and countries, upon a multitude of subjects, and scraps of information not to be found elsewhere, much of it both curious and useful. We can learn from it what the Jews of the ages before and after Christ thought of many portions of the Old Testament, and how they reasoned on philosophy, science, politics, and religion. We hear them speaking again in their peculiar style. We have their very words, as well as their ideas; and it requires but little imagination to picture the living Hillel or Gamaliel of the times of Christ. It is possible to compare their words and sayings, as well as their modes of thought, with much that we find in our New Testament; and if we do this, we shall encounter curious and startling analogies. It will be seen that in the New Testament we are in company with men of the same race and period, and that our Lord and his apostles used very much the same words and imagery as the rabbis, though they adapted them to higher and more spiritual ends. Nay, some of the better utterances of the Talmud correspond with some striking passages in the Christian Scriptures. The writer in the "Quarterly" says, "Were not the whole of our general views on the difference between Judaism and Christianity greatly confused, people would certainly not be so very much surprised at the striking parallels of dogma and parable, of allegory and proverb, exhibited by the Gospel and the Talmudical writings. The New Testament, written, as Lightfoot has it, 'among Jews, by Jews, for Jews,' cannot but speak the language of the time, both as to form, and, broadly speaking, as to contents. There are many more vital points of contact between the New Testament and the Talmud than divines yet seem fully to realize; for such terms as 'redemption,' 'baptism,' 'grace,' 'faith,' 'salvation,' 'regeneration,' 'Son of man,' 'Son of God,' 'kingdom of heaven,' were not, as we are apt to think, invented by Christianity, but were household words of Talmudical Judaism, to which Christianity gave a higher and purer meaning."

It would be certainly an error to say that Christianity invented the terms just mentioned; but it would be no less an error to say that the Talmudists invented them, or more than one or two of them, for they are nearly all to be found in the Old Testament. However, it is curious to notice the frequent mention of "baptism" as a religious ceremony, in the Talmud. But Mr. Deutsch, the writer of the article in the "Quarterly Review," goes on to mention the Talmudical condemnation of lip-service and other abuses, which we also find in the Old Testament. The most remarkable example, perhaps, quoted by him, is "that grand dictum, 'Do unto others as thou wouldst be done by,'" which, he says, was spoken by Hillel, who died ten years after the birth of Christ, "not as anything new, but as an old and well-known dictum that comprised the whole law." The law said, "Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself" (Lev. xix. 18); and an apocryphal book said, "Do to no man that which thou hatest;" and Hillel's words were, "Thou shalt not do to thy neighbour that which is hateful to thyself, for this is the whole law." The least we can say is that the words of Tobit come nearer to those of Hillel than the words of Christ, which are far more comprehensive and emphatic than either.

With regard to many of the resemblances between the Talmud and the New Testament, we have no difficulty; they represent modes of thought and forms of speech which were common among the pious Jews before and after the time of our Lord. There are other resemblances which infidels and sceptics have caught at, under the notion that the New Testament is indebted to the Talmud. A moment's reflection will generally set us right, if we but remember that the Mishnah was not composed till long after the New Testament, and the Gemara at a still later period. It is more likely that the Talmudists imitated portions of the New Testament, than that the evangelists and apostles imitated the sayings and stories current among the Jews.* Whatever view we take, such similarities are incidental proofs of the genuineness of the Christian Scriptures.

The excellence of many of the moral and religious maxims of the Talmud is beyond all dispute, and they might be quoted as interesting illustrations of the manner in which the teachings of the Old Testament influenced the Jewish mind. Even heathen writings supply us with admirable precepts and sentiments; but the Hebrews were far in advance of them, as might be expected, from their writings being divinely inspired. Bearing in mind that the Jewish Scriptures were the professed foundation of sacred studies among the rabbis, we shall look in their writings for a clear statement of leading doctrines. Nor shall we be disappointed; for while, as on moral questions, there is foolish and idle speculation, there are also utterances of the truest and grandest principles. Happily, the men who rejected the Gospel of Christ, and perverted some of the more spiritual teachings of the Old Testament, retained not a few of the lessons which had been given by divine revelation. So that while the Talmud only reflects faithfully some portions of the ancient law, and distorts others, there are many things in it to which a Christian can turn with pleasure.

Of the "scientific" and "philosophical" parts of the Talmud, its grotesque legends, and its laborious trifling, this is not the place to speak. But, multifarious and heterogeneous as are its contents, it is a book which is interesting to us, and of immense importance to the Jew. As our readers will have already inferred, it throws light upon the views and habits of the Jews before and after Christ, and it may serve to illustrate some things in the New Testament. This is why it interests us; but to the Jew the Mishnah is the "Oral Law" which Moses taught, and was handed down by word of mouth from age to age until it was written. He therefore views it as of divine authority; while the Gemara is scarcely, if at all, less reverenced as embodying the opinions and collective wisdom of the fathers. "The Talmud," says a modern Jew, "is a complete system of all our learning, and a comprehensive rule of all the practical parts of our laws and religion."

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

CHAPTER I.

Abraham Lincoln was the last lineal descendant of a Quaker family, who are supposed to have left England and settled in America under the auspices of William Penn. Little is known of his ancestors beyond the fact that they were a hardy race who fought with adverse circumstances in the forest and the wilderness, and trusted solely to their own energy and perseverance to conquer the difficulties that lay in their path. Thomas Lincoln, the father of Abraham Lincoln, was living in Kentucky, at a spot which was then a part of Hardin county, and distant about seven miles from Elizabeth Town, the county-seat. Our artist, who was employed to illustrate a biography published in the United States, went to see his birthplace, but found no house remaining. The spot where it stood was pointed out to him. He saw also a spring from which the farm, Rockspring, took its name. Here, in 1809, Abraham Lincoln was born. Of his mother, whose maiden name was Nancy Hanks, few memorials remain; she had two other children—a daughter, born in 1807, who grew to womanhood and was married, but died shortly after; and a second son, born in 1811, who died in childhood; she is said to have been a woman possessing rare qualities of mind and heart.

