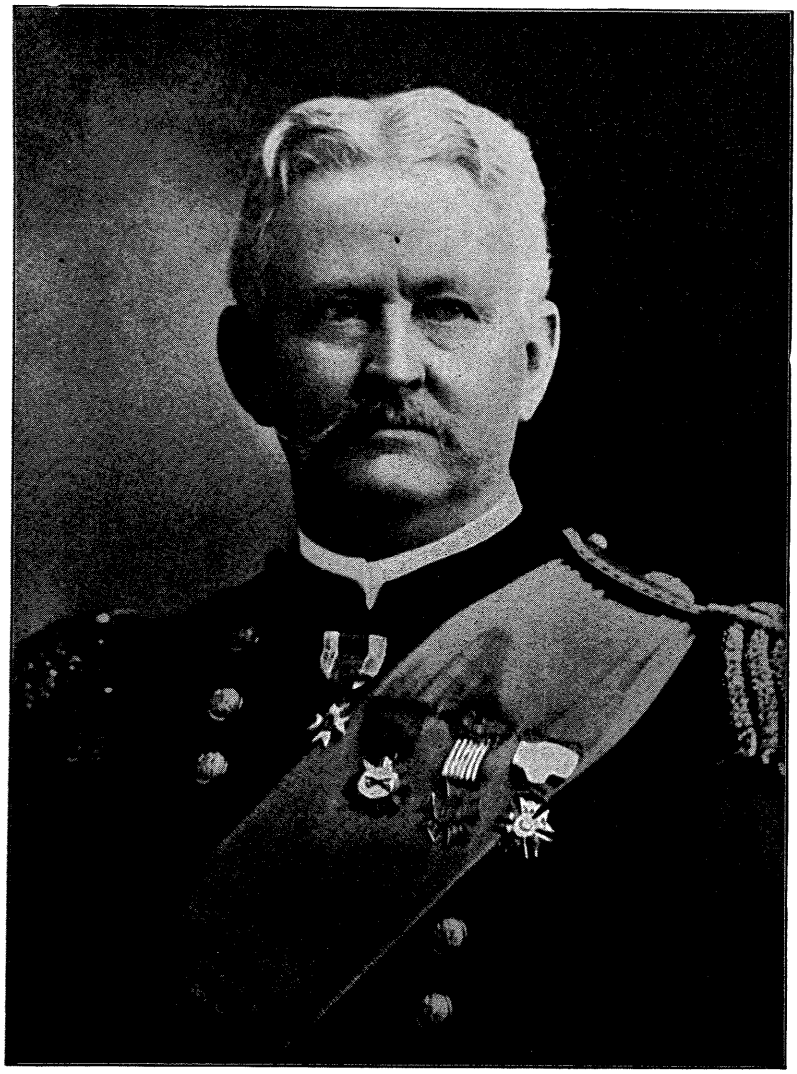
Rear Admiral William T. Sampson, who commanded the blockading and North Atlantic squadrons, was born at Palmyra, N. Y., in 1840. He graduated at the Naval Academy in 1861. Sampson was executive officer and stood on the bridge of the Patapsco when she was blown up by a torpedo in Charleston harbor January 16, 1865. Since the formation of the new navy he has commanded the Iowa and San Francisco. On account of his knowledge of mines and torpedoes he was appointed President of the Maine Court of Inquiry. When Cervera's fleet attempted to escape from Santiago bay Admiral Sampson was absent on his flagship New York.



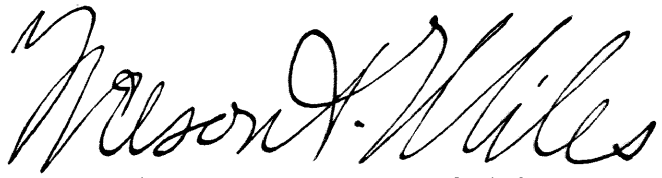
Rear Admiral Winfield Scott Schley, who was Commodore commanding the second division of Sampson's fleet during the war, was born in Frederick, Md., October 9, 1839. After the Civil War he distinguished himself as the leader of the Greely relief expedition, which found and rescued the daring Arctic explorer. At the beginning of the war with Spain Admiral Schley was placed in command of the flying squadron, later attached to Sampson's fleet. At the battle off Santiago, in which Cervera's fleet was destroyed, he was in command during the absence of Admiral Sampson. His flagship, the Brooklyn, led the chase after the Cristobal Colon and was hit oftener than any American ship in the great battle.



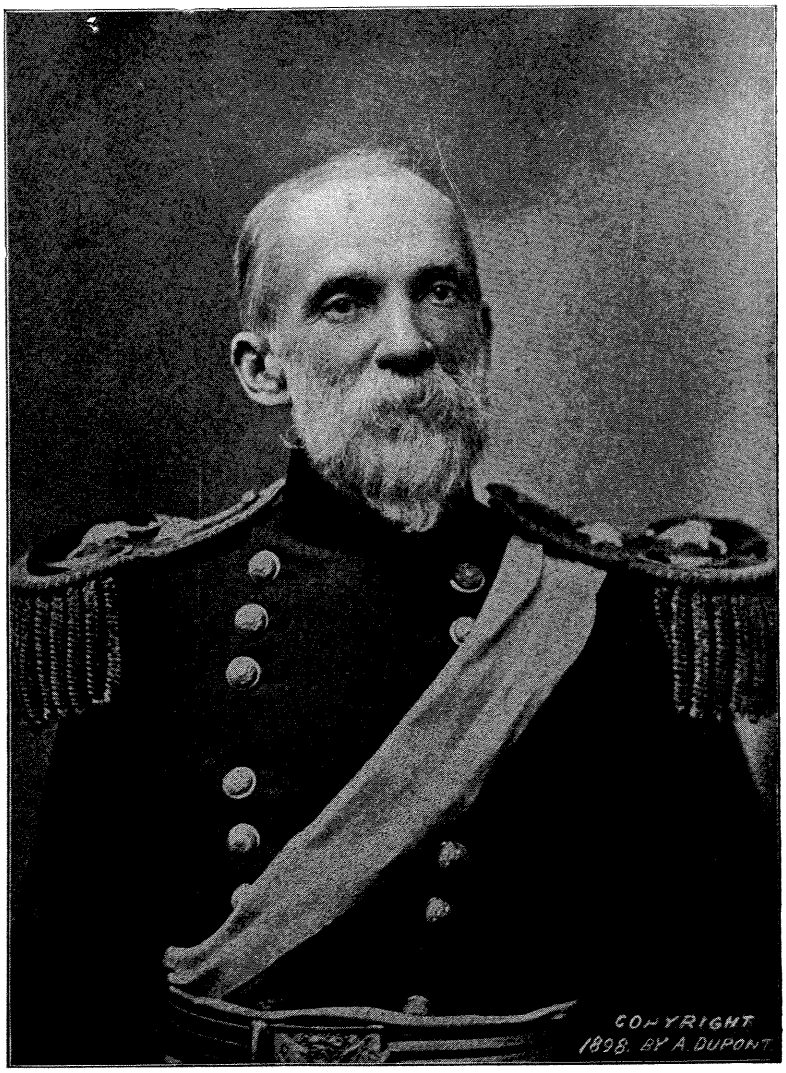
Major-General William Rufus Shafter, who commanded the American forces in Cuba, is not a West Pointer, but served in the Civil War, winning the rank of Brevet Brigadier-General. He then entered the regular army and later saw much service on the frontier. For eighteen years he was Colonel of the First Infantry. He is a severe disciplinarian and believes in militarism. His command in Cuba consisted of the Fifth Army Corps and participated in all the battles of the Santiago campaign from La Guasimas until Toral's surrender. General Shafter was born in Michigan in 1835.



Major-General Wesley Merritt commanded the American military forces in the Philippines, and, in co-operation with Admiral Dewey's fleet, won the battle of Malate and captured the city of Manila. After the signing of the Peace Protocol he was ordered to Paris to give information and advice to the American Peace Commissioners. General Merritt was born in New York in 1836 and graduated from West Point in 1860. In the Civil War he rose to the brevet rank of Major-General, having been successively promoted for gallantry. While in the Philippines he was virtually the military governor of the territory held by the American forces. He was succeeded by Major-General Elwell S. Otis previous to the Filipino outbreak.



Nelson A. Miles, the ranking Major-General of the United States Army, **in** the early stages of the Spanish war acted as an adviser to President McKinley and later led the expedition to Porto Rico and conducted the campaign in that island in person. He has a splendid record in the Civil War, as well as the late one, and is noted for his successful campaigns against the Indians. General Miles was born in Massachusetts, August 8, 1839.



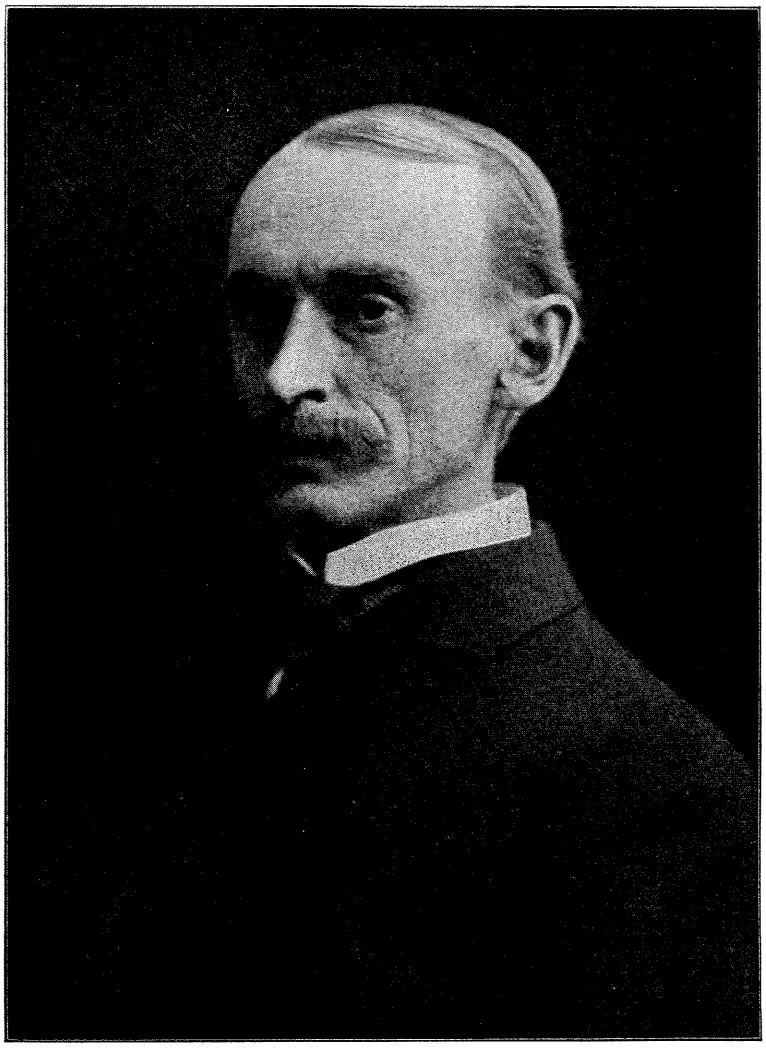
Major-General Joseph Wheeler, who won the title of "Fighting Joe" in the Civil War, left his seat in Congress to go with the Fifth Army Corps in the Santiago campaign, receiving his commission at the same time as Fitzhugh Lee. The gallant ex-Confederate cavalry leader was given command of the cavalry division and distinguished himself at San Juan Hill by going to the front, during an illness, in an ambulance. General Wheeler was born in Augusta, Ga., September 10, 1836. He was a member of the Forty-seventh, Forty-ninth, Fiftieth, Fifty-first, Fifty-second, Fifty-third and Fifty-fourth Congresses and was re-elected in November 1898, to the Fifty-fifth Congress.

Theodore Roosevelt

Colonel Theodore Roosevelt, who with Colonel Leonard Wood organized and commanded the First United States Volunteer Cavalry, known as the "Rough Riders," was born in New York, October 29, 1858. His line goes back to mediæval times in Dutch history. He has served as Assemblyman from New York, National Civil Service Commissioner, Police Commissioner for New York City, and at the breaking out of the war was Assistant Secretary of the Navy. In the latter office he won high praise for vigorous administration and his insistence upon target practice. Colonel Roosevelt is the author of several historical works and is celebrated as a sportsman and ranchman. In November, 1898, he was elected Governor of New York.

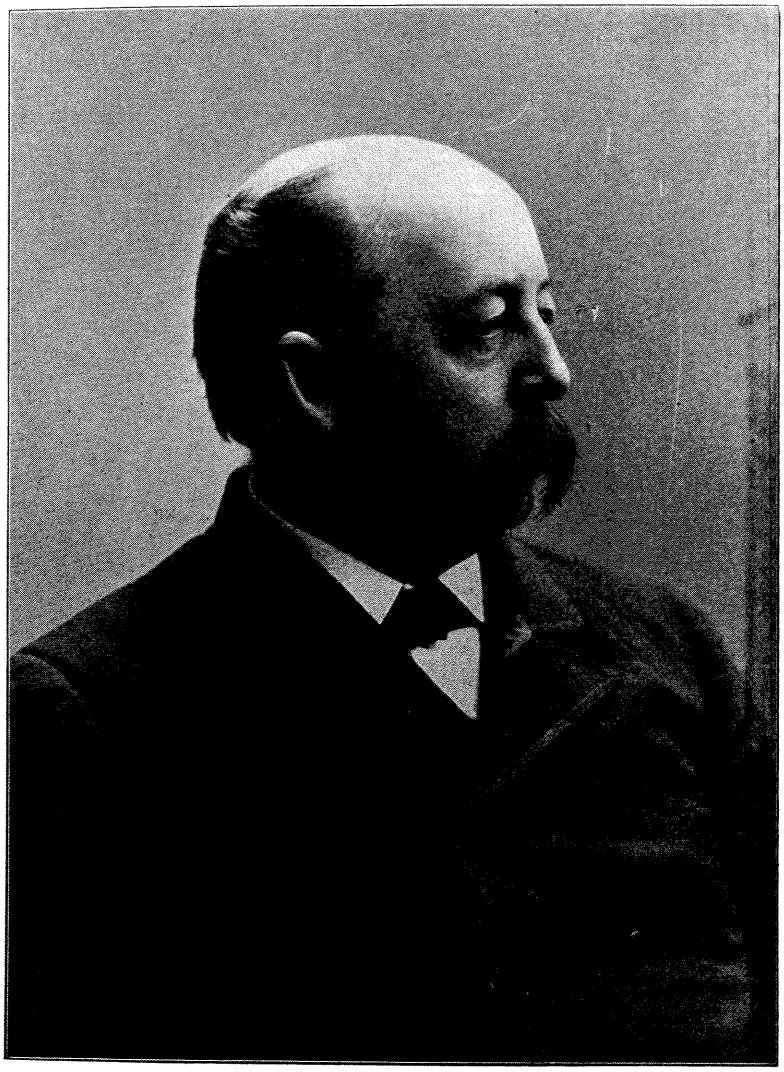
R. P. Hobson

Lieutenant Richmond Pearson Hobson, who sunk the collier Merrimac in the channel to Santiago harbor, was born in Greensboro, Ala., August 17, 1870. At the Naval Academy he stood at the head of his class and was graduated in 1889. He studied in the shipyards of England and France for several years and was then attached to the Bureau of Construction in the Navy Department. After the battle of Santiago he succeeded in raising the sunken Spanish cruiser Maria Teresa, which was afterwards lost in a storm. For his heroic feat with the Merrimac he was promoted to full rank in the construction department and was afterwards sent to Manila to raise the Spanish vessels sunk by Admiral Dewey.



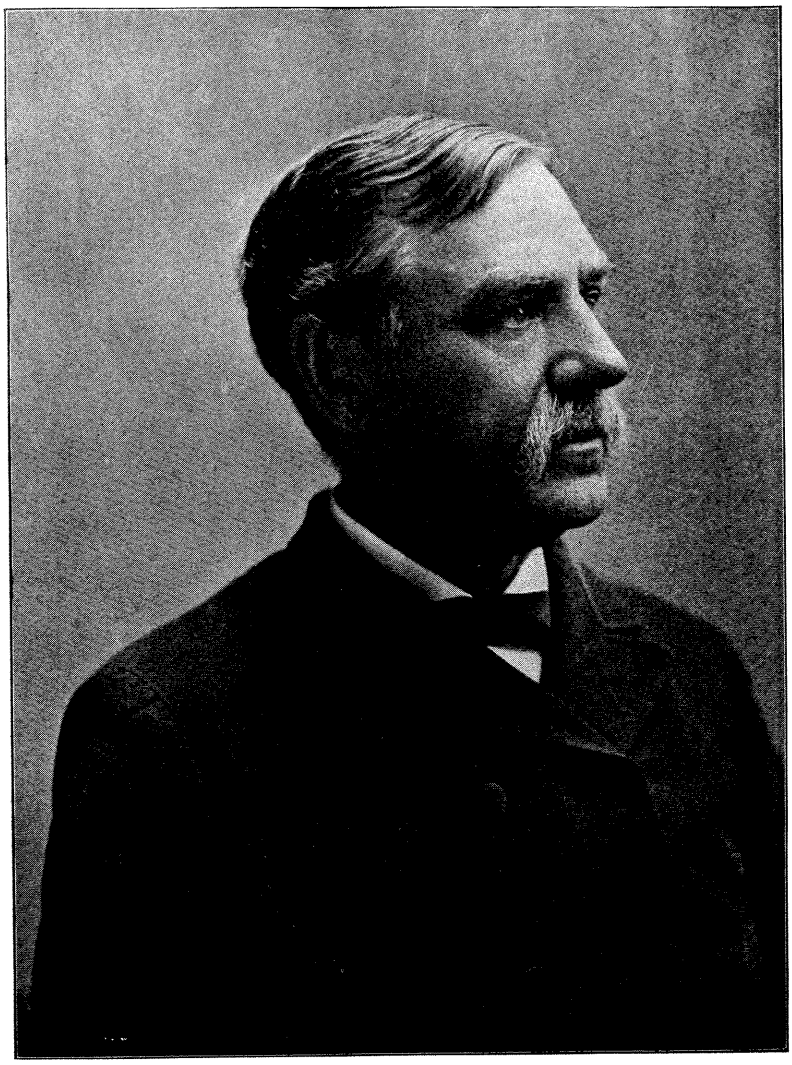
William R. Day

William R. Day resigned the office of Secretary of State to become President of the American Peace Commission, in which capacity he was the personal representative of President McKinley. He drew and signed the peace protocol jointly with M. Cambon, who represented Spain. Before the war Judge Day was scarcely known outside of Ohio. His father was a Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of that State and both father and son took high rank for legal and judicial ability. Next to the President, Judge Day carried all the burden of the affair with Spain from the beginning, first as assistant to Secretary of State John Sherman, then as Secretary and lastly as President of the American Peace Commission.



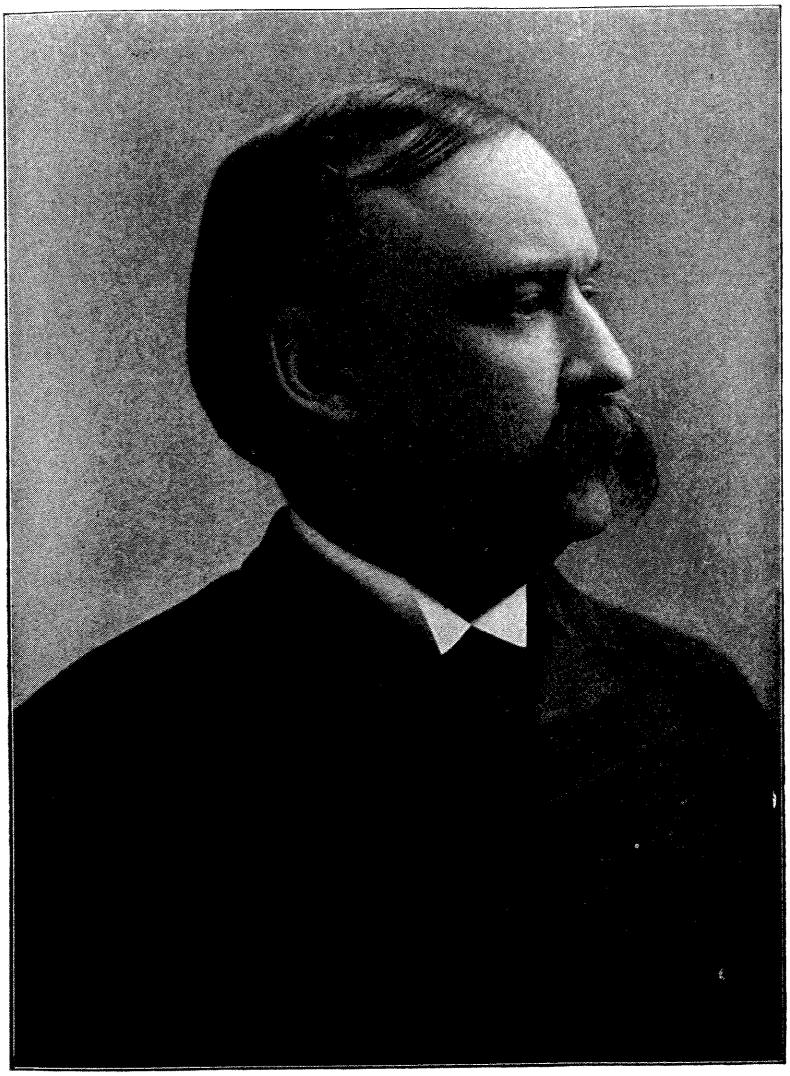
C K Davis

United States Senator Cushman K. Davis, next to ex-Secretary Day, was the most conspicuous member of the American Peace Commission. He is aggressive but conservative and was a strong advocate of national expansion. Senator Davis was born in Henderson, New York, June 16, 1838, and is a lawyer by profession. He served as a First Lieutenant in the Civil War. He has been Attorney-General and Governor of Minnesota, and was elected to the Senate in 1886 and at the time of his appointment as Peace Commissioner was Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. He is an eloquent orator and in personal appearance bears a strong resemblance to the late Benjamin F. Butler.



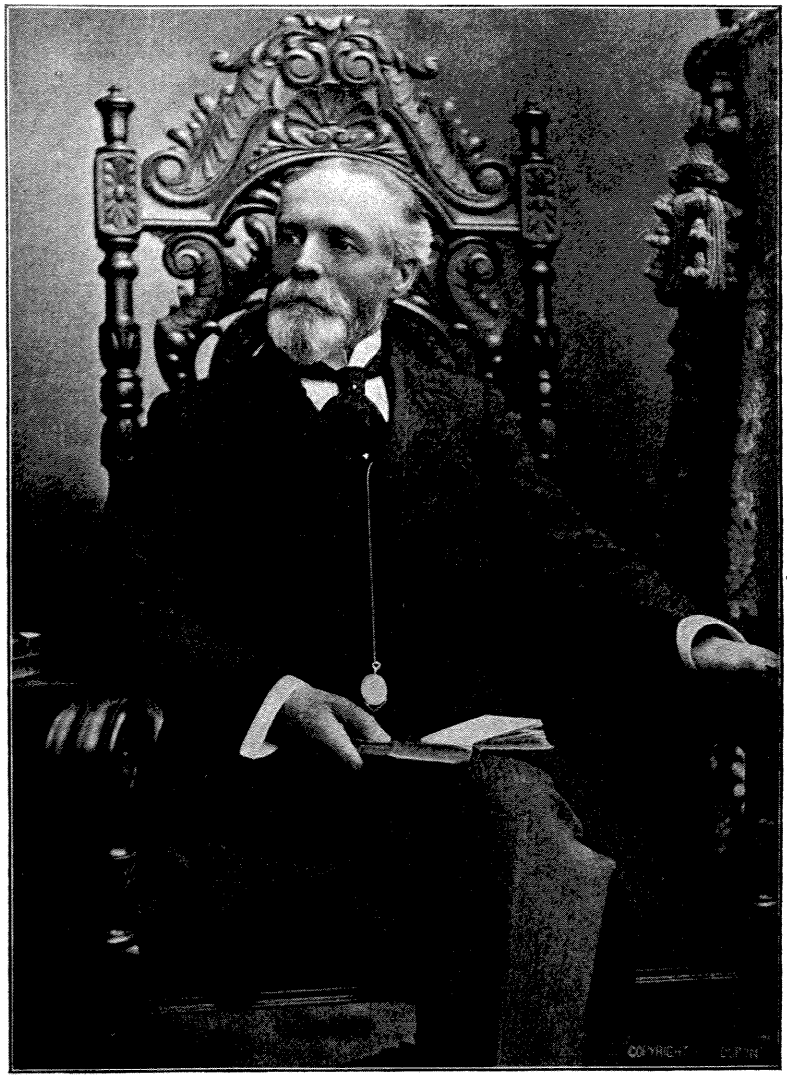
Wm P Frye

United States Senator William P. Frye, of Maine, member of the American Peace Commission, has been in public life continuously since 1861. He served three terms in the Maine Legislature, three terms as Attorney-General of the State and eighteen years in the lower house of Congress. In 1889 he was elected Senator to succeed James G. Blaine and has been re-elected since without opposition. Senator Frye comes of Revolutionary stock, being a grandson of General Joseph Frye, and is intensely American. He is an orator, and was an eloquent advocate of the war with Spain, being in thorough sympathy with the administration from the time war was declared.



Geo. Gray

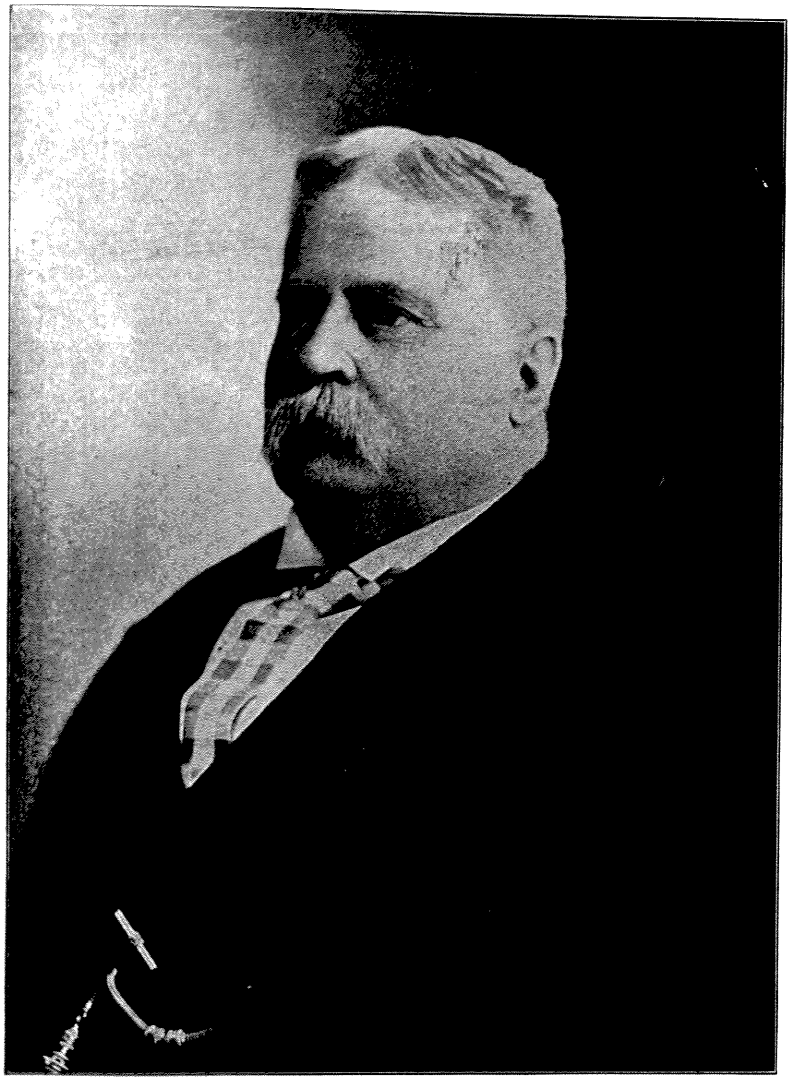
United States Senator George Gray, of Delaware, was the only Democratic member of the American Peace Commission, and while he was personally opposed to the acquisition of the Philippines, he yielded to the wishes of his government. Senator Gray succeeded the late Thomas F. Bayard in the Senate when Mr. Bayard was made Secretary of State, and was re-elected in 1887 and 1893. He is a graduate of Princeton, served two terms as Attorney-General of Delaware and has been prominent in national Democratic politics. Senator Gray is in his fifty-ninth year. His term as United States Senator expired March 5, 1899.



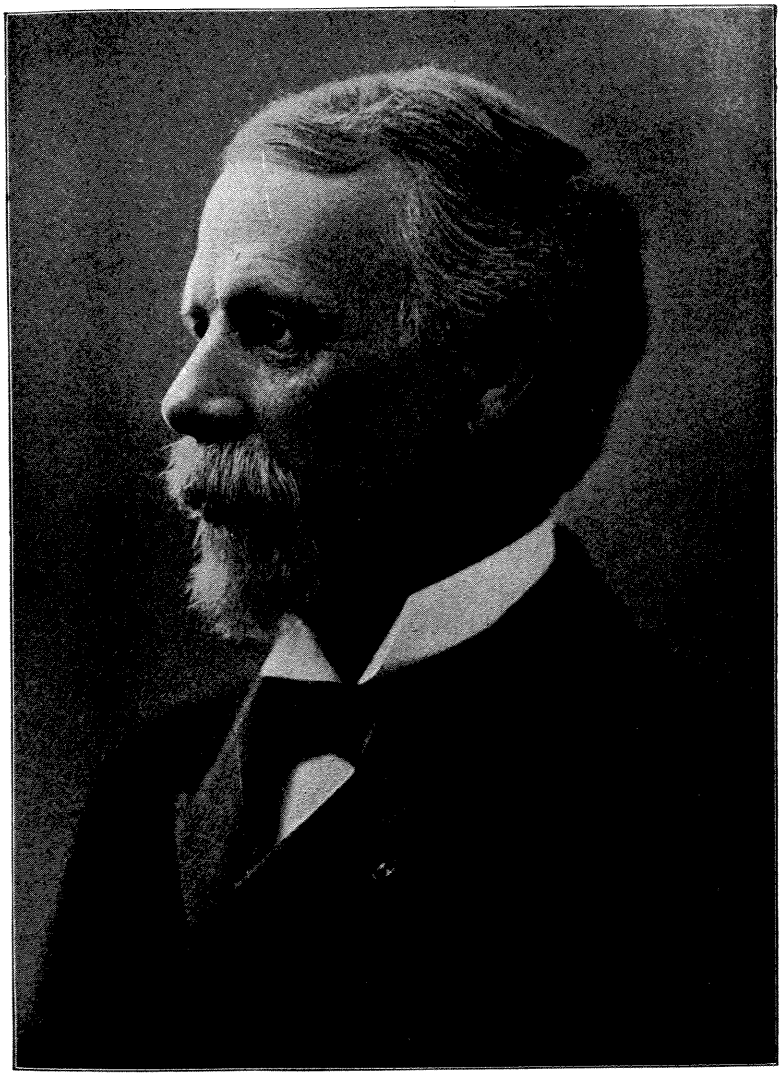
Whitelaw Reid, one of the Commissioners who negotiated the Treaty of Peace with Spain, has been editor and chief owner of the New York Tribune for a number of years, succeeding Horace Greeley. He was born near Xenia, Ohio, October 27, 1837, and began a public career by making speeches for John C. Fremont. In the Civil War he was aid-de-camp to General Rosecrans and was present at the battles of Shiloh and Gettysburg. He declined the post of Minister to Germany from both Presidents Hayes and Garfield, but accepted appointment as Ambassador to France under President Harrison. He is the author of a number of books, notably "The Scholar in Politics."

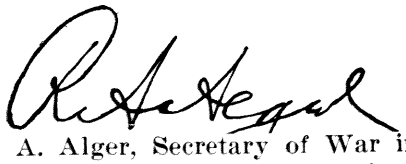
Henry C Corbin

Adjustant-General Henry C. Corbin, who administered the affairs of the Adjutant-General's office, entered the service as an Ohio volunteer when but 18 years of age. He has served on the staffs of Generals Hunt, Schofield, Terry, Cook and Miles and has been through two Indian campaigns. His office is the repository for the records of the War Department which relate to the personnel of the regular army and the militia and to the military history of every commissioned officer and soldier. It also has charge of the recruiting service. General Corbin was with President Garfield when the latter was assassinated and has led every inaugural parade beginning with President Garfield's.

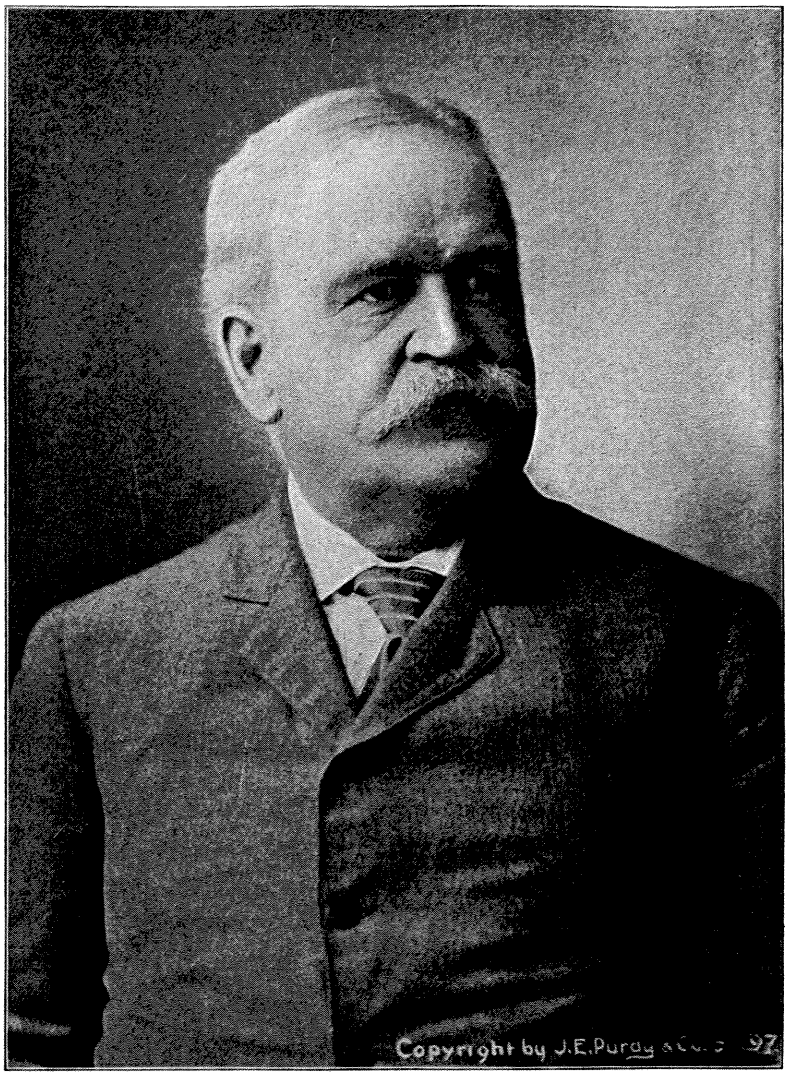


Major-General Fitzhugh Lee is a nephew of General Robert E. Lee and a grandson of Colonel Henry Lee ("Light Horse Harry") of Revolutionary fame. He was born at Clermont, Fairfax County, Va., on November 19, 1835, and was graduated at West Point in 1856. He was one of the most noted Confederate cavalry commanders in the Civil War. In 1885 he was elected Governor of Virginia. President Cleveland appointed him Consul-General at Havana in 1896. It was to support him that the Maine was sent to Havana.





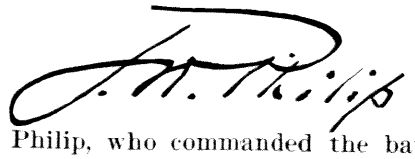
General Russell A. Alger, Secretary of War in President McKinley's cabinet, was born in Lafayette township, Ohio, February 27, 1836. His grandfather served in the Revolutionary War. In early manhood he was a lawyer, but soon abandoned it for the lumber business, locating in Michigan. He served as a cavalry commander during the war, part of the time as a member of the famous Custer Brigade. General Alger was elected Governor of Michigan in 1884, and in 1888 was a prominent candidate for the Presidential nomination. He served one term as Commander-in-Chief of the Grand Army.



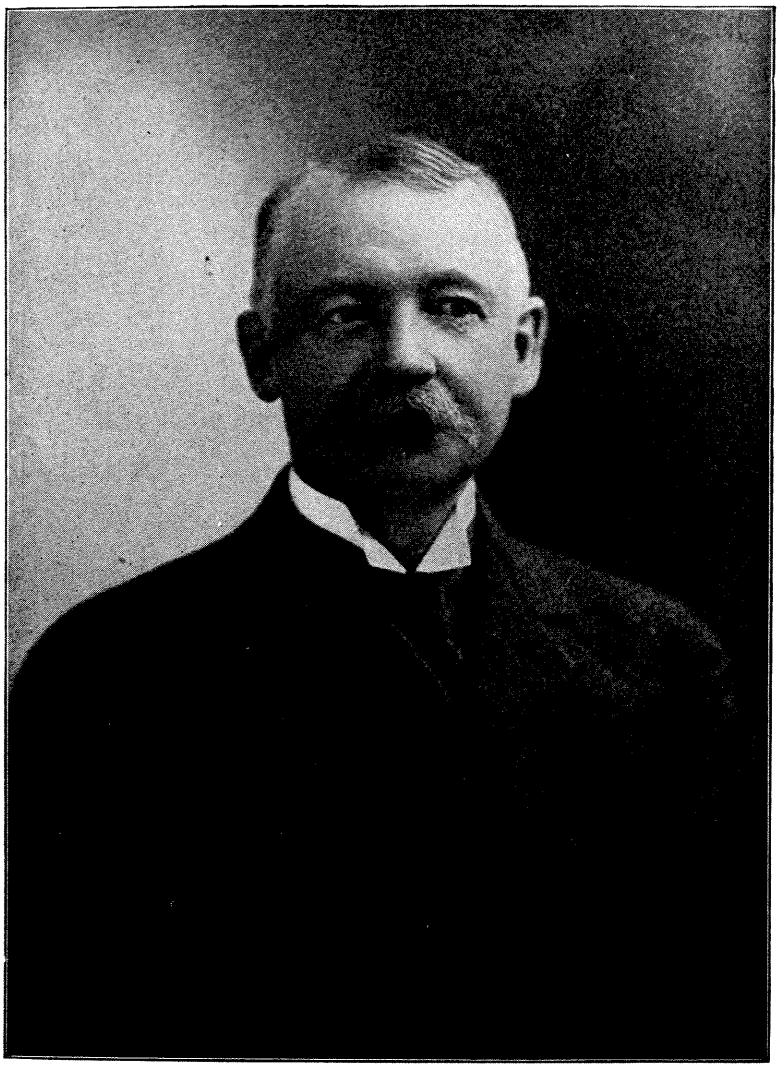
John D. Long, whose administration of the Navy Department during the Spanish war has been wholly free from criticism, has been a country school-teacher, a poet, translator, village lawyer, singer in a church choir, member of the Legislature, Congressman, and has also been Lieutenant-Governor and Governor of Massachusetts. He was born in Buckfield, Me., October 27, 1838, and graduated from Harvard in 1857. Although a member in good standing of the Massachusetts Peace Society, he favored a vigorous prosecution of the war as soon as hostilities were declared, and relying upon the skill of the naval commanders, he gave them wide discretionary powers.

C. E. Clark.

Captain Charles E. Clark, who commanded "the bulldog of the American Navy"—the battleship Oregon—is a native of Admiral Dewey's State—Vermont. He is 50 years old. The marvelous voyage of the Oregon around the Horn and the splendid seamanship of Captain Clark won the admiration of the world, which was only increased by the splendid work of ship and commander in the destruction of Cervera's fleet off Santiago and the thrillin, chase of the big battleship after the Spanish cruiser Cristobal Colon. Captain Clark also has the honor of having first landed United States forces on Cuban soil—on the shore of Guantanamo Bay.