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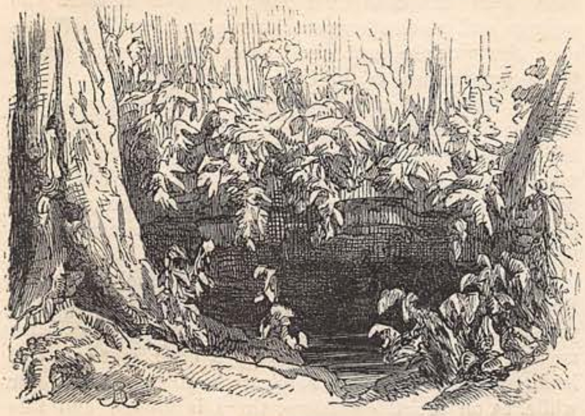
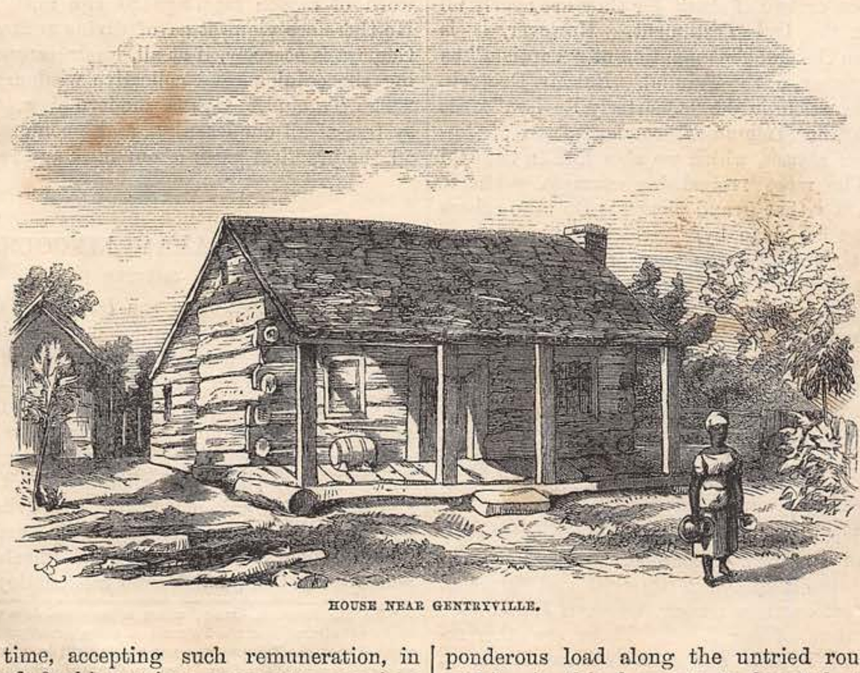
* In our hearing, lately, when a sceptical Jew was urged with the doctrinal clearness of the Talmud on some great points, he immediately replied that the Talmud was not written till long after the Gospel was everywhere published, and that no doubt the rabbis learned very much from Christianity, which they so far imitated in self-defence. We think there is, at least, a nucleus of truth in this suggestion.



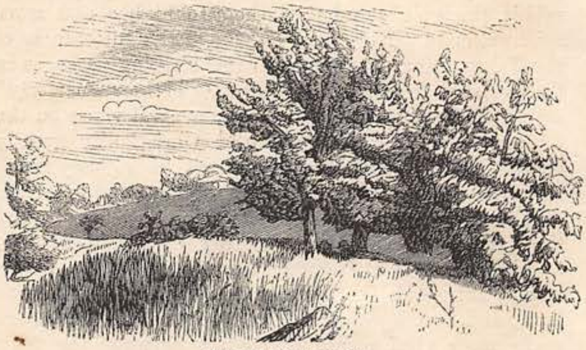
ROCKSPRING,
From which the farm where Lincoln was born took its name.

There seemed to be but a poor chance for the education of young Lincoln. His parents were too poor to make much effort for his instruction, being engaged in the constant struggle to draw a subsistence from the soil. When they failed in one place they had to remove to another; and wherever they went they found little but hard work before them, while in those days there were no available schools at which children could be educated. Occasionally a teacher would settle in the district for a time, accepting such remuneration, in money or in kind, for his services, as parents were in a condition to pay. Young Lincoln had the benefit of two such wandering instructors, one of whom was a Roman Catholic; he derived little learning from both of them—the result of his studies at the age of seven being little more than the ability to read with tolerable fluency. Up to this age he had never seen even the exterior of any building set apart for religious worship, the religious services he attended being held either in some private dwelling, or log school-house, unless they took place in the open air.



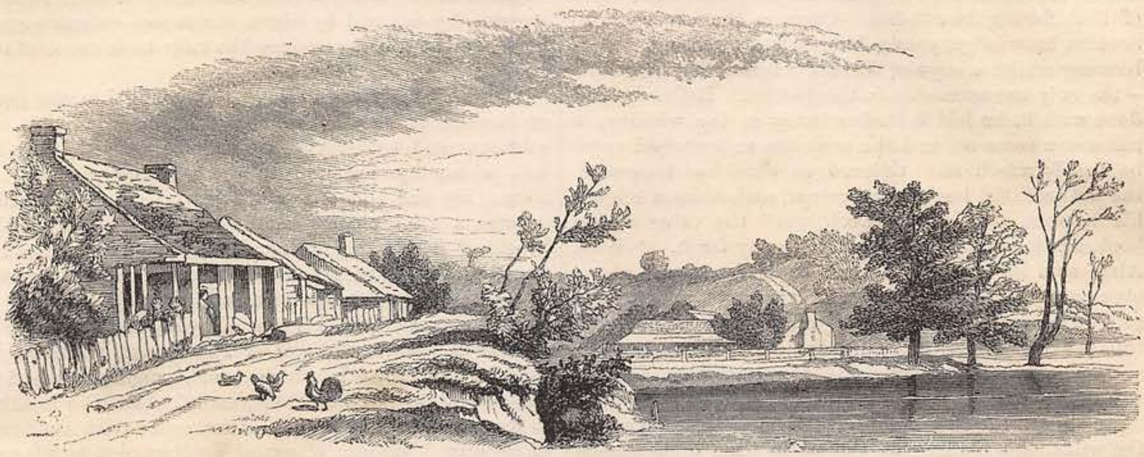
HOUSE NEAR GENTRYVILLE.

In the year 1816, before the young Abraham was eight years old, his father, finding that affairs were not going on satisfactorily in Kentucky, and not relishing, it is conjectured, the increase of slavery in that state, resolved to remove to Indiana. In the autumn of that year, therefore, he packed all his goods into a waggon, in which he placed his wife and daughter, while himself and young Abe followed on foot, driving before them their one indispensable cow, and accompanied by their constant guardian the household dog. They had to journey through woods and pathless plains for several days, in order to reach the spot where they would be able to cross the "Beautiful River"—their progress being necessarily slow, in conformity with the powers of the single draught horse who had to struggle with his ponderous load along the untried route. There was nothing in this, however, to daunt the travellers; they were only doing as others had to do in like circum-



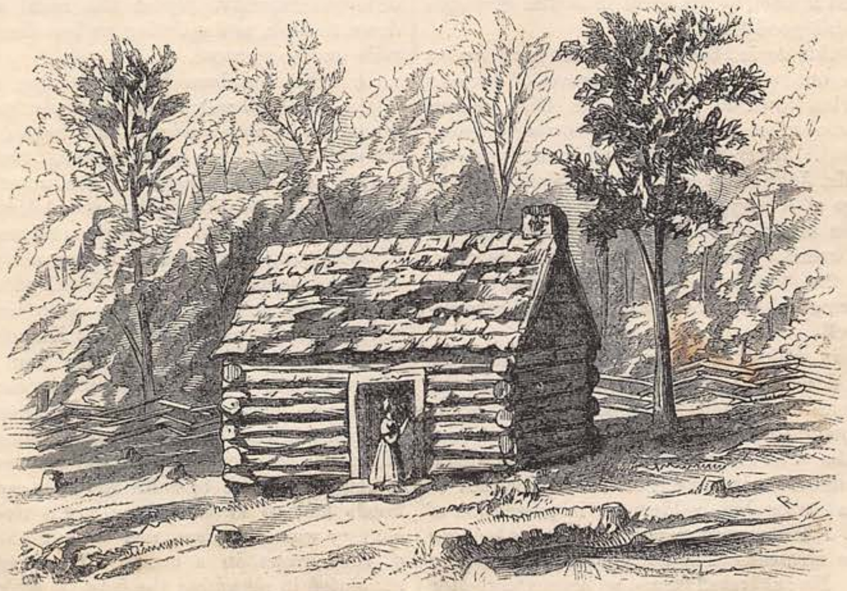
SITE OF BIRTHPLACE.

stances, and in all probability never dreamed of complaining. On reaching the ferry on the Ohio, they embarked their caravan in a flat-bottomed boat, and ultimately settled on the Indiana side, at a spot near where the town of Gentryville at present stands. Here they discovered a spring of wholesome water, and here accordingly they set about building the log-cabin which was to be their home during many of the coming years.



ANDERSON CREEK FERRY, NEAR TROY, INDIANA.

Young as he was, little Abe had to work in the building of the family home; but he was active and strong for his years, and, above all, willing at all times to exert himself to the utmost. Then the land had to be cleared so that grain might be sown for their common support; and in this arduous labour the boy became early inured to the realities of a pioneer's life, while he gained insensibly a spirit of self-reliance and learned to think lightly of any opposition that might be overcome. The next thirteen years of Abraham Lincoln's life were passed on this spot in working diligently under his father's eye. In 1818, when he was scarcely ten years old, his mother died, and a year or two later his father married again. As the boy grew old enough to take an active part in the labours of cultivation he manfully performed his share of the hard work. He learned to wield the axe and to hold the plough. He became inured to all the duties of seed-time and harvest. "On many a day during every one of those thirteen years, this Kentucky boy might have been seen with a long goad in his hand driving his father's team in the field, or from the woods with a heavy draught, or on the rough path to the mill, the store, or the river landing. He was specially an adept at felling trees, and acquired a muscular strength in which he was equalled by few." As a sportsman he was less skilled. A vigorous constitution, and a cheerful unrepining disposition, made all his labours comparatively light. To him the excitement of his pursuits was a compensation for the hardships they entailed; and he could derive enjoyment from the severest lot. The "dignity of labour," which is with demagogues such hollow cant, became to him a true and cherished reality. Here, as in Kentucky, he occasionally went to school, but for want of any systematic instruction, added but little to his stock of learning. It is said that if all the time which Abraham Lincoln ever spent at school were summed up it would hardly amount to more than a single year; thus, for all the acquired



THE LINCOLN HOME IN ILLINOIS.

knowledge that he possessed, and which made him what he afterwards became, he was indebted almost solely to his own unaided exertions. As a youth he read with avidity any instructive work that he could obtain, often poring over books in the winter evenings, when candles were considered too costly a luxury, by the mere light of the blazing hearth-fire. Once, in his eagerness to acquire knowledge, young Lincoln borrowed of a neighbouring settler a copy of Weems' "Life of Washington"—the only one accessible in the district. Before he had done with it, he laid it inadvertently in the window; a rainstorm came on, and the book got so drenched as to be nearly worthless. Grieved at what had happened, the lad took the book to its owner, and, acknowledging his neglect, offered to "work out" the value of the book, not having money enough to pay for it. "Well, Abe," said the owner, "I won't be hard on you. Come over and pull fodder for me for two days, and we will call our accounts even." The offer was accepted, and thus the debt was paid. The anecdote is characteristic, and worth noting as showing the stuff that Lincoln was made of.