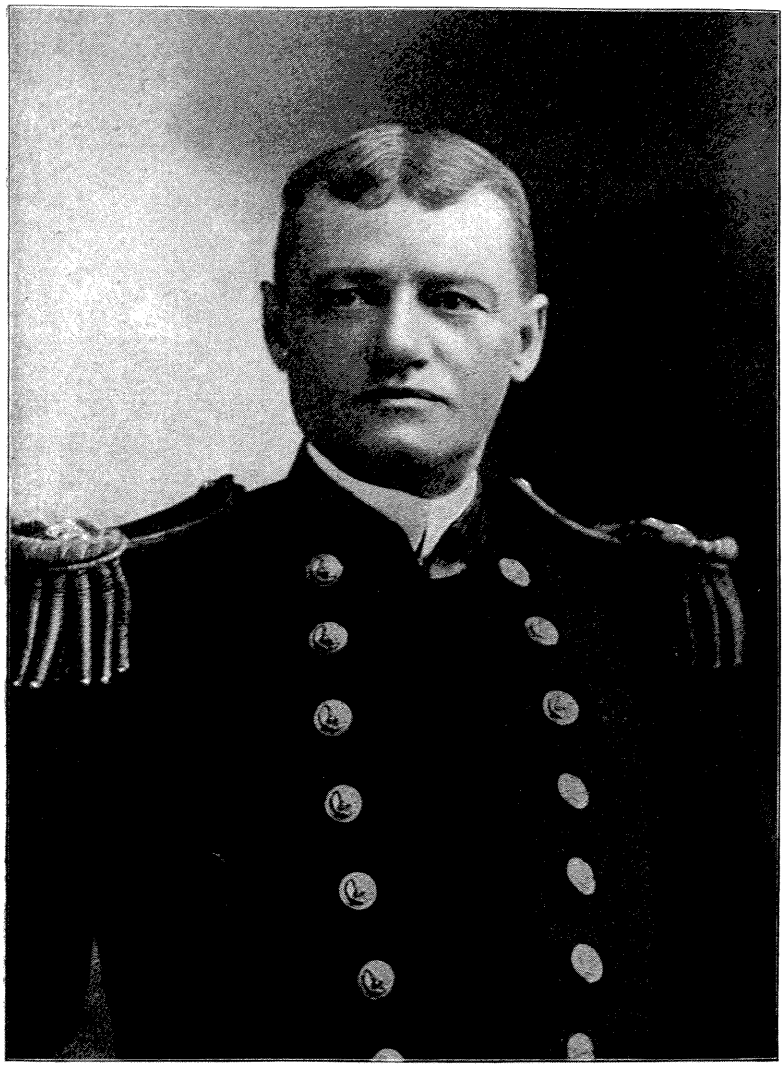


Captain John W. Philip, who commanded the battleship Texas—sister ship to the Maine—was born in New York in 1840 and entered the Naval Academy at the age of sixteen. He served with the Gulf and South Atlantic squadrons in the Civil War. He has commanded the Tuscarora, the Atlanta and was the first Captain of the New York. Under Captain Philip the Texas played a brilliant part in the blockading squadron and in the destruction of Cervera's fleet. Captain Philip's character is illustrated by an order to his men in the moment of victory: "Don't cheer, boys, the poor devils are drowning."



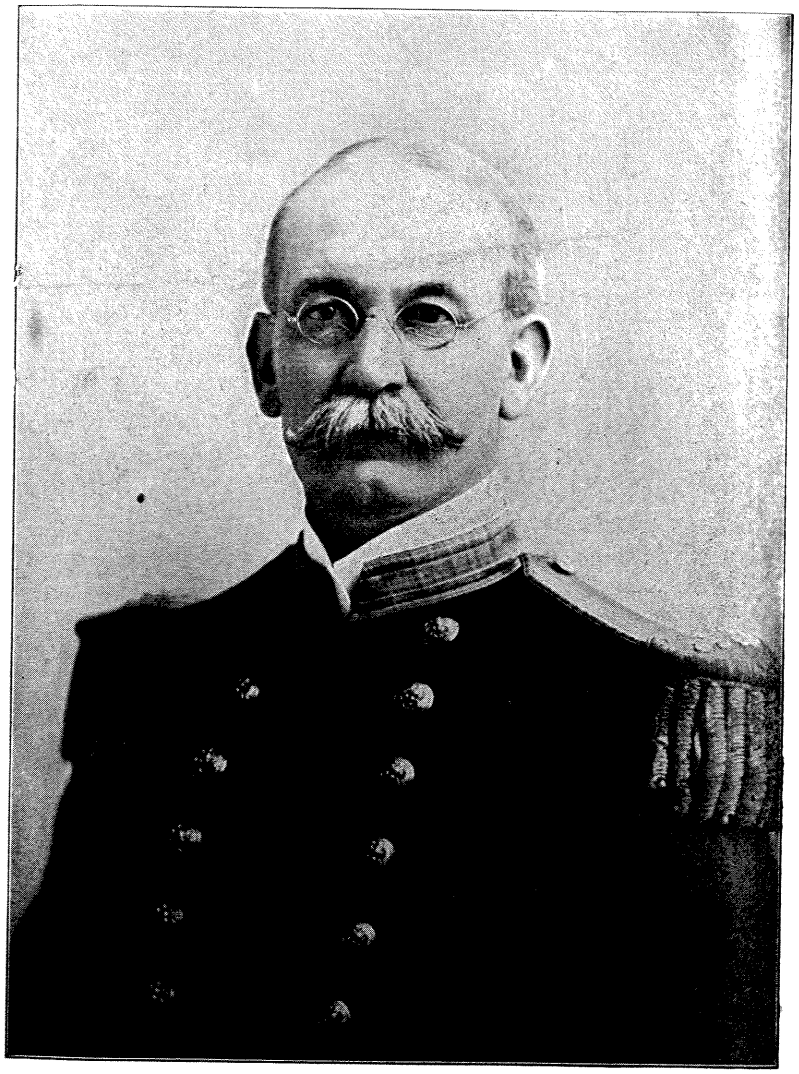
Francis John Higginson

Captain Francis John Higginson, by a singular coincidence, is a native of the State for which the ship he commanded during the war was named. He graduated from Annapolis in 1861, just in time to go into the civil war. He fought in the bombardments of Forts Jackson and St. Philip, of the Chalmette batteries, in the capture of the Judith and the taking of New Orleans. In the Spanish war he and the Massachusetts were with the North Atlantic blockading squadron and later led the naval expedition to Porto Rico. In his report on the Porto Rican campaign, General Miles acknowledges the able assistance rendered by Captain Higginson.



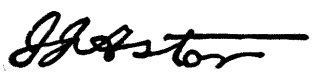
R. D. Evans

Captain Robley D. Evans, who is known by the sobriquet of "Fighting Bob," commanded the big battleship Iowa during the late war and distinguished himself in the battle of Santiago. He won his title of Fighting Bob at Valparaiso, Chile, at a time when relations between that country and the United States were strained. His ship, the Yorktown, had been used as a point of attack by Chilean torpedo-boats in practice. Captain Evans cleared for action and demanded of the Chilean authorities that the harbor be cleared of torpedo-boats, which was done. He was born in Virginia and graduated from the Naval Academy in 1863. He was wounded three times in the Civil War.



C. D. Sigsbee

Captain Charles D. Sigsbee, who commanded the battleship Maine at the time of her destruction in Havana harbor, was appointed to the Naval Academy from New York, his native State, and graduated in 1863, in time to participate in the battle of Mobile bay and the attack on Fort Fisher. He has served at the Naval Academy, on the flagships Severn and Worcester, at the North Atlantic Station, in the hydrographic office, the coast survey, on the Dale and the old Kearsarge. His coolness and self-command when the Maine was blown up were highly commended. After the loss of the Maine he commanded the scout ship St. Paul until the end of the war.



Colonel John Jacob Astor, the multi-millionaire descendant of the first John Jacob Astor who helped to make Western American history, displayed his patriotism both in unique and conventional ways—conventional in accepting a commission as Inspector-General, and unique in presenting the Government with a $100,000 mountain battery, which did splendid service in the Philippines. Colonel Astor was born July 13, 1864, at Ferncliff-on-the-Hudson. He graduated from Harvard in 1888. He wrote a book entitled "A Journey Through Other Worlds." His military experience had been gained as an aide on Governor Morton's staff. His wealth is estimated at $80,000,000, but he was one of the first to assist the Government with his means and services.

LIEUTENANT ANDREW S. ROWAN.

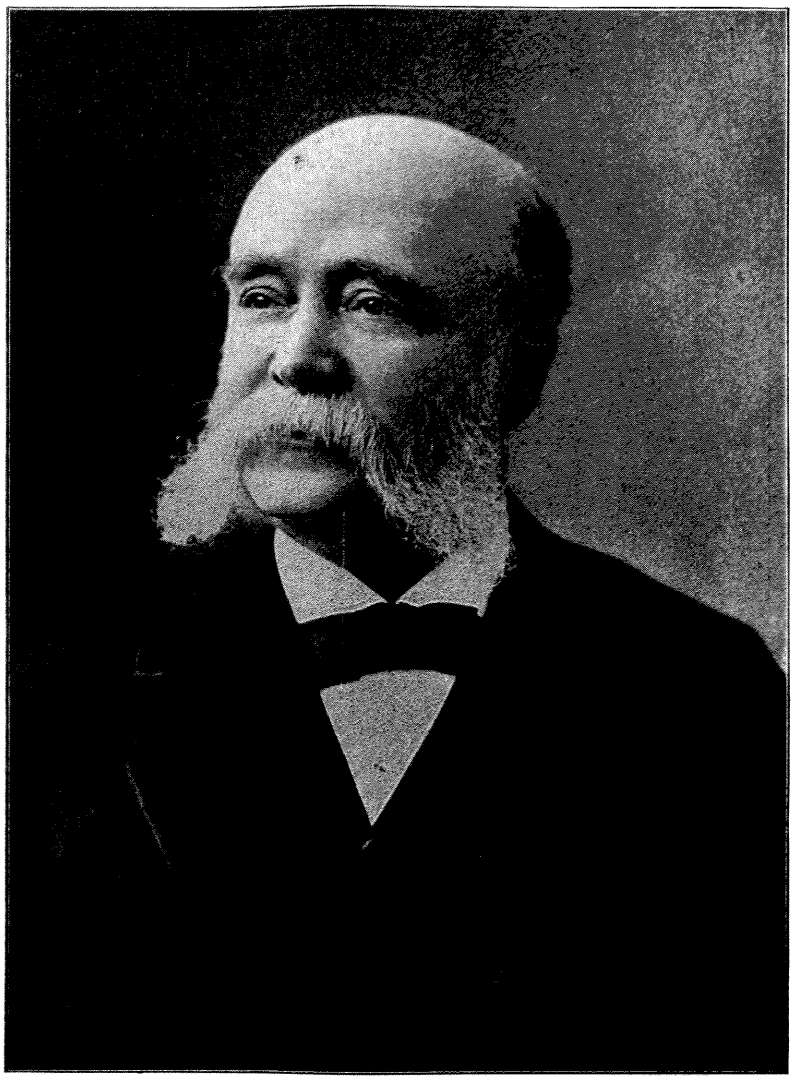
Lieutenant Andrew S. Rowan, of the Nineteenth Infantry, distinguished himself as a secret agent of the War Department in collecting information concerning Cuba and the insurgents. In various disguises he penetrated the island to the headquarters of General Garcia and delivered a message to the Cuban leader from General Miles. At the same time he collected much valuable information concerning the country and means of communication. He successfully dodged Spanish spies and pickets. In recognition of his services he was promoted to be Lieutenant-Colonel of the Sixth United States Volunteers. He is a native of Virginia, and graduated from West Point in 1881. He knows the Spanish language and the Spanish people.

Helen Miller Gould.

Helen Miller Gould, the eldest daughter of the late multi-millionaire, **Jay Gould**, was one of the conspicuous heroines of the war. **Through her liberality** the Women's War Relief Association secured funds to make itself effective. Besides heavy contributions to the National Relief fund and many private donations, Miss Gould gave the government a check for **$100,000** to be expended in luxuries and delicacies for sick soldiers. In addition to these benefactions she gave her personal services by frequent visits to men in the hospitals, and established several hospitals of her own. **Miss Gould is about** thirty years of age, and while not radiantly beautiful, **is a wholesome looking** woman. She has dark hair and eyes and a petite figure.

Clara Barton

Clara Barton, whose work among the reconcentrados of Cuba prior to and during the war, and whose labors with the Red Cross Society have made her famous the world over, was born in Oxford, Mass., in 1830. When the Civil War broke out she went to the front of her volition and nursed the wounded soldiers, and was later given an important position by President Lincoln. In the Franco-Prussian war she assisted the Grand Duchess of Baden in the preparations of military hospitals and aided the Red Cross Society. When that society was organized in the United States she became its first President. She did more than any other to relieve suffering in Cuba, both among natives and Americans.



GENERAL STEWART L. WOODFORD.

General Stewart L. Woodford has been soldier, statesman and jurist. His ancestors served in the Revolution and he served with distinction in the Civil War, both in the field and as Military Governor of Charleston and Savannah. Later he held many political and several judicial offices. As Minister to Spain he made every possible effort to avert war. Before he could present the President's ultimatum he was notified by the Spanish Premier that diplomatic negotiations had been ended and was given his passports. He left Madrid the next day. General Woodford was born in New York City, September 3, 1835, was educated at Yale and was admitted to the bar in 1857. He was prominent in Lincoln's first campaign.

ADMIRAL CERVERA.

Admiral Pascual de Cervera y Torpete, Conde de Jeres, Marquis de Santa Ana, is the full name and title of the commander of the Spanish fleet destroyed off Santiago harbor. He was born in 1833. His father was a man of wealth, his mother being a daughter of Count Porpete y Velle, of the royal family of Spain. In his youth he was naval attache of the Spanish legation at Washington. He saw service in Cuba in the "Ten Years' War," and has held the naval portfolio in the Spanish cabinet. He was Adjutant to the Queen Regent for several years, and at the time his fleet was destroyed he was considered the foremost naval commander in his country.

RAMON BLANCO.

Captain-General Ramon Blanco y Arenas succeeded Valeriano Weyler as Governor-General of Cuba just previous to the beginning of the war. In 1894 he was made Governor-General of the Philippines and was raised to the rank of Marshal in 1895. His methods were not considered severe enough and he resigned. Later he became chief of the military household of the Queen Regent. He was not more successful in pacifying the Cuban insurgents than he had been in conciliating the Filipinos. While he was quick to sympathize with Captain Sigsbee over the destruction of the Maine, he was guilty of gross discourtesy to Consul-General Fitzhugh Lee when the latter took leave of the island upon severance of diplomatic relations.

REAR ADMIRAL MONTGOMERY SICARD.

Rear Admiral Montgomery Sicard was in command of the North Atlantic squadron at the time the Maine was sent to Havana. When the war began he was relieved of active command on account of age and served only in an advisory capacity, having been succeeded by Acting Rear Admiral William T. Sampson. He has been in the navy for forty-eight years and served with distinction under Farragut during the Civil War. He has been Chief of the Ordnance Bureau, President of the Steel Board, and in command of the navy yards at Boston and Brooklyn. When the monitor Miantonomah was the most formidable vessel in the American navy she was commanded by Rear Admiral (then Captain) Montgomery Sicard.

CHAPTER XXXI.

STORY OF THE OREGON.

RECORD-BREAKING TRIP OF THE PRIDE OF THE AMERICAN NAVY—HER PART IN THE BATTLE OF SANTIAGO AND HER LONG JOURNEY TO THE PHILIPPINES— THE LONGEST AND LONELIEST TRIP EVER MADE BY A MAN-OF-WAR.

RIDE of the Navy! Queen of the Navy! Bull-dog of the Navy! Terror of the Navy! These and similar are the endearing titles applied to the first-class battleship Oregon, whose achievements in the Spanish War have no parallel in the annals of any navy.

The record-breaking voyage of the magnificent fighting ship from San Francisco to Key West was watched by 70,000,000 people in this country and by many millions more abroad, with an interest more intense than ever before was felt in a war vessel. At its completion the watchers, with the exception of Spain and her sympathizers, experienced profound admiration, while the enemy was filled with consternation.

In 81 days the Oregon covered a distance of 14,511 knots or 16,764 miles.

The longest voyage ever made by a battleship is one of the records she made.

A continuous run without a single stop of 4,500 knots, the distance between San Francisco and Callao, is another, never equalled by any other battleship, the nearest approach being the run of a British flagship from England to China, a distance of 2,600 miles.

Covering a distance of 2,844 knots at an average speed of thirteen knots is still another new record.

A run of 155 knots in ten hours is another still hitherto unparalleled.

After the longest trip ever made by a battleship the Oregon's engines were in as perfect condition as when she left Puget Sound.

Following this marvelous achievement the Oregon established a record as a fighting ship in the battle off Santiago, which increased the universal pride felt for her by the American nation. Her guns shot true and did fearful execution, and her great speed made it possible for her to overhaul and sink the fastest cruiser of Cervera's fleet.

The wonderful performances of the unrivalled battleship did not end with the end of the Spanish war. The fame of the greatest ship in the American navy had reached the ears of the greatest of living American Admirals, George Dewey. Complications with the Filipinos had arisen and with the diplomatic foresight characteristic of Admiral Dewey he foresaw the possibility of serious complications with other nations. He cabled a request to the Secretary of War to send the Oregon to Manila. Such was the popularity of Admiral Dewey and so thoroughly did he possess the confidence of the administration that a request from him was equal to a command, and the wonderful battleship already on her way as far as Honolulu was hurried to the Philippines. How well she sustained her reputation is told in Admiral Dewey's cable of March 18, 1899, announcing her arrival at Manila:

Secretary of Navy: Oregon and Iris arrived this morning. The Oregon is fit for any duty. DEWEY.

All over this broad land there was a feeling of exultation, mingled with a sense of relief, that with the invincible Admiral and invincible ship American interests were safe in the Philippines.

The destruction of the Maine and the intense war feeling, both in the United States and Spain, made it desirable that the government should be prepared to defend the Atlantic seaboard with the strongest possible fleet in the event of hostilities, and accordingly the Oregon was ordered from the Pacific to the Atlantic coast.

STORY OF THE FIRST TRIP.

The Oregon left Bremerton, Puget Sound, where she had been in dry dock, on March 6th and arrived in San Francisco on March 9th. There she coaled, and left on the morning of March 19th for a run of 4,500 knots to Callao, reaching the latter point on April 4th.

From San Francisco to Callao the run was easy—seventy-five revo-

lutions of the propeller every minute, giving a speed of eleven knots an hour—in order to economize fuel, the run being about four knots to a ton of coal. At Callao more coal was in readiness to put aboard, and the work of storing it was rushed. The engineers and coal-passers worked thirty hours without rest, and April 7th the Oregon proceeded on her journey.

Before reaching Callao, at exactly noon on March 31st, the Oregon crossed the equator, being the first American battleship to have the distinction of crossing the line.

The event was attended by all the ceremonies prescribed by ancient custom. The evening before Father Neptune hailed the ship and announced his visit for the following day. The next day at high noon he came over the bow, followed by his retinue. Two hundred of the ship's company had never "crossed the line," and each landlubber was showered with a mixture of eggs, molasses, salt water, flour, and rope yarn, all except the officers, who bought Neptune off with plenty of refreshments for his retinue, and even these were made to shoot the chutes into a tank of salt water.

Each initiate was presented with a diploma bearing the seal of Neptune, of which the following is a copy:

U. S. S. OREGON.

To all whom these present shall come, greeting:

Know ye that ——— has this day been enrolled as a loyal subject of His Most Gracious Majesty, Neptunus Rex, monarch of all the seas, and in virtue thereof is entitled to all due respect from the common landlubbers of the earth. By royal command, therefore, it is decreed that all good sailormen, mermaids, sharks, whales, sea serpents and other faithful subjects of His Royal Nibs shall abstain from maltreating or slandering the holder of this certificate.

Done at our royal court, on the equator, this 31st day of March, 1898, according to earthly computation.

(Signed) BY THE KING.

DOWNALLDITTYBOXES, Secretary.

Leaving Callao April 7th, the Oregon, steaming with four boilers and natural draught, made twelve and a half to thirteen knots, with

heavy seas and strong currents against her, the revolutions being 90 to 100 to the minute. The Straits of Magellan, with their tortuous crooks and turns and hampering currents, and the wind blowing the worst gale any of the Oregon's officers ever experienced, were entered April 16th, and the two anchors were cast at the head of the straits. Captain Clark, in his report to Washington, said the sea and wind were the worst he ever experienced.

On the day following one of the memorable runs of the voyage was made, the destination being Punta Arenas, in the southernmost part of Chile. For ten hours the ship ran at a speed of fifteen and one-half knots natural draught. Punta Arenas was reached on the evening of April 17th, the distance of 155 miles having been covered in ten hours.

Passing through Magellan Straits, the men of the Oregon expressed the first warlike fears of the voyage. Although not then informed that war had been declared, the officers had their suspicions, and were led to believe that a Spanish torpedo-boat destroyer was lying in wait to make an attack. A sharp lookout was kept as the Oregon rushed through the sea at almost railroad speed.

The current was now with her, and at some times she covered twenty knots, aided by the current. All the light guns were kept loaded, and the men were constantly at them on the lookout for the sly craft. But not a sign of the Spaniard was seen.

That night at Punta Arenas the Oregon was joined by the gunboat Marietta, and there was a great feeling of relief to find that she, too, had escaped a surreptitious attack from the Spanish destroyer.

On the morning of April 20th she was ready to leave Punta Arenas, but waited until early next morning for the Marietta.

On the morning of April 30th, in order to put into the Harbor of Rio de Janeiro before nightfall, the Oregon left the Marietta and made a forced run, again breaking her record. The weather was scorching hot. The sun beat down with terrific force, making life on deck far from comfortable, while down in the fire and engine rooms the temperature reached 150 degree Fahrenheit. The Oregon plunged ahead at a speed of fourteen and a half knots, with only natural draught. For ten hours she ran at this speed. In this forced run James McGaragle, first fireman, was prostrated by heat, but in a few minutes recovered and insisted on being taken back to his post. At no time

during the entire voyage was the temperature in the engine-room ever below 125 degrees.

At Bahia came the expected news that war had been declared. It was received with cheers by the men, and the volunteer band struck up "Yankee Doodle" and "Hail Columbia."

At Rio a bare bulletin of Dewey's victory was received, and that set the Oregon's crew crazy with enthusiasm. Every "jackie" was wearing on his cap, in addition to the regular ship's ribbon, a ribbon inscribed in ink, "Remember the Maine." These supplementary ribbons had been made on shipboard, and when the news of actual war and the victory of Manila was received every cap came off and nearly 500 throats gave utterance to the slogan attached thereto.

The coal bunkers were replenished at Rio and anchor was weighed there on the morning of May 4th for a run up the coast as far as Cape Trio. There the Oregon left the Marietta and returned to Rio to get the Nictheroy, the cruiser bought from the Brazilian Government. But here the neutrality laws offered interference. The Brazilian Government feared complications if the Nictheroy left at the same time as the Oregon, and the latter was forced to depart without her. She went back to Cape Trio, picked up the Marietta and sent the latter back to wait for the former Brazilian ship. On the evening of May 5th both the Marietta and the Nictheroy came along, the Nictheroy having been allowed to leave port twenty-four hours after the departure of the battleship.

Now again a sharp lookout was kept for the enemy, and every officer and man firmly expected to see some Spanish ships and have an engagement. Whatever the odds might have been, the Oregon was ready, even anxious, for the fray. The three ships were steaming northward. At midnight on May 5th the Marietta and Nictheroy were ordered to Bahia to report to the government at Washington, and the Oregon steamed north alone.

The Oregon expected to see the Temerario in spite of having been told in Rio that as soon as the Spanish gunboat learned the Oregon was coming along she had put hurriedly into a creek. Late on the evening of May 8th the Oregon put into Bahia, and when the population there gazed on the battleship the next morning their eyes bulged with surprise. Rumors had arrived there that the Oregon had been sunk.

PAINTED IN WAR COLORS.

While in Bahia the ship was changed from white to the regulation war colors. It was feared this even might be considered in violation of neutrality regulations, so a ruse was adopted. One hundred men were lowered over the off shore side in the darkness of the night and soon finished painting that side. Then, when the ship swung around with the tide, the other side was painted in similar manner.

While in Bahia orders were received from Washington respecting the Spanish fleet. It was reported by Washington that seven vessels of the Cape Verde fleet had sailed westward. The evening the news was received Captain Clark called his officers around him for consultation. He hesitated about telling the crew, fearing they would be alarmed by the apparent presence in the vicinity of such a formidable fleet, but the next morning he decided it best to take the men into his confidence, and all hands were summoned to general muster. Captain Clark then said:

"It is our duty in time of war to avoid so superior a force, but if we do meet them we will impair their fighting efficiency."

The cheers that came from the crew in reply to these few words showed the spirit of the jackies. They were more eager than ever. Captain Clark said to them they were the finest crew he ever commanded.

Then an even more rigid lookout, if that were possible, was ordered, but the journey to Sand Key proved to be uneventful.

The Oregon reached Jupiter Inlet on May 24th, Key West on May 26th, and three days later left to join the fleet off Cuba. The part she bore in the destruction of Cervera's fleet off Santiago makes the most brilliant page in the history of that great battle. Only her great speed and the tactics of the Brooklyn prevented the escape of the Spanish Admiral in his fast flagship.

To the Oregon belongs the credit of practically ending the war with Spain, so far as the navy was concerned, for it was a 13-inch shell from her guns that forced the Cristobal Colon to surrender.

But the work of the Oregon was not finished. Her record as a seagoer was yet to be crowned by another long and lonely trip. During the peace negotiations it seemed not improbable that international complications might arise in the Philippines and it was generally under-

stood that the Oregon and possibly the Iowa would be sent to reinforce Admiral Dewey's fleet.

It was only necessary to put the Oregon in dry-dock at the Brooklyn Navy Yard for a few days to make her ready for the voyage back to the Pacific. In company with the Iowa and attended by the collier Scindia, the distilling ship Iris, and refrigerator ship Celtic, she sailed from New York October 12, 1898.

The vessels on the way to the Pacific reached Bahia, Brazil, on October 30th, completing the first leg of the voyage. Thence a quick and easy run took them to Rio Janeiro. Sailing from Rio at the 200 knots a day rate ordered by the Navy Department, Cape Horn was rounded without a mishap, and the Oregon halted again at Callao, Peru. January 11th the special squadron left Callao for the Galapagos Islands. The Justin was detached on the same day, and three days later the Iowa and Celtic were detached, the Oregon, Scindia and Iris proceeding to Honolulu via the Galapagos Islands. The diminished squadron arrived at Charles Island, the southernmost of the Galapagos group, on January 16th, and on the 18th the Oregon steamed out alone for Honolulu, thence to Manila. On February 4th she sighted the tall peaks of Hawaii, Mauna Loa and Maui, and in the evening of that day lay outside of Pearl Harbor. The Scindia and Iris arrived on the 11th. At Honolulu the Oregon's officers and crew learned of the fighting at Manila, which increased their desire to be off to Manila.

On February 24, 1899, came Dewey's famous message to the Secretary of the Navy: "For political reasons the Oregon should be sent here at once." Fit as a ship could be, it left Honolulu on February 27th to cover the 4,000 knots to the Philippines, with but one stop at the Island of Guam.

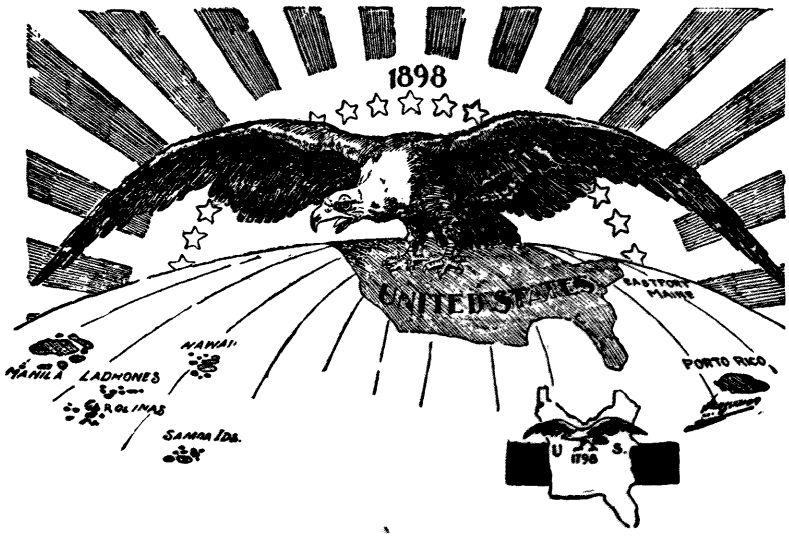
Just at sunset, March 18, 1899, while the band on shore was playing "The Star Spangled Banner," with the troops at parade and the warships in the harbor drooping their colors, the great battleship Oregon steamed into Manila Bay at full speed.

She rushed ahead until abreast of the flagship Olympia, where she saluted Admiral Dewey, and dropped anchor amid the cheers of steamers afloat and soldiers ashore.

The Oregon made the voyage from Honolulu without incident, and arrived in as perfect condition as when she made her famous trip around the Horn to help smash the Spanish fleet off Santiago.

The Oregon is a steel battleship, 348 feet long and 69¼ feet broad, with a mean normal draught of 24 feet; she is of 10,250 tons displacement; horse-power over 11,000. She carries four 13-inch and eight 8-inch guns in turrets, and four 6-inch guns en barbette. Her secondary battery consists of twenty 6-pounders, eight 1-pounders and four Gatlings. She also has six torpedo tubes. She was launched in 1893 and had her trial trip in 1896. The contract speed was 15 knots and a bonus of $25,000 was stipulated for each quarter-knot excess.

The men who brought the gallant ship from the Pacific to the Atlantic and then took her upon the long journey to the Philippines, Captain Charles E. Clark and Chief Engineer Robert W. Milligan, were members of the trial board, the other member being Rear Admiral L. A. Beardslee. On the trial trip the Oregon developed and maintained a speed of 16.791 knots, and her builders, Messrs. Irving M. and Henry Scott, of the Union Iron Works, San Francisco, received a bonus of $175,000. On her great trip from San Francisco to Key West she averaged over 11 knots for 1,300 hours.



Ten thousand miles from tip to tip.—Philadelphia Press.

CHAPTER XXXII.

THE NICARAGUA CANAL.

HOW THE TRIP OF THE OREGON REVIVED INTEREST IN THIS GREAT PROJECT TO CONNECT THE ATLANTIC AND PACIFIC OCEANS—A COMMERCIAL AND NAVAL NECESSITY.

THE most liberal education the American public has had concerning the Nicaragua Canal was supplied by the trip of the battleship Oregon around the horn. That famous voyage did more to familiarize the reading public with the projected waterway to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans than all the articles, official reports, prospectuses and maps relating to it that have been published. Previous to that voyage few knew and only a small per cent of those who knew cared anything about a canal in Central America. Many regarded it as simply a scheme to secure rich contracts or subsidies from the government. Some who knew of it were opposed to its construction because they were unable to determine whether it should be a government or private enterprise, and still others because of the specious arguments advanced against it by the transcontinental railroads with which it would become a competing commercial highway.

But the trip of the Oregon presented the whole matter in an entirely new light. The eyes of the nation were upon the great battleship as she made that record-breaking voyage of 17,000 miles. People got out their atlases and marked her course down the western coast of North, Central and South America and up the eastern coast until she reached her destination. Before her arrival war had been declared, and a Spanish squadron of seven vessels was heading for American waters. When or where it would strike no one knew. It was among the possibilities that it might intercept the lone American warship and engage it in unequal conflict.

Attention was also directed to the fact that the withdrawal of the Oregon from the Pacific deprived the western coast of its greatest defender, and it was plainly apparent that if the Spanish Asiatic squadron should appear off the Pacific coast that a fleet could not be dispatched from the Atlantic in time to prevent the bombardment of Western coast cities.

All of these conditions drew special attention to the little narrow strip of land in Nicaragua between the Pacific Ocean and Lake Nicaragua and another narrow strip between the lake and the Atlantic. It was plain to be seen that if the oceans were connected with this lake by canal that the Oregon's trip of 17,000 miles could have been shortened to a little more than 4,000 miles, and that the entire strength of the American navy could be easily and quickly concentrated on either coast.

Aside from the commercial importance of such a waterway, the fact which most impressed the people was that the construction of the Nicaragua Canal was a naval necessity, and it was this fact which revived interest in the great project and crystallized public sentiment in favor of it. The Nicaragua Canal therefore became one of the important problems of the war, and engaged the attention of the people as no mere commercial problem could do.

The construction of a trans-isthmian canal is not a new proposition. It may be said to date from the time that Balbao, the Spanish conquistadore, crossed the Isthmus of Darien and first viewed the narrow neck of land in the South Pacific, September 25, 1513. But it was not until 1522, when Gil Gonzales Davila discovered the lake country of Nicaragua, that the Nicaraguan Canal project had birth. Davila was exploring the western coast at the time of the discovery. All the lake tribes of Indians at that time were ruled by a chieftain called Nicarao. It was from these Indians that the Spanish explorer learned that the lake was connected with the Atlantic Ocean (North Sea) by a river (the Rio San Juan). As was the custom in those days when taking possession of newly discovered countries, Davila rode his horse into the waters and took possession of Lake Nicaragua in the King's name. He gave it the name Nicarao-agua (Nicarao's water) in honor of the aboriginal ruler. A large trade sprung up between Granada, the chief city of the lakes, and Spanish ports, notably Nombre de Dios and Cadiz, by way of Lake Nicaragua and the Rio San Juan. It was the richly-laden Spanish ships on this route that suffered at the hands of Sir Francis Drake when he

sailed through the Straits of Magellan in 1579 and harried Spanish commerce in the Pacific.

In the next century the buccaneers of the Spanish Main attacked the fort (San Carlos) at the lake entrance and burned the town of Leon. As a result the river was rendered unnavigable by the Spaniards, who threw rocks and other obstructions in the rapids, and opened the mouth of the Brazo Colorado, the southern branch of the Rio San Juan. Large volumes of volcanic sand silted up and destroyed what was the finest harbor on the Caribbean coast, San Juan del Norte, which according to the adopted survey of the canal is the eastern end of the projected water-way.

It was not until 1825 that the United States took the initial step looking to a water connection between the oceans. In that year Henry Clay, Secretary of State, ordered that an examination be made as to the feasibility of constructing such a maritime highway, and ten years later President Andrew Jackson appointed a commissioner to examine the proposed route and negotiate a concession. That and other efforts of the United States government failed of any practical result. In 1876, however, the United States government obtained a survey and report which in all essential details correspond to the route finally adopted.

The eastern terminus is at the City of America (so named by the Nicaraguan government), about two miles above San Juan del Norte. From there to a junction with the San Juan river at a navigable point is thirty-five miles. From this point to Lake Nicaragua the river becomes a part of the canal, the distance between the junction and the lake being 64½ miles. The lake is then utilized for a distance of 54½ miles. This leaves but 15½ miles of actual canal construction upon the western end between Lake Nicaragua and Brito, the western terminus, which is 8 miles north of San Juan del Sur. The entire distance is computed at 169½ English or statute miles, and 147 geographical or nautical miles. The estimated cost of the canal varies from $60,000,000 to $100,000,000, the latter sum probably being the closer estimate, as it is impossible to foresee all the difficulties and obstructions in the way of the completion of this great work.

Probably no similar undertaking has ever been subjected to such an exhaustive preliminary examination and such thorough investigation. More than 4,000 miles of country have been surveyed under the

greatest difficulties. Swamps and jungles have been penetrated where vegetation was so luxuriant that progress could only be made by cutting a path with a machete or an axe, and quite frequently members of the engineering party were mired breast deep in the marshes along the line of survey. But American engineering skill surmounted every obstacle and overcame every difficulty, and the government was at last furnished with a complete survey of a direct route to connect the oceans at a minimum distance and a minimum cost.

In estimating the cost of the canal three great engineering problems had to be considered. One was the reclamation of the harbor at the eastern terminus, another was the construction of a dam at Ochoa where the canal unites with the San Juan river, and the third to cut through the Great Divide on the western end. At the point where the canal intersects the San Juan river there are dangerous rapids, but the proposed dam raises the river to the lake level and gives a depth of 34 feet of water above them. The deep cut in the Cordilleras varies from 140 to 330 feet in depth, but nature has provided a clay soil instead of shifting sands, which greatly facilitates the work.

Another significant item of expense is the flooding of valleys and closing their outlets, thus utilizing the deep basins nature has provided and making them commercially valuable in times of peace and strategically valuable in time of war.

For the purpose of constructing this great waterway a company known as the Maritime Canal Company was organized in October, 1886, and in February, 1899, received a charter from the United States government. On June 8, 1890, the work of construction was commenced, headquarters being established at America, but the financial panic of 1893 brought about a cessation of the work so auspiciously begun.

During the three years of work, however, much progress was made. Wharves, warehouses, workshops and dwellings were constructed, eleven miles of railway and sixty miles of telegraph were built. An exclusive franchise for the navigation of the San Juan river was obtained, and a large dredging plant purchased and put in operation. Twenty miles of right of way was cleared and one mile of actual excavation made.

The advantages to be derived from the Nicaragua Canal by the United States, both from a naval and commercial standpoint, are almost innumerable.

In 1780 England's great Admiral Nelson (then a captain) said: "I intend to possess the great Lake of Nicaragua, which I regard as the inland Gibraltar of Spanish America." The application of that term is apparent when it is considered that Lake Nicaragua, the largest between Lake Michigan and Lake Titicaca, Peru, is 110 miles in length, with an average width of 40 miles, large enough to shelter all the navies of the world, and capable of being made a stronghold and an unassailable base of supplies. As a naval station between the Atlantic and Pacific fleets it gives the United States command of two oceans and makes both coasts secure against naval surprises from either European or Asiatic nations. The new possessions of the United States in the Pacific gives increased importance to American naval operations in western waters, and the Nicaragua Canal is the naval key to the Pacific.

But "peace hath her victories no less renowned than war," and the growth of American commerce in Asia makes the canal as much of a commercial necessity as the growth of colonial power in the Pacific makes it a naval necessity. It has been shown that the demand for raw and manufactured cotton in Asia alone is equal to the entire cotton production of the Southern States, and shipments of this product through the Nicaragua Canal would give American cotton an advantage in price over cotton from any other part of the world. But it is not only the Southern States to be benefited, for the Nicaragua Canal gives the Western States an advantage in European markets now denied them by reason of the long trans-continental haul. It also brings the Northern States of the western coast into close contact with the Southern States of the eastern coast. For instance, the distance from San Francisco to Liverpool by way of Cape Horn is 15,620 nautical miles; by way of the Nicaragua Canal is only 7,627 miles. From San Francisco to New York around the horn is 15,660 nautical miles; via the Nicaragua Canal it is but 4,907. From San Francisco to New Orleans around the horn is 16,000 miles; via the Nicaragua Canal it is 4,147 miles. The advantages of water transportation over rail where large shipments are made make these figures of wonderful significance.

Not since the inception of the canal project has there been such interest in the undertaking as marked the end of the Spanish-American war, and, indeed, there never before was a time in the history of the country, when the United States had more at stake in that enterprise.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

CUBA. THE "PEARL OF THE ANTILLES."

DESCRIPTION OF ITS RESOURCES AND POPULATION, TOGETHER WITH THE PRINCIPAL EVENTS IN ITS HISTORY—ITS RELATION TO THE UNITED STATES —STORY OF CUBAN LIBERTY.

WHILE Cuba did not come into possession of the United States as a result of the Spanish-American War, the United States Government, through its war declarations, became responsible for the establishment of a safe and stable government in that island, thus standing in the relation of a foster parent to a child.

This relationship and the fact of its proximity to the United States creates as much interest among Americans concerning its affairs as if it were a colony of the great republic. Then, too, strictly speaking, Cuba was the casus belli of the Spanish-American war. It is our nearest neighbor and its people, climate and physical characteristics are much the same as those of our newly acquired possessions.

The Island of Cuba, the largest of the Antilles, is situated at the entrance of the Gulf of Mexico, between 20 and 23 degrees north latitude and 74 and 85 degrees west longitude from Greenwich. It is distant from Yucatan, Mexico, 114 miles, and from Florida 130 miles, and its location gave rise to its being called "The Key to the Gulf of Mexico." On the coat of arms of Havana there appears a key as one of the most conspicuous objects, as if the intention were to express the idea that possession of the island, and especially of its capital city, implied the ability to open or close at any moment the Gulf of Mexico to the commerce of the world. The coast line of Cuba is extensive, and it possesses a number of large and safe harbors. The northern coast, the greater part of which is free from shoals, keys, and other obstacles, has a length of about 918 miles, with 32 harbors, of which

10 are of the first class. First in importance is the Harbor of Havana, followed by those of Mariel, Cabanas, Bahia Honda, Matanzas, Cardenas, Sagua, Caibarien, Nuevitas, Jibara, etc. The southern coast has a length of 972 miles, with 12 important harbors. Of these, Guantanamo, which figured in the military and naval operations, is spacious and of easy access, affording shelter to vessels drawing 26 feet. The harbors of Santiago de Cuba and Cienfuegos are also of considerable importance.

The area of the Island of Cuba has not been exactly determined. The estimates vary from about 35,000 to 72,000 square miles. Taking the lowest estimate (35,000 square miles), the island would be nearly equal in size to the State of Indiana (36,350) and nearly three times the size of the State of Maryland (12,210). It is slightly larger than the State of Maine (33,040). The island is traversed by a chain of mountains extending from east-southeast to north-northwest. The highest mountains are found in the southeastern part of the island. The greatest elevation is about 8,000 feet. The soil of Cuba is watered by more than 200 rivers, among which figure the Cauto, in the province of Santiago de Cuba, 150 miles long, about 50 of which are navigable for small craft, and the Sagua, in the province of Santa Clara, of the length of 111 miles, 21 of which are navigable.

CLIMATE AND POPULATION.

With the exception of localities where malarial fevers prevail, the climate of Cuba is healthful, especially in the rural districts in the east and center of the island. There are only two marked seasons in Cuba, the dry and the rainy. The first lasts from November to May and the second from May to October, but during the dry season sufficient rain falls to give the soil the necessary humidity. The mean temperature in Havana is about 78¼ degrees F. In the interior, the average temperature does not exceed 73.4 degrees F. In ordinary years the temperature never rises above 86 degrees F. in August, and in exceptional years the maximum temperature in the hottest months is 88 degrees F. In winter the temperature rarely goes below 54 degrees F. Snow is unknown even on the mountains, and frost has formed only on some of the highest summits. The great drawback for unacclimated persons in Cuba is the prevalence of yellow fever, but this is confined mainly to towns where the sanitary conditions have been bad.

According to an official census of 1890, the population of Cuba was then 1,631,687. For three years Cuba has been the theater of war, and great mortality and devastation have occurred. It may be assumed that the present population is not in excess of the figures of 1890, and it may be considerably lower. It has been estimated that, taking as a basis the proportion of population to area in the Kingdom of Belgium (482 inhabitants to the square mile) Cuba could support 24,000,000 people. Of the population in 1890, the percentages according to race were: White, 65; colored and Chinese, 35. The actual number of white Cubans was given as 950,000; colored Cubans, 500,000, and Spaniards, 160,000.

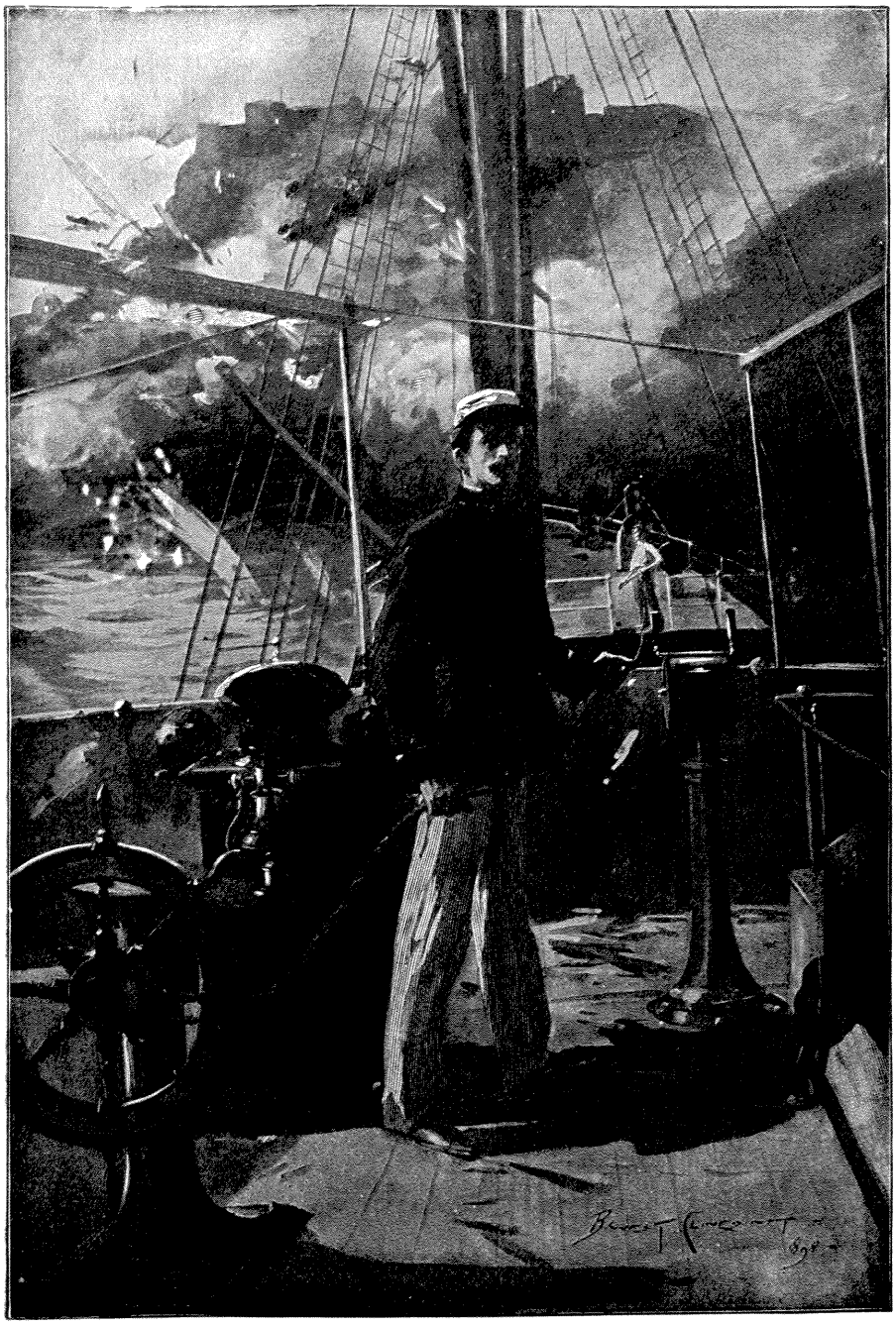
POLITICAL DIVISIONS.

Under the Spanish administration Cuba was divided into three regions—the western, central and eastern. Each region comprises two provinces, divided into several judicial districts, and these again subdivided into municipal sections. The western region embraces the provinces of Pinar del Rio and Havana; the central comprises the provinces of Matanzas and Santa Clara, and the eastern provinces are made up of Puerto Principe and Santiago de Cuba. The capital of the island is the city of Havana.

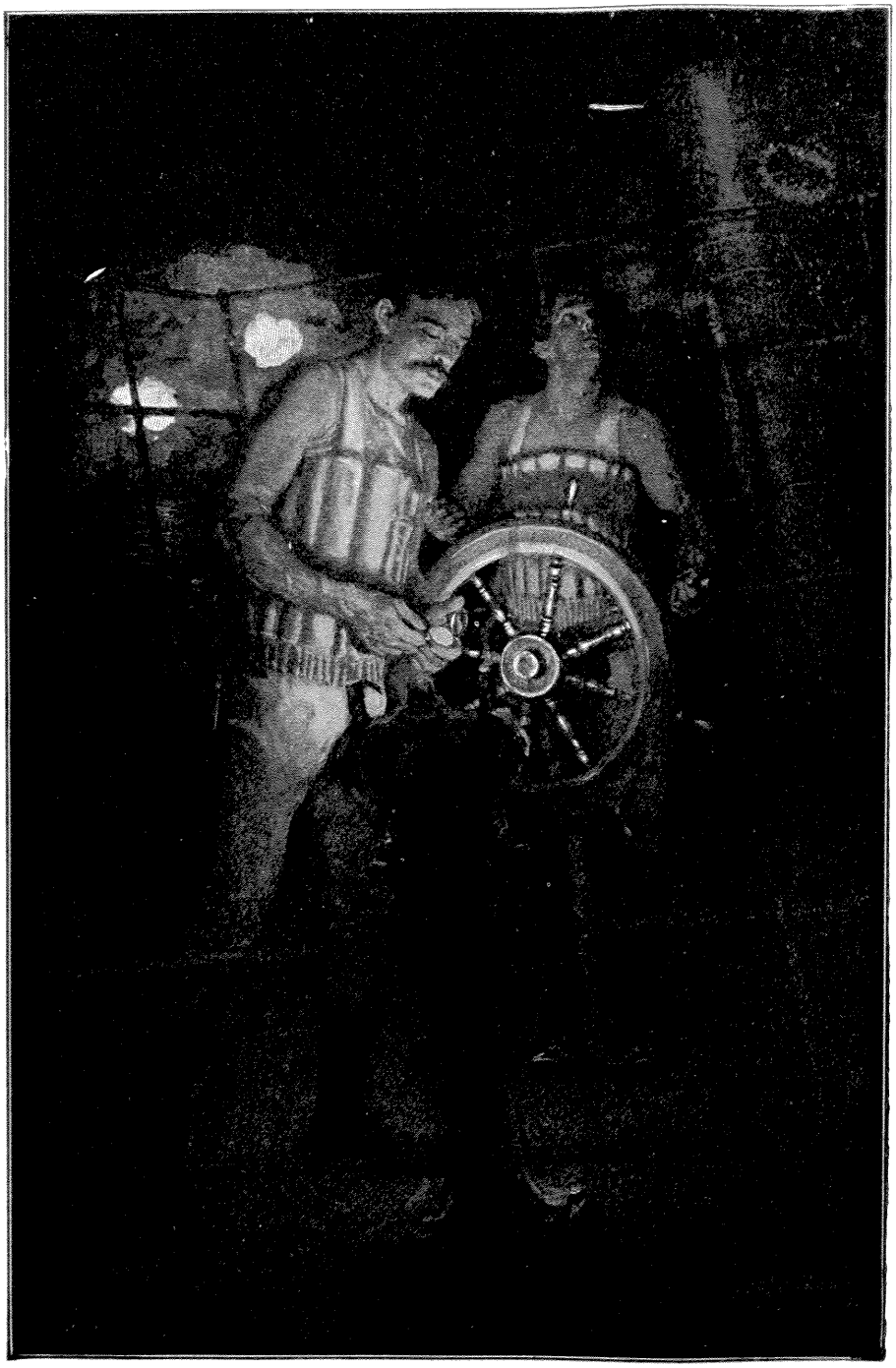
Prior to 1898 the island was governed by a Governor and Captain-General, appointed by the Spanish Crown, who was the superior political, military and economic chief. Each of the six provinces was administered by a Governor. On January 1, 1898, the Spanish Government adopted a system of autonomous government for the island, providing for popular representation in the administration of affairs, but it was not accepted by the insurgents and had no practical effect. Under the terms of the suspension of hostilities between the United States and Spain, the affairs of the island were to be administered by the military commanders of the United States forces until such time as the native government proves stable.

CITIES AND TOWNS

Havana, capital of the province of the same name and of the island, is situated on the northern coast, and has a harbor which has long been famous for its commerce. The city has about 200,000 inhabitants. It is the residence of the Captain-General and other authorities of the

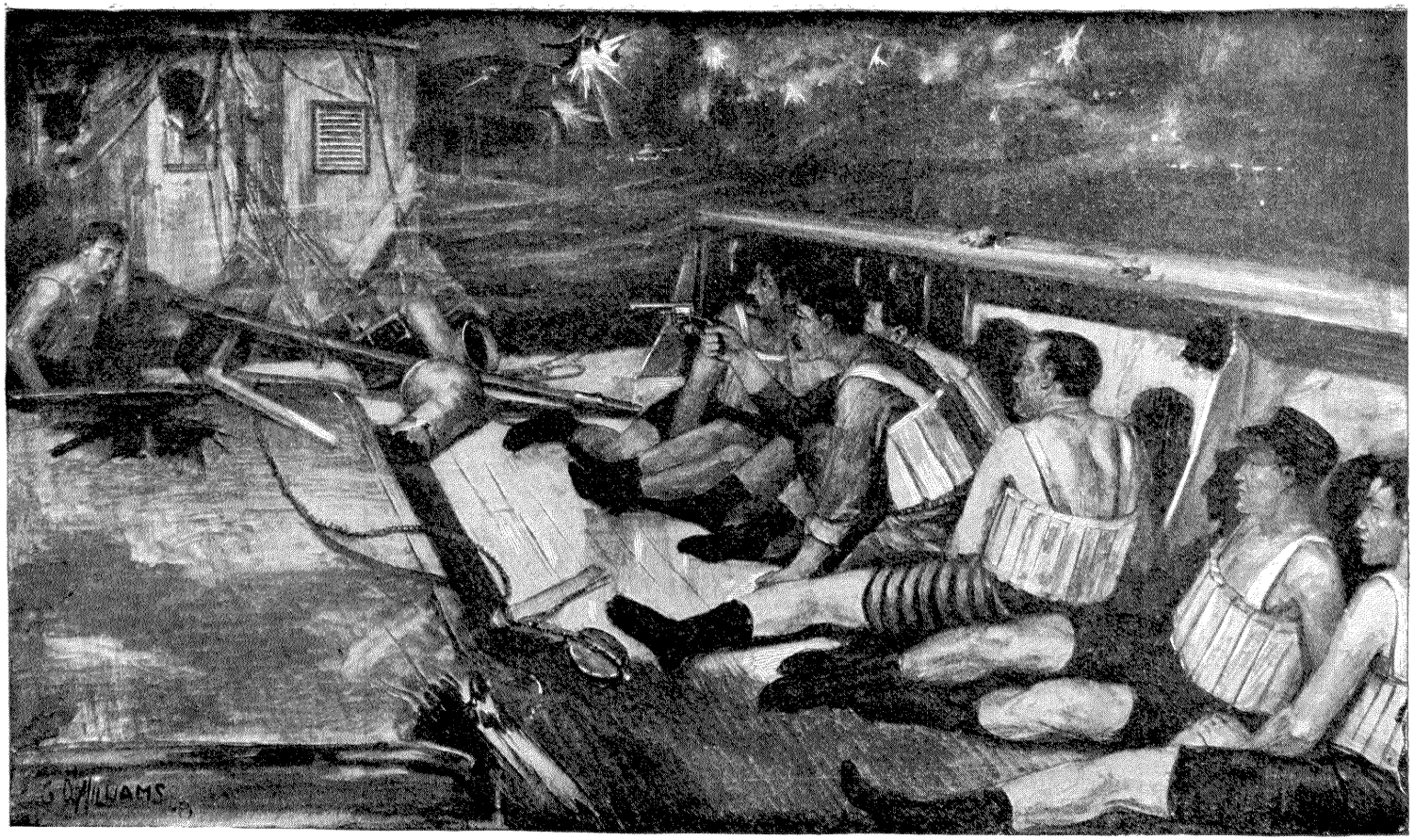


HOBSON ON THE BRIDGE OF THE "MERRIMAC,"
(JUNE 3RD).



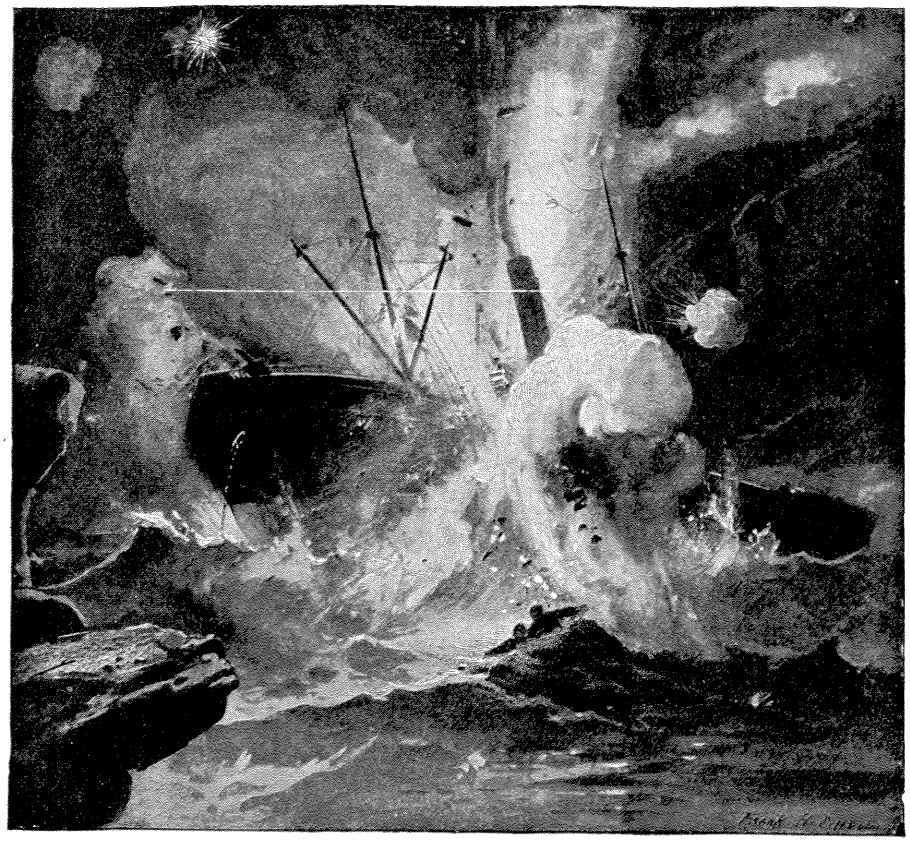
HOBSON ON THE BRIDGE OF THE MERRIMAC, DEIGNAN AT THE WHEEL (JUNE 3RD).

"The wind from this shot carried away my cap."

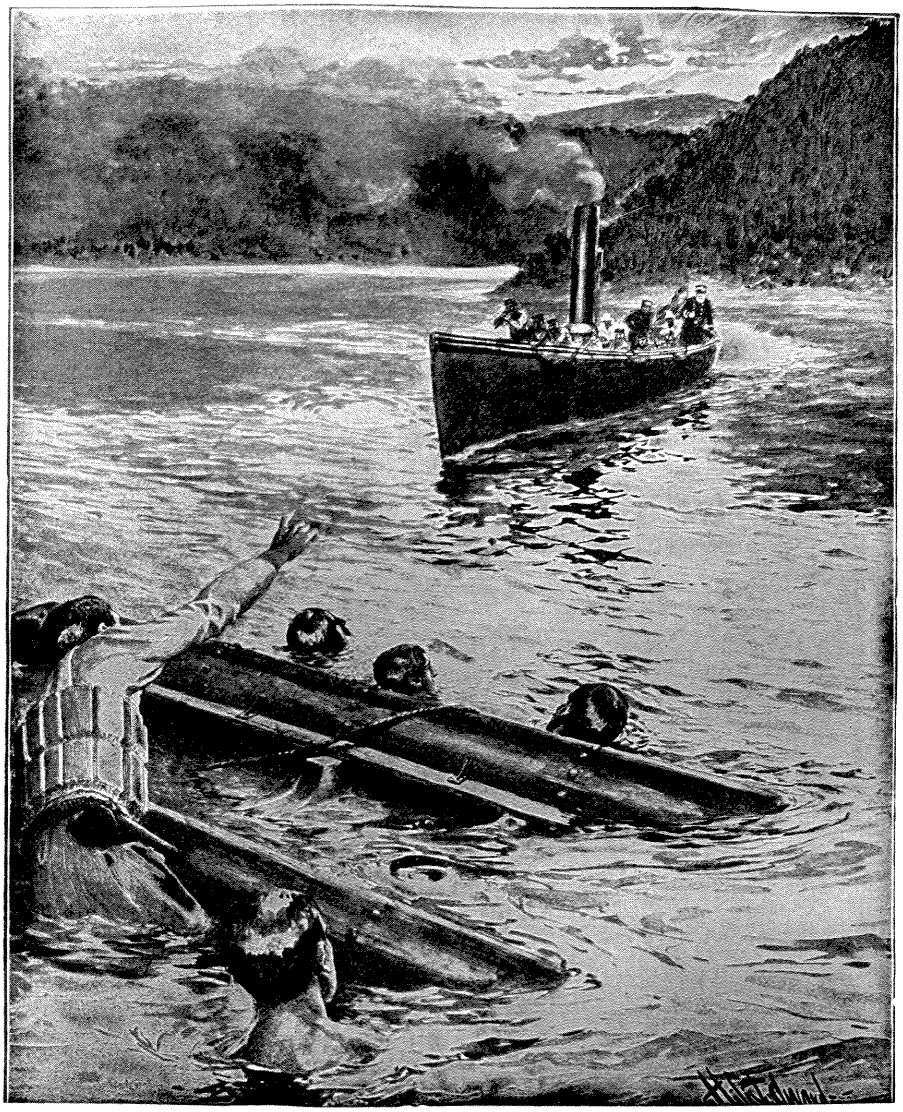


ON THE "MERRIMAC."

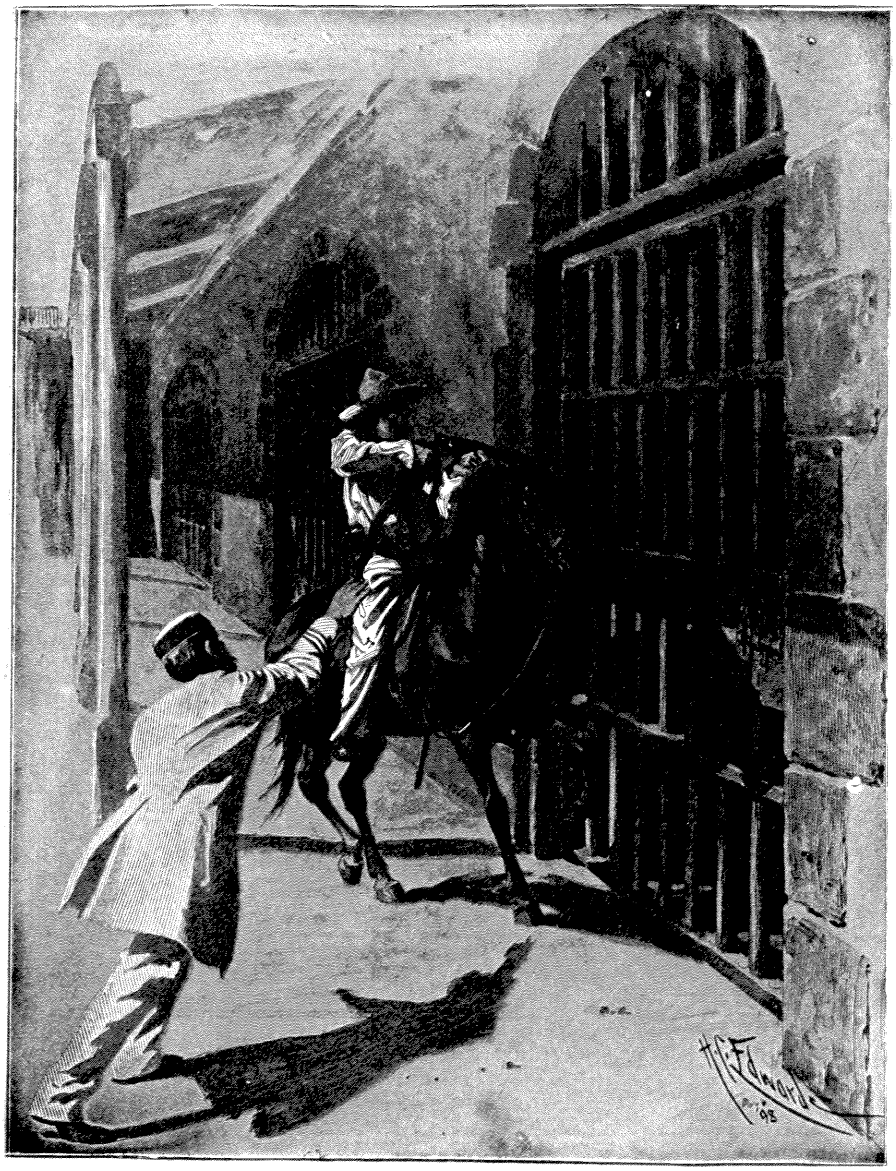
Kelly emerging from the Fire-Room—Lieutenant Hobson drew his revolver and covered him for a moment, not realizing who it might be.



BLOWING UP THE "MERRIMAC" WITH TORPEDOES. AFTER ANCHORING HER IN POSITION ACROSS THE CHANNEL

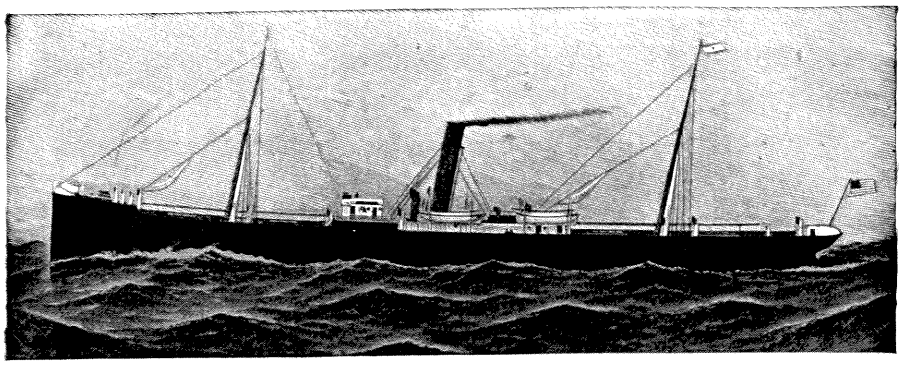


CAPTURE OF HOBSON AND THE "MERRIMAC" MEN—ADMIRAL CERVERA AND SPANISH MARINES APPROACHING IN A STEAM LAUNCH FROM THE "REINA MERCEDES."

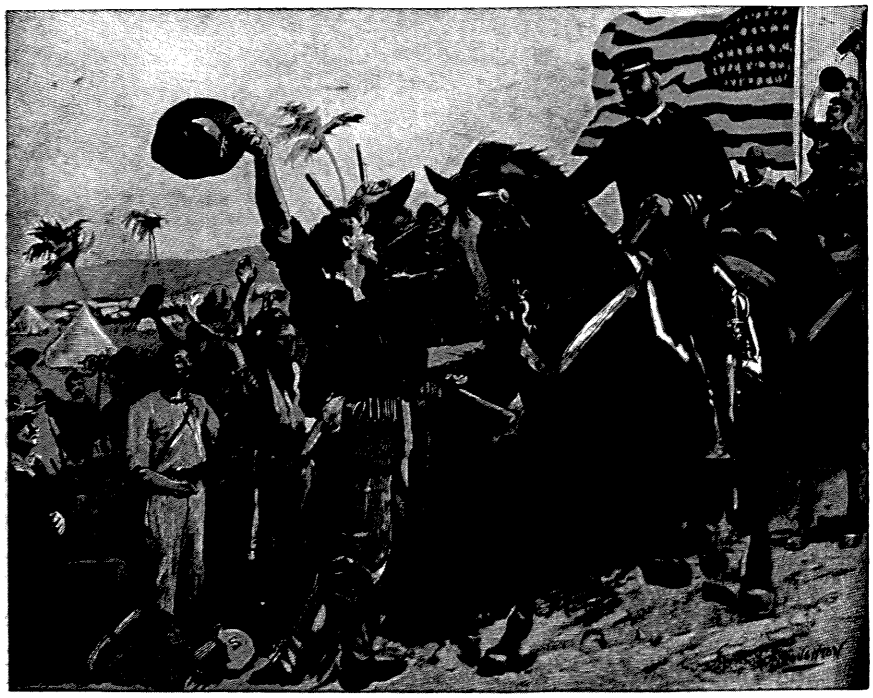


"MERRIMAC" PRISONERS ATTACKED BY A WOUNDED SPANISH CAVALRYMAN, DURING THE BATTLE OF SANTIAGO, JULY 1ST.

OSBORN W. DEIGNAN, THE HELMSMAN
OF THE "MERRIMAC."



"MERRIMAC."



UNDER THE STARS AND STRIPES AGAIN.

Soldiers Cheering Lieutenant Hobson on his Safe Return to the American Lines

island. It is defended by eight forts, one of which is the famous Morro Castle; has a fine navy yard, arsenal, gun manufacturing and repair shops, barracks and hospitals, three large markets, twenty-four churches, six theaters, a university, a school of fine arts, several public libraries and many educational institutions. There are several manufactories, and the city is traversed by tramways and omnibus lines. It has communication with the rest of the island by means of railroad lines. It is lighted by gas and electricity. About eighty newspapers and other periodicals are published in Havana.

Pinar del Rio, capital of the province of Pinar del Rio, has a population of about 30,000. It is situated about 135 miles from Havana, and is noted for the fine quality of the tobacco grown in its neighborhood.

Matanzas, capital of the province of Matanzas, 66 miles from Havana, has a population of 56,000. In its vicinity are the fine Bellamar Caves and the noted valley of the Yumuri.

Cardenas, a commercial port of the northern coast, about 90 miles from Havana, has a population of 23,000.

Santa Clara, 216 miles from Havana, has a population of 32,000.

Sagua la Grande, province of Santa Clara, situated on the River Sagua la Grande, seven miles from its mouth, has a population of 18,000.

Cienfuegos, province of Santa Clara, has a population of 40,000. It is situated on the fine port of Jagua and is a thriving center of trade. Besides the foregoing towns in the province of Santa Clara, there are Trinidad, 29,000 inhabitants; Santi Espiritus, 29,000 inhabitants; and San Juan de los Remedios, 15,000 inhabitants.

Puerto Principe, capital of the province of Puerto Principe, has a population of 49,000.

Santiago de Cuba, capital of the province of Santiago de Cuba, has a population of 50,000. Santiago has a fine harbor and a number of important public buildings, including a famous cathedral.

Among the other towns of importance in the province of Santiago de Cuba are Manzanillo, Bayamo, Jiguani, Holguin, Jibara, Guantanamo and Baracoa.

MINERAL AND AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES.

Early in its history Cuba was famous for the quantity and quality of its gold, and gold mines are still in operation in the central and

eastern parts of the island. Silver mines are also found in several localities. The greatest mineral wealth of the island lies in its abundant mines of fine copper. Deposits of this metal, believed to be almost inexhaustible, are located chiefly in the eastern portion of the island, in the mountains, which, by reason of this circumstance, are known as Sierra del Cobre (Copper Mountains). In 1891, in the district of Santiago de Cuba alone, 296 mining grants were issued, including iron and manganese mines. The iron ore of Cuba is of superior quality, and with improved facilities for communication and development, it is believed there will be an immense output of this metal. The iron mines of Juragua, in the province of Santiago de Cuba, have been worked by United States capital. The ore was exported to Philadelphia, where it was utilized to the extent of 15,000 tons per month. Asphalt and mineral oil deposits are found in several parts of the island. There are several asphalt deposits in the provinces of Havana, Pinar del Rio and Santa Clara. The Cuban asphalt is said to rival that of Trinidad as regards its adaptability for street paving, gas making and other industrial uses.

The great wealth of Cuba, however, lies in the wonderful fertility of its soil. The island has 35,000,000 acres of land, but in 1868, according to official statistics, only 2,689,400 were under cultivation; 9,974,134 acres were utilized in cattle raising, and nearly 16,000,000 were still virgin forest. Ten years later, after the end of the long insurrection, considerable land was cleared, and the production of sugar assumed large proportions. On the other hand, old lands were abandoned, and the acreage was not greatly increased. It may be assumed, therefore, that only a small fraction of the agricultural wealth of Cuba has been developed, and that at least 20,000,000 acres of land awaited the application of industry and capital at the conclusion of the late war.

The principal industry of Cuba has been for many years the cultivation of sugar cane and the making of sugar, but this industry suffered by the competition of European beet sugar and the internal disorders of the island. With the occupation of the island by the United States the sugar industry again revived, and became remunerative. The great advantage of sugar growing in Cuba is found in the fact that the cane reproduces itself without the necessity of resowing for ten, fifteen, or twenty years, according to the nature of the soil. The sugar is of superior quality, and the proximity of the island to the United States of

America is a favoring condition. The production of sugar from 1894 to 1895 aggregated over 1,000,000 tons. From 1895 to 1896 it was only 225,000 tons.

Cuba has long been famous for the superiority of its tobacco. Efforts have been made to rival the Cuban tobacco in different parts of the world, but it seems to hold its own as excelling all others. The plant is grown in greatest abundance in the western part of the island, Vuelta Abajo, and in some localities in the provinces of Santa Clara and Santiago de Cuba. Next in rank in quality and quantity is the product of the district of Manicaragua, in the province of Santa Clara. The Vuelta Abajo region, where the best tobacco on the island is raised, suffered considerably from the insurrection, and the crop for 1897 did not exceed 30,000 bales of 110 pounds—a tenth part, approximately, of the ordinary yield. Nearly all the leaf tobacco and about half the twist of Cuba is exported to the United States.

Coffee for a long time constituted one of the principal products of Cuba, but since 1845 the development of the coffee product of Brazil and other countries, together with economic conditions in Cuba, caused the cultivation to decline, and since then coffee has been raised almost exclusively for local consumption.

Besides sugar, tobacco and coffee Cuba produces all the different classes of fruits known to the Tropics, and many of those belonging to the temperate zone. Among them are the pineapple, the banana, the orange, the mango and the guava. The cocoanut is also an important product. The forest wealth of Cuba is very great and but slightly developed. The island is rich in cabinet wood, among which the most important are mahogany and cedar. Among the trees the one most characteristic of a Cuban landscape is the palm, of which there are 32 species. Its wood and leaves are employed in the manufacture of several articles of trade, including hats and baskets. The soil of the island is well adapted to the production of all kinds of vegetables. The Cuban potato is as good as that of Bermuda or Peru, and the sweet potatoes are of superior quality.

Many efforts have been made in the Island of Cuba to attract to its shore the beneficial currents of foreign immigration. They have succeeded fully in so far as securing the settlement in the country of a large number of citizens of the United States and of German subjects, who, by engaging in agriculture and commercial business, have con-

tributed largely to the development of the wealth of the island. As there are no public lands in Cuba to any considerable extent, no measure of colonization, properly so called, has been accompanied with success.

The uncleared forests of the Island of Cuba cover an area of 15,544,367 acres, according to official statistics taken before the outbreak of the war in 1868. There were 2,689,400 acres under cultivation in the shape of sugar estates, coffee plantations, tobacco farms and minor agricultural establishments of all kinds; 9,974,134 acres were entirely set apart for the cattle-raising industry.

From 1511 to 1719 grants of public land were made by the municipalities of the island. The grants consisted of tracts of land set apart in a circular form. There were two classes: one called "hato," which was a circular piece of land having a radius of two leagues and intended for the raising of black cattle, and the "corral," having a radius of one league and supposed to be devoted to minor cattle and industries. The granting of this public land was discontinued in 1719.

There can be pointed out three different sections in the island, each distinctly characterized by its adaptability to a certain kind of industry. Pinar del Rio, the westernmost province of the island, is distinguished for its excellent and unsurpassed tobacco. Havana, Matanzas and Santa Clara provinces are devoted almost entirely to the cultivation of sugar cane and to the sugar industry. Puerto Principe (which occupies the center of the island) is the cattle-raising province, and Santiago de Cuba the mining, fruit, and coffee section of Cuba.

COMMERCE OF CUBA.

The industries and commerce of Cuba were greatly diminished by the state of insurrection and war which existed in the island for more than three years. The imports of the island during the fiscal year ended April, 1896, amounted to $66,166,754, and the exports to $94,395,536. In 1893 the trade of Cuba with the United States alone showed the following figures: Imports, $78,706,506; exports, $24,157,698. The trade had fallen off during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1897, to imports, $18,406,815; exports, $8,259,776. During the years 1891-1896, inclusive, the commerce of Cuba with Spain amounted to about $30,000,000 per annum, but in 1892 it rose to as much as $37,600,000, and in 1895 to

about $33,500,000. The imports of Cuba from Spain were usually about three times the exports of Cuba to Spain, the latter being about $4,250,000 in 1896 and $9,570,000 in 1892. The imports from Spain ranged during the six years between $22,000,000 in 1891 and $28,000,000 in 1892.

In normal years Cuba exports the greater part of its products to the United States, the principal articles being sugar, molasses and tobacco, but by reason of the operation of the former Spanish tariff, discriminating in favor of Spanish products, the island imported from the United States a relatively small proportion of what it consumed. Spain and Great Britain furnished the greater part of the imports of Cuba.

RAILROADS AND TELEGRAPH LINES.

This rich and fertile soil with its wealth of agricultural and mineral resources, where droughts, floods, and frosts are unknown, was practically undeveloped, owing to the total absence of transportation facilities either by rail or by roads.

In the whole province of Santiago de Cuba there were 80 miles of railroad at the time of American occupation and not a mile of road deserving the name between any two towns or villages, excepting narrow paths scarce allowing a horse or a mule to pass, through the woods, across streams and over the mountains.

Telegraphic communication exists between the different interior towns and principal villages, over Spanish Government lines put up in the rudest fashion, many wires resting on trees without the vestige of an insulator. The dependence that can be placed on such lines is obvious. It would be natural to expect Santiago de Cuba and Havana to be communicated by land wires; but as a fact, the only telegraphic communication between the eastern and western capitals is over an English cable between Santiago and Cienfuegos, where the message is transmitted to or from Havana by land.

There are 10 railway companies in Cuba, the most important being the Ferrocarriles Unidos; upward of 1,000 miles of main line belong to these companies, and there are, besides, private branch lines to all the important sugar estates. The Ferrocarriles Unidos has four lines, connecting Havana with Matanzas, Batabano, Union, and Guanajay. The roads pass through the most populous part of the country and connect Havana with other lines.

The Western Railway was begun in 1859, and in 1891, when it was acquired by an English company, had reached Puerto de Golpe, 96 miles from Havana and 10 miles from Pinar del Rio, the capital of the province of that name and the center of the tobacco-growing district. The line has been completed to Pinar del Rio, and improvements have been made in the old part, many of the bridges having been replaced by new steel ones, the rails renewed, modern cars put on, etc.

The other companies are: Ferrocarriles Cardenas-Jacaro, the main line of which joins the towns of Cardenas and Santa Clara; Ferrocarril de Matanzas, having lines between Matanzas and Murga, and also between Matanzas and Guareiras; Ferrocarril de Sagua la Grande, running between Concha and Cruces; Ferrocarril Cienfuegos-Santa Clara, connecting those towns; Ferrocarriles Unidos de Caibarien, from Caibarien to Placetas; Ferrocarril de Porto Principe-Nuevitas; Ferrocarril de Guantanamo.

The Marianao Railway also belongs to an English company, with headquarters in London. The original line, belonging to Cubans, was opened in 1863. The line, only 8½ miles in length, runs from Havana to Marianao, with a branch line to a small village on the coast. During 1894, over 750,000 passengers were carried, this being the chief source of revenue. The carriages are of the American type and are fitttd, as well as the locomotives, with the Westinghouse automatic brake; the rails are of steel, weighing 60 pounds per yard.

The national carriage is the volante, and no other is used in the country. It consists of a two-seated carriage, slung low down by leather straps from the axle of two large wheels, and has shafts 15 feet long. The horse in the shaft is led by a postilion, whose horse is also harnessed to the carriage with traces. In case of a long and rough journey, a third horse is harnessed on the other side of the shafts in the same manner. The carriage is extremely comfortable to travel in, and the height of the wheels and their distance apart prevent all danger of turning over, although the roads in the country are, for the most part, mere tracks through fields and open land.

Ox carts and pack mules are used for conveying goods in the interior of the island, outside of the railway lines.

There are four cable lines connected with Cuba: The International Ocean Telegraph Company has a cable from Havana to Florida; the Cuban Submarine Company has a cable connecting Havana with Santi-

ago de Cuba and Cienfuegos; the West India and Panama Company has a cable connecting Havana with Santiago de Cuba, Jamaica, Porto Rico, the Lesser Antilles, and the Isthmus of Panama; the Compagnie Francaise de Cables Sous-Marins has a line connecting Havana with Santiago de Cuba, Haiti, Santo Domingo, Venezuela and Brazil.

The only three towns in Cuba having cable connections are Havana, Cienfuegos, and Santiago de Cuba.

The telegraph and telephone systems in Cuba belong to the Government, but the latter is farmed out for a limited number of years to a company called the Red Telefonica de la Habana. Nearly all the public and private buildings in the city and suburbs are connected by telephone. The Stateman's Year Book, 1898, says that there are 2,300 miles of telegraph line, with 153 offices.

Havana is connected by regular lines of steamers with United States and Spanish ports. Lines of steamboats connect at Tampa and Pensacola, Fla., with the Florida railroads, and by means of them with the various railroad systems of the United States.

The metric system of weights and measures is in use in Cuba. The ones most commonly employed are: Kilogram (2.2046 pounds); hectoliter (26.418 gallons); meter (39.37 inches); kilometer (0.62137 mile); hectare (2.471 acres). Other weights and measures in occasional use are the arroba (dry), which is equal to 25.3664 pounds; arroba (liquid), 4.263 gallons; fanega, 1.599 bushels; libra. 1.0161 pounds; and vara, 33.384 inches.

HISTORICAL FACTS ABOUT CUBA.

Cuba was discovered by Columbus, October 28, 1492. He named the island Juana in honor of Prince Juan; later the name was changed to Fernandina, in honor of the deceased Ferdinand, again changed to Santiago and lastly to Ave Maria, but the Indian name Cuba clung and still clings to it.