Leading a life that must have been half seclusion in the wilds, and reading at the same time of the deeds that make history, it was inevitable that the young man should entertain the desire to see a little more of the world. When he was about nineteen this longing was gratified by an excursion which he made to New Orleans. In order to make the journey, and see the world, he engaged himself as a "flat-boatman," and, as one of a rather rough crew, floated down the Ohio into the Mississippi, and so on to New Orleans. In the voyage he distinguished himself by his great muscular strength and his invariable good-humour.

It was about this period that Lincoln left his home at Gentryville, on one occasion with a drove of hogs to sell at the market town of Troy, on the Ohio (not an easy task—fifteen miles of bad roads, through gully, creek, and forest). After disposing of his stock, he engaged with a Mr. John Taylor to work about his farm and take charge of a ferry-boat that conveyed people or goods across the creek, at a salary of seven dollars per month and his board. He remained there nine months. Our artist had the story from Mr. Taylor's son, who is a respectable man, holding the same farm, and remembers Lincoln well.

The scenes in which Abraham Lincoln passed his youth are thus described in the "Reminiscences of the Hon. O. H. Smith." The sketch presents us with some strange social conditions worth bearing in mind in connection with the after-career of the great statesman. "The whole middle, north, and north-west portions of Indiana were an unbroken wilderness in possession of the Indians. . . . There were no public roads, no bridges over any of the streams. The traveller had literally to swim his way. No cultivated farms, no houses to shelter or feed the weary wayfarer on his jaded horse. The courts of law were held in log huts, and the juries sat under the shade of the forest trees. I was prosecuting attorney at the time of the trials at the falls of Fall Creek, where Pendleton now stands. Four of the prisoners were convicted of murder, and three of them hung for killing Indians. The court was held in a double log cabin, the grand jury sat upon a log in the woods, and the foreman signed the bills of indictment which I had prepared upon his knee: there was not a petit-juror that had shoes on—all wore moccassins, and were belted around the waist, and carried side knives used by the hunter. The products of the country consisted of peltries, the wild game killed in the forest by the Indian hunters, the fish caught in the interior lakes, rivers, and creeks, the pawpaw, wild plum, haws, small berries gathered by the squaws in the woods. The travel was confined to the single horse and his rider, the commerce to the pack-saddle, and the navigation to the Indian canoe. Many a time have I crossed our swollen streams, by day and by night, sometimes swimming my horse, and at others paddling the rude bark canoe of the Indian."

Amidst such surroundings the young Lincoln grew up to the verge of manhood. Trained in habits of sobriety, and accustomed to regular daily labour, he was a worthy example to the working man of his class. By the time he was twenty years old he had become a Saul among his fellows, having reached the height of nearly six feet four inches; and he was as remarkable for his mental shrewdness and moral integrity as for his physical proportions and muscular power.

In the year 1830, Thomas Lincoln, attracted by the reports of the fruitful soil of Illinois, left his home in Indiana and proceeded thither, and, pushing forward to the central part of the State, made choice of a location in the Sangamon valley, about ten miles from the town of Decatur. He was, of course, accompanied by his son, and it was at this settlement that Abraham Lincoln earned for himself the title of "rail-splitter," which clung to him through life, though it does not appear that he ever worked at rail-splitting after his one signal exploit. It being necessary to enclose a piece of land for immediate cultivation, the task was allotted to young Abe, who set about it with his usual vigour, and by the aid of a single assistant accomplished it with unprecedented rapidity, plying the maul and wedge from dawn to dark, and splitting no less than three thousand rails for the purpose.

In 1831 Abraham became of age, and quitting his father, who had now a rising family by his second wife, assumed his independence, and began life on his own account. The elder Lincoln about the same time removed to Coles county in the upper waters of the Kaskaskia, where he finally settled down, and spent the remainder of his life, dying at an advanced age in 1851. While young Lincoln was casting about for any opportunity of earning a living, he fell in with a man who was beating up for a crew to help him in a flat-boat voyage down the Mississippi. Knowing that Lincoln had made such a trip before, the man was anxious to secure his services, and Lincoln, who saw nothing better before him, having no other capital than his labour, and yielding perhaps to his innate preference for exciting adventure, at once accepted the proposal made to him. When he set out to fulfil his engagement, the spring floods had so swollen the streams that the Sangamon country was a vast sea, and he had to reach the place of rendezvous in a canoe. His employer being disappointed in obtaining the boat in which the proposed voyage was to be made, there was nothing left for the party of navigators but to build one—a business which all hands set about without delay and soon brought to a successful conclusion. Then they set forth on their long trip, in the course of which young Lincoln made himself doubly welcome, distinguishing himself not only by his alacrity and personal prowess, but also by constant cheerfulness and a characteristic humour which turned the severest labour into pastime.

After a successful voyage to New Orleans, and a return by the same route, the captain of the expedition, who was about establishing himself in business in New Salem, and who had had a good opportunity of judging of the character of young Lincoln, offered him a post in the new enterprise in which he was about to embark. The young man accepted the offer without hesitation, and at once became clerk to a store-keeper and miller—keeping a watchful eye upon both departments of the business, and performing his duties with his characteristic thoroughness. He continued in this post about twelve months, when his duties were brought to an abrupt close by the breaking out of the Black Hawk war, in which he at once resolved to bear a part.