Cuba is not less beautiful than it was when Columbus first saw it, and this is his own description given to the Court of Spain:

"When I reached Juana, I followed its coast to the westward, and found it so large that I thought it must be mainland, the province of Cathay; and as I found neither towns nor villages on the sea coast, but only some hamlets, with the inhabitants of which I could not hold conversation, because they all immediately fled, I kept on the same route,

thinking that I could not fail to light upon some large cities or towns. At length, after the proceeding of many leagues, and finding that nothing new presented itself, and that the coast was leading me northwards (which I wished to avoid, because the winter had already set in, and it was my intention to move southwards; and because moreover the winds were contrary), I resolved not to wait for a change in the weather, but to return to a certain harbor which I had remarked, and from which I sent two men ashore to ascertain whether there was any king or large cities in that part. They journeyed for three days, and found countless small hamlets, with numberless inhabitants, but with nothing like order; they therefore returned. In the meantime I had learned from some other Indians, whom I had seized, that this land was certainly an island; accordingly, I followed the coast eastward for a distance of 107 leagues, where it ended in a cape. From this cape I saw another island to the eastward, at a distance of eighteen leagues from the former, to which I gave the name of La Espanola. Thither I went and followed its northern coast (just the same as I had done with the coast of Juana), 118 full miles due east. This island, like all others, is extraordinarily large, and this one extremely so. In it are many seaports, with which none that I know in Christendom can bear comparison, so good and capacious that it is a wonder to see. The lands are high, and there are many lofty mountains, with which the islands of Teneriffe cannot be compared. They are all most beautiful, of a thousand different shapes, accessible, and covered with trees of a thousand kinds, of such great height that they seem to reach the skies. I am told that the trees never lose their foliage, and I can well understand it, for I observed that they were as green and luxuriant as in Spain in the month of May. Some were in bloom, others bearing fruit, and others otherwise, according to their nature. The nightingale was singing, as well as other little birds of a thousand different kinds, and that in November, the month in which I was roaming amongst them. There are palm trees of six or eight kinds, wonderful in their beautiful variety; but this is the case with all other trees and fruits and grasses. It contains extraordinary pine groves and very extensive plains. There is also honey and a great variety of birds, and many different kinds of fruits. In the interior there are many mines of metals, and a population innumerable."

The first attempt to colonize Cuba was made by Diego Columbus (son of the discoverer) and Diego Velasquez. They made their first

settlement at Boracoa, which became the capital. In 1522 the capital was moved to Santiago de Cuba and in 1589 to Havana.

In 1538 a French privateer bombarded Havana and reduced the city to ashes, which led the Governor General, Fernando de Soto, to erect the Castillo de la Fuerza (strong fortress), which still stands. When De Soto left Cuba for Florida he placed the government in the hands of Dona Isabel de Boabdillo.

In 1547 Don Antonio de Chavez became Governor, and inaugurated many improvements. Among them he gave the city of Havana a water supply system for the first time in its history.

The removal of the capital from Santiago to Havana was due largely to the fact that Gonzales Perez de Angulo, who was appointed Governor General of the island in 1549, took up his residence in Havana instead of Santiago, and this precedent being followed by some of his successors the change was naturally brought about.

For a year Cuba was British property. This was from July, 1762, to July, 1763. With a fleet of 37 ships under Admiral Pococke, and 150 transports with 10,000 men under Lord Albemarle, reinforced by 4,000 regulars from New York, the city was captured after a stubborn defense in which heat and disease fought on the side of the Spaniards. Five thousand soldiers and 3,000 sailors were ill at one time. By the terms of the treaty of peace the island was restored to Spain on July 7, 1763.

The frequent insurrections in the islands were no doubt aided by filibustering expeditions from the United States, which the government was unable to suppress. This caused constant irritation between the two governments, and in 1873 almost led to war.

On October 31 of that year, the Virginius, an American ship, was captured near Jamaica by the Spanish Steamer Tornado. She was apprehended as a filibusterer, and Captain Frye and fifty-two of the crew were stood against a wall and shot. A British ship of war, the Niobe, appeared opportunely upon the scene and prevented the massacre of the remaining 130 of the crew.

Although the affair was settled through the channels of diplomacy, a bitter sentiment was created against Spain, which continued with more or less intensity until it found vent in the recent hostilities.

It is a peculiar coincidence that the invasion of Cuba and place of ultimate surrender of the islands to Americans should have been at the exact place where the Virginius' crew was massacred—Santiago.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

BULL FIGHTING IN SPAIN.

BRUTAL EXHIBITION CHARACTERISTIC OF SPANISH CRUELTY—ATTEMPTS TO RAISE MONEY TO CONDUCT THE WAR THROUGH THIS NATIONAL SPORT—COMPLETE DESCRIPTION OF A BULL FIGHT.

ULL fighting is a form of entertainment that would seem to have little to do with the subject of war, and yet bull fights were a feature of the late war between the United States and Spain, and probably the only war of which they properly constitute a part of its history.

Spain was practically a bankrupt nation at the beginning of the war, and as hostilities progressed she was put to desperate straits to raise money to carry on the combat. The people were taxed to their utmost limit. So it was useless to expect any considerable revenue from increased taxation.

Then some patriotic Spaniard suggested that special bull fights be given and the proceeds be turned over to the government to prosecute the war with the United States. Accordingly several such events were held and netted a considerable sum.

Madrid, the Spanish capital, presents no gayer scene than on the occasion of a bull fight. The exhibitions are held in an immense circular arena, and are witnessed by all classes, from the Queen Regent to the beggar upon the street corner. Royalty, the nobility, wealth and fashion have their private boxes just as rich Americans do at the theater, while the rabble sits upon tiers of seats arranged one above the other as they are at a circus. The arena, or bull ring, is enclosed by a fence about six feet high, leaving a sort of alley-way between it and a yet higher fence in front of the space reserved for spectators. It often happens that the bull in his furious charges after his tormentor leaps the first fence, in which case he can be driven back into the ring through any one of the numerous gates built therein. The fence more often is used by the torero, who, when hard pressed, leaps over it for safety.

At any bull fight one may see all the principal officials, from Cabinet Ministers down to officers of the municipality and men prominent in every walk of life. But the women make the fairest and gayest picture, for they are arrayed in their best finery of many colors, and the excitement lends additional vivacity to their conduct.

The Alguazils, or police officers, enter and clear the ring of fruit-venders and stragglers. A trumpet is blown, and the vast audience which has gathered in groups chatting and displaying impatience for the exhibition to begin, becomes seated. Opposite the royal box a door flies open and the procession of toreros enter. In the lead march the espadas or matadores, the men who kill the bull after he has been goaded to frenzy. They are the real bull fighters and the others are their assistants.

The profession of matador is an enviable one from a Spanish standpoint, for the successful matador wins both fame and fortune. All the ladies are supposed to be in love with him, and most of them really are, while his profits from a single fight vary from $10,000 to $20,000. His fame spreads throughout Spain, and he is the object of every courtesy and attention. Many Spanish matadores have accumulated immense fortunes. Behind the matadores march the banderilleros. These are armed with steel darts tipped with a barb. The darts are gaily decorated with bits of ribbon, colored paper and tinsel. When the dart pierces the flesh of the bull the barb on the point prevents it from falling or being pulled out, and with every motion of the animal it tears the flesh and makes an aggravating wound. If the barb fails to exasperate the animal sufficiently a fulminating material is sometimes attached to the point. This explodes when it strikes the bull and burns him to the quick.

The capadores come next, each with a large capa (cape or cloak) These are used to blind the bull, thus assisting the banderillero to escape after he has thrown his darts.

Last of all are the picadores. They are mounted lancers, and the horses they ride are blindfolded so that they may not be terrorized by the bull and may be the better controlled when the picador endeavors to pierce the animal with his lance. The breeches they wear are lined with thin strips of iron to protect the legs of the rider against the horns of the bull should he succeed in goring the horse, which he does as often as not.

Directly behind the espadas or matadores march their servants, for each of these celebrities has his own valet who attends him in the ring as well as out of it. The servants carry their master's cloaks, in which the bull fighter wraps himself until it comes his turn to despatch the bull.

The procession marches across the arena and halts before the royal box. In the adjoining box sits the Alcalde, the master of ceremonies, and to him a request is made for the key with which to unlock the cells containing the bellowing bulls already goaded to anger by being tormented by attendants. The Alcalde tosses down the key and the official who has caught it proceeds to the door of one of the cells and throws it wide open.

There is a grand flourish of trumpets and the angry bull comes bounding into the arena, his eyes red with anger and his head shaking with wrath. He stops and glares at the toreros and paws the ground, throwing the tan bark high in the air. It is a peculiarity of these bulls that they either select the horsemen as the special objects of their hatred and pursue them throughout the fight, or else they will ignore the horsemen entirely and concentrate all their maddened energy upon the banderilleros.

In a recent fight graphically described it happened that the bull charged upon a picador. The picador plunged his lance into the animal's shoulders, but was unable to hold him at bay. The bull buried his horns in the horse's barrel and disemboweled him, bringing horse and rider to the ground. The capadores quickly threw their cloaks over the bull's head and tantalized him until he was completely disconcerted, and charged aimlessly about the ring. Then came the most disgusting and brutal part of the exhibition. The horse had not been killed, although mortally wounded. The wound was plugged up and another picador put upon his back.

Sometimes it happens that the horses, scenting the bulls, although they cannot see them, will be so terror-stricken that they will rear upon their hind legs. This is the bull's opportunity, and he is quick to take advantage of it. Plunging his horns into the horse he lifts him clear from the ground, carries him a moment and tosses him to the earth—dead, or too badly crippled to rise. Sometimes as many as a dozen horses are slain in an encounter with one bull.

When the picadores have finished their part of the work, the banderilleros engage the animal. Theirs is the most skillful part of the work of torturing the poor beast. The dart must be thrown to strike on the upper side of the bull's neck. In order to do this the banderillero must approach the bull directly from the front; in fact,he must almost place his arm between the bull's horns in order to strike in the proper place. It is the most dangerous part of the work and requires great courage and agility. It sometimes happens that a banderillero is caught upon the horns of the animal and tossed into the air, but such fatalities are rare. When they do happen, however, the spectators shout and howl their approval.

When the banderillero has completed his work the espada or matador comes forward to put the fatal finishing touches upon the affair. He has been an interested spectator of all that has passed and has had an opportunity to estimate the courage and intelligence of the animal he is to despatch.

Gracefully removing his cloak he hands it to his valet and then approaches the royal box. Removing his cap, he bows and asks permission to slay the bull. This is granted, and he then approaches the enraged animal for the final scene in the gory spectacle. In one hand he carries a little flag attached to a stick, called a muleta. This he uses to divert the attention of the bull. In the other he carries his two-edged sword. As man and beast confront each other, one is reminded of the American prize fight, where the antagonists study each other, looking for a weak point to attack.

The espada waves his muleta in front of the bull's eyes and the animal charges straight upon him. It seems as if there were no escape, but he steps nimbly aside and smiles at the spectators, who applaud his agility. Again and again this is repeated, but presently the sought-for opportunity arrives, and as the bull passes him the espada buries his sword to the hilt in the animal's neck at the base of the skull, and the poor beast, covered with blood and foam, sinks down and expires.

A great shout goes up and the espada smilingly bows his acknowledgment of the spectators' approval.

The closing scene of the spectacle is given when a team of gaily caparisoned mules is brought into the arena, and the bull is dragged out at a gallop.

CHAPTER XXXV.

BEAUTIFUL PORTO RICO.

THE HEALTHIEST AND MOST ATTRACTIVE OF UNCLE SAM'S NEW POSSESSIONS—IMPORTANT FACTS IN ITS HISTORY, WITH A DESCRIPTION OF ITS WONDERFUL RESOURCES.

PORTO RICO, the most beautiful island of the Antilles, which was ceded to the United States by the Spanish-American treaty at Paris, 1898, is situated at the entrance to the Gulf of Mexico, east of Haiti, from which it is separated by the Mona Passage. Haiti lies between it and Cuba. Porto Rico is 95 miles long and 35 broad, with an area of about 3,600 square miles, or nearly three-fourths the size of the State of Connecticut (4,990 square miles), and considerably larger than that of the States of Delaware and Rhode Island, which aggregate 3,300 square miles. The island has always been noted for its mineral and agricultural wealth; hence the Spanish name, which, in English, means "rich harbor."

Porto Rico, or Puerto Rico (the Spanish name), was discovered by Columbus on his second voyage, November 16, 1493. The discoverer first sighted land near Cape San Juan and for three days sailed along the northern coast, landing at Aguadilla. The richness and fertility of the island caused him to name it Puerto Rico or "rich port." He saw little or nothing of the natives, who fled at his approach, believing that they were about to be attacked.

The actual conquest of the island was made in 1510, two years after his first visit, by Juan Ponce De Leon, Governor of the Island of Haiti, then known as Hispaniola. He won the confidence of the natives and landed an expedition to subjugate them. The Spanish conquest of Porto Rico was marked by the bloodshed and cruelty that has characterized Spanish conquest in all parts of the Western world. Natives were slaughtered, or condemned to slavery. The colonization

of Porto Rico by Spaniards then followed, and to-day there is scarcely a trace of aboriginal blood in the islands.

The aboriginal population numbered about 600,000; they were copper-colored, though somewhat darker than the Indians of the North American continent. The aborigines called the island Boringuen and themselves Boringuenans.

Physically, Porto Rico is a continuation of the emerged lands of Haiti. It is very mountainous, the altitudes ranging from 1,500 to 3,600 feet, and among the rocks coralligenous limestones predominate. All lands exposed to the northeast trade winds have abundant rains. The mean temperature at the city of San Juan is 80.7 degrees F. In January and February it is 76.5 degrees, and in July and August, 83.2 degrees. The island is known as the most healthful of the Antilles. There are no reptiles and no wild animals, except rats, which are numerous. The hills are covered with tropical forests and the lands are very productive. The streams are numerous and some of them are navigable to the foothills.

AGRICULTURAL AND MINERAL RESOURCES.

The most flourishing plantations of Porto Rico are situated on the littoral plains and in the valleys of rivers which, says Longman's Gazetteer, are "intensely cultivated." The principal products are sugar, molasses, coffee, tobacco; then maize, rice, cotton, tobacco, hides, dyewoods, timber, and rice. Coffee is produced to the extent of over 16,000 tons per annum, and the annual sugar production averages 67,000 tons.

The forests abound in mahogany, cedar, ebony, dyewoods, and a great variety of medicinal and industrial plants. All kinds of tropical fruits are found. An average of 190,000,000 bananas, 6,500,000 oranges, 2,500,000 cocoanuts, and 7,000,000 pounds of tobacco is produced annually.

Sugar cane is cultivated on 61,000 acres, the districts in which it is produced on the largest scale being Ponce, 6,500 acres; Juan Diaz, 4,000 acres; Vieques, 3,000; Arecibo, 3,000; San German, 2,500. Coffee is cultivated on about 122,000 acres, two-thirds of the whole being in the following districts: Utuado, Las Marias, Adjuntas, Maricao, Ponce, Lares, Mayaguez, Yauco, San Sebastian, Ciales, Barros, and Juan Diaz.

Ponce, Mayaguez, and Arecibo are the provinces which produce more largely than any others in the island. It is estimated that every acre of coffee plantations averages in production 330 pounds. Tobacco is cultivated on over 2,000 acres, and over 1,100,000 acres are devoted to pastures. As these figures change from year to year, they can be given only approximately. The total quantity of "declared lands" in 1894 amounted to 3,171 square miles, and as the total extent of the Island of Porto Rico is some 3,668 square miles, the difference between the rural property and the total area is 497 square miles, which are taken up by the towns, roads, rivers, bays, etc.

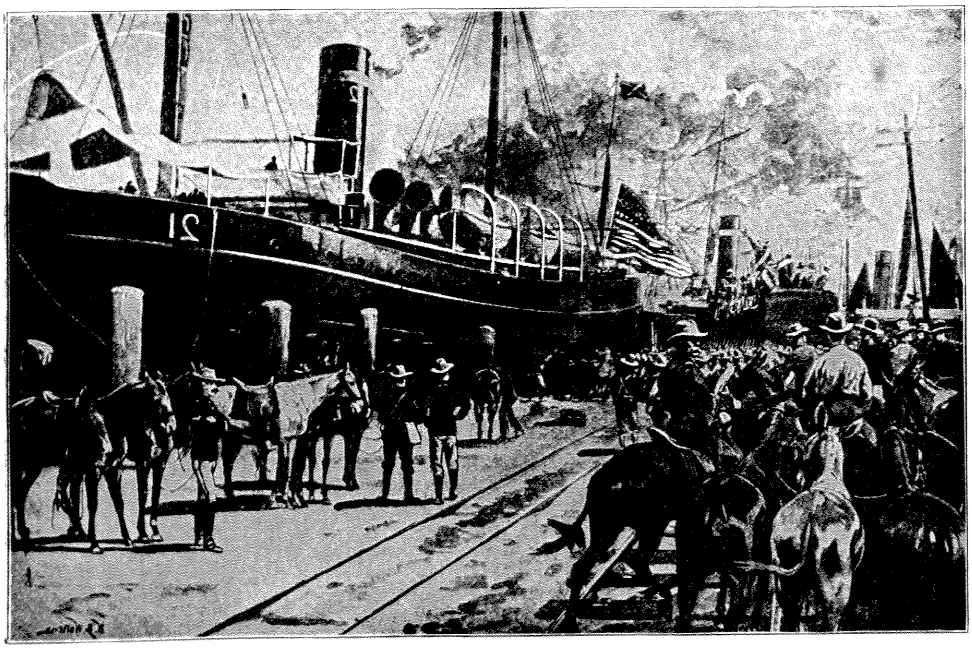
The sugar industry was the most important, but, owing to the excessive land tax assessed by the Spanish officials and the growing use of beet sugar, it suffered a marked decline. Then, too, the mills used are equipped with machinery of an obsolete character. All the natural conditions—soil, climate, and labor—are favorable to the culture of this product.

Coffee is also a staple product. The greater part of it was formerly shipped to New York, where it commanded a good price. Much of the coffee produced is grown by planters of small capital, who make use of the wild and waste lands of the hillsides to grow the berry. They prefer to cultivate coffee on account of the ease with which it can be produced, requiring but little expenditure as compared with the manufacture of sugar and molasses.

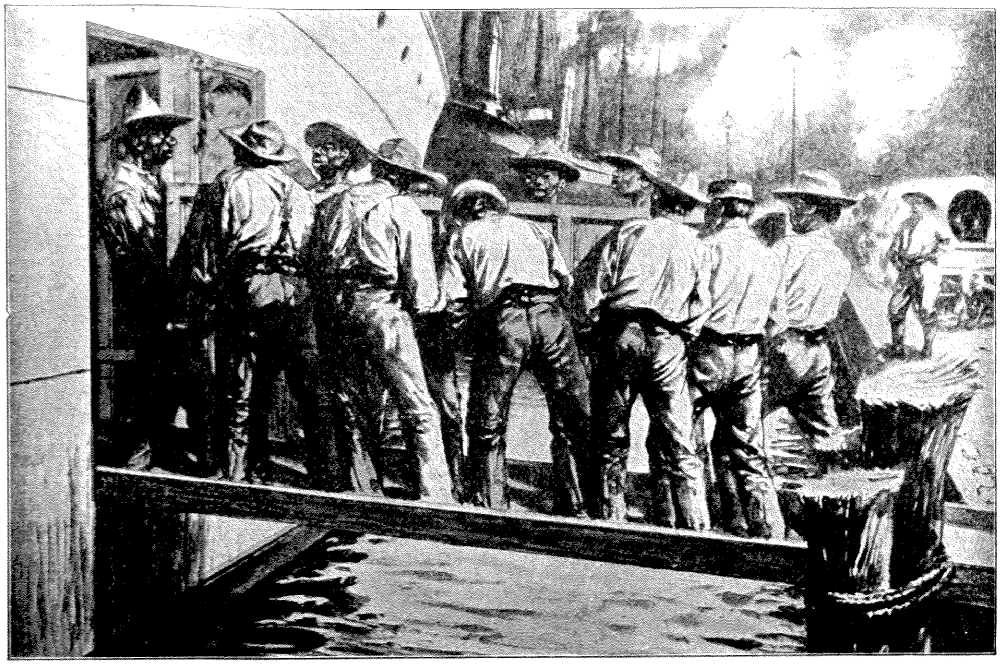
Tobacco, which ranks second in quality to that of Cuba, can be produced in great quantities, but the natives are generally careless in guarding against destructive insects and in drying and sorting the leaves. A considerable quantity, both in the form of leaf and manufactured cigars, is exported each year to the United States, England, France, Cuba and Spain. Three qualities are produced: "Capa," which is the leaf of first quality, used for wrappers; "tripa," also a wrapper of medium grade; and "beliche," or ordinary leaf. Tobacco culture is capable of enormous development under favorable circumstances.

A small quantity of cocoa is produced each year. Maize is grown on considerable areas only at times when high prices promise to prevail. Some cotton is also produced. Grass grows luxuriantly and affords pasturage for numerous herds of cattle, nearly all of which are exported. The hides of those consumed on the island are sent to other countries.

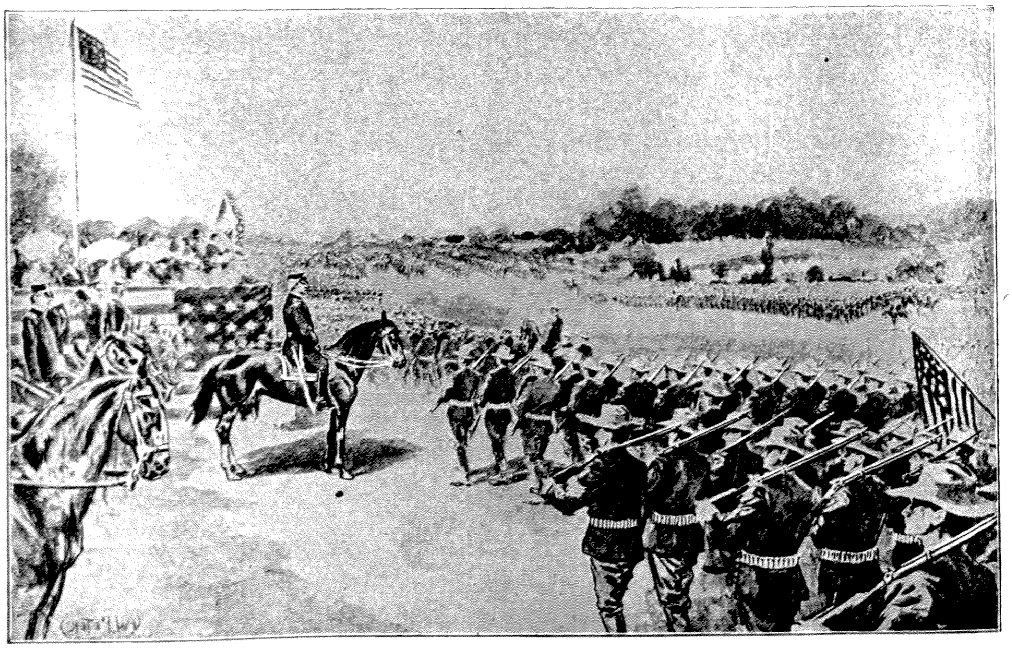
OUR ARMY AT TAMPA. A COMPANY MESS AT DINNER.



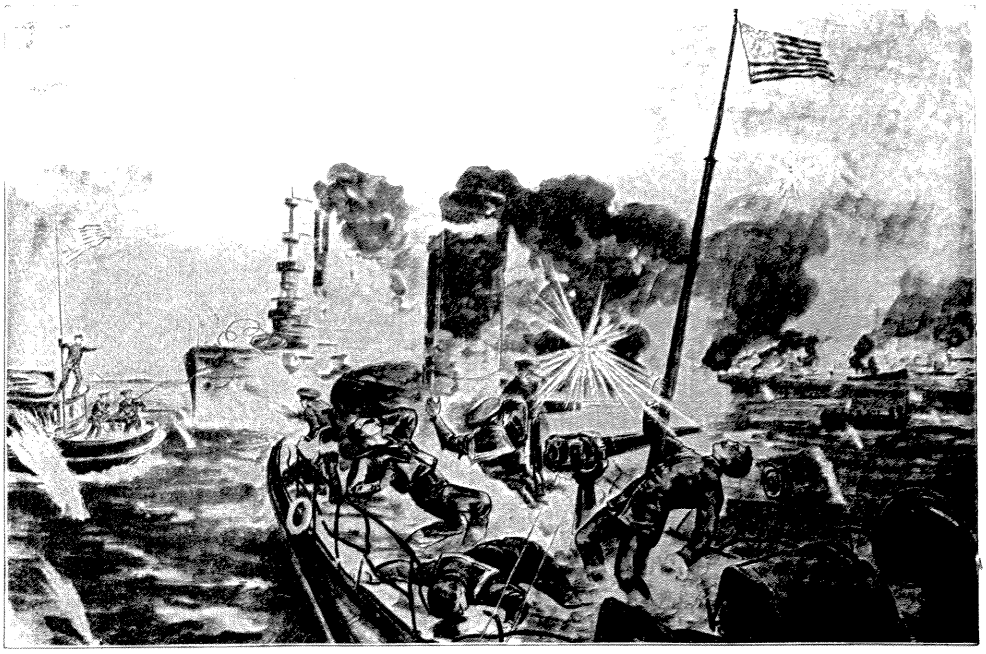
EMBARKATION OF MULES AT TAMPA.



LOADING TRANSPORT SHIPS AT TAMPA WITH ARMY SUPPLIES.

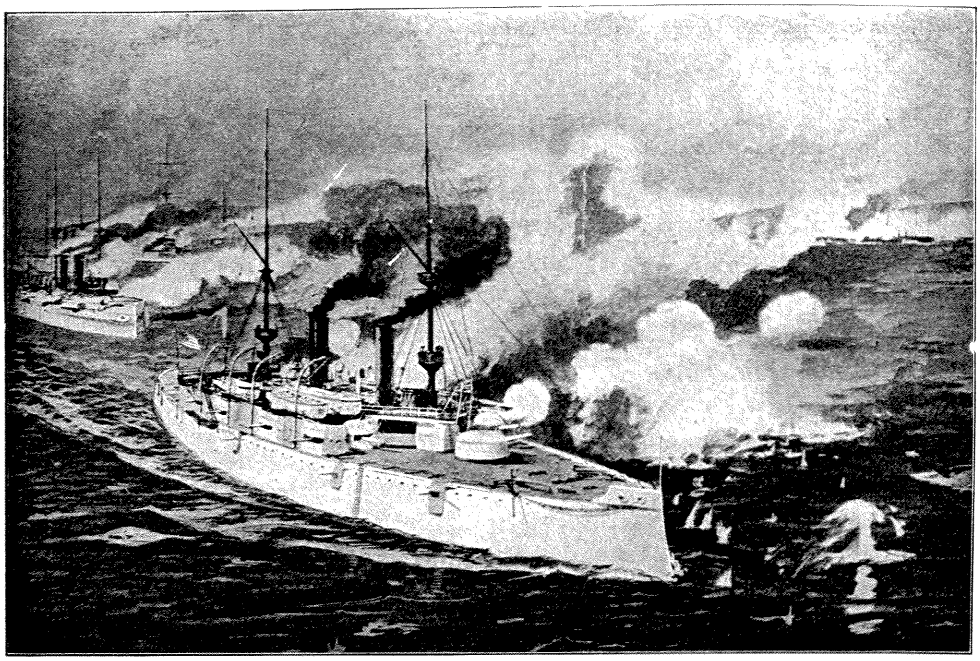


PRESIDENT McKINLEY AND GENERAL MILES REVIEWING TROOPS.

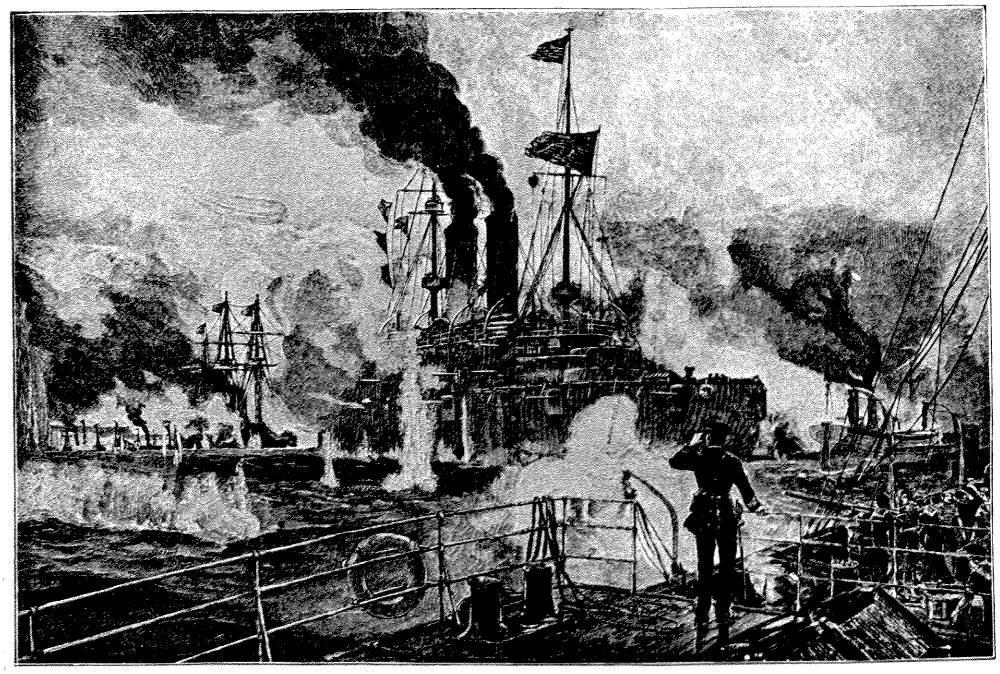


DEATH OF ENSIGN BAGLEY.

TRANSPORTS CONVEYING TROOPS TO CUBA.

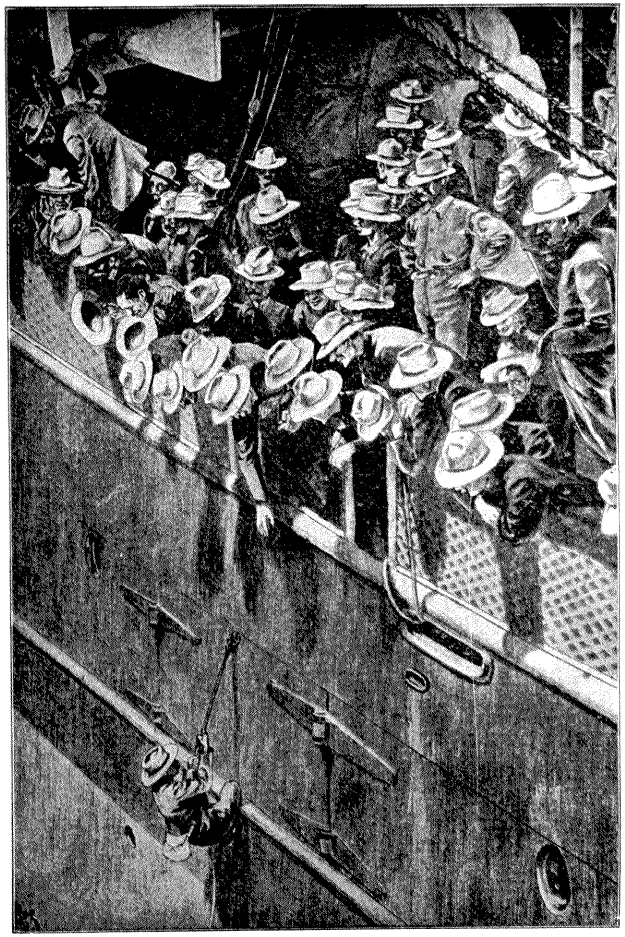


THE OLYMPIA LEADING FIGHTING LINE AT THE BATTLE OF MANILA.

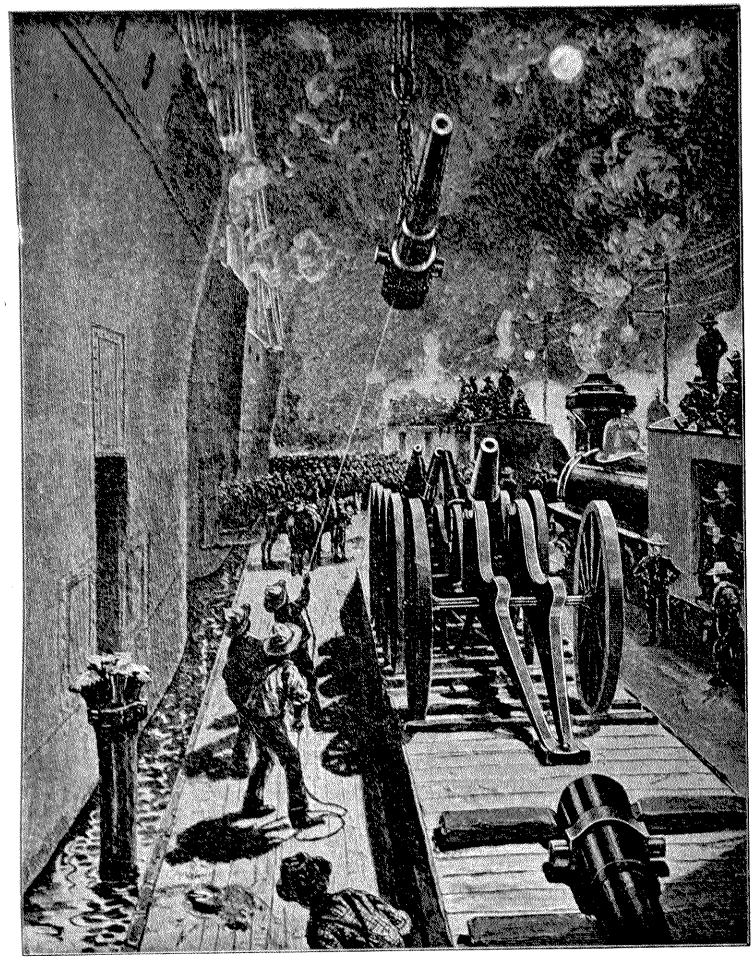


SPANISH SHIP REINA CHRISTINA AT BATTLE OF MANILA.

OFF FOR THE WAR.

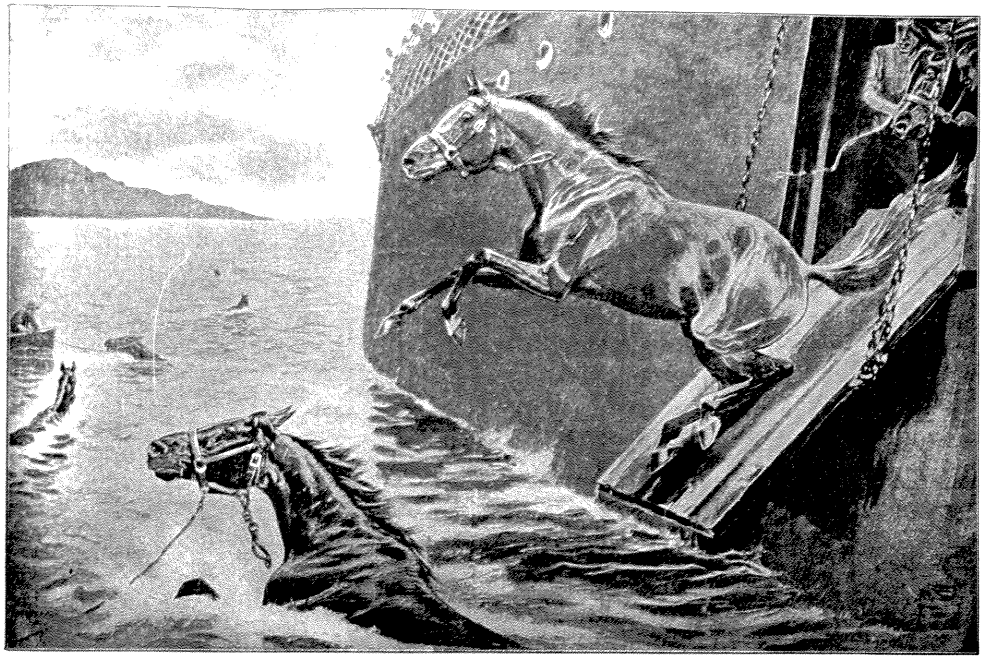


THE LAST ONE TO GET ON BOARD.

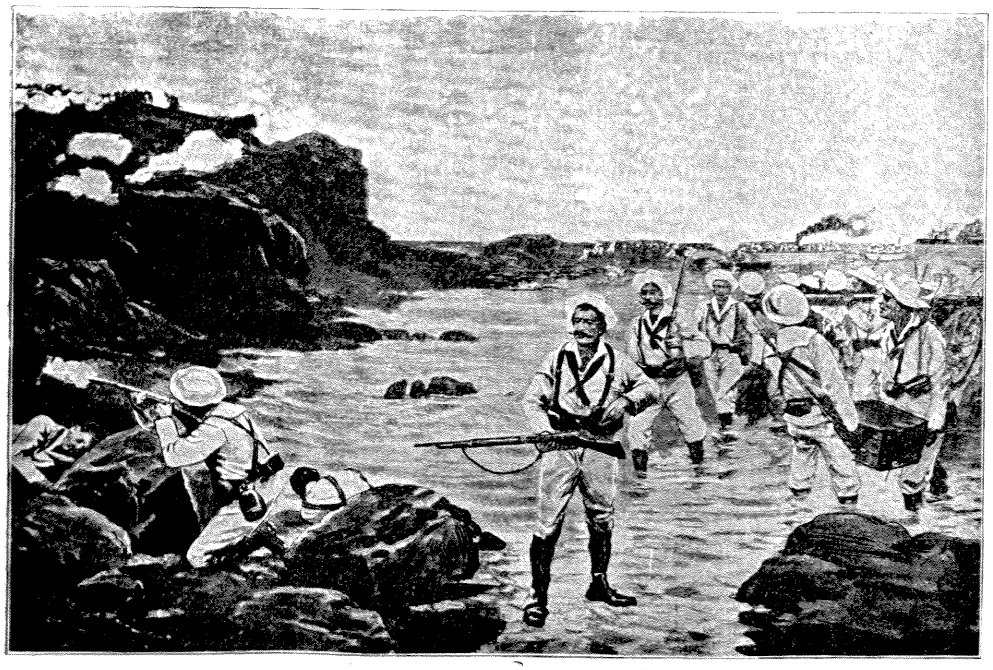


LOADING ARTILLERY ON SHIPS AT TAMPA.

HEROES IN THE HOLD.

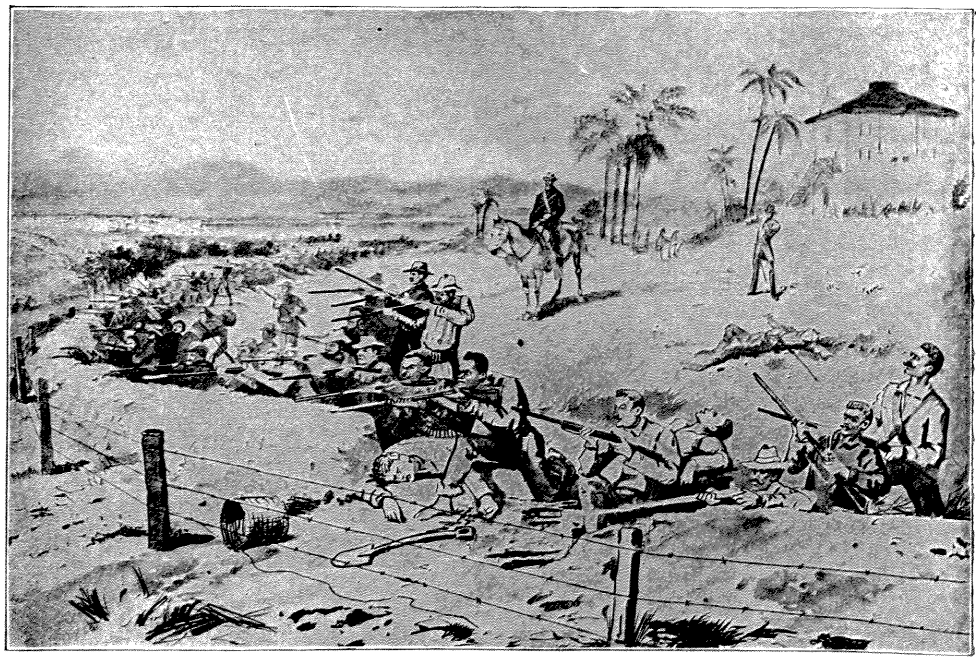


LANDING HORSES FROM TRANSPORT BOATS OFF SIBONEY.