The noted "Black Hawk," better known to American than to English readers, was an old chief of the Sac tribe of Indians, who were bound by treaty to remain on the west side of the Mississippi, leaving the land formerly owned by the tribe on the eastern side, to the undisputed possession of the whites. The old warrior, however, had thought fit to repudiate the treaty, and had re-crossed the river with his women and children, and an army of Sac warriors, together with allies from the Kicapoo and Pottawatomie nations. His intention was to take possession of his old hunting-grounds, and re-establish the ancient rights of his tribe. The Indians began operations by plundering the property of the white settlers, destroying their crops, pulling down their fences, driving off and slaughtering their cattle, and ordering the settlers themselves to leave, under penalty of being massacred. The whites, under General Gaines, marched a small force against them, and Black Hawk was driven back and compelled to sue for peace, which was accorded, and again the rights of both parties were settled by treaty. No sooner, however, was the force of the whites withdrawn and disbanded, than Black Hawk and his followers began preparations for fresh hostilities, and in the spring of 1832 again renewed their depredations. The Governor of the State now issued a call for volunteers to protect the settlers: a company was promptly raised in Menard county, in the formation of which young Lincoln was particularly active; and when an efficient force had been organised, he found himself elected to the post of captain—the first promotion he had ever received by the suffrages of his fellows. The little army set forward on its campaign towards the end of April. In the beginning of May they were reinforced by two battalions of mounted volunteers, who shortly afterwards, in a rash engagement with Black Hawk, were put to the rout and fled in panic, after losing eleven of their number. The hardships of the campaign, which for a long time led to no decisive result, sickened most of the volunteers, who, at the end of the month for which they had enlisted, had to be discharged. Lincoln, whose hardy training fitted him for a soldier's duty, cared nothing for the hardships, and he immediately enrolled himself as a private in a new and larger levy which the Governor called into the field.

There is no necessity for detailing the incidents of the war which followed, and which, like most of the border wars with Indians in America, was remarkable chiefly for the savage cruelties practised by the Red men, and the retribution for them exacted by the settlers. Towards the close of July it was brought to an end by a successful onslaught upon the Indians at the bluffs of the Wisconsin, and the subsequent battle of the Bad Axe, where Black Hawk was taken prisoner with his surviving warriors. This second campaign lasted nearly three months, during which time Lincoln performed his duty admirably, and found real enjoyment in the excitements of a soldier's life. It does not appear, however, that he at any time came personally into contact with the enemy; indeed, he himself declares the contrary in one of his congressional speeches delivered during the canvass of 1848, in which he makes a humorous reference to his own experiences as a soldier. The speech was in answer to the covert sneers of an opponent who affected in an ironical way to compliment him as a military hero. "By the way, Mr. Speaker," said he in 1848, "did you know I am a military hero? Yes, sir, in the days of the Black Hawk war, I fought, bled, and came away . . . . I did not break my sword, for I had none to break; but I bent a musket pretty badly on one occasion . . . . I bent the musket by accident. If General Cass went in advance of me in picking whortleberries, I guess I surpassed him in charges upon the wild onions. If he saw any live fighting Indians, it was more than I did, but I had a good many struggles with the musquitoes; and though I never fainted from loss of blood, I can truly say I was often very hungry."

THE ROMANCE OF HERALDRY.

BY THE EDITOR OF "DEBRETT'S HOUSE OF COMMONS," ETC.

I.

THE peoples of every clime in every age have evinced a desire to be recognised by some distinctive insignia. Ancient history furnishes ample evidence of the fact. Indeed, we have biblical authority for asserting that long before the advent of the Christian era it was customary for the members of each sept to acknowledge a peculiar device as the emblem of their clanship. Thus in Numbers (chap. ii. verse 1) we read, "Every man of the children of Israel shall pitch by his own *standard*, with the *ensign* of their father's house." Æschylus, also, in one of his tragedies, describes, with minute exactness, the designs that were borne by the chiefs who, prior to the Trojan war, besieged Thebes. The ancient Egyptians and Assyrians are known to have used symbolical figures to mark their nationality; the dragon has been the imperial ensign of China from time immemorial; the eagle is identified with the name of Rome; and even the uncultivated Indians tattoo their persons with the same symbols as did the fathers of their tribes.

Flags and banners in the earliest times formed part of the war personnel of every chieftain warrior, and in the celebrated Bayeux tapestry, executed by the consort of William the Conqueror, were displayed representations of all the Norman and Saxon military ensigns that were in use in the eleventh century. This piece of royal embroidery is the first known attempt that was made in England at heraldic illustration. In the next two centuries flags became more general, but, being made of very ample dimensions, they were displayed on a species of car, and so conveyed from place to place. In this circumstance originated the name of "car standards," which are often alluded to in history.

It was not until the period of the Crusades that any real advance was made in the art of heraldry. When, however, the soldiers of the West met in the Holy Land with numerous warriors of other nations all clad in armour, it became a matter of policy that every chief should wear some distinctive badge by which he could be recognised. Therefore each baron and knight assumed a distinct device, which, with a little variation, was borne by his followers. Crests were first placed upon the tops of basinets and helmets, then further devices were displayed upon their coats of mail and banners, which insignia were again emblazoned upon the rich surcoats worn by the knights over their armour, and also upon their shields. In this circumstance there is the origin of crests, of shields of armour, and of coats kitchen the supplies for tea, and then we take leave of our guide, and quit the building by the same door as we entered it, mentally acknowledging that we have seen a wonderful sight. Every one of the orphans we have seen was taken into the institution absolutely destitute, for no others are admitted; every one is well clothed, well educated for the position she is expected to fill; every one receives a liberal diet, and has her toys just as if she were at home. Nothing can possibly compensate for the loss of father and mother, and no "system" can make a real "home" for an orphan, in the sense in which home is understood by the children of well-to-do parents; but in the Orphan Houses at Ashley Down there is as near an approach to the domesticity of home life as it is possible to obtain in an institution in which there are a large number of children. Once a week the friends of the orphans may visit them, and the children are often taken out for a stroll into the country.

One peculiarity regarding these Ashley Down Orphan Houses is their expansiveness. Under the direction of their founder, George Müller, they have grown into their present dimensions; and, if they continue to expand as they have done, they must in the end include a large proportion of the destitute orphans in England.* In this aspect they assume a national importance, and make the question of orphanages exceedingly interesting. One great testimony to the efficiency of Mr. Müller's system is the healthfulness of orphans under his care. It is well known that, in foundling hospitals, the mortality caused by the separation of the child from the natural parent is enormous. The mortality in the Ashley Down Institution is exceedingly light. The rate of mortality in healthy towns is seventeen per year for every thousand. In many places this rate is greatly exceeded; but in some of the healthiest towns in England the rate is as low as thirteen. In Mr. Müller's institution the rate of mortality last year was only about ten per thousand, and this very low rate is remarkable, when it is remembered that a large number of orphans are the children of consumptive parents. This is very strong proof indeed that the system pursued at Ashley Down is in its physical results an admirable one, and well worthy of the attention of those philanthropists and humanitarians who interest themselves in the protection and training of the young in all kinds of benevolent institutions.

No influence or interest whatever is required to get a child into Müller's Orphanage. The only conditions are, that the child shall have been born in wedlock; that it is bereaved of both parents; and that it is in needy circumstances. When these conditions are fulfilled, the children are received in the order in which application is made for them, without any sectarian distinction whatever, and without partiality or favour. The annual cost of an orphan is about £12 8*s*., and the total amount Mr. Müller has received on behalf of his cosmopolitan institution is £259,089 0*s*. 11½*d*., an enormous sum, when it is remembered that not a penny has been asked for, and that the names of the donors are not made public. In all its aspects, the institution is extraordinary, and it is especially extraordinary as the work of a humble-minded foreigner who, thirty-six years ago, came to England a stranger, and who remains now, as he was then, a comparatively poor man.†

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* There are about 12,000 orphans in the workhouses in the United Kingdom.

† Previous accounts of the Bristol Orphanages will be found in "The Leisure Hour" for January 1862, and in "The Sunday at Home" for July 1859.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

II.

When, at the age of twenty-three, Abraham Lincoln returned from the Black Hawk war, it was with new aspirations and resolutions. Henceforth he would bid farewell to the toils of the backwoodsman and a life of manual labour, and prepare himself, by reading and study, for taking a part in public affairs. What it was that had brought about this change in his purposes it is of course impossible to say. Whether, like a certain sage of an older time, he had seen "with how little wisdom the world is governed," and had discovered in himself some aptitude for the calling of a senator; or whether the accident of the war, which had brought him into contact with other aspiring and adventurous spirits, had aroused an ambition hitherto dormant in his breast, certain it is that from this time he marked out for himself a new course of life, and set himself to the attainment of objects far different from those which had hitherto engaged his attention. On returning home he suffered himself to be nominated as a candidate for representative in the State Legislature, the election of which was close at hand. He could not hope to be elected, as he was all but unknown beyond his own district; but he probably reckoned on the fact of his being a candidate securing him effectually at some future period. So thoroughly, however, was he appreciated in his own precinct, that of the whole two hundred and eighty-four votes given, all but seven were in his favour. This unequivocal testimony to his worth made him in a manner a political celebrity at once; and in future elections it became a point with candidates to seek to combine his strength on their behalf and secure his battalion of voters.

He now commenced the study of the law, with a determination to qualify himself for practice at the bar. He had no funds wherewith to support himself during the years it would take him to acquire the necessary knowledge; but he had gained some practical skill in land-surveying, and was fortunately enabled to turn that skill to good account. About this time it was that the mania set in, which proved eventually so ruinous to many, for speculation in Western lands; and although Lincoln had neither money nor inclination to embark in such a speculation himself, it was the means of furnishing him profitable employment with the chain and compass. The mania for new settlements spread like a contagion through the State; towns and cities without number were laid out in all directions, and innumerable fortunes were made in anticipation, by the purchase of imaginary properties whose value existed only in the brain of the projector. For nearly five years this delusion lasted, under the fostering care of the rogues who profited by it; and then came the crisis and crash of 1837, which tumbled the whole fabric into dust. But Lincoln had made good use of his time, and when his surveying was brought to an abrupt conclusion, the change served only to excite him to renewed energy in the prosecution of his law studies.

Meanwhile, during his practice as a surveyor, he was elected, in 1834, to the State Legislature, being the youngest member in the assembly, with one exception. His election, which was carried by a large majority, was solely due to character. He had as yet acquired no position—was known only for his straightforwardness and integrity, and in all other respects had his reputation to make. At this time he was very plain in his costume, and rather uncourtly in his address and general appearance. His dress was of homely Kentucky jean, and the impression made by his tall lank figure upon those who saw him for the first time was not very prepossessing. He had not outgrown his hard backwoods experience, or been able to lay aside the unpolished exterior of his earlier days; at the same time his deportment was frank and natural, without a trace of rusticity or awkwardness. During his first session he was for the most part a silent member, contenting himself with watching the proceedings, and thus gaining experience for the future. He manifested, however, an aptitude for business, and was appointed to the second place on the Committee on Public Accounts and Expenditure.

In 1836 Mr. Lincoln was elected for a second time as one of the representatives from Sangamon county; and again he was assigned a place on the Finance Committee. At the two sessions of this legislature, in 1836 and 1837, he spoke modestly, but to the purpose, in the interests of his party, and by degrees came forward more prominently in debate, and ere long became recognised as a leading man on the Whig side. When, in the winter of 1836-37, resolutions of an extreme Southern character were introduced, and, after discussion, adopted by the democratic party, Lincoln, who then little imagined that he was one day to be a chief instrument in the destruction of slavery on the American continent, refused to vote for the resolutions, and exercised his constitutional privilege, along with Daniel Stone, one of his colleagues from Sangamon county, of entering upon the Journal of the House his reasons for thus acting. The protest bears date March 3rd, 1837, and sets forth, among other things, that the undersigned "believe that the institution of slavery is founded on both injustice and bad policy." The sentiments of Lincoln on this subject, it need hardly be said, underwent little change or modification up to the time of his death.

In 1838 he was for the third time elected a representative in the legislature for the two years ensuing, one of his fellow representatives for Sangamon county being John Calhoun, subsequently notorious for his connection with the Lecompton Constitution. Mr. Lincoln's position was now so well recognised that his party would have voted him to the Speakership; but in the contest that ensued he was outvoted by the partisans of Colonel Ewing, who had been a comrade of Lincoln's in the Black Hawk war. Being now regarded as the champion of the popular cause, and especially as the advocate of all local improvements, he was repeatedly called on to oppose the measures of the democratic party, and almost invariably did so with success. This was the last time that Abraham Lincoln would consent to accept a seat in the State Legislature. First elected at the age of twenty-five, he had continued in office without interruption as long as he chose, and until, by his uniform courtesy and kindness of manner, his marked ability, and his straightforward integrity, he had won an enviable repute throughout the State, and was virtually, when but little past thirty, placed at the head of his party in Illinois. At the close of his career as a State legislator his fame as a close and convincing debater was established. His native talent as an orator had at once been demonstrated and disciplined. His zeal and earnestness in behalf of a party whose principles he believed to be right, had rallied strong troops of political friends about him, while his unfeigned modesty and his unpretending and simple bearing, in marked contrast with that of so many imperious leaders, had won him general and lasting esteem. He preferred no claim as a partisan, and showed no overweening anxiety to advance himself, but was always a disinterested and generous co-worker with his colleagues, only ready to accept the post of honour and responsibility when it was clearly their will, and satisfactory to the people whose interests were involved. At the termination of this period, with scarcely any consciousness of the fact himself, and with no noisy demonstration or flashy ostentation in his behalf from his friends, he was really one of the foremost political men in the State; while those who knew him most intimately augured for him a far more brilliant future. We must now go back a little in point of time.

During the period of his service in the legislature, Mr. Lincoln was sedulously occupied in mastering the profession of the law. This he was compelled to do in a somewhat desultory manner, at such leisure as he could command, from the necessity he was under, as already stated, to support himself meanwhile by his own labour, to say nothing of the attention which the position he had accepted compelled him to pay to politics. Nothing, however, could prevent him from accomplishing his purpose. He completed his preliminary studies, and was licensed to practise in 1836. His reputation at this date was such, that he found a good amount of business, and began to rise to the front rank in his profession. He was a most effective jury-advocate, and manifested a sound judgment of the turning legal points of a case. His clear practical sense, and his skill in homely or humorous illustration, were notable traits in his arguments. The graces, and the cold artificialities of a polished rhetoric, he certainly had not; nor did he aim to acquire them. His style of expression and the cast of his thought were his own, having all the native force of a genuine originality.

An interesting story is told of one of Lincoln's first essays as an advocate in a criminal court. The only son of a man who had shown him much kindness in his youth was accused of murder. In the district where the crime was committed the prejudice was so strong against the unfortunate prisoner, that it was evident there could be no chance of a fair trial. Lincoln, without being applied to, came forward to defend the accused. He first obtained a change of venue, so that the trial might take place in another county. There he appeared as the prisoner's counsel; and having with much pains made himself master of the real facts of the case, together with evidence to substantiate the same, he was able not only to prove a strong animus on the part of the accuser against the accused, but to show that the former had wilfully borne false evidence from an evil spirit of revenge. The address to the jury on this occasion was characterised by signal eloquence and fervour, and the result was a speedy acquittal of the prisoner, whom the young lawyer had the happiness of restoring—his innocence of the charge completely established—to his widowed mother.

In the year 1837, having gained some repute in his profession, Mr. Lincoln took up his permanent residence at Springfield, the county seat of Sangamon county. For several years he lived the life of a bachelor, and was an inmate of the family of the Hon. William Butler, Treasurer of the State.

In November, 1842, Abraham Lincoln was married to Mary, second daughter of the Hon. Robert S. Todd, of Lexington, Kentucky. Four sons were the fruits of this union, one of whom died in his infancy. The other three, we believe, yet survive.

After his marriage Mr. Lincoln disappeared for a time from the stirring stage of political life, and, in the enjoyment of his domestic happiness, limited his energies to the active practice of his profession, in the pursuit of which he met with a more than ordinary share of encouragement. His talents were, however, too useful to his party for them to suffer him to remain for an indefinite period in seclusion. He had always been a profound admirer of Henry Clay, and indeed had set that statesman before him as a model for imitation on his first entrance on the political arena. When, therefore, in May 1844, Clay was nominated by the party to which Lincoln was attached, as candidate for the presidency, and at the same time a democrat of ultra principles was put in nomination against him, Lincoln yielded to the demands of the Illinois Whigs, and accepted a leading position as canvasser in behalf of Clay, an office which, however it might prejudice a professional man in this country, never has any such effect in America, where the conditions of political antagonisms differ greatly from those attending the like contests among ourselves. He traversed various parts of the State, attracting large audiences and keeping their fixed attention for hours, as he held up to admiration the character and doctrines of Henry Clay, and contrasted them with those of his opponent. He had always a fund of anecdote and illustration with which to relieve his close logical disquisitions, and to elucidate and enforce his views in a manner intelligible as well as pleasing to his hearers. When he had done all that could be done in Illinois he crossed over to his former State, Indiana, where he was equally well known and appreciated, and, by exerting himself to the utmost, did all that was possible towards turning the tide of battle in Clay's favour. His eloquence and active enthusiasm were, however, in this instance, fated to be of no avail beyond the effect of placing his own reputation as a political orator on a still broader and more permanent foundation. Mr. Clay was defeated, contrary to the hopes and confident expectations of his friends, and much to the chagrin of the intelligent portion of the American people.