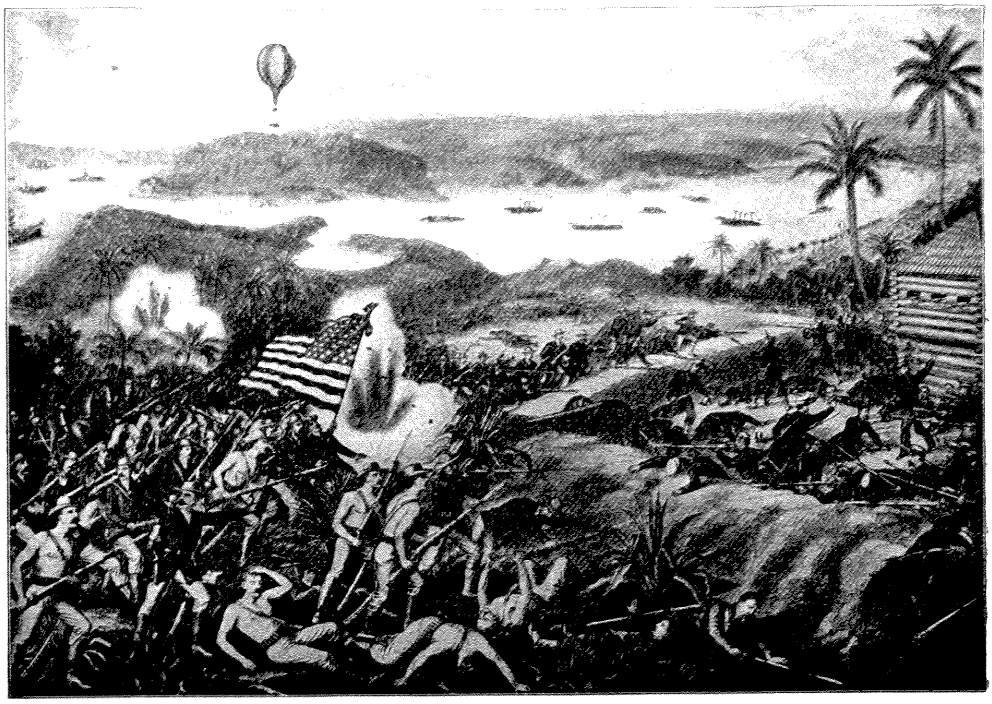


LANDING OF THE AMERICAN TROOPS AT CIENFUEGOS, CUBA.

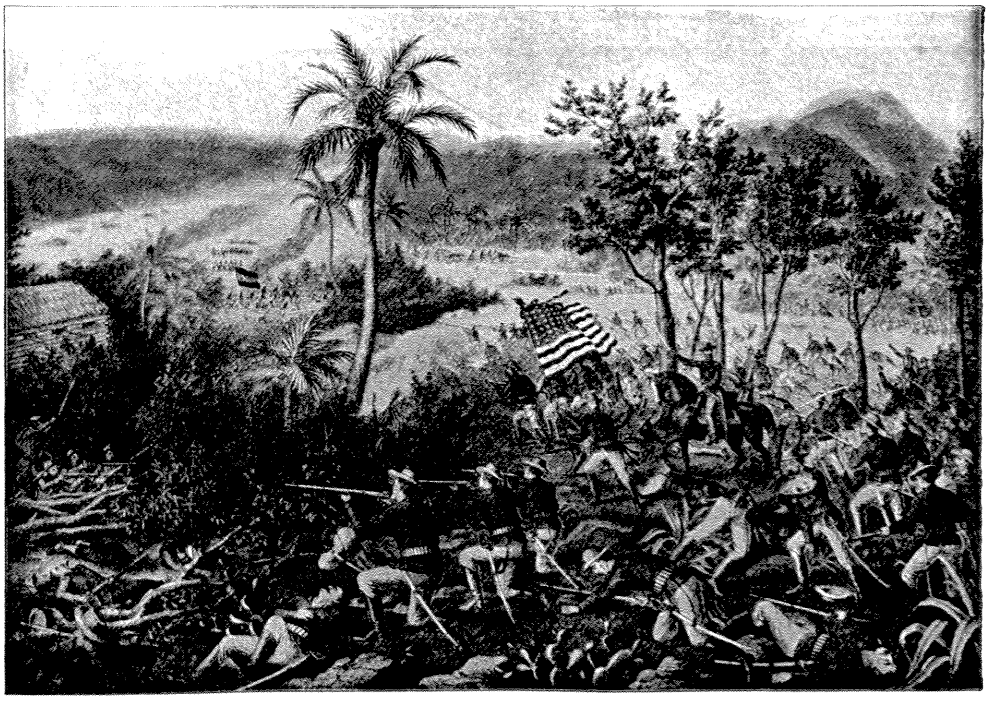
CHARGE OF TENTH CAVALRY (COLORED) AT SAN JUAN.

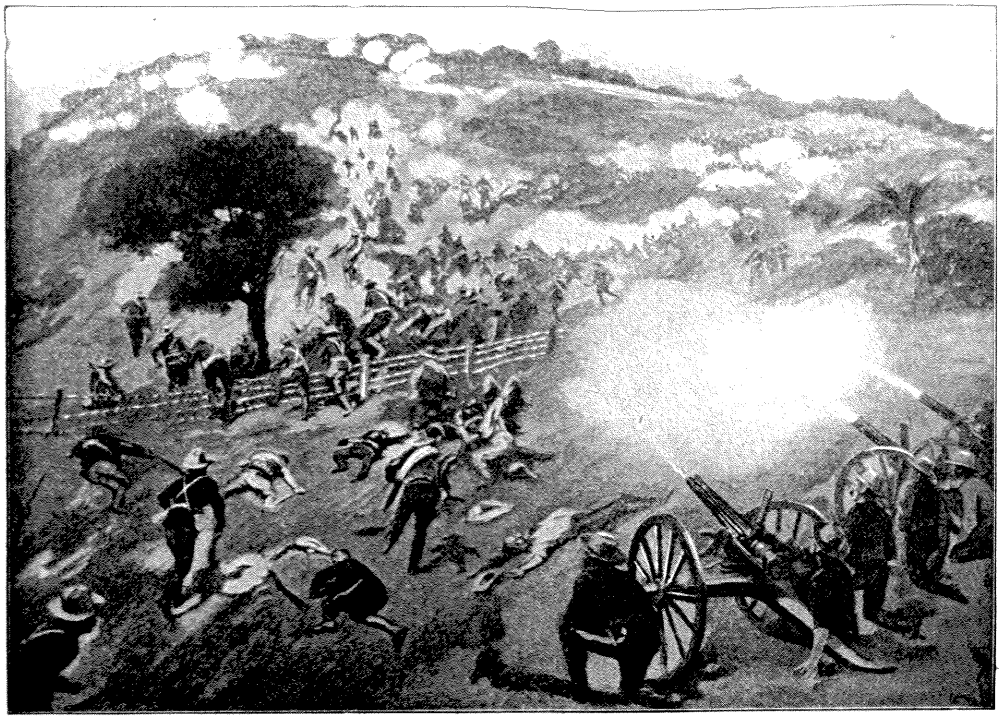


THE SPANISH DEFENSE OF SAN JUAN HILL.



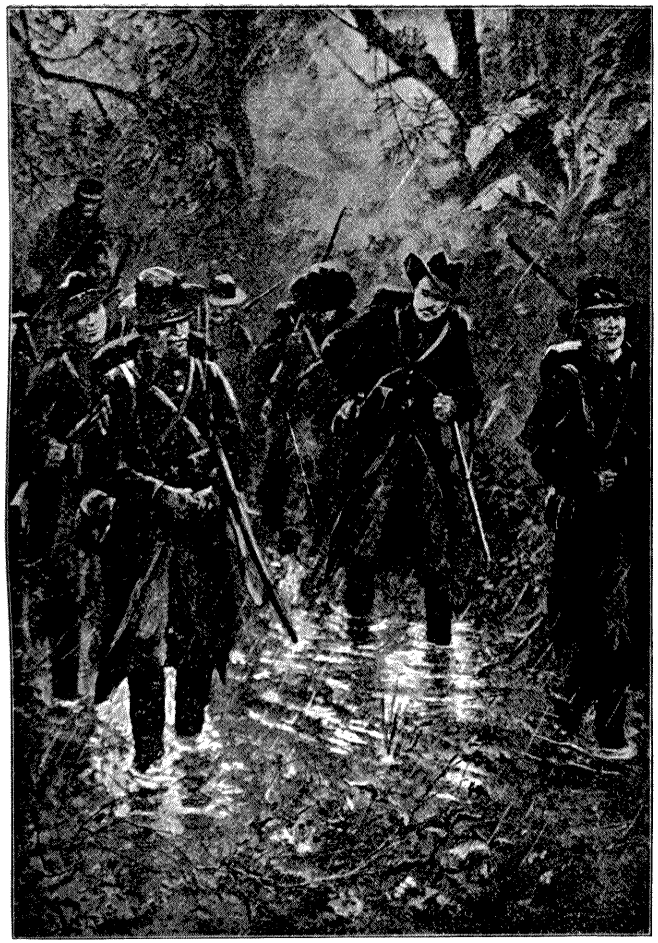
AMERICAN TROOPS CARRYING SPANISH EARTHWORKS AT EL CANEY.



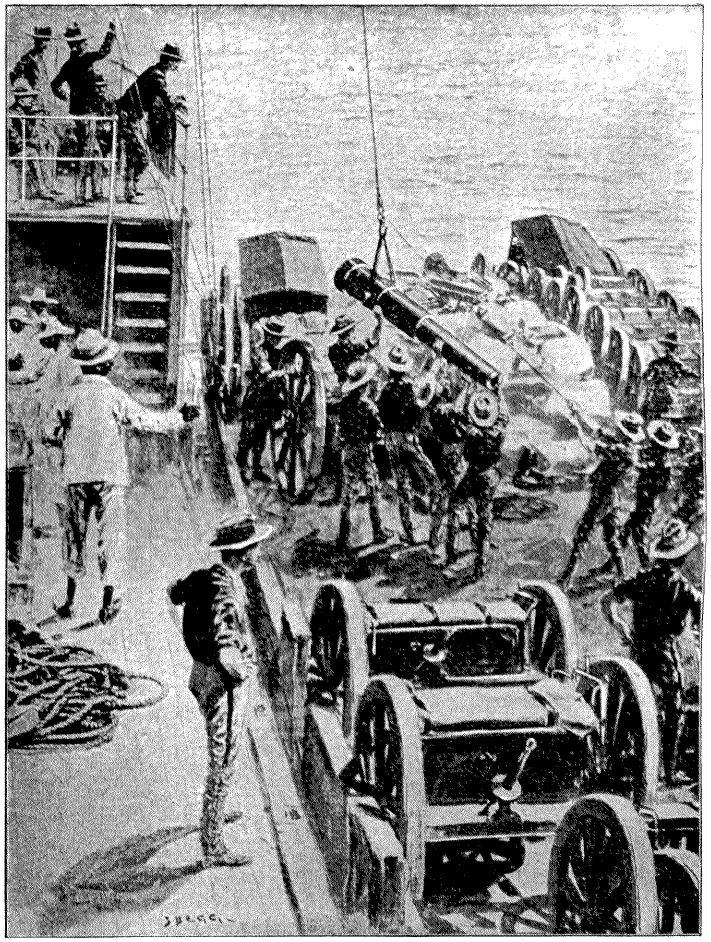


STORMING OF SAN JUAN HILL.

AMERICAN ADVANCE LINE BEFORE SANTIAGO.

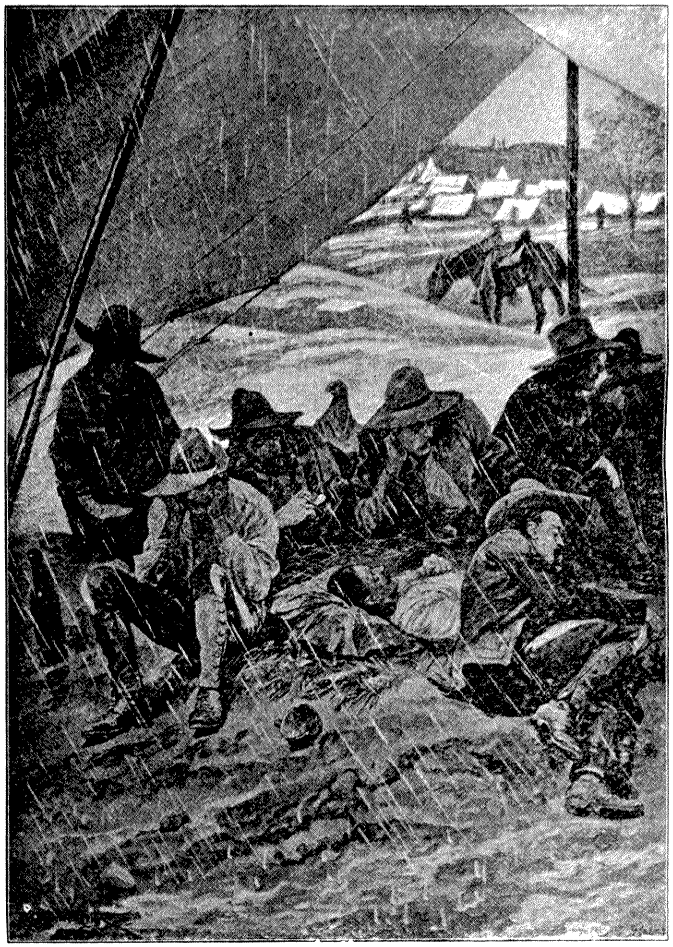


TROOPS IN CUBA DURING RAINY SEASON.

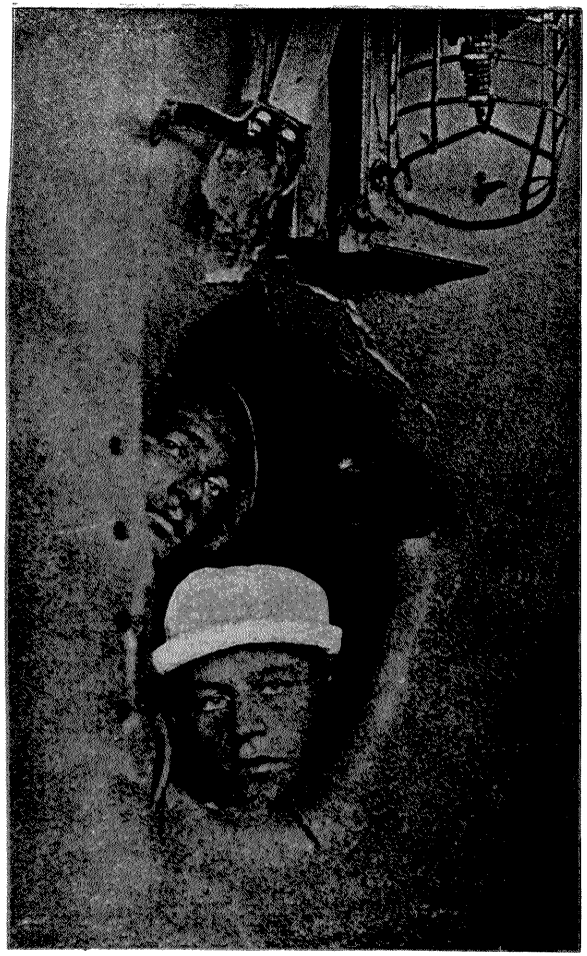


SHIPPING SIEGE GUNS AT TAMPA FOR CUBA.

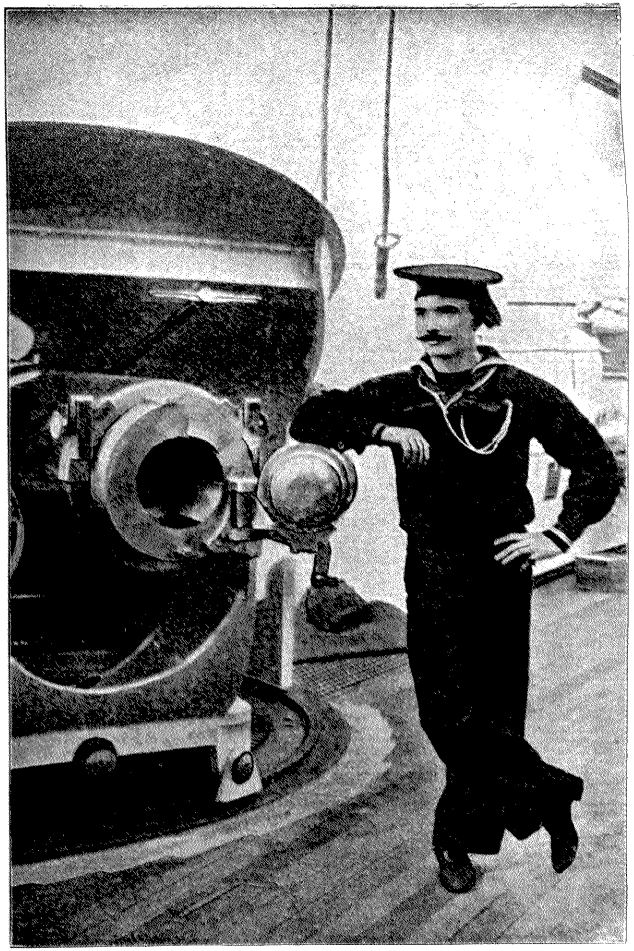
SPANISH SOLDIER TAKING OBSERVATIONS.



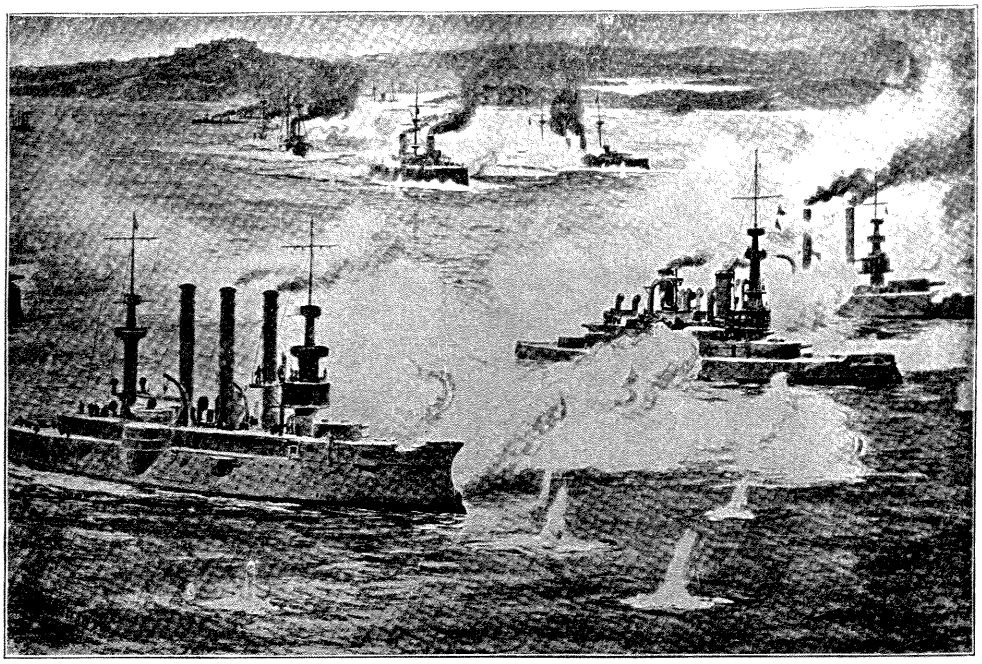
SOLDIERS IN CUBA DURING TROPICAL RAIN.



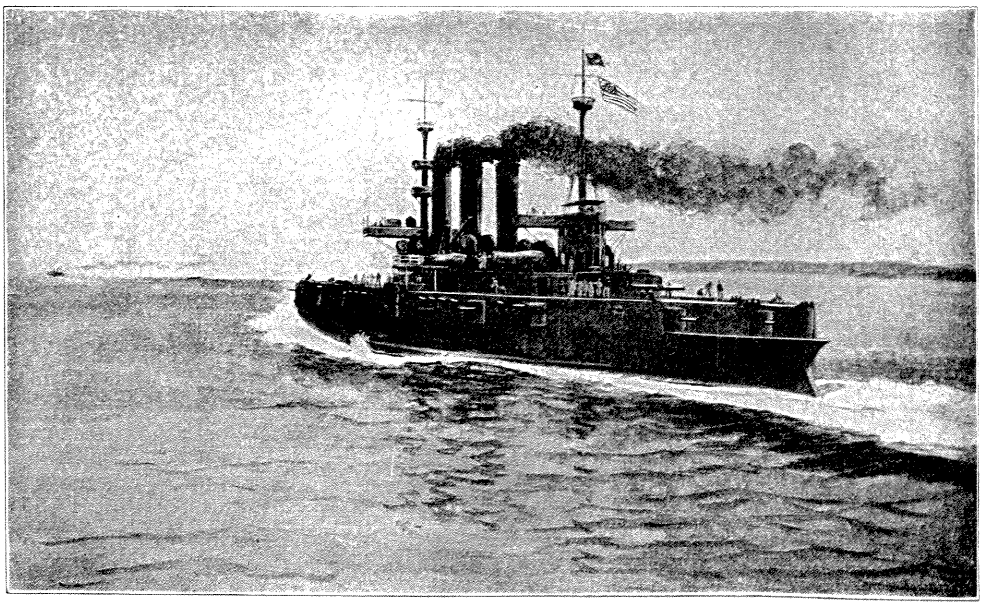
HOLE MADE BY SPANISH SHOT IN BATTLESHIP TEXAS.



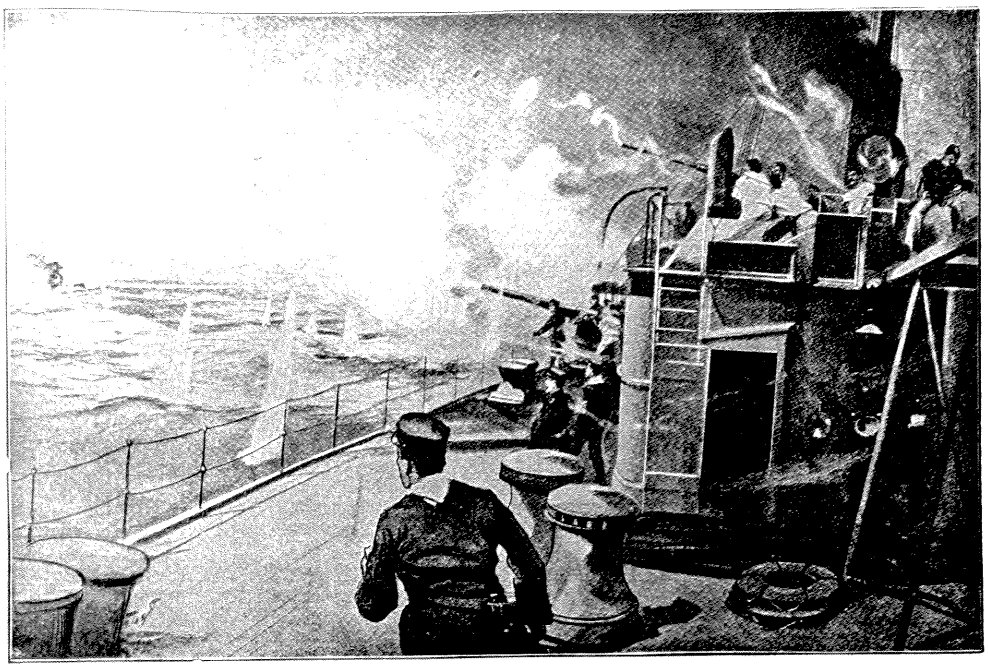
A YANKEE SAILOR AND A YANKEE GUN.



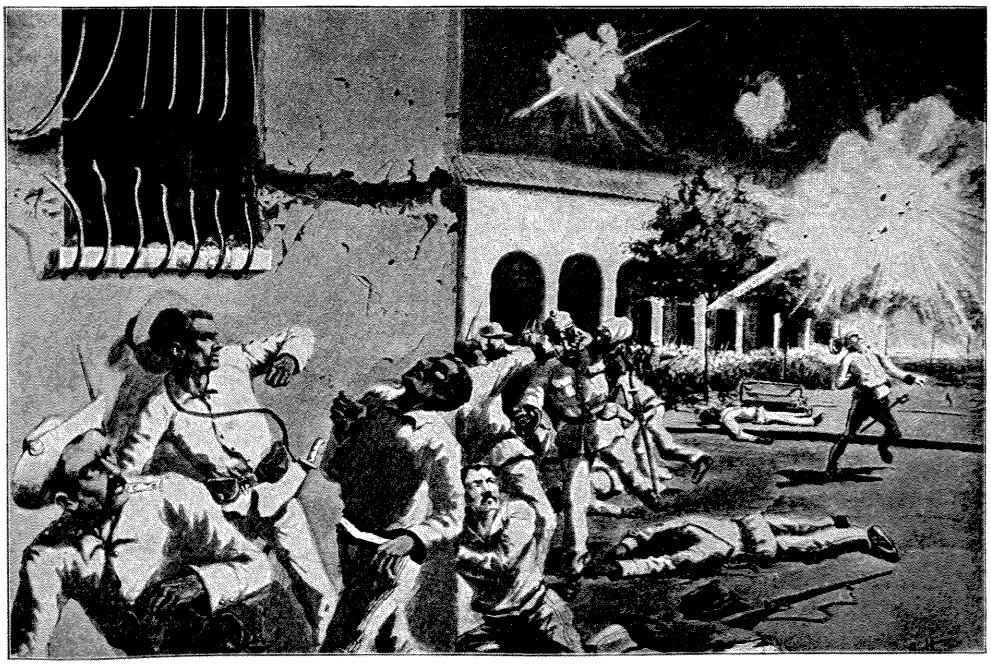
CERVERA'S SQUADRON COMING OUT OF SANTIAGO HARBOR.



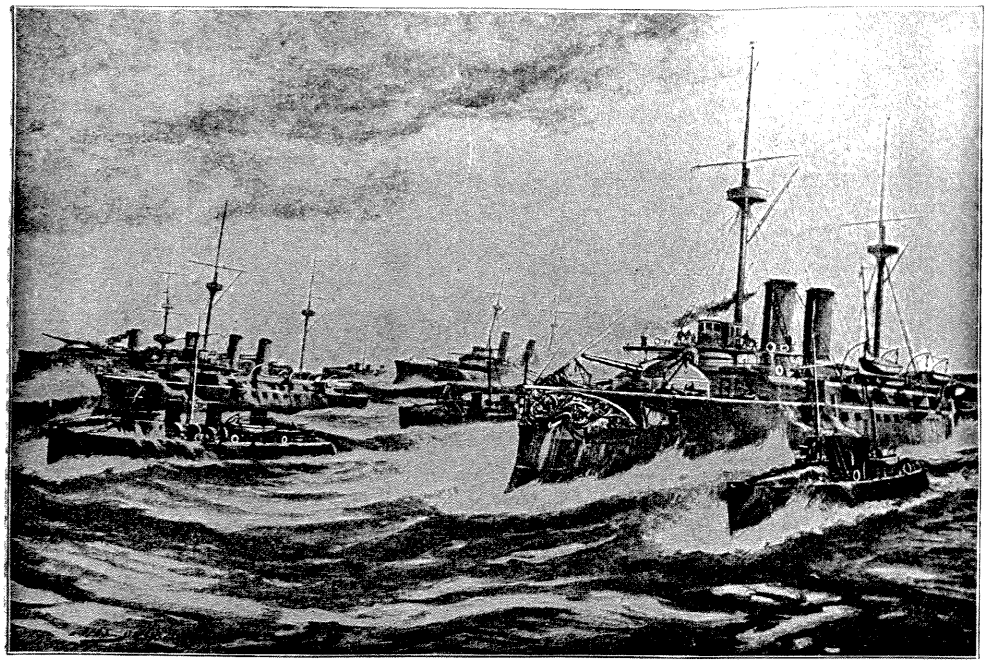
THE "BROOKLYN" CHASING THE "CRISTOBAL COLON" OFF SANTIAGO.



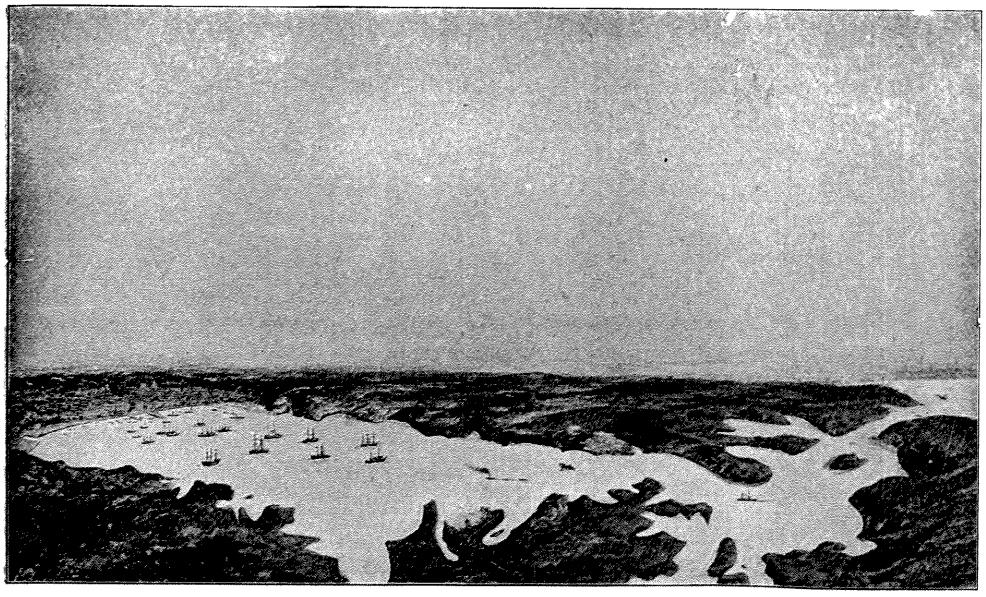
AUXILIARY CRUISER ST. PAUL.



SHELLS FROM SAMPSON'S SQUADRON BURSTING IN STREETS OF SANTIAGO.



SPANISH FLEET UNDER COMMAND OF ADMIRAL CERVERA.



THE HARBOR OF SANTIAGO DE CUBA.

The mineral resources are not very extensive. Gold is found in limited quantities. Some copper, lead, iron and coal are obtained. Lignite and yellow amber are found at Utuado and Moca. There are undeveloped resources of marble, limestone, and other building stone. The salt works at Guanica, Salinas, and Cape Rojo are under governmental control. Hot springs and mineral waters are found at Coamo, Juan Diaz, San Sebastian, San Lorenzo, and Ponce. The former is the most noted.

There is no public land in the Island of Porto Rico; therefore colonization must be undertaken there, as in Cuba, by private enterprise. The population of Porto Rico is very dense, and all the land has been taken. The royal ordinance of colonization and the "Ley de Extranjeria" (statute on aliens) do not grant concessions of land or offer any material inducement to immigration. Cuba and Porto Rico have not, therefore, any law tending to encourage foreign immigration, as is the case in most of the American countries; and, although foreigners are welcomed and their rights protected by law, no especial privileges are granted for settlement in those islands. The mining law in force in Porto Rico is the same as that of Cuba. After the mineral is found, titles may be obtained by applying to the civil government where the mine is located. In case the mine is situated on private land, forcible expropriation may be obtained, the corresponding indemnity having been paid. But little manufacturing was carried on under Spanish rule.

The island is divided into seven districts, and under Spanish sovereignty, its affairs were administered by a Captain-General, who was the civil as well as the military executive, appointed by the Crown, with representation in the Spanish Cortes or Parliament. In 1897, through a royal decree, the island was granted autonomous government, with a colonial parliament, the executive power being vested in a Governor-General, with department secretaries. Under the agreement with Spain for the conclusion of peace, Porto Rico was ceded to the United States, and was governed by the military commanders under the instructions of the United States War Department.

CITIES, TOWNS AND HARBORS.

Harbors are numerous along the coast of Porto Rico, but they are mostly unprotected from the trade winds on the northern side or filled

with sand on the western side. Nearly the whole of the north coast is lined with navigable lagoons, some of which are nearly ten miles in length. Of the 21 rivers, some are quite small, but there are several each of which is navigable for 5 or 6 miles from its mouth. A number of the bays and creeks are deep enough for vessels of considerable burden, but the north coast is subject to tremendous ground seas, which beat against the cliffs with great violence. The exporting ports are Mayaguez (San German) and Aguadilla on the west, and Guanica, Guayanilla and Puerto Ponce on the south. The eastern part of the island is, commercially, less important. The chief cities and towns are as follows:

San Juan, the capital of the island, is situated on a long and narrow island, separated from the main island at one end by a shallow arm of the sea, over which is a bridge connecting it with the mainland, which runs out at this point in a long sand spit, some nine miles in length, apparently to meet the smaller island; at the other end, the island ends in a rugged bluff or promontory, some hundred feet high and three-fourths of a mile distant from the main island. This promontory is crowned by Morro Castle, the principal fortification of the town. After rounding the bluff, one finds a broad and beautiful bay, landlocked and with a good depth of water, which is being increased by dredging. It is by far the best harbor in Porto Rico, and probably as good a one as can be found in the West Indies.

San Juan is a perfect specimen of a walled town, with portcullis, moat, gates and battlements. Built over two hundred and fifty years ago, it is still in good condition and repair. The walls are picturesque and represent a stupendous work and cost in themselves. Inside the walls, the city is laid off in regular squares, six parallel streets running in the direction of the length of the island and seven at right angles. There is no running water in the town. The entire population depends upon rain water, caught upon the flat roofs of the building and conducted to the cistern, which occupies the greater part of the inner courtyard that is an essential part of Spanish houses the world over, but that here, on account of the crowded conditions, is very small. There is no sewerage, except for surface water and sinks, while vaults are in every house and occupy whatever remaining space there may be in the patios not taken up by the cisterns. The risk of contaminating the water is very great, and in dry seasons the supply is entirely ex-

hausted. Epidemics are frequent, and the town is alive with vermin, fleas, cockroaches, mosquitoes and dogs. The streets are wider than in the older part of Havana, and will admit two carriages abreast. The sidewalks are narrow, and in places will accommodate but one person. The pavements are of a composition manufactured in England from slag, pleasant and even, and durable when no heavy strain is brought to bear upon them, but easily broken and unfit for heavy traffic. The streets are swept once a day by hand and are kept very clean. With proper sanitary conditions, the town would doubtless be healthful. Population within the walls, about 20,000.

Besides the town within the walls, there are small portions just outside, called the Marina and Porta de Tierra, containing 2,000 or 3,000 inhabitants each. There are also two suburbs—one, San Turce, approached by the only road leading out of the city, and the other, Cataño, across the bay, reached by ferry. The Marina and the two suburbs are situated on sandy points or spits, and the latter are surrounded by mangrove swamps. The entire population of the city and suburbs, according to the census of 1887, was 27,000. It is now estimated at 30,000. One-half of the population consists of negroes and mixed races. There is but little manufacturing, and that is of small importance.

The city of Ponce is situated on the south coast of the island, on a plain about two miles from the seaboard and seventy miles from San Juan. It is regularly built—the central part almost exclusively of brick houses and the suburbs of wood. It is the residence of the military commander and the seat of an official chamber of commerce. There is an appellate criminal court, besides other courts; two churches—one Protestant, said to be the only one in the Spanish West Indies—two hospitals besides the military hospitals, a home of refuge for the old and poor, a perfectly equipped fire department, a bank, a theater, three first-class hotels and gas works. The city has an ice machine, and there are 115 vehicles for public conveyance. The inhabitants, who number about 15,000, are principally occupied in mercantile pursuits; but carpenters, bricklayers, joiners, tailors, shoemakers and barbers find good employment. The department of Ponce counts about 40,000 inhabitants. The chief occupations of the people are the cultivation of sugar, cocoa, tobacco, and oranges, and the breeding of cattle. Commercially, Ponce is the second city of importance on the island.

A fine road leads to the port (Playa), where all the import and export trade is transacted. Playa has about 5,000 inhabitants, and here are situated the custom-house, the office of the captain of the port, and all the consular offices. The port is spacious and will hold vessels of 25 feet draft. The climate, on account of the sea breezes during the day and land breezes at night, is not oppressive, though warm; and as water for all purposes, including the fire department, is amply supplied by an aqueduct, it may be said that the city of Ponce is perhaps the healthiest place in the whole island.

Mayaguez, the third city in importance of the island, is situated in the west part, 102 miles from San Juan, facing what is generally known as the "Mona Channel." Of industries, there is little to be said, except that there are three manufactories of chocolate, which is for local consumption. Sugar, coffee, oranges, pineapples, and cocoanuts are exported largely, all except coffee principally to the United States. Of sugar, the muscovado goes to the United States and the centrifugal to Spain. Mayaguez is the second port for coffee, the average annual export being 170,000 hundredweight. The quality is of the best, ranging in price with Java and other first-rate brands. The lower grades are sent to Cuba. About 50,000 bags of flour are imported into this port every year from the United States, out of the 180,000 bags that are consumed in the whole island. The population is nearly 20,000, the majority white. The climate is excellent, the temperature never exceeding 90 degrees F. The city is connected by tram with the neighboring town of Aguadilla, and a railroad connects it with Lares, one of the large interior towns.

The city of Aguadilla, which is the principal town and the port of Aguadilla district, in the northwest portion of the island, has 5,000 inhabitants. It is 81 miles distant from San Juan. Industries in the vicinity consist of the cultivation of sugar cane, coffee, tobacco and cocoanuts and the distillation of rum from molasses. In the town are three establishments for preparing coffee for exportation. The climate is hot, but healthy. There is hardly ever yellow fever.

The town of Arecibo, from 6,000 to 7,000 inhabitants, is situated on the north coast of Porto Rico, facing the Atlantic Ocean, and some 50 miles distant by rail from San Juan. It is similar to all Spanish towns, with a plaza, surrounded by the church and other public buildings, in the center, and streets running from it in right angles, form-

ing regular squares. The buildings are constructed of wood and brick. The harbor is poor, being nothing more than an open roadstead exposed to the full force of the ocean, in which vessels during northerly winds can hardly lie in safety. Close in shore, on one side, dangerous reefs stretch, a constant menace to vessels if the anchor does not hold. Into this harbor empties a narrow and shallow stream called the Rio Grande de Arecibo. Goods are conveyed on this river to and from the town in flat-bottomed boats, with the aid of long poles and by dint of much pushing and patience. At the bar of the river everything is again transferred into lighters, and thence to vessels. It is a tedious and expensive process. However, Arecibo is quite an important port, and has tributary to it a large district of some 30,000 inhabitants. The want of good roads in the island makes such a place as Arecibo far more important that it would naturally be.

The town of Fajardo, on the east coast of the island, 36 miles from San Juan, has a population of 8,779. The port is handsome, with a third-class light-house at the entrance at the point called Cabezas de San Juan, and a custom-house open to universal commerce. The town is about a mile and a quarter from the bay. The only important industry of the district is the manufacture of muscovado sugar, to which most of the planters devote themselves. Shooks, hickory hoops, pine boards, and provisions come from the United States in considerable quantities. Sugar and molasses are exported, and occasionally tortoise shell. The climate is temperate and healthy.

Naguabo (on the east side) is a small town of only about 2,000 inhabitants, and in the harbor there is another smaller place called Playa de Naguabo, or Ucares, with about 1,500. The capital of the department, Humacao, is 9 miles from Naguabo and has 4,000 inhabitants, the district comprising more than 15,000.

Arroyo, in the district of Guayama (southeast portion), is a small seaport of about 1,200 inhabitants. The annual exports to the United States average 7,000 to 10,000 heads of sugar, 2,000 to 5,000 casks of molasses, and 50 to 150 casks and barrels of bay rum.

COMMERCE OF PORTO RICO.

The Estadistica General del Comercio Exterior, Porto Rico, 1897, gives the following figures (the latest published) in regard to the trade of the island in 1895:

IMPORTS OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.

Articles.	Value.*	Articles.	Value.*
Coal	$119,403	Flour	$982,222
Iron	224,206	Vegetables	192,918
Soap	238,525	Olive oil	327,801
Meat and lard	1,223,104	Wine	305,656
Jerked beef	133,616	Cheese	324,137
Fish	1,591,418	Other provisions	171,322
Rice	2,180,004	Tobacco (manufactured)	663,464

* United States currency.

EXPORTS OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.

Articles.	Value.*	Articles.	Value.*
Coffee	$8,789,788	Sugar	$3,747,891
Tobacco	646,556	Honey	517,746

* United States currency.