In 1846 Mr. Lincoln was elected by a large and unprecedented majority as member of Congress for the Sangamon district. He took his seat in the national House of Representatives on the 6th of December, 1847. Though comparatively a young man he was fully equal to the business of legislation, and at once took a part in the discussion of public matters, never missing a division, and voting on all leading national subjects as he knew Clay or Webster would have voted had they occupied his place. He objected strongly to the conduct of the war then raging in Mexico, and introduced a series of resolutions of inquiry in regard to the origin of the war, which in his opinion "had been unnecessarily and unconstitutionally begun by the President of the United States;" and his first speech—a speech remarkable for its uncompromising frankness and comprehensiveness of view—was on this subject.

The first session of this Congress was prolonged beyond the date of the Presidential nominations of 1848, and the canvas was actually carried on by members on the floor of the House. Mr. Lincoln sustained the nomination of General Taylor, and was equally bold and unsparing in the use of argument and ridicule, and humorous sarcasm, in setting before the people the real issues of the contest. We shall quote a paragraph from one of his speeches at this time, to show the way in which he could handle an opponent when he chose to return a Rowland for an Oliver, and also as a sample of his rough humour.

"I have introduced General Cass's accounts," he says, "to show the wonderful physical capacities of the man. They show that he not only did the labour of several men at the same *time*, but that he often did it at several *places* many hundred miles apart *at the same time.* And at eating, too, his capacities are shown to be quite as wonderful. From October, 1821, to May 1822, he ate ten rations a day in Michigan, ten rations a day here in Washington, and near five dollars' worth a day besides, partly on the road between the two places. And then there is an important discovery in his example—the art of being paid for what one eats, instead of having to pay for it. Hereafter if any nice young man shall owe a bill which he cannot pay in any other way, he can just board it out. Mr. Speaker, we have all heard of the animal standing in doubt between two stacks of hay, and starving to death; the like of that would never happen to General Cass. Place the stacks a thousand miles apart, he would stand stock-still, midway between them, and eat them both at once; and the green grass along the line would be apt to suffer some too at the same time. By all means make him President, gentlemen. He will feed you bounteously—if—if there is anything left after he shall have helped himself."

At the close of the first session of this Congress, in August, Mr. Lincoln made a journey to New England, where he delivered some most telling speeches, and spent the remainder of the recess in the West, canvassing for Taylor with redoubled energy among the partisans of Cass, the opposing nominee. This time his unwearied exertions were crowned with success, and he reaped, in the return of General Taylor over all odds against him, a compensation for the defeat of 1844. Returning to Washington in December, Mr. Lincoln resumed his seat in the House, sedulously attending to his public duties until the close of Congress in March 1849. At this date he finished his career as a Congressman, refusing to become a candidate for re-election. It does not appear that he desired or would have accepted any place at Washington among the many at the disposal of the incoming administration in whose behalf he had so zealously laboured. He retired once more to private life, renewing the professional practice which had been temporarily interrupted by his public employment. The duties of his responsible position had been discharged with assiduity, and with fearless adherence to his convictions of right under whatever circumstances. As to deriving any profit, either immediate or remote, from the services he was able to render to his party or his country—the idea seems never to have entered his mind.

AMONG THE LAPPS.

III.

Hammerfest is remarkable as being the most northerly town in Europe, its latitude being 70° 49′; but its surroundings are dreary, and not such as to detain the wanderer, for health or pleasure. It has a considerable trade with Spitzbergen, for which sloops of about thirty or forty tons are fitted out, manned by eight hands. The object of the voyage is the capture of white bears, walrus, reindeer, and eider-down nests. The cost of a vessel chartered for pleasure is about £50 a month. From this latitude the Aurora Borealis presents, at seasons, a magnificent spectacle—stretched across the sky like a rainbow of white light, then varying in form, now dipped in the colours of the bow, now broken into a golden shower, again shaped like an outspreading fan, or changing with weird-like mystery, as if the plaything of the spirits of the North.

The North Cape is about 91 miles from Hammerfest; but, apart from the fact that it *is* the North Cape, The vessels employed in the trade were and are of from three to four hundred tons, barge-rigged, with somewhat short yards, so as to be easily handled, wall-sided, and painted black. They carry six boats, long, narrow, and sharp at both ends, hoisted up three on either side, and about thirty-two men, including a surgeon. They are furnished with casks and huge cauldrons for boiling down the blubber, part of which serves for fuel.

The boats are fitted in a peculiar manner. At one end, looked upon as the stern, is an upright piece of wood called the logger-head, and at the other a groove through which the harpoon-line runs out. Each boat has two lines of 200 fathoms in length, coiled carefully away in their respective tubs. There are also four harpoons, three lances, a keg containing a lantern, tinder-box, and other small articles; the object of the lantern being to show a light in case of being benighted; three or four small flags, called whifts, to be inserted in the dead whale, should the boats have to leave it in pursuit of another; and also some pieces of board called drougues, to be attached to the harpoon-line, in order to check the speed of the whale when running or sounding. Four of these boats are generally employed at a time, with six men in each, commanded by the captain and his mates, who steer the boats till the moment for attacking the whale arrives, when they change places with the headsmen and act as harpooners.

Arrived on the ground the vessels are kept ready, with two men aloft on the look-out for whales. "There she spouts!" cries one of them. "There again!" pointing in the direction where he has seen the spout. In an instant all is activity. The boats are manned; away they go at full speed after the whale. Before they reach it the animal