The value of the total imports was 16,155,056, against $18,316,971 for the preceding year. The exports were valued at $14,629,494, against $16,015,665 in 1894. The principal increases in imports, as compared with the preceding year, were in meats, fish, olive oil, and tobacco. Decreases were noted in flour, vegetables and wine. The exportation of coffee diminished, and that of sugar and honey increased.

The trade of the United States with Porto Rico during the last seven years, as given by the United States Treasury figures, was:

Description.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894	1895.	1896.	1897.
Imports:							
Free	$1,856,955	$3,236,337	$3,994,673	$3,126,895	$375,864	$48,608	$101,711
Dutiable	1,307,155	11,670	13,950	8,739	1,131,148	2,248,045	2,079,313
Total	$3,164,110	$3,248,007	$4,008,623	$3,135,634	$1,506,512	$2,296,653	$2,181,024
Exports:							
Domestic	$2,112,334	$2,808,631	$2,502,788	$2,705,646	$1,820,203	$2,080,400	$1,964,850
Foreign	42,900	47,372	7,819	14,862	13,341	21,694	24,038
Total	$2,155,234	$2,856,003	$2,510,607	$2,720,508	$1,833,544	$2,102,094	$1,988,888

The commerce of Spain with Porto Rico from 1891 to 1896 was:

Description	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
Imports from Porto Rico.	$3,260,650	$4,428,891	$4,108,654	$4,164,964	$5,824,694	$5,423,760
Exports to Porto Rico	3,305,243	3,929,186	4,653,023	5,535,027	8,572,549	7,328,880

The trade of Porto Rico with other countries of importance in 1895 (according to the Estadistica General del Comercio Exterior) was:

Country.	Imports.	Exports.
Cuba	$808,283	$3,610,936
England	1,765,574	1,144,555
France	251,984	1,376,087
Germany	1,368,595	1,181,396
Italy	19,619	589,045
Holland	325,301	3,246
Denmark	26,565	236,418
British West Indies	1,709,117	521,649
Danish West Indies	600	40,434
French West Indies	55	62,927

The United States, by the terms of the Spanish cession, also acquires a number of smaller islands belonging geographically to Porto Rico.

The Island of Vieque, or Crab Island, is the largest of these and is situated 13 miles east of Porto Rico, is 21 miles long and 6 miles wide. Its land is very fertile and adapted to the cultivation of almost all the fruits and vegetables that grow in the West Indies. Cattle are raised and sugar cultivated.

It has a population of some 6,000. The town of Isabel Segunda is on the north and the port is unsafe in times of northerly wind, like all the anchorages on that side; the few ports on the south are better, the best being Punta Arenas. Not long ago there were two importing and exporting houses on the island of Vieque, but on account of the long period of drought and the high duties on foreign imported goods, trade has decreased to local consumption only. All supplies are brought from San Juan, the majority being of American origin.

The other islands are Culebra, eight miles north of Vieques, and Polominos, on the east, and Cafa de Muerto, Mona and Monita on the south. Culebra is eight miles long by three and a half miles wide, and has a beautiful harbor. Mona is of volcanic origin and is inhabited by fishermen. Wild cattle, goats and swine are to be found there.

The population of Porto Rico is 814,000, of which 300,000 are negroes, 150,000 natives of Spain, and 15,000 French, German, English and Italians. The native population is about two-thirds whites, descendants of Spaniards, and one-third negroes, mixed blood and half-caste.

They made two attempts to gain their independence from Spain,

first in 1820 and again in 1868. The revolutionary spirit was again abroad during the last Cuban insurrection, but the revolt did not get beyond the secret stages.

Slavery was abolished in Porto Rico in 1873 and the day is observed by a national celebration.

The Porto Ricans are a polite, mild-mannered, affable people, but are of frail constitutions. They are among the most desirable of the peoples added to the population of the United States by the late war, and are rapidly adopting American manners and customs.

Knocking at the door.—Chicago Tribune.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

STORY OF THE ANNEXATION OF THE CROSS ROADS OF THE PACIFIC—THEIR TOPOGRAPHY, RESOURCES AND COMMERCIAL ACTIVITY.

THE annexation of the Hawaiian Islands was a war measure. At the moment of Admiral Dewey's victory in Manila Bay, the United States became an active power in the Pacific, and every consideration, naval and commercial, made it desirable that the American flag should float over this fertile group. Figuratively speaking, Hawaii was sitting on Uncle Sam's doorstep waiting to come in. The islands had offered themselves to the United States Government. It was not necessary to wage a war of conquest or open peaceful negotiations. All that was necessary was to pass a resolution of annexation.

Accordingly, on June 15th, the Newlands annexation resolution was passed by the House of Representatives by a vote of 209 to 91. The Senate passed the same resolution by a vote of 42 to 21, and President McKinley approved it July 7, 1898. The resolution is as follows:

[PUBLIC RESOLUTION—NO. 51.]

Joint resolution to provide for annexing the Hawaiian Islands to the United States.

Whereas, The Government of the Republic of Hawaii having, in due form, signified its consent, in the manner provided by its constitution, to cede absolutely and without reserve to the United States of America all rights of sovereignty of whatsoever kind in and over the Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies, and also to cede and transfer to the United States the absolute fee and ownership of all public, Government, or Crown lands, public buildings or edifices, ports, har-

bors, military equipment, and all other public property of every kind and description belonging to the Government of the Hawaiian Islands, together with every right and appurtenance thereto appertaining: Therefore,

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That said cession is accepted, ratified, and confirmed, and that the said Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies be, and they are hereby, annexed as a part of the territory of the United States and are subject to the sovereign dominion thereof, and that all and singular the property and rights hereinbefore mentioned are vested in the United States of America.

The existing laws of the United States relative to public lands shall not apply to such lands in the Hawaiian Islands; but the Congress of the United States shall enact special laws for their management and disposition: Provided, That all revenue from or proceeds of the same, except as regards such part thereof as may be used or occupied for the civil, military, or naval purposes of the United States, or may be assigned for the use of the local government, shall be used solely for the benefit of the inhabitants of the Hawaiian Islands for educational and other public purposes.

Until Congress shall provide for the government of such islands all the civil, judicial and military powers exercised by the officers of the existing government in said islands shall be vested in such person or persons and shall be exercised in such manner as the President of the United States shall direct; and the President shall have power to remove said officers and fill the vacancies so occasioned.

The existing treaties of the Hawaiian Islands with foreign nations shall forthwith cease and determine, being replaced by such treaties as may exist, or as may be hereafter concluded, between the United States and such foreign nations. The municipal legislation of the Hawaiian Islands, not enacted for the fulfillment of the treaties so extinguished, and not inconsistent with this joint resolution nor contrary to the Constitution of the United States nor to any existing treaty of the United States, shall remain in force until the Congress of the United States shall otherwise determine.

Until legislation shall be enacted extending the United States customs laws and regulations to the Hawaiian Islands the existing cus-

toms relations of the Hawaiian Islands with the United States and other countries shall remain unchanged.

The public debt of the Republic of Hawaii, lawfully existing at the date of the passage of this joint resolution, including the amounts due to depositors in the Hawaiian Postal Savings Bank, is hereby assumed by the Government of the United States; but the liability of the United States in this regard shall in no case exceed four million dollars. So long, however, as the existing Government and the present commercial relations of the Hawaiian Islands are continued as hereinbefore provided said Government shall continue to pay the interest on said debt.

There shall be no further immigration of Chinese into the Hawaiian Islands, except upon such conditions as are now or may hereafter be allowed by the laws of the United States; and no Chinese, by reason of anything herein contained, shall be allowed to enter the United States from the Hawaiian Islands.

The President shall appoint five commissioners, at least two of whom shall be residents of the Hawaiian Islands, who shall, as soon as reasonably practicable, recommend to Congress such legislation concerning the Hawaiian Islands as they shall deem necessary or proper.

Sec. 2. That the commissioners hereinbefore provided for shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

Sec. 3. That the sum of one hundred thousand dollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary, is hereby appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, and to be immediately available, to be expended at the discretion of the President of the United States of America, for the purpose of carrying this joint resolution into effect.

Approved, July 7, 1898.

Under Section 2, the President appointed as commissioners Hon. Shelby M. Cullom, Hon. John T. Morgan and Hon. Robert R. Hitt, representing the United States; President Sanford B. Dole and Hon. Walter F. Frear, representing Hawaii.

LOCATION: COMMERCIAL AND NAVAL IMPORTANCE.

The Hawaiian Islands, formerly known as the Sandwich Islands, are situated in the North Pacific Ocean, and lie between longitude 154

degrees 40 minutes and 160 degrees 30 minutes west from Greenwich, and latitude 22 degrees 16 minutes and 18 degrees 55 minutes north. They are thus on the very edge of the tropics, but their position in mid-ocean and the prevalence of the northeast trade winds give them a climate of perpetual summer without enervating heat. The group occupies a central position in the North Pacific, 2,089 nautical miles southwest of San Francisco; 4,640 from Panama; 3,800 from Auckland, New Zealand; 4,950 from Hongkong, and 3,440 from Yokohama. Its location gives it great importance from a military as well as from a commercial point of view.

Broadly speaking, Hawaii may be said to lie about one-third of the distance on the accustomed routes from San Francisco to Japanese and Chinese ports; from San Francisco to Australia; from ports of British Columbia to Australia and British India, and about halfway from the Isthmus of Panama to Yokohama and Hongkong. The construction of a ship canal across the isthmus would extend this geographical relation to the ports of the Gulf of Mexico and of the Atlantic Seaboard of North and South America. No other point in the North Pacific has such a dominating relation to the trade between America and Asia, as a place of call and depot of supplies for vessels.

From a naval standpoint, Hawaii is the great strategic base of the Pacific. Under the present conditions of naval warfare, created by the use of steam as a motive power, Hawaii secures to the maritime nation possessing it an immense advantage as a depot for the supply of coal. Modern battleships, depending absolutely upon coal, are enabled to avail themselves of their full capacity of speed and energy only by having some halfway station in the Pacific where they can replenish their stores of fuel and refit. A battleship or cruiser starting from an Asiatic or Australian port, with the view of operating along the coast of either North America or South America, is unable to act effectively for any length of time at the end of so long a voyage unless she is able to refill her bunkers at some point on the way. On the other hand, the United States, possessing Hawaii, is able to advance its line of defense 2,000 miles from the Pacific coast, and, with a fortified harbor and a strong fleet at Honolulu, is in a position to conduct either defensive or offensive operations in the North Pacific to greater advantage than any other power.

AREA AND POPULATION.

For practical purposes, there are eight islands in the Hawaiian group. The others are mere rocks, of no value at present. These eight islands, beginning from the northwest, are named Niihau, Kauai, Oahu, Molokai, Lanai, Kahoolawe, Maui and Hawaii. The areas of the islands are:

	Square Miles.
Niihau	97
Kauai	590
Oahu	600
Molokai	270
Maui	760
Lanai	150
Kahoolawe	63
Hawaii	4,210
Total	6,740

As compared with States of the Union, the total area of the group approximates most nearly to that of the State of New Jersey—7,185 square miles. It is more than three times that of Delaware—2,050 square miles.

The islands that interest an intending immigrant are Hawaii, Maui, Oahu and Kauai. It is on these islands that coffee, fruits, potatoes, corn and vegetables can be raised by the small investor.

The island of Hawaii is the largest in the group, and presents great varieties of soil and climate. The windward side, which includes the districts of North Kohala, Hamakua, Hilo and Puna is copiously watered by rains, and in the Hilo district the streams rush impetuously down every gulch or ravine. The leeward side of the island, including South Kohala, North and South Kona, and Kau, is not exposed to such strong rains, but an ample supply of water falls in the rain belt. The Kona district has given the coffee product a name in the markets of the world. On this island are now situated numerous sugar plantations. Coffee employs the industry of several hundred owners. There are thousands of acres uncultivated and only awaiting the enterprise of the temperate zone to develop them.

Maui is also a very fine island. Besides its sugar plantations it

has numerous coffee lands, especially in the eastern part, which are just now being opened up. The western slopes of Haleakala, the main mountain of Maui, are covered with small farms, where are raised potatoes, corn, beans and pigs. Again, here, thousands of acres are lying fallow.

The Island of Oahu presents excellent opportunities for the investor. Many acres of land remain undeveloped among its fertile valleys, the energies of the population having been devoted to the development of the sugar lands on the larger islands. A line of railroad runs along the coast to a distance of 30 miles from the city. This railroad opens up rich coffee and farming lands and affords ready means of transport for the produce and an expeditious method for obtaining the necessary supplies from the capital.

Kauai is called the "Garden Island," it is so well watered and so luxuriant in vegetation. The island is largely devoted to the cultivation of sugar. Rice also cuts a considerable figure in the agricultural production of Kauai. That it can produce coffee is undoubted. Some forty years ago, the experiment of a coffee plantation was tried, and, owing to misjudgment of location and soil, failed. Since then, the cultivation of coffee has come to be more thoroughly understood.

THE CITY OF HONOLULU.

On Oahu is the capital, Honolulu. It is a city numbering 30,000 inhabitants, and is pleasantly situated on the south side of the Island. The city extends a considerable distance up Nuuanu Valley, and has wings extending northwest and southeast. Except in the business blocks, every house stands in its own garden, and some of the houses are very handsome.

The city is lighted with electric light, there is a complete telephone system, and tramcars run at short intervals along the principal streets and continue out to a sea-bathing resort and public park, four miles from the city. There are numerous stores where all kinds of goods can be obtained. The public buildings are attractive and commodious. There are numerous churches, schools, a public library of over 10,000 volumes, Y. M. C. A. Hall, Masonic Temple, Odd Fellows' Hall and theatre. There is frequent steam communication with San Francisco, once a month with Victoria (British Columbia), and twice a month with New Zealand and

the Australian Colonies. Steamers also connect Honolulu with China and Japan. There are three evening daily papers published in English, one daily morning paper and two weeklies. Besides these, there are papers published in the Hawaiian, Portuguese, Japanese and Chinese languages, and also monthly magazines in various tongues.

CENSUS OF 1897.

United States Consul-General Mills, of Honolulu, under date of February 8, 1897, transmitted to the Department of State the official figures showing the result of the census of the Hawaiian Islands, which had just been completed. The Hawaiians head the list with a total of 31,019. The Japanese colonization comes next, with the Chinese a close third. The official table, as prepared at the census office, is:

Nationality.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Hawaiian	16,399	14,620	31,019
Part Hawaiian	4,249	4,236	8,485
American	1,975	1,111	3,086
British	1,406	844	2,250
German	866	566	1,432
French	56	45	101
Norwegian	216	162	378
Portuguese	8,202	6,989	15,191
Japanese	19,212	5,195	24,407
Chinese	19,167	2,449	21,616
South Sea Islanders	321	134	455
Other nationalities	448	152	600
Total	72,517	36,503	109,020

TOPOGRAPHY AND CLIMATE.

The Hawaiian Islands are of volcanic formation, and there are two active volcanoes on Hawaii—Kilauea and Mauna Loa. The altitude of Mauna Kea, the highest point on Hawaii, is 13,805 feet. The mountains on other islands range from 4,000 to 5,000 feet. The topography is broken and diversified, with many valleys and streams. The mountain sides abound in forests, containing an abundance of ship timber and many ornamental woods. Among the minerals that have been noticed are sulphur, pyrites, common salt, sal ammoniac, limonite,

quartz, augite, chrysolite, garnet, labradorite, feldspar, gypsum, soda alum, copperas, glauber salts, niter and calcite.

"In the Hawaiian Islands," says a pamphlet of the Hawaiian Government, "Americans and Europeans can and do work in the open air at all seasons of the year, as they can not in countries lying in the same latitudes elsewhere. To note an instance, Calcutta lies a little to the north of the latitude of Kauai, our most northerly island, and in Calcutta the American and European can only work with his brain; hard physical labor he can not do and live. On the Hawaiian Islands, he can work and thrive."

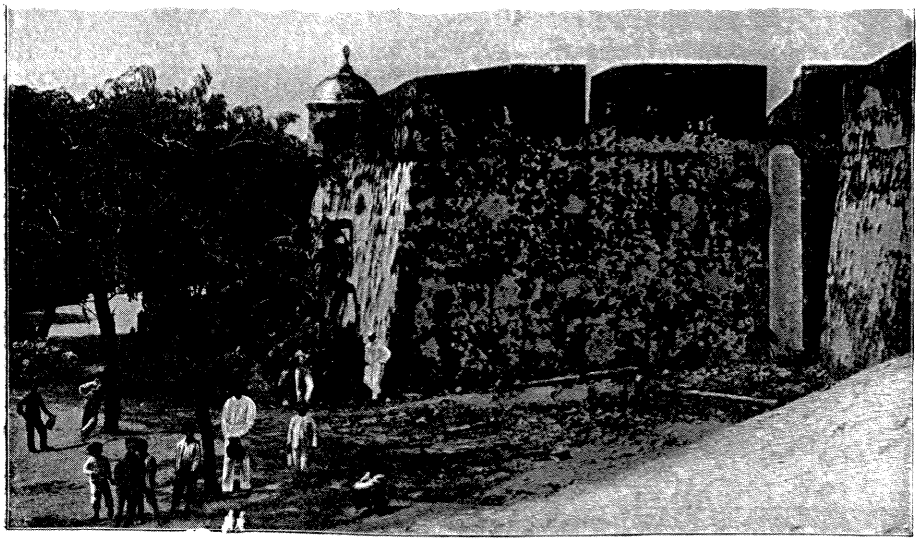
The rainfall varies, being greater on the windward side of the islands, and increasing up to a certain elevation. Thus, at Olaa, on the Island of Hawaii, windward side and elevation of about 2,000 feet, the rainfall from July 1, 1894, to June 30, 1895, was 176.82 inches, while at Kailua, on the leeward side, at a low level, it was only 51.21 inches during the same period.

The temperature also varies according to elevation and position. On the Island of Hawaii, one can get any climate from the heat of summer to actual winter at the summits of the two great mountains. A meteorological record, kept carefully for a period of twelve years, gives 89 degrees as the highest and 54 degrees as the lowest temperature recorded, or a mean temperature of 71.5 degrees for the year. A case of sunstroke has never been known. People take no special precautions against the sun, wearing straw and soft felt hats similar to those worn in the United States during the summer months.

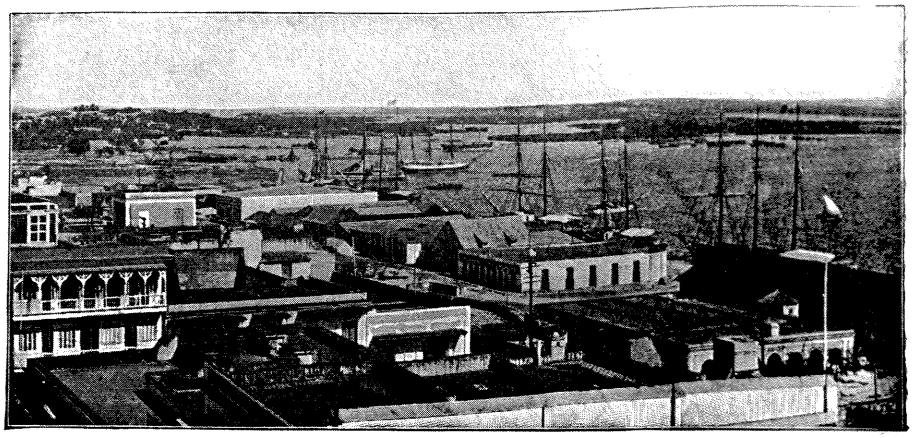
The prevailing winds are the northeast trades. These blow for about nine months of the year. The remainder of the period the winds are variable and chiefly from the south. The islands are outside the cyclone belt, and severe storms accompanied by thunder and lightning are of rare occurrence.

The islands possess a healthful climate. There are no virulent fevers such as are encountered on the coast of Africa or in the West India Islands. Epidemics seldom visit the islands, and when they do they are generally light. A careful system of quarantine guards the islands now from epidemics from abroad.

THE QUAYS, SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO.

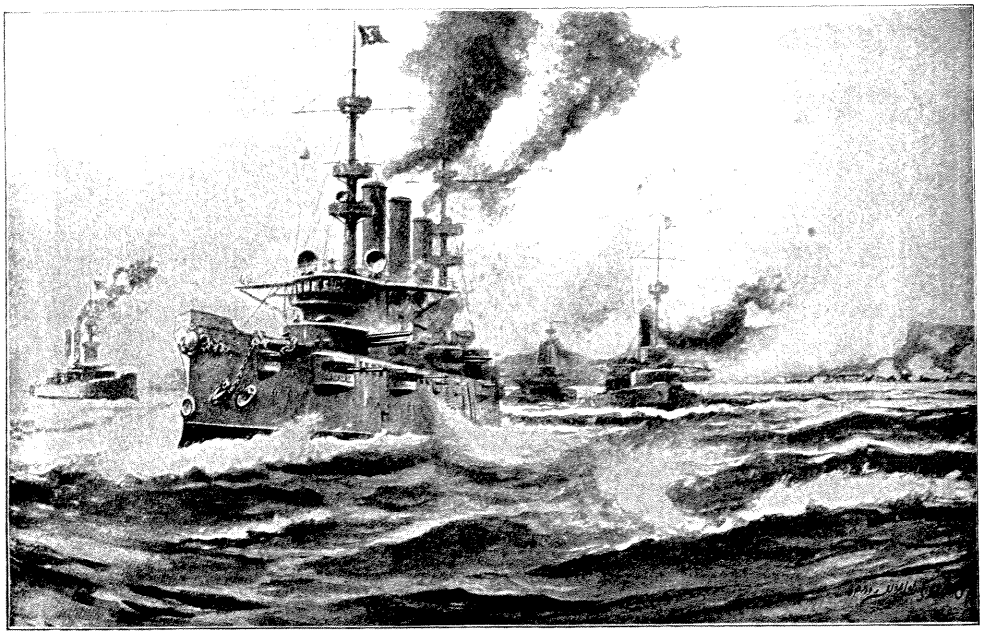


THE OLD SEA WALL, SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO.



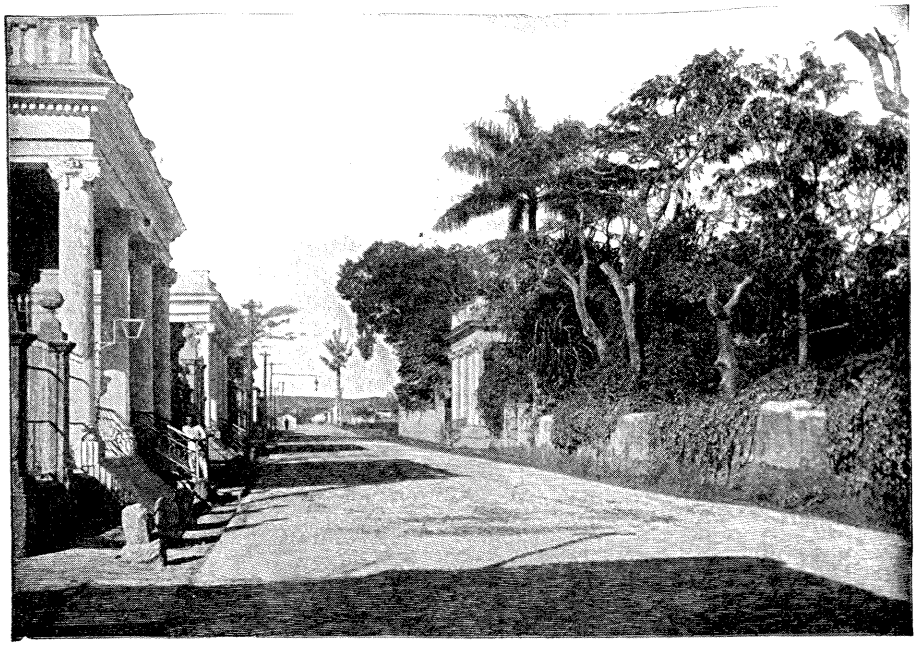
PANORAMA OF THE HARBOR OF SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO.

STREET OF THE CROSS, SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO.

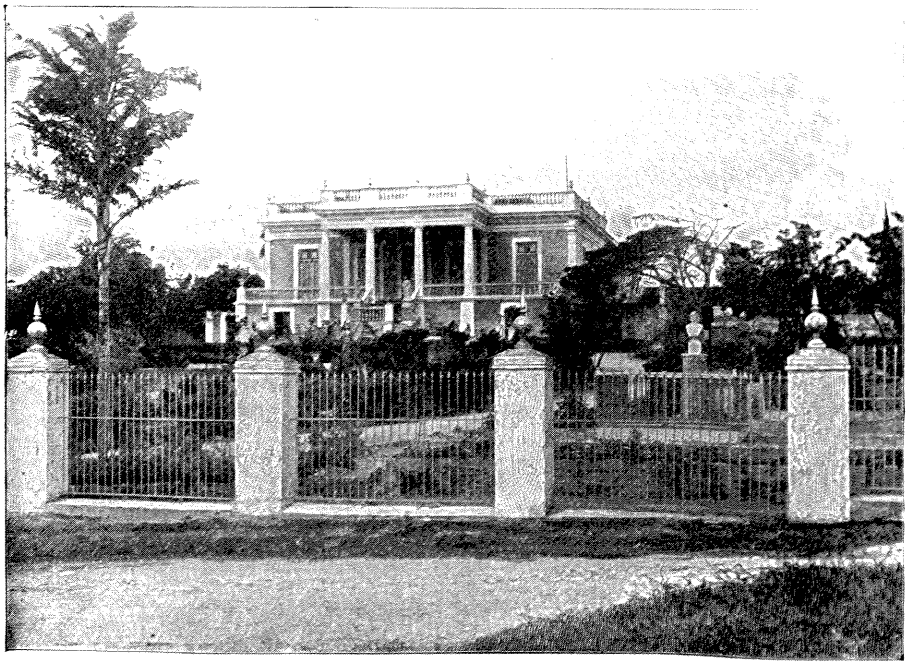


BOMBARDMENT OF SAN JUAN, PORTO RICO.

HOISTING OLD GLORY.

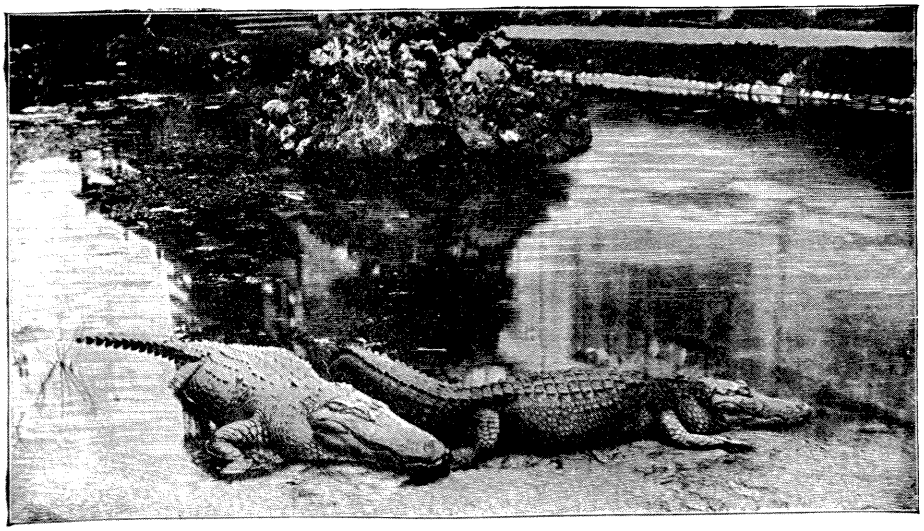


DRIVE TO THE BELLAMOR CAVES, MATANZAS.

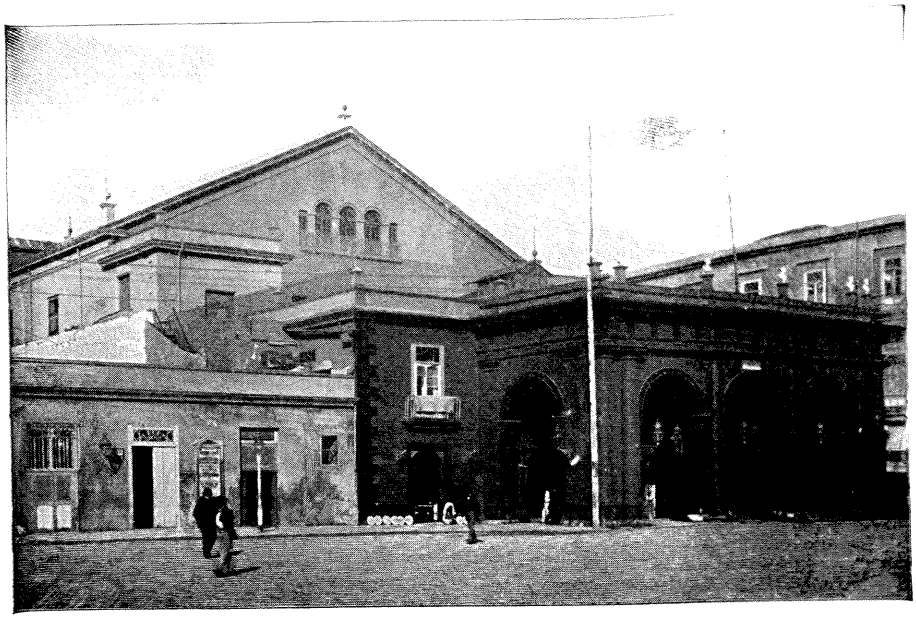


VILLA, NEAR MATANZAS.

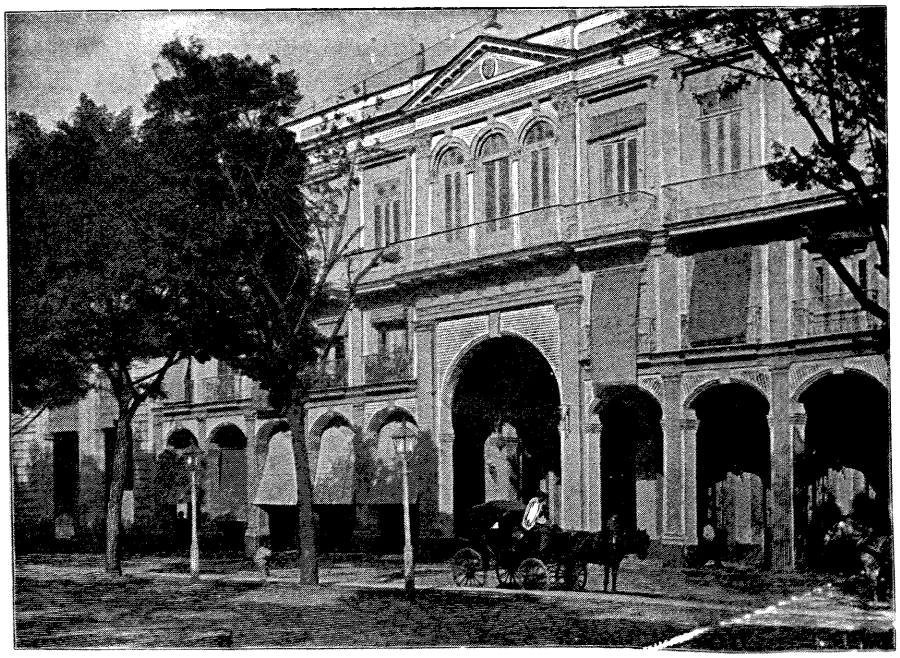
A TROPICAL PLANTER'S HOME, IN CUBA.



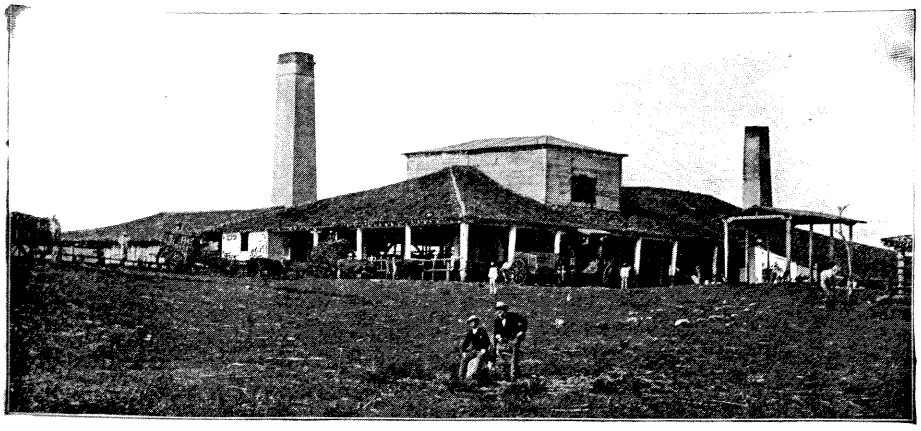
NATIVES OF CUBA.



TACON THEATRE, HAVANA.

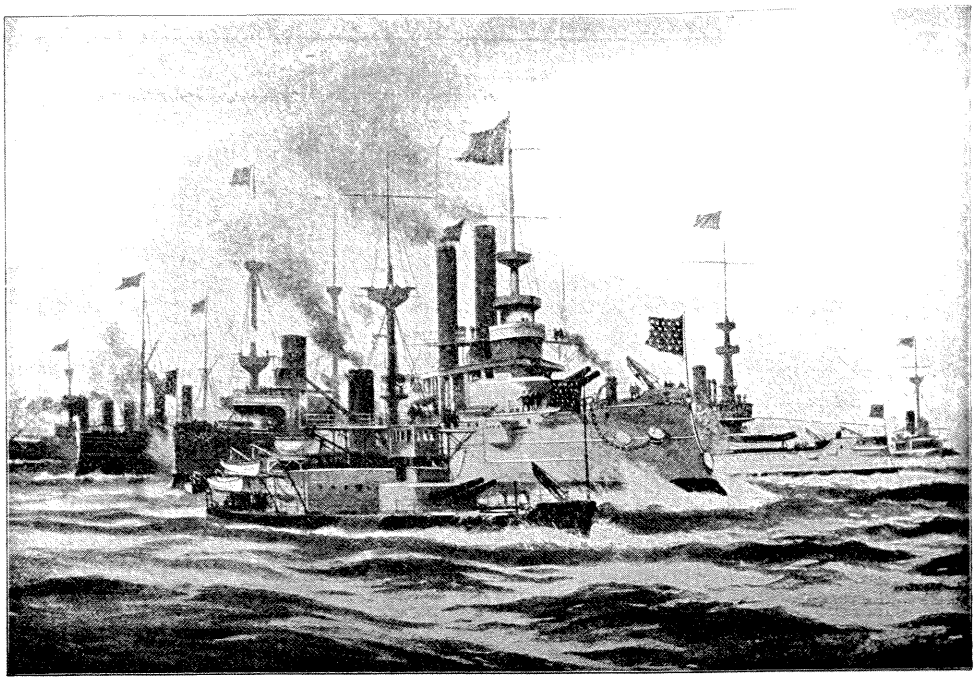


PASAGE HOTEL, HAVANA.



CRUSHING MILL, ON THE SUGAR PLANTATION.

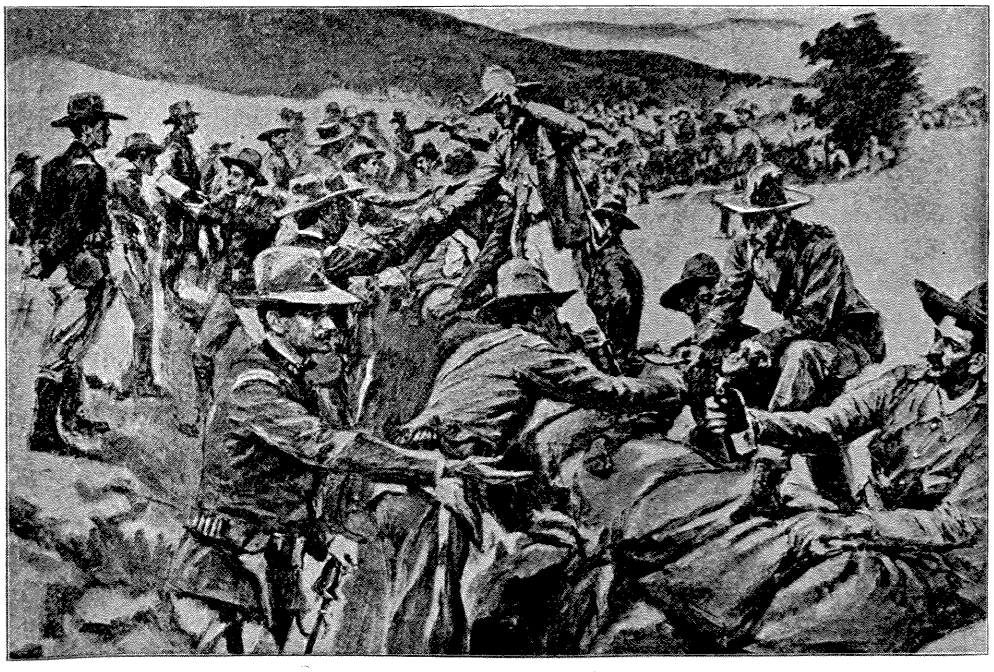
A CUBAN VOLANTE.



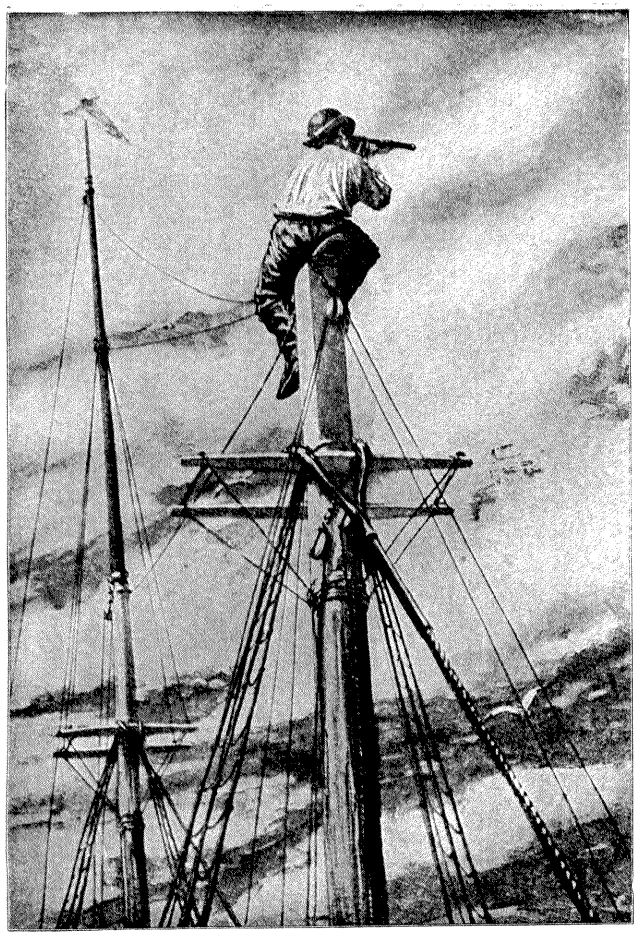
VESSELS OF THE NORTH ATLANTIC SQUADRON.

SPANISH SOLDIERS FORCING PASSAGE OF A SWAMP IN CUBA.

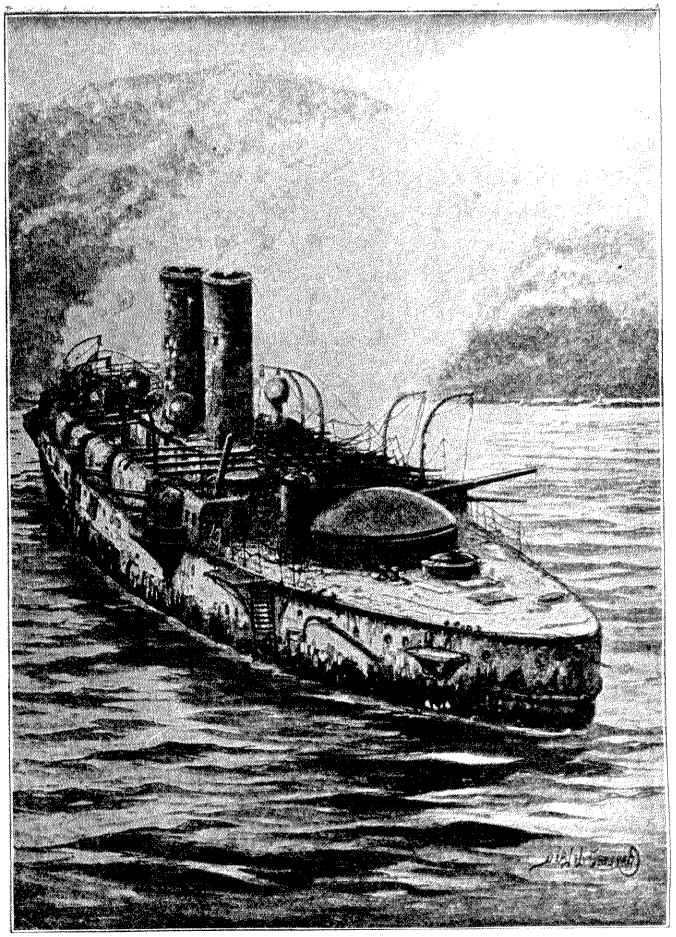
SPANISH OUTPOSTS IN CUBA.



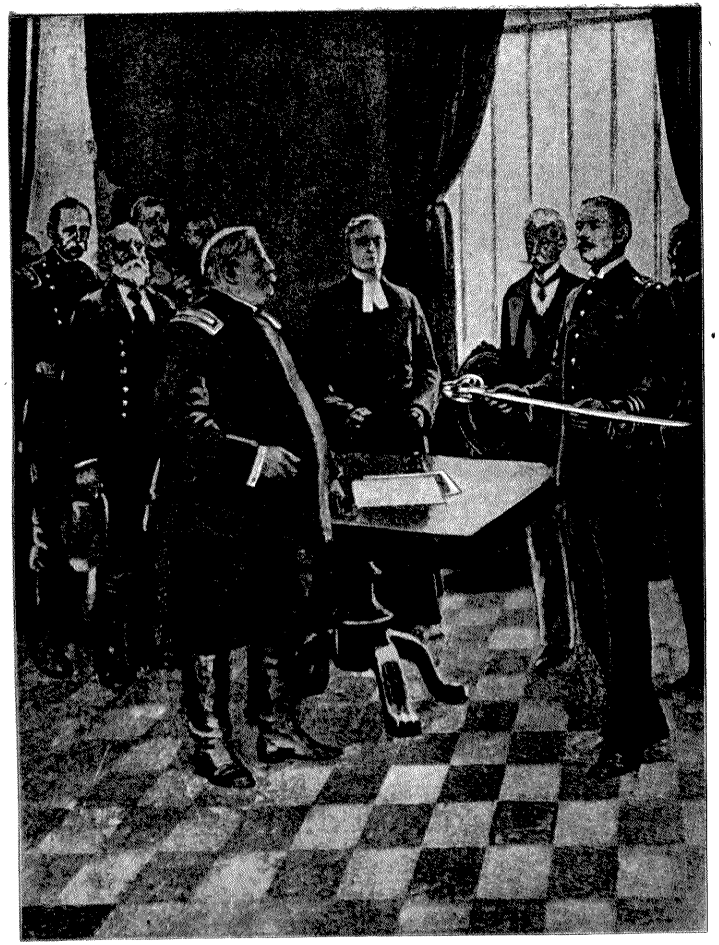
FRIENDLY GREETING BETWEEN AMERICAN AND SPANISH SOLDIERS AFTER SURRENDER OF SANTIAGO.



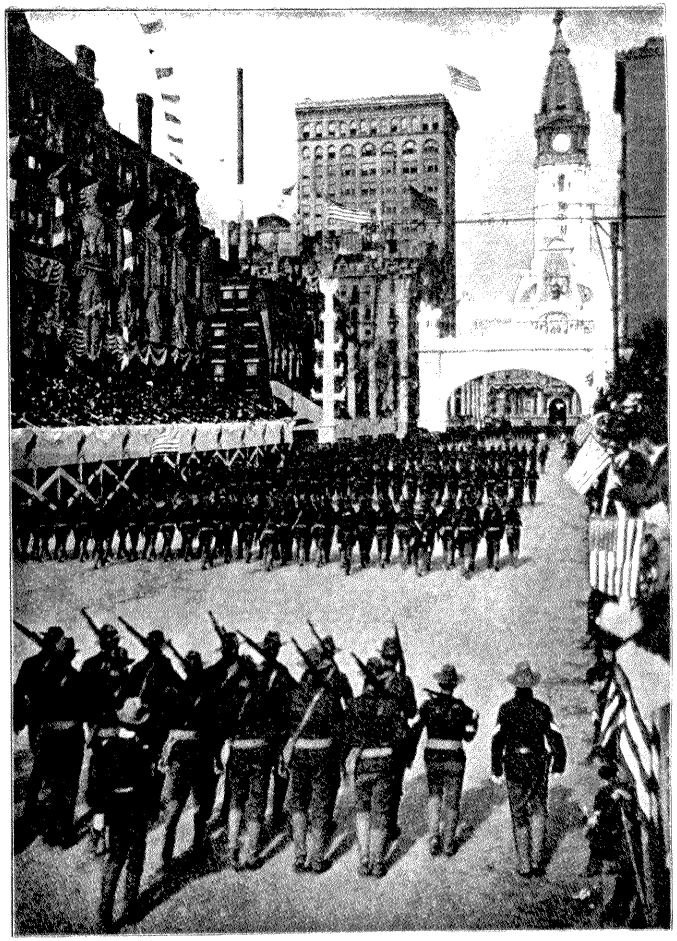
ON WATCH FOR SPANISH VESSELS



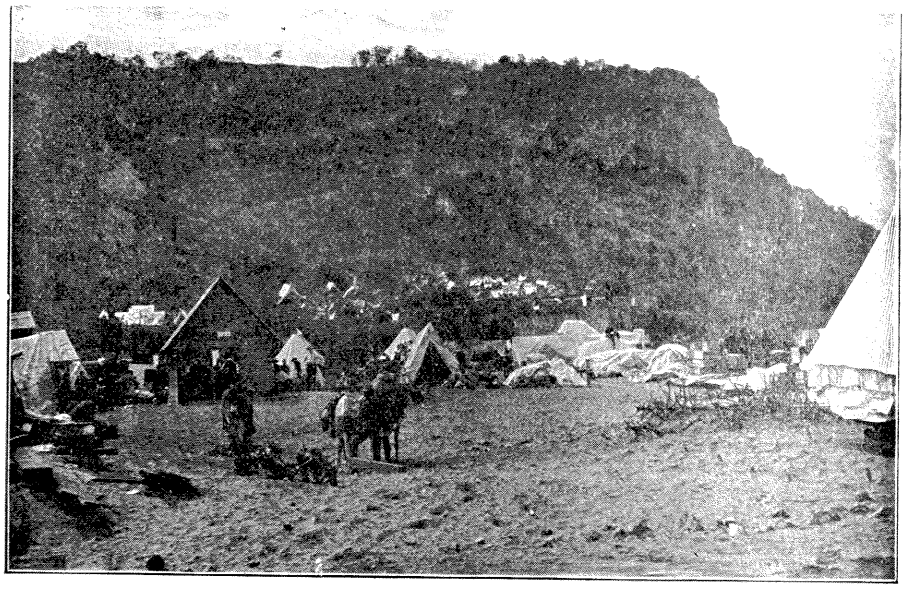
SPANISH WAR VESSEL OQUENDO AFTER THE BATTLE OF SANTIAGO.



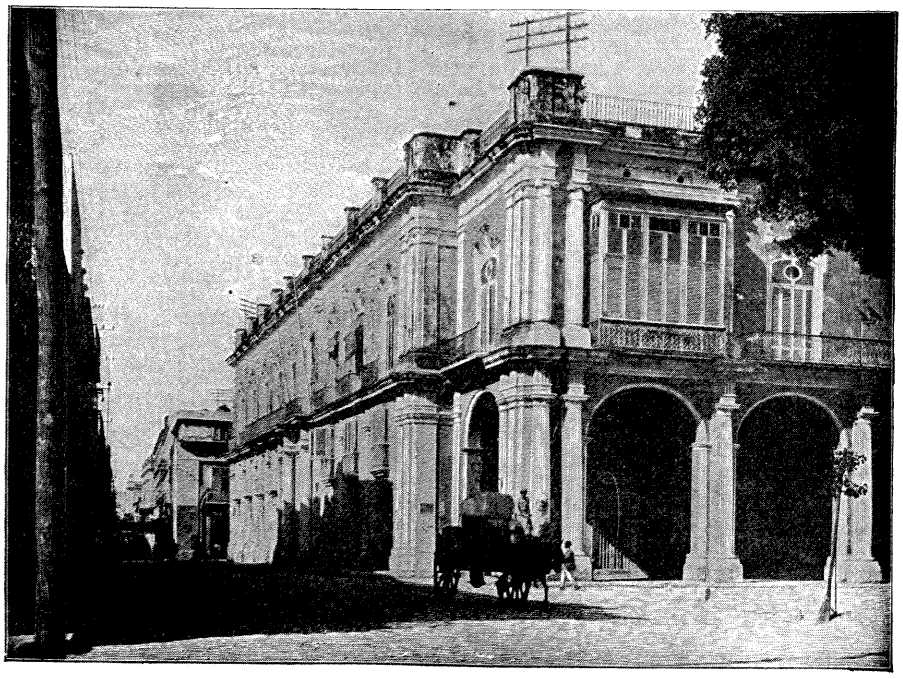
THE FALL OF SANTIAGO.



PHILADELPHIA'S MAGNIFICENT PEACE JUBILEE.

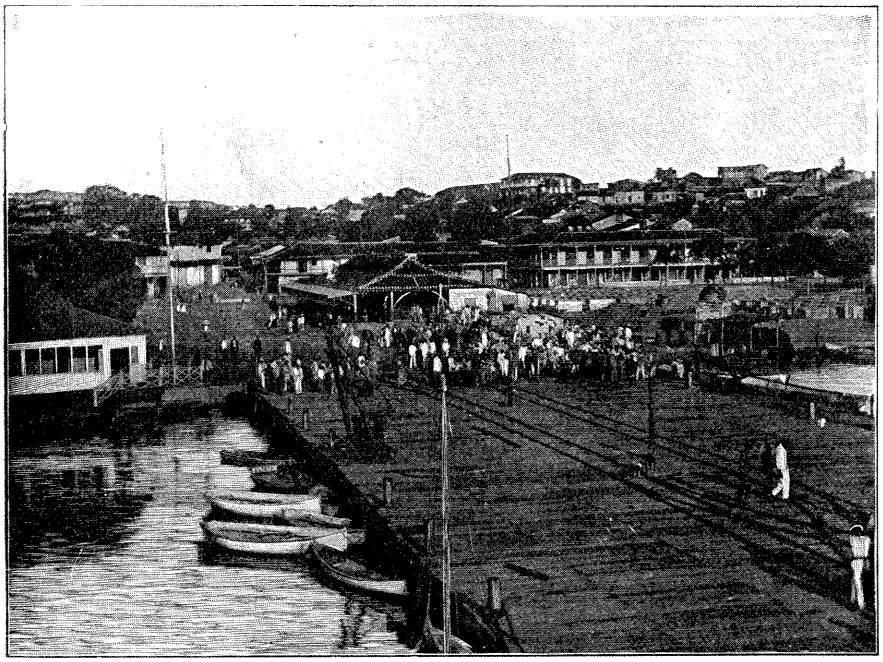


SIBONEY—CAMP OF ARMY ENGINEERS ENGAGED IN BUILDING A DOCK AND OPERATING THE SHORE RAILROAD.



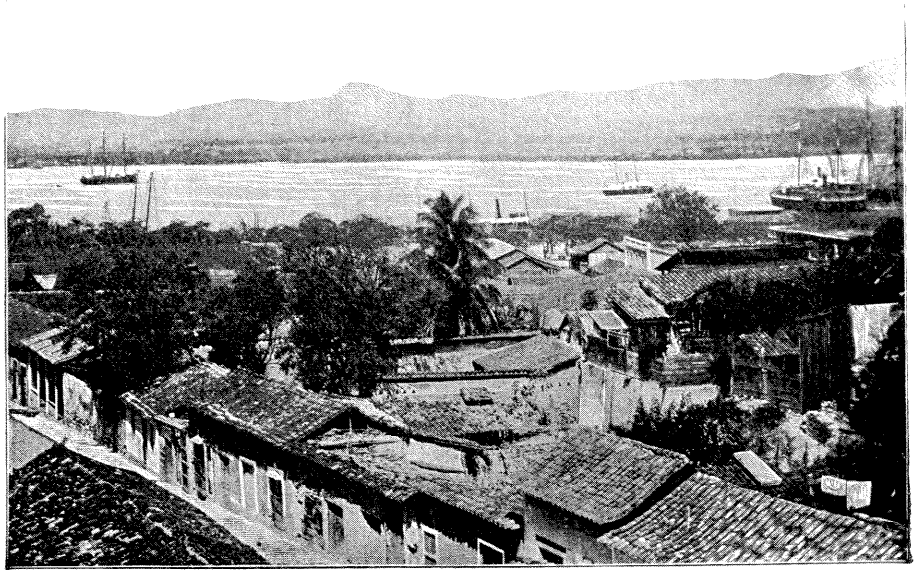
GOVERNOR-GENERAL'S PALACE, OBISPO STREET, HAVANA, CUBA.

PRIMITIVE AGRICULTURE IN THE WEST INDIES—A CUBAN PLOWMAN.

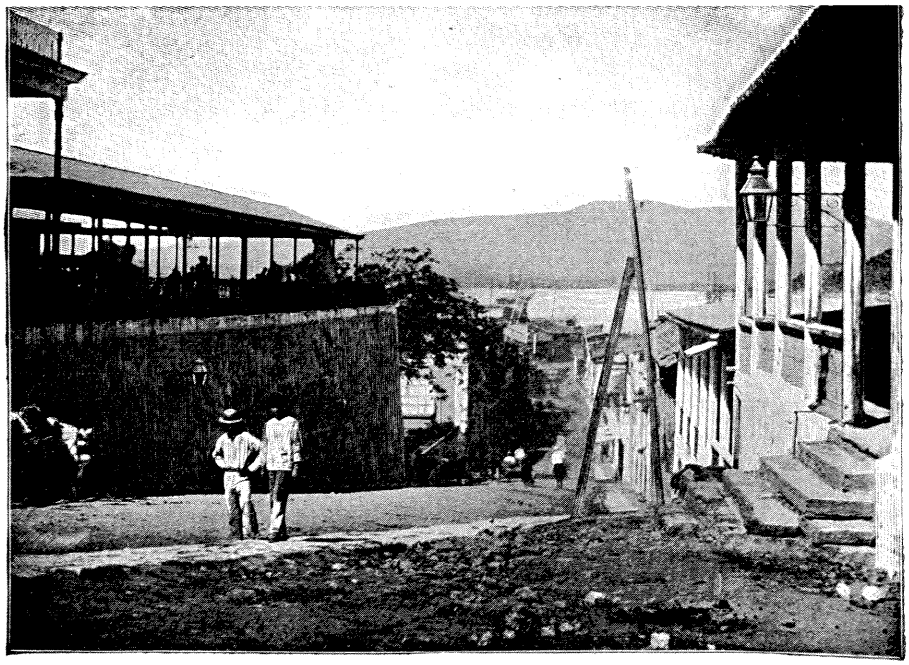


THE RED CROSS DOCK AT SANTIAGO.

Spanish Soldiers Waiting for Distribution of Rations—Governor's Palace on the Hill in the Background.

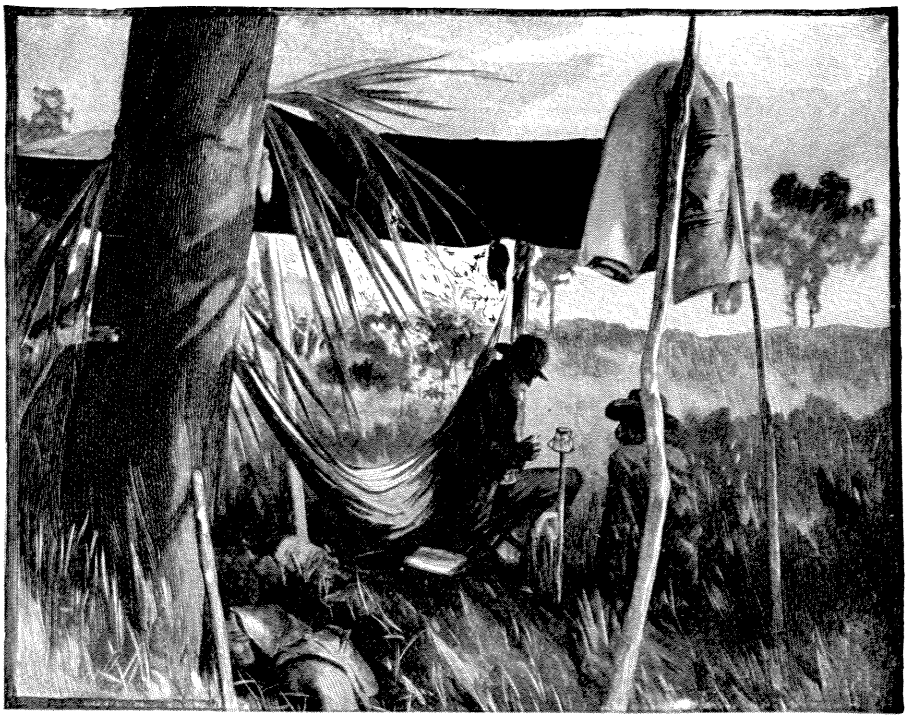


VIEW OF THE HARBOR OF SANTIAGO, CUBA.



STREET SCENE, SANTIAGO.

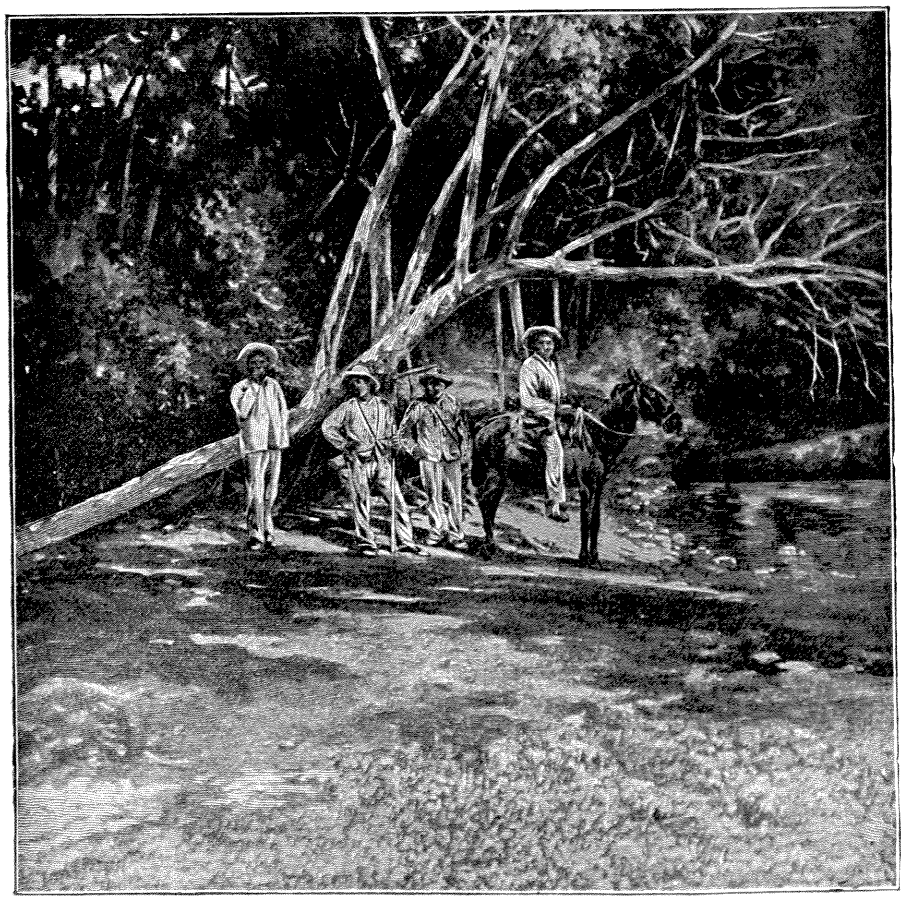
A CUBAN SCOUT.



GOMEZ, THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF, EXPLAINS HIS TACTICS.

"The Spaniards never do know where I am—and when they do know I am gone."

OUTSKIRTS OF GOMEZ'S CAMP.



CUBAN GUIDE AND ESCORT.

AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES.

The pamphlet entitled "The Republic of Hawaii," issued by the Department of Foreign Affairs of the islands in 1896, gives a full account of the agricultural resources of the country, with interesting details as to the coffee industry, from which the following matter is extracted: The mainstay of the islands, it says, has for the last thirty-five years been the sugar industry. From this source a large amount of wealth has been accumulated. But the sugar industry requires large capital for expensive machinery, and has never proved remunerative to small investors. An attempt has been made at profit-sharing, and has met with some success, the small farmer cultivating and the capitalist grinding at a central mill. The small farmer has been steadily developing in the Hawaiian Islands, and attention has been given to other products than sugar.

Rice neither the European nor the American can cultivate as laborers. It requires working in marshy land, and though on the islands it yields two crops a year, none but the Chinaman can raise it successfully. A dry-land or mountain rice has been introduced.

The main staple, after sugar and rice, is coffee. Of this, hundreds of thousands of trees have been planted out within the last five years. This is essentially the crop of the future, and bids fair to become as important a staple as sugar. Coffee does not require the amount of capital that sugar does, and it can be worked remuneratively upon a small area. It is estimated that at the end of the fourth year the return from a 75-acre coffee plantation will much more than pay the running expenses, while from that time on a return of from $8,000 to $10,000 per annum may be realized.

Fruits can also be cultivated to advantage. At present, the banana trade of the islands amounts to over 100,000 bunches per annum, valued at over $100,000, and the quantity might be very easily quadrupled. The banana industry may be regarded as in its infancy. The export of the fruit is only from the Island of Oahu, but there are thousands of acres on the other islands of the group which could be profitably used for this cultivation and for nothing else. The whole question of the banana industry hinges on the market.

Limes and oranges can be cultivated and the fruit can be easily

packed for export. The fruits can be raised to perfection. The Hawaiian orange has a fine flavor, and the Hawaiian lime is of superior quality. In the uplands of Hawaii and Maui potatoes are raised. Their quality is good. Corn is also raised. In these industries many Portuguese, Norwegians and others have embarked. Both these products find an ample local market. The corn is used largely for feed on the plantations. The corn is ground with the cob, and makes an excellent feed for working cattle, horses, and mules.

In the uplands where the climate is temperate, as at Waimea, Hawaii, vegetables of all kinds can be raised; excellent cauliflowers, cabbages, and every product of the temperate zone can be grown to perfection.

Cattle raising in so small a place as the Hawaiian Islands does not present great opportunities except for local consumption. Pigs are profitable to the small farmer. In the Kula district of Maui, pigs are fattened upon the corn and potatoes raised in the district. The price of pork, dressed, is 25 cents per pound in Honolulu and about 15 cents per pound in the outside districts. The Chinese, of whom there are some 20,000 resident on the various islands, are extremely fond of pork, so that there is a large local market, which has to be supplemented by importations from California.

Attention has lately been given to fiber plants, for which there are many suitable locations. Ramie grows luxuriantly, but the lack of proper decorticating and cleaning machinery has prevented any advance in this cultivation.

Sisal hemp and sanseveira have been experimented with, but without any distinct influence upon the trade output.

The cultivation of pineapples is a growing industry. In 1895, "pines" were exported from the islands to San Francisco to the value of nearly $9,000.

The guava, which grows wild, can also be put to profit for the manufacture of guava jelly. It has never been entered upon on a large scale, but to the thrifty farmer it would add a convenient addition to his income, just as the juice of the maple adds an increase to the farmer of the Eastern States. Well-made guava jelly will find a market anywhere. In England it is regarded as a great delicacy, being imported from the West India Islands.

In the Hawaiian Islands a simple life can be lived, and entering

gradually upon the coffee industry, a good competence can be obtained long before such could be realized by the agriculturalist in less favored countries.

There is no finer coffee in the world, it is asserted, than that of the Hawaiian Islands. The trees require care and do not produce a crop until the third year; but they remain till the fifth year to make a proper realization upon the investment. In the Hawaiian Islands coffee grows best between 500 and 2,600 feet above the sea level, though there are cases in which it has done well close to the sea. It requires a loose, porous soil, and does not thrive well in heavy clayey ground which holds much water. Of such heavy land there is very little in the Hawaiian Islands. The soil is generally very porous.

It is very evident that coffee will thrive and give good results in varying conditions of soil and degrees of heat. In these islands it grows and produces from very nearly at the sea level to the elevation of 2,600 feet. The highest elevation of bearing coffee known in the islands is twenty-five miles from the town of Hilo and in the celebrated Olaa district.

For years it was thought that coffee would grow to advantage only in the Kona district of Hawaii. Practical experiment has shown that it can be grown with success in almost any part of the islands.

FOREIGN COMMERCE.

The United States practically monopolizes the trade of Hawaii.

The following tables show the exports and imports for 1894 and 1895:

EXPORTS.

Whither exported.	1894.	1895.
United States	$8,997,069.27	$8,392,189.54
Australia and New Zealand.	5,201.52	6,124.75
Islands of the Pacific	17,018.87	10,332.29
Japan and China	10,729.51	42,221.50
Canada	109,298.61	23,270.07
All others	1,476.78	.....
Total	**$9,140,794.56**	**$8,474,138.15**

IMPORTS.

Whence imported.	1894.	1895.
United States	$4,354,290.42	$4,516,319.38
Great Britain	465,479.72	471,122.98
Germany	140,233.07	110,751.61
China	230,270.41	223,701.56
Japan	183,867.52	207,125.59
Australia and New Zealand.	186,518.75	122,804.60
Canada	118,198.57	30,731.21
Islands of the Pacific	21,570.24	1,192.51
France	8,786.31	7,849.90
Other countries	3,466.42	21,793.20
Whale ships	500.00	625.00
Total	$5,713,181.43	$5,714,017.54

TRANSPORTATION FACILITIES, POSTAL SYSTEM, ETC.

Seven steamship lines ply between Honolulu and the United States, one of them plying between Sidney, New South Wales, and Vancouver, British Columbia. The time consumed by the steamers between Honolulu and San Francisco is from six to seven days.

A large number of sailing vessels ply regularly between Honolulu and San Francisco, and also others coal laden from British Columbia and Australia which proceed to the United States either in ballast or with cargoes of sugar. Vessels arrive at Honolulu from European ports at comparatively rare intervals.

There are three railroads on the islands. The Oahu Railroad and Land Company, on Oahu, is about 30 miles in length; the Kahului Railroad, on the island of Maui, has 13 miles of road; and the Hawaiian Railroad, on the island of Hawaii, is about 20 miles in length.

There is a regular postal system in the Hawaiian Islands, and on the arrival of a steamer at any main point mail carriers at once start out to distribute the mail through the district. The Hawaiian Islands belong to the Postal Union, and money orders can be obtained to the United States, Canada, Great Britain, Germany, Norway, Sweden,

Denmark, the Netherlands, Portugal, Hongkong and Colony of Victoria, as well as local orders between the islands.

The Hawaiian Islands were discovered by Captain James Cook, January 18, 1778, and by him given the name of Sandwich Islands in honor of his patron, the Earl of Sandwich, at that time first lord of the British Admiralty.

Formal possession was taken by the United States on August 12, 1898. At noon on that day the Hawaiian flag, with its eight stripes, alternate white, red and blue, with the crosses of St. George and St. Andrew in the corner, was hauled down and Old Glory flung to the breeze. The band played the "Star Spangled Banner" and the "cross-roads of the Pacific" was American territory.

"Singing school at the little red schoolhouse.—*Chicago Tribune.*

CHAPTER XXXVII.

THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

A REVIEW OF THEIR HISTORY, WITH A DESCRIPTION OF THEIR RESOURCES AND INHABITANTS—THE FILIPINOS IN PEACE AND IN WAR.

THE most important of the possessions ceded to the United States in the Spanish peace treaty is the group of islands known as the Philippine archipelago, the westernmost of the four great tropical groups of the Pacific. To be exact, the Philippines are situated between 4 and 20 degrees north latitude and 161 and 127 degrees east longitude, in front of China and Cochin China. The archipelago is composed of islands variously estimated in number from 600 to 2,000, with an approximate area of 114,000 square miles.

The principal islands are Luzon (Batanes, Babuyanes, Polillo, Calanduanes, Mindoro, Marinduque, Burias, Masbate, etc., lying adjacent) on the north; the Visayas (Tablas, Panay, Negros, Cebu, Bohol, Leyte, Samar, etc.), prolonged southwest by the Calamaines, Palawan, and Balabac; Mindanao and the adjacent islands Dinagat, Surigao, Basilan, etc., and on the extreme south, the Sulu archipelago. The Island of Luzon, on which the capital is situated, is larger than New York and Massachusetts, and Mindanao is nearly as large. An idea of the extent of the Philippines may be formed when it is stated that the six New England States and New York, New Jersey, Maryland and Delaware have 10 per cent less area.

The approximate area of the larger islands is as follows: Luzon, 41,000; Mindanao, 37,500; Samar, 5,300; Panay, 4,600; Palawan, 4,150; Mindoro, 4,050; Leyte, 3,090; Negros, 2,300; Cebu, 1,650; Masbate, 1,315; Bohol, 925; Catanduanes.

Islands having an area of from 100 to 250 square miles are as

follows: Bosilan, Busuanga, Culïon, Marinduque, Tablas, Dinagat, Sulu, Guimaras, Tawi Tawi, Signijor, Balabac, Sibuyan, Panaon, Camiguin, Romblon, Ticao, Burias, Biliran, Siargao and Polillo.

The length of the archipelago from north to south is 1,300 miles, while the extreme width is about 600 miles.

The principal international ports are Manila, Albay, and Sual (on Luzon); Cebu, Leyte and Iloilo (on the Visayas); and Zamboanga (on Mindanao). The coasts are high, and coral reefs are numerous. There are reasons for the hypothesis that the Philippines are peaks, mountain ridges, and table lands of a submerged continent, which in a very early geological period extended to Australia. Lines of volcanoes, extinct and active (the number of the latter being small) run approximately east and west. The general direction of the chain of mountains is north and south, the highest, Apo, in Mindanao, reaching 10,000 feet. The rivers and streams are countless, and traverse the islands in all directions. There are many hot springs of iron and sulphur waters, with excellent medicinal properties.

CLIMATE AND POPULATION.

The climate varies little from that of other places in the same latitude. The archipelago is under the isotherm of 79 degrees, and the thermometer ranges during the year from 60 to 90 degrees. The seasons vary according to the aspect of the country, the months from March to May being the hottest, and November to February the coldest. During the rainy season, which lasts from June until November, inundations of rivers are frequent. There are occasional monsoons, but the climate as a whole is considered healthful, for the tropics. The endemic complaints of the country are swamp fever, diarrhoea, beri-beri, and a few others. Yellow fever is practically unknown, and the rate of mortality is very low.

The population has been estimated at from 8,000,000 to 10,000,000, of which number about 25,000 are Europeans, about half of the latter residing in the city of Manila. The present American population is not included in these figures.

The Philippines, under the Spanish administration, were divided into three governments—Luzon, Visayas and Mindanao. The Governor-

General resided at Manila, to which belonged, for administrative purposes, the Caroline, Ladrone and Pelew Islands. In many of the Philippine Islands, especially in the interior of Mindanao, the natives were independent. The provinces were subdivided into districts, and these again into communes or parishes.

CITIES AND TOWNS.

Manila, the capital of the entire archipelago, is situated in the Island of Luzon, at the mouth of the River Pasig, which empties into the Bay of Manila. The city has 300,000 inhabitants, of whom 15,000 are Europeans and 100,000 Chinese, who are largely engaged in industry. It is the seat of a yearly increasing commerce. The houses are built with reference to earthquakes, and although large, possess few pretensions to architectural beauty. The city proper within the walls is small, little more than two miles in circumference. Here are grouped the government buildings and religious institutions. The suburbs, of which Binondo ranks first in order of importance, are the centers of trade. The police of the city were under military discipline and composed of natives. A force of watchmen, paid by the tradesmen, patrolled the more populous part of the city from 10 o'clock at night until 5 in the morning. A very low average of crime is said to exist, though the native classes are much addicted to gambling, cock-fighting, etc. At the time of American occupation there were six daily papers: "El Diario de Manila," "La Oceania Española," published in the morning, and "El Comercio," "La Voz Española," "El Español," and "El Noticero," which appear in the evening.

Manila has a cathedral of the seventeenth century, an Archbishop's palace, a university school of art, an observatory, a large government cigar factory, and many educational and charitable institutions.

At the beginning of the war there was not one United States firm located in the Philippine Islands. The harbor has been greatly improved since Admiral Dewey's victory. A new patent slipway, 820 feet long, with 2,000 tons lifting power, was built, and a new fort was constructed at Malate.

Tramways run in the principal streets, and the city is lighted by electricity and has a telephone system. Drinking water is brought in

pipes from Santalan, on the River Pasig. The mean temperature is 80.2 F.

There are some 4,000 horses in the city, used for carriages and street cars. Buffaloes are employed for dray and other heavy work.

On February 6, 1898, Manila suffered from a severe fire, and it is interesting to note that the city would have been lost had it not been for the excellent service of a fire engine which had been imported from the United States.

Iloilo, the chief town of the populous province of the same name, in the Island of Panay, is situated in latitude 10 degrees 48 minutes W., near the southeastern extremity of the island, and 250 miles from Manila. The harbor is well protected and the anchorage good. At spring tides, the whole town is covered with water, but notwithstanding this it is a very healthy place, there being always a breeze. It is much cooler in Iloilo than in Manila. The means of communication with the interior are very inadequate, and retard the development of the port. The principal manufacture is pineapple cloth. The country around Iloilo is very fertile and is extensively cultivated, sugar, tobacco, and rice being grown, and there are many towns in the vicinity that are larger than the port.

Cebu, the capital of the island of this name, was at one time the seat of the administration of revenue for the whole of the Visayas. It is well-built and possesses fine roads. The trade is principally in hemp and sugar.

Other towns are Laog, with a population (1887) of 30,642; Banang, 35,598; Batangas, 35,587, and Lipa, 43,408.

MINERAL AND AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES.

The principal mineral productions are gold, galena, copper, iron, mercury and coal. Extensive auriferous ore deposits have been opened up, and they are known to exist in many of the islands, chiefly in Luzon, Bengues, Vicols and Mindanao. Very little exploration or systematic mining has been attempted, but it is said that there is no brook that empties into the Pacific Ocean, whose sand and gravel does not at least pan the color of gold. Heavy nuggets are sometimes brought down from the sierras.

Galena (50 per cent of pure metal) is found in veins in Luzon and

Cebu. Copper has been discovered in many parts of the Philippines. Iron (75 to 80 per cent of pure metal) is known to exist in Luzon. The coal found up to the present time is not true coal, but lignite. It is probable, however, that true coal will be found, for it is worked in Japan, whose geological formation has much in common with that of the Philippines. No systematic search has been made in the islands for coal. A local steamship owner draws his supplies from a bed in the Island of Masbate, and the carboniferous formation extends over the greater part of the Island of Cebu. On the small Island of Batan, southeast of Luzon, are extensive deposits, said to be of good quality. Rubies were accidentally found in a sample of alluvial gold brought down from one of the upper valleys of the sierras.

Agriculturally, the land of the Philippines is wonderfully productive—hemp, cotton, rice, maize, tobacco, sugar, coffee and cacao growing in abundance. Only one-fifth of the area is under cultivation. So wasteful have been the native agricultural methods, that the harvests have in some places diminished. This is especially true of maize in Cebu and sugar in the province of Pangasinan, where new plantations must be made every year; while at Negros, the land yields many years in succession. The rice production, formerly very large, has now so fallen off that importations have been found necessary. For the same reasons, the production of cotton is also diminishing. The quality of the cotton is fine and silky, and this would easily become a valuable product if attention were given to its cultivation. The province of Ilocus (North and South) are especially adapted to the growth of this plant, the rainy season being here well defined.

Hemp (abaca), the most important product of the archipelago, is the fiber of a species of banana. It is produced by scraping the leaves with a peculiar knife, which requires expert handling. Many contrivances to supersede this process have been tried, but without success. Thread is spun from the fiber and cloth woven that exceeds the best Tussore silk.

The production of sugar is gradually developing, the principal centers of production being the provinces of Batangas, Pampanga, Ilocus, Pangasinan, and Bulacan. It also grows in Iloilo and the Islands of Cebu and Negros. The plantations so far have been small and the machinery antiquated.

Tobacco would be an important source of wealth to the Philippines.

with proper management. The quality has been allowed to deteriorate. A large number of companies are engaged in this industry. The two most important are the Compagnie Générale des Tabacs des Philippines (the capital of which, $14,500,000 gold, is principally in the hands of French bondholders) and the Insular. Each of these establishments employs from 5,000 to 6,000 workmen.

Coffee, though not equal to Mocha or Bourbon, has a fine aroma. It grows in the provinces of Batangas, Cavite, and Zamboanga, and is exported chiefly to Spain. The cocoanut tree is found everywhere, and cocoanut oil is used for lighting the houses and streets of certain provinces where electricity or petroleum is as yet unknown. The native indigo is famous for its excellent quality. Several years ago the provinces of Ilocus, Pangasinan, Pampanga and Camarines produced enormously. Unfortunately, the faulty preparation, and the adulteration to which the powder was subjected by Chinese traders have greatly reduced its market value. It is now exported chiefly to Japan.

The wealth of timber in the Philippines is incalculable, yielding resins, gums, dye products, fine-grained ornamental wood, and also heavy timber suitable for building purposes. Teak, ebony, and sandalwood are found; also ilang-ilang, camphor, pepper, cinnamon, tea and all tropical fruits. Sweet potatoes grow readily.

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY.

The commerce of the Philippine Islands has been calculated at $10,000,000 imports, and $20,000,000 exports for 1896 and 1897, although the average value of the trade is probably greater, having suffered in the past few years on account of political conditions. Nearly one-third of the exports go to Great Britain, and over one-fourth of the imports come from that country. The trade of Spain with the Philippines has been about the same for imports and exports, each class amounting to nearly $5,000,000 in value. The United States, France and Germany follow in the order of importance of trade. The principal articles of import are flour, wines, clothing, petroleum, coal, rice, arms, machinery, and iron. The exports consist chiefly of sugar, hemp, tobacco, and copra. Details of trade with the United States for 1896-7 are given by the United States Treasury as follows:

IMPORTS INTO UNITED STATES.

Articles.	1896. Quantities.	1896. Values.	1897. Quantities.	1897. Values.
Hemp, manila..... tons..	35,584	$2,499,494	38,533	$2,701,651
Cane sugar (not above No. 16).....pounds..	142,075,344	2,270,902	72,463,577	1,199,202
Fiber, vegetable, not hemp .....tons..	872	68,838	5,450	384,155
Fiber, vegetable, manufactures of.....	.....	26,428	.....	22,170
Straw, manufactures of.....	.....	81,352	.....	72,137
Tobacco ..... pounds..	1,280	808	2,745	2,338
Miscellaneous	.....	35,035	.....	1,087
Total	.....	$4,982,857	.....	$4,383,740

EXPORTS FROM UNITED STATES.

Cotton, manufactures of.....	.....	$9,714	.....	$2,164
Oils, mineral, refined.....gallons..	1,130,769	89,958	600,837	45,908
Varnish ..... do.	1,138	1,500	2,483	2,239
All other	.....	61,274	.....	44,286
Total	.....	162,446	.....	94,597

It should be noted that our trade is really much larger (especially in the item of exports to the islands) than is indicated by the above figures. Large quantities of provisions (flour, canned goods, etc.) are sent to Hongkong or other ports for transshipment, and are credited to those ports instead of to Manila.

Besides the numerous tobacco establishments to which reference has been made, there are rice factories, sugar mills, distilleries, factories of rope, soap, aerated waters, brickyards, sawmills, etc. The purely native industries consist of work in bamboo and cotton, engraving, making straw hats, etc. Very exquisite embroidery is done on silk and pineapple cloth, and there is also wood carving and work in gold and silver. The manufacture of cotton goods often forms the occupation of an entire village, and this industry is far from being of insignificant proportions.

RAILROADS, TELEGRAPHS AND STEAMSHIPS.

At the time of the war there was but one railway in the islands—from Manila to Dagupin—a distance of 123 miles. It is single track and well built, with steel rails its entire length; the bridges are of stone or iron, and the station buildings substantial. English engines are used, which make 45 miles per hour. The government assisted in the construction of the road by making valuable concessions of land

with right of way its entire length, and by guaranteeing 8 per cent per year upon the stock of the road for a period of ninety-nine years, when it is to become State property. Up to date of the report (1895) the road paid more than 10 per cent per annum to shareholders. Merchandise amounting to 214,100 tons was carried in 1898. Dagupin is about a mile from the Gulf of Lugayan, on a branch of the River Agno.

There are about 720 miles of telegraph in the islands. A cable connects Manila with Hongkong, and there is one from Manila to the Visayas Islands, and a new one is being laid to Cape Bolinao.

There is one steamship line from Manila to Liverpool, known as the Compañia Transatlantica, which maintains a monthly service to Europe, calling at Singapore, Colombo, Aden, Suez, Port Said and Barcelona en route. The Spanish Royal Mail Line from Barcelona to Manila leaves every twenty-eight days. Four lines of steamers are in the service to Hongkong. The local mail steamers from Manila to the provinces leave the capital every alternate Saturday.

The North Luzon line is from Manila to Subig, Olangapo, Bolinao, San Fernando, Croayan, Currimas (all these on the west coast of Luzon and Appari, entrance to Rio Grande, in the extreme north of Luzon). The South Luzon line runs from Manila to Batangas, Calapan, Laguimanos, Passacao, Donsol, Sorsogon, Legaspi and Tabaco.

The Southeast line runs from Manila to Romolon, Cebu, Cabolian, Surigao, Camiguin, Cagayan de Misamis, Iligan, Harihohoe, Bais, Iloilo. The Southwest line runs from Manila to Iloilo, Zamboanga, Isabela de Basilan, Iolo (Sula) Siassi, Tataan, Bongao, Parang Parang, Cottabato, Glan, Sarangani, Dayas, Matti Lebak, St. Maria.

The native population may be classified as Negritos, Mohammedan Malays, pagan Malays and civilized Malays, and these are divided into eighty or more different tribes. The first named were the original inhabitants and are confined to Mindanao and Negros and some parts of Luzon. They are rapidly disappearing and have degenerated into an undersized, sickly race.

The Mohammedan Malays, or Moros, as they are called, are principally found in Mindanao, Palawan, Basilan, Sulu, Tawi Tawi and Mindoro. They are a warlike race and have never been wholly subjugated by the Spaniards. Originally they came from Borneo and maintained almost constant warfare with the Spanish. They are ruled by a Sultan and still practice piracy and slavery.

SLAVERY IN THE PHILIPPINES.

The chief Philippine slave market and port for their export is Maibun, the old capital of Sulu. Harun Narrasid, the Mohammedan Sultan of Sulu—now a United States subject—is the central factor of the slave-holding and slave-selling business of the entire group. The Moros continue, though upon a somewhat limited scale, the practices of their ancestors, the bloodthirsty Malay pirates who reddened Philippine waters for several centuries. No admixture of blood could be more favorable to slave-holding than that of Malay and Mohammedan, according to Professor Otis Mason, the noted ethnologist. Among their slaves are found Malays captured from Sumatra, Papuans from New Guiana, Siamese, Javanese and Timorese. By collecting them within their dominion the Sulu masters have aided greatly in producing the peculiar mixture of stocks which now bothers anthropologists.

At the time of American occupation piratical expeditions were still gathering as many captives as they could safely attack in neighboring islands. The warlike Moros of Sulu and the islands thereabout, moreover, adhere to the ancient barbarous custom of casting into slavery such of their captives of war as do not suffer death. Their most ready customers for able-bodied male slaves for many years were the Dutch planters in the Island of Borneo, to the southwest.

More criminal even than this piratical slave-gathering is the custom of selling innocent children into bondage, generally practiced by the Mohammedan Malays. The parent who is in need of money lends, or, rather, gives his child as security for the loan, and the little one is condemned to labor until the debt is paid, which seldom, if ever, occurs. Very few children thus sold into slavery ever regain their freedom.

Moro warriors try the edges of their weapons by striking down their slaves, according to Professor Worcester. Moro slaves in Sulu represent all phases of slavery practiced in ancient or modern times—slaves by birth, slaves by capture in war or by piracy, bonded children, and insolvent debtors.

Few, if any, white slaves were found in the Philippines. The reason is simple. All whites are regarded as Christians by the Moros, and Christians must pay a penalty more serious than slavery—or perhaps less serious—death. The Moro believes that he increases his pleasure in the next world directly as the square of the number of Christian

lives dispatched by his hand. If he dies slaughtering Christians he insures himself a cozy corner in the Mohammedan seventh heaven. Rather than commit suicide, a Moro wearied of life prefers to sneak to some Christian settlement and massacre as many unsuspecting men, women or children as he can reach before being shot. All of this sounds like a fairy tale, but it is the testimony of an American Philippine commissioner.

Colonel Hilder, of the United States Bureau of Ethnology, said of the Moros at the time of the Aguinaldo insurrection:

"We will probably have more serious times with them than we are now having with Aguinaldo's followers. Spain failed to conquer them because she feared the general hatred of the Moslem for the Christian. Our soldiers will find them to be fierce foes at close quarters. They take great care of their arms. On making an attack they make hideous faces to scare their opponents. They protect their heads and bodies with immense shields, below which their legs are kept vibrating to resist missiles. When bayoneted they seize the barrels of the soldiers' muskets and drive the steel further into them, that they may get close enough to kill their adversaries before falling.

"They behead their enemies by a peculiar continuation of the same movement with which they draw their huge knives. Just previous to our war with Spain the resident Governor of Sulu protected the lives of himself and staff by establishing picket lines about the capital and ordering all Moros to disarm under the aim of Spanish soldiers before crossing them. A Governor who neglected to secure himself thus had his skull split to the teeth by Sultan Harun, whose warriors massacred the citizens of the town. The Spanish home government, knowing the danger of the post, was in the habit of appointing officials suspected of republican ideas to the governorship of Sulu."

Slavery in the Philippines was just as illegal under Spanish control as it is under ours to-day. By an ancient decree made by King Philip II., 300 years ago, all slaves in the islands were set free and no more were to be taken in the future, either by Spaniards or natives. Child slaves were to be free upon becoming 20 years old, and those above 20 at the time of the decree were to serve five years longer before gaining freedom. Any slave before reaching the limit prescribed could purchase his liberty by paying a price determined by the Governor or the Bishop.

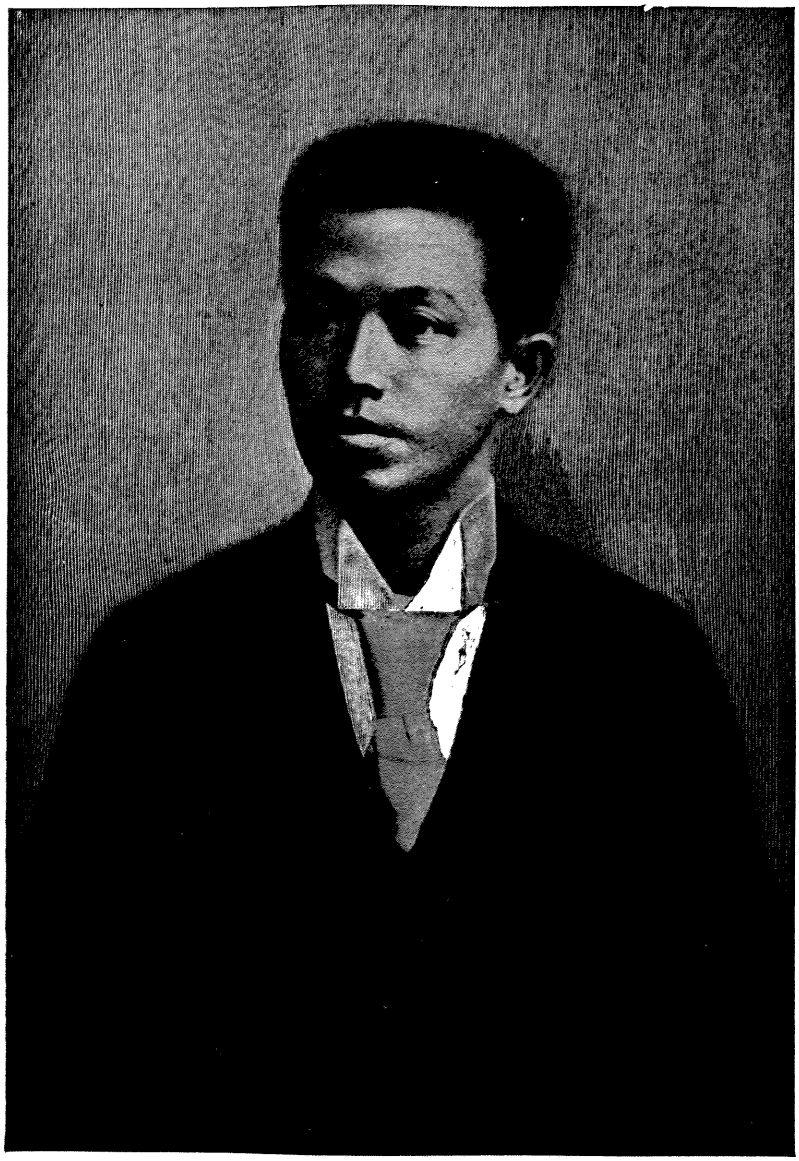
In spite of this prohibition, slavery has ever since existed in the islands. The Spanish Governor of Sulu just previous to the war allowed his Moro scout a home within the Spanish capital and permitted him to keep there several wives and forty slaves.

According to the ancient historian, Juan de la Concepcion, writing in 1788, there were, at the time the Spaniards conquered the Philippines, headsmen who owned as many as 300 slaves apiece. As property they were ranked second only to gold in value. Thus it will be seen that the introduction of slavery in her Asiatic possessions was not the work of Spain, although she never took pains to wipe it out. As elsewhere in the Orient, it is of Mohammedan origin.

Commissioner Worcester also found that white slavery still existed among the enlightened Mohammedans, but white slaves as a rule were humanely treated. The blacks, however, suffered all kinds of atrocities. The interior of Africa even to-day is a hunting ground for negro slaves, caught mostly by Arabs, who sell them to Mohammedans. In 1890 an agreement was formally drawn up between Uncle Sam, the European powers, and several Oriental governments, to put a stop to African slave capture. These nations also agreed to forbid the importation or exportation of slaves. Turkey was a party to this agreement, and although the Sultan is the head of the Mohammedan Church, he is not likely to aid the Moslems in a holy war against the Yankee Christians.

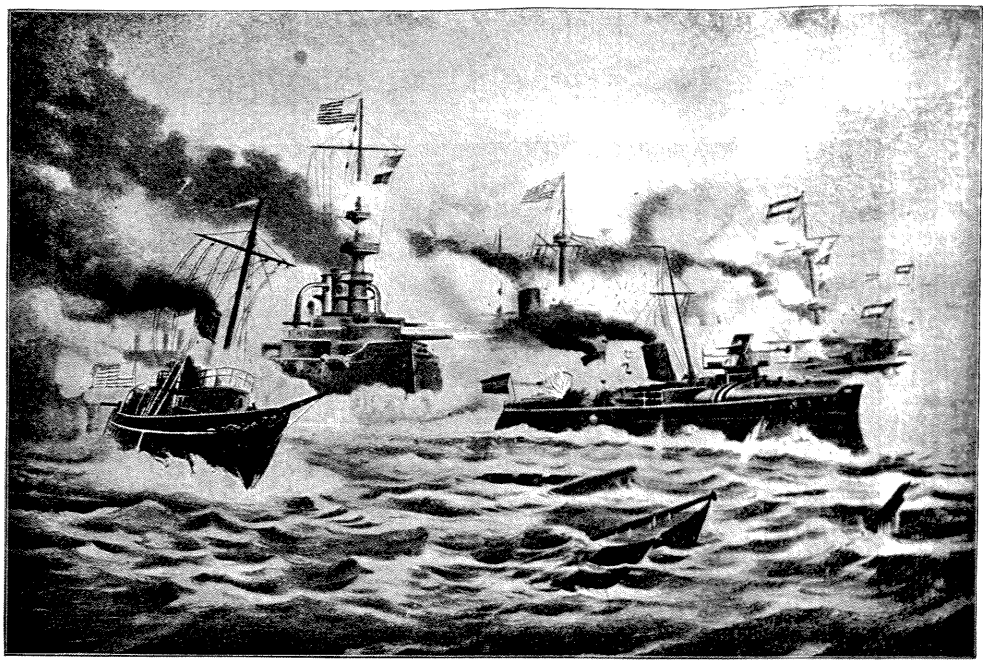
Mohammedan war junks ravaged every coast of the Philippines before the Spaniards succeeded in reducing their piracy. Thousands of colonists have been murdered by these, villages have been sacked, churches looted, and Spanish subjects driven far inland. As one historian remarks, the Spaniards probably would never have penetrated these islands further than the coast line had these bloodthirsty pirates not scared them into the highlands.

At one time her Philippine colonists became so absolutely penniless and miserable as a result of this slave-hunting among them that the crown had to remit the payment of the regularly collected tribute for four years. Natives whom the Spanish friars had Christianized were carried off with the Spanish Christians, while the priests themselves were looked upon as the richest prizes whom the Moros could capture. Once the Sultans of Sulu and Mindanao formed an alliance to further piracy and slave-hunting, which previously had been confined mostly to the waters of their neighborhood. They spread the business

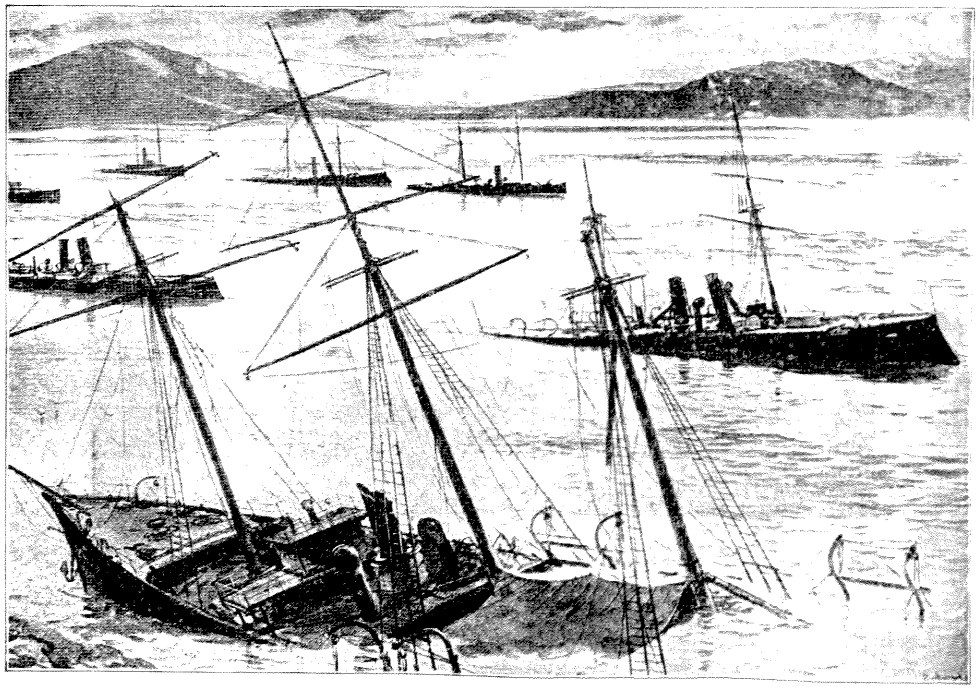


EMILIO AGUINALDO, MILITARY DICTATOR OF THE FILIPINOS.

From a photograph furnished by Felipe Aguincillo, Aguinaldo's Envoy Plenipotentiary to the United States.

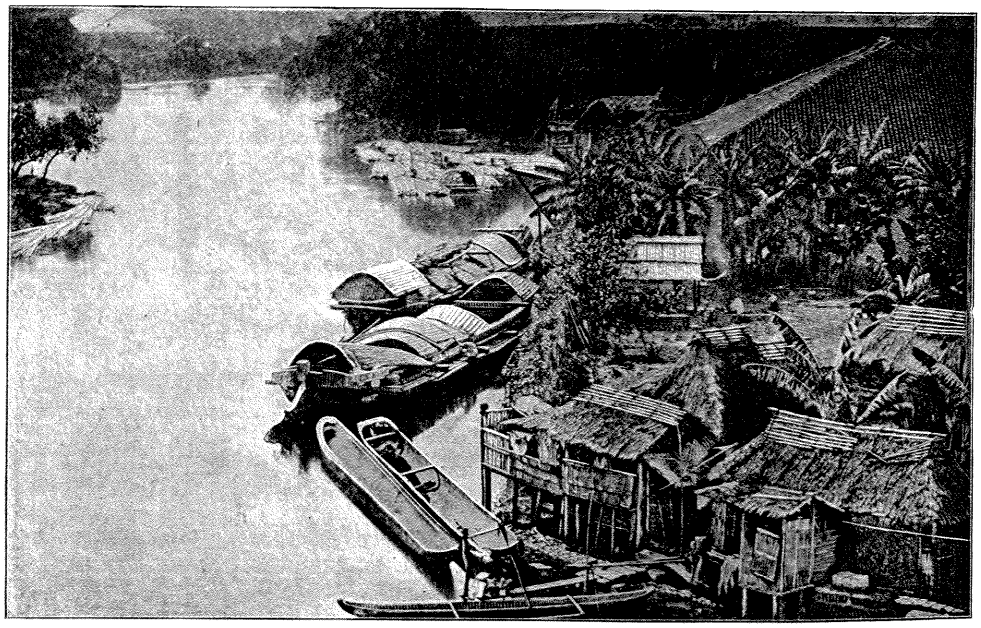


THE GREAT NAVAL ENGAGEMENT IN MANILA BAY.

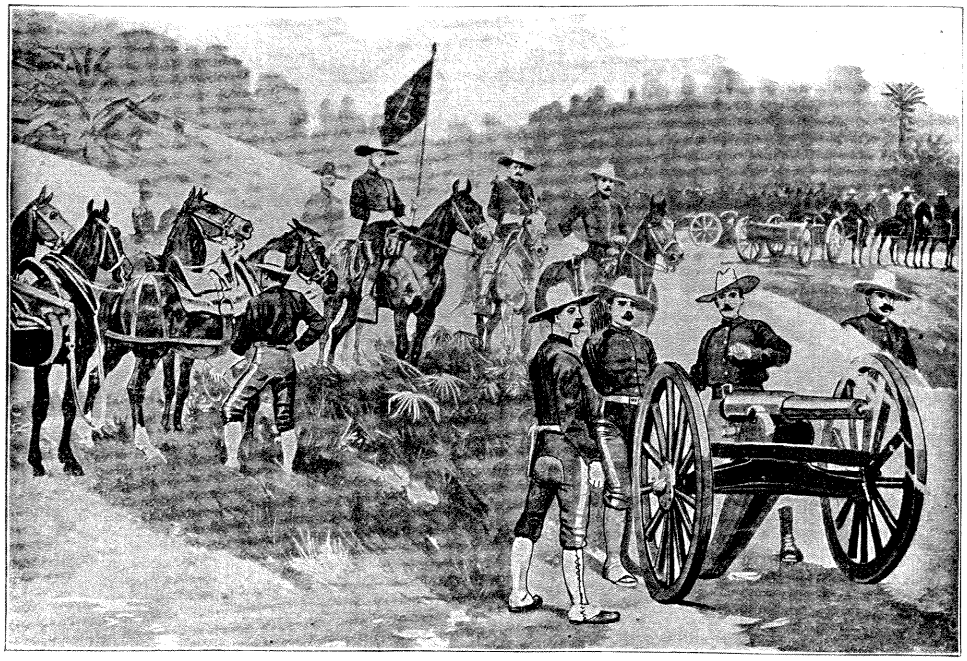


SPANISH FLEET AFTER BATTLE OF MANILA.

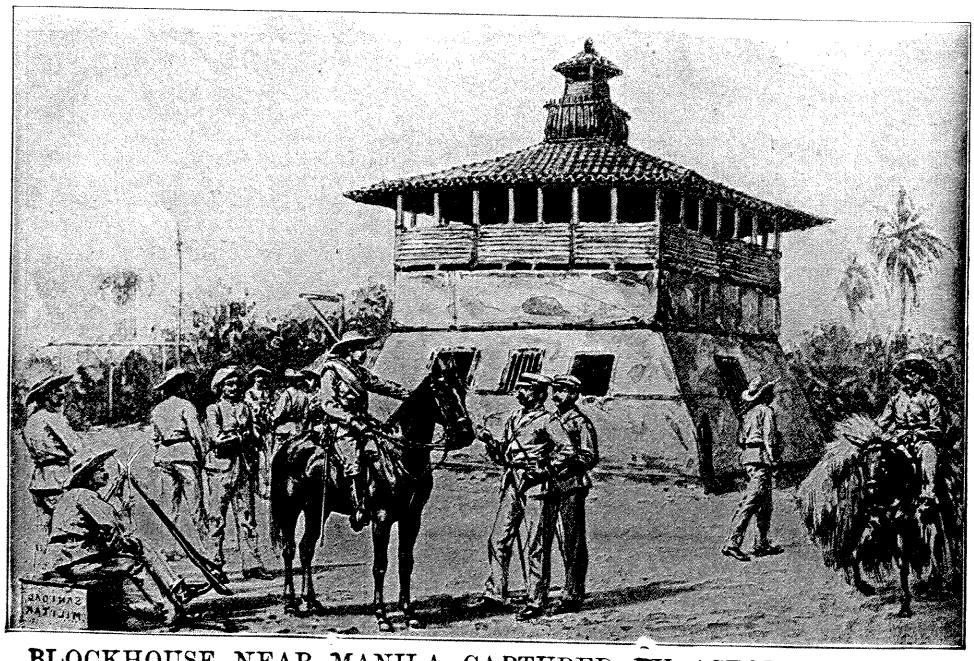
STREET SHOWING DWELLINGS AND SUBURBS OF MANILA.



VIEW ON PASSIG RIVER, NEAR MANILA.



THE ASTOR BATTERY AT PRACTICE NEAR MANILA.



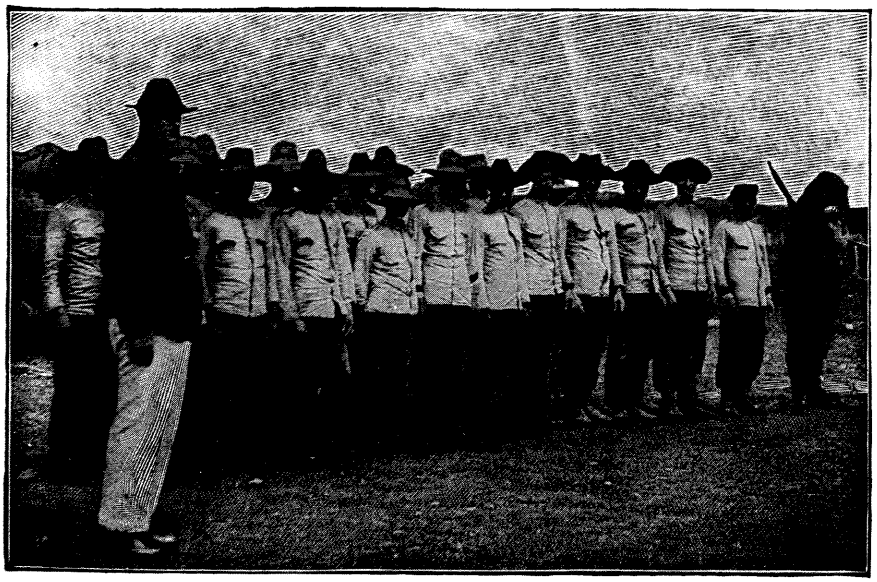
BLOCKHOUSE NEAR MANILA CAPTURED BY ASTOR BATTERY.

THE SIXTH CAVALRY HAULING PINE BOUGHS.

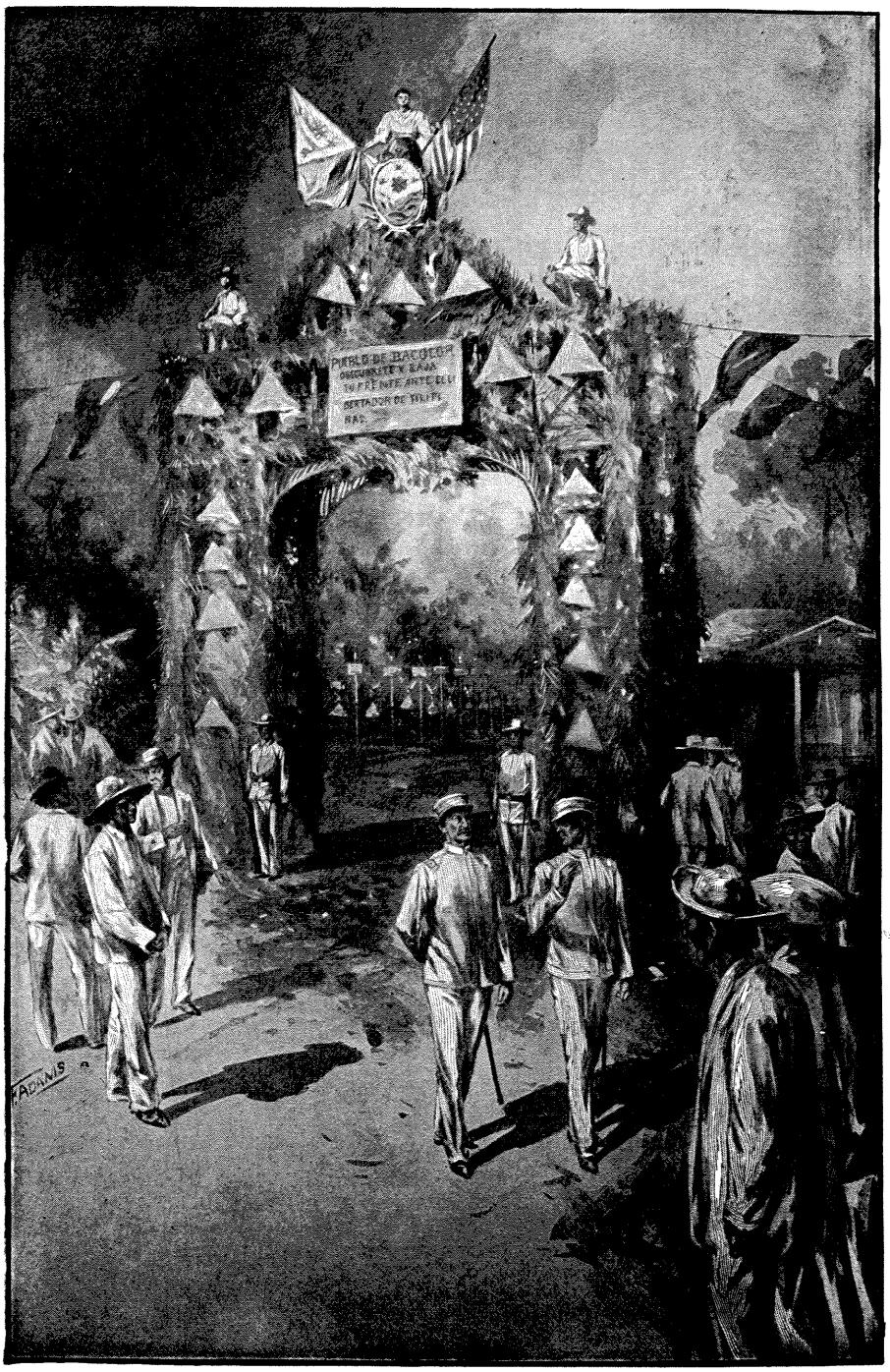
THE TENTH COLORED DRAGOONS AT SKIRMISH PRACTICE.

DEADLY EFFECT OF THE BOMBARDMENT FROM DEWEY'S SHIPS WHILE JOINING WITH THE LAND FORCES UNDER GENERAL MERRITT IN THE TAKING OF MANILA, AUGUST 13th, 1898.

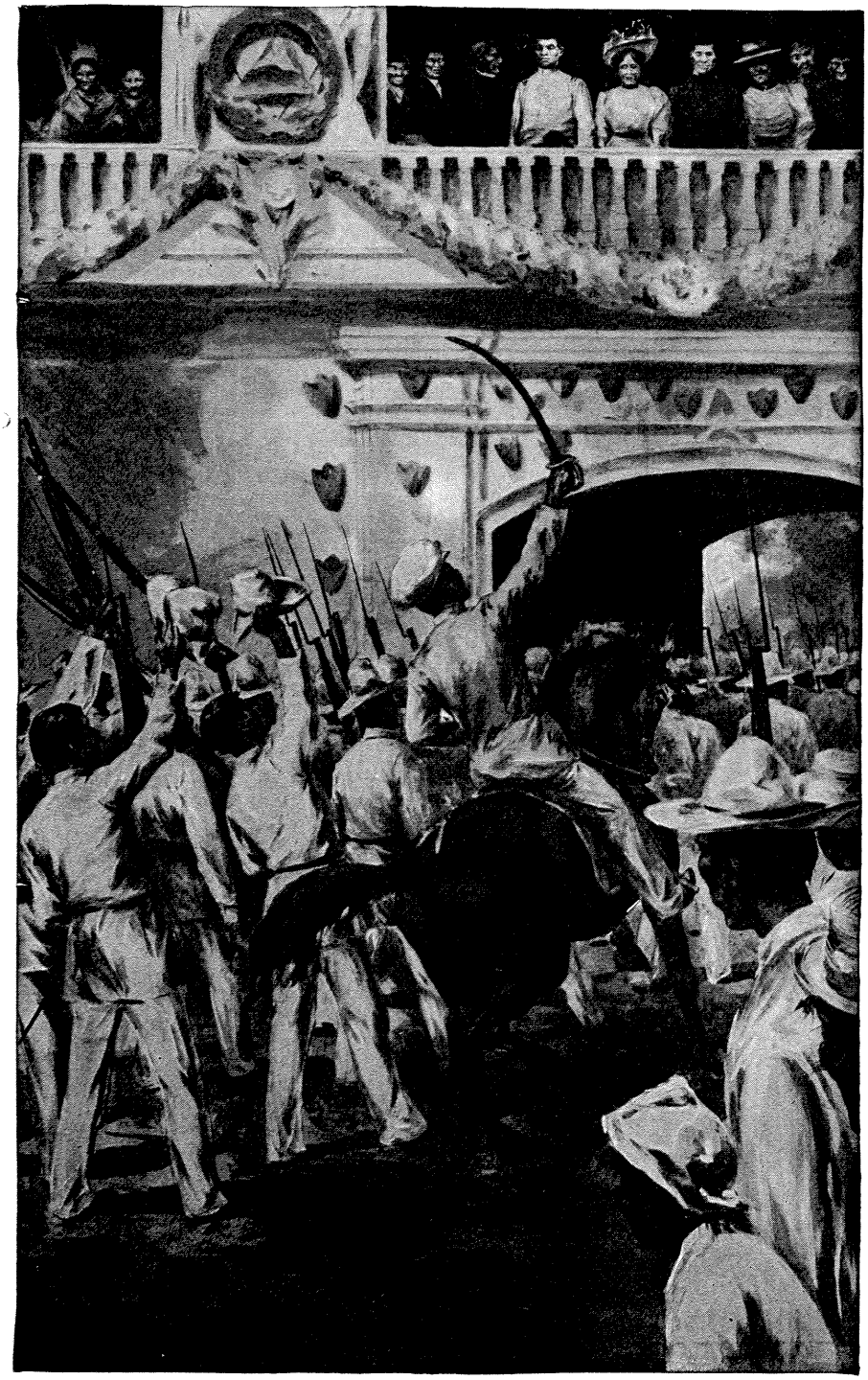
This photograph shows a room in the fortress where forty Spanish soldiers were killed by the explosion of an American shell.



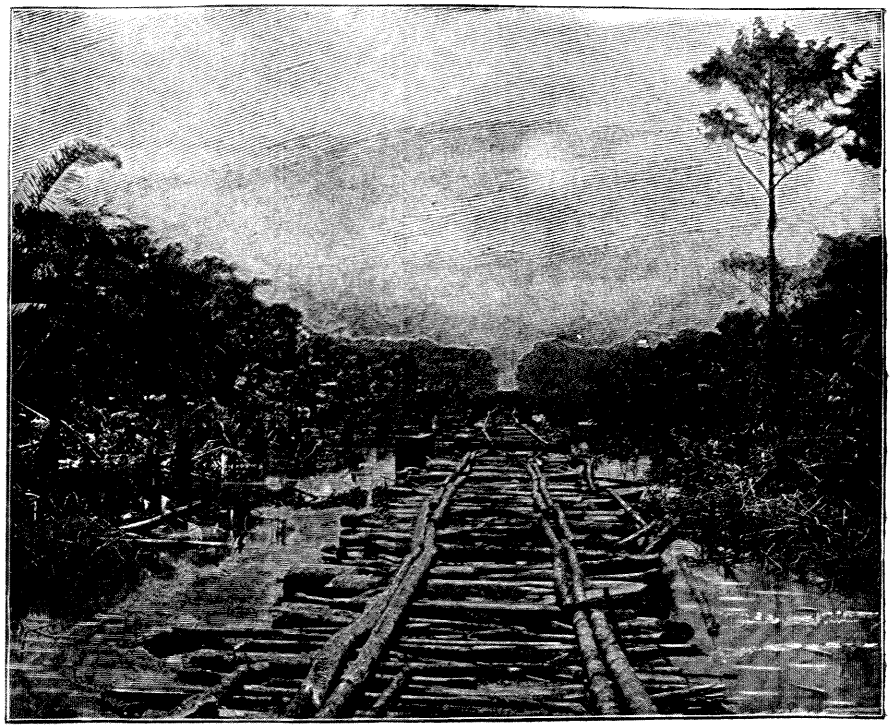
SQUAD OF SPANISH PRISONERS, SURRENDERED TO GENERAL GREEN BEFORE MANILA, AUGUST 13th, 1898.



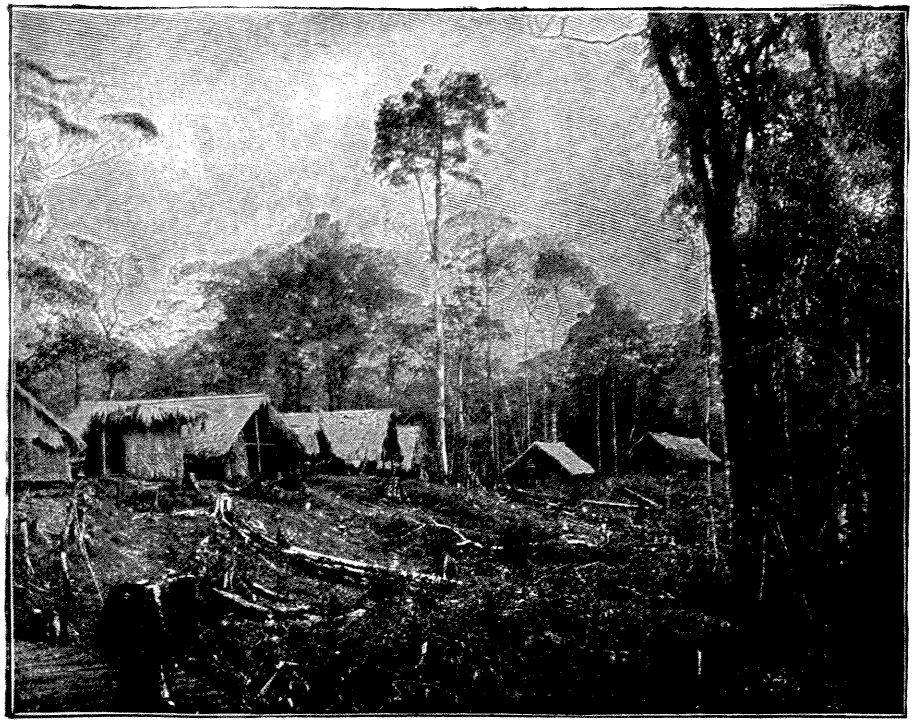
TRIUMPHAL "LIBERTY" ARCH, DESIGNED BY AGUINALDO, AND ERECTED IN CELEBRATION OF HIS ELECTION TO THE PRESIDENCY OF THE FILIPINOS.



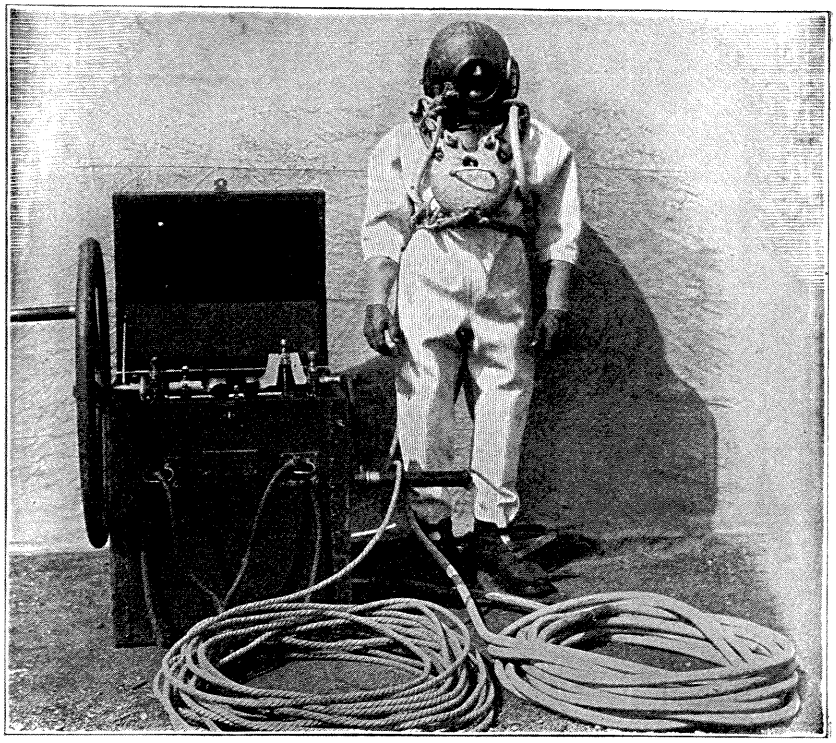
AGUINALDO REVIEWING THE FILIPINO TROOPS AT BACOOR.



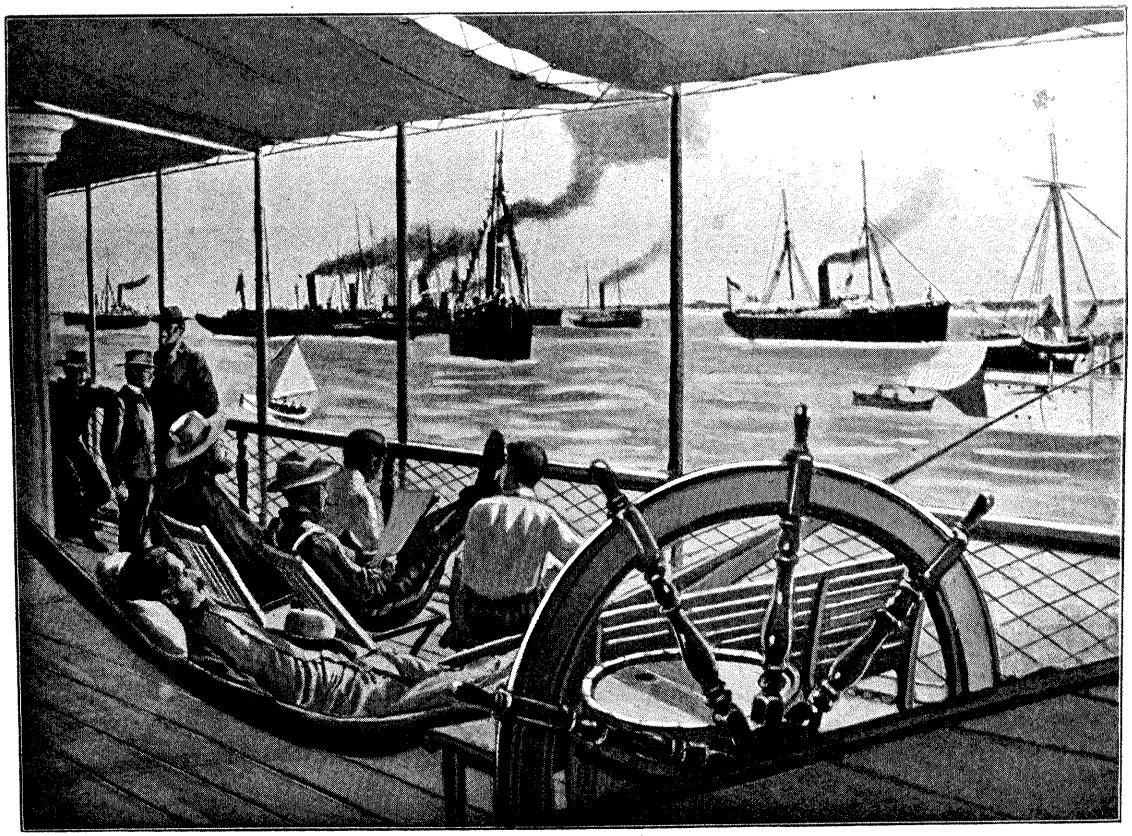
BUILDING R. R. THROUGH SWAMP.



CAMP PEREZ. R. R. BUILDERS' SHACKS.



A TORPEDO-STATION DIVER READY TO DESCEND.



AN AMERICAN TROOPSHIP

AN INSURGENT TROOPER IN CUBA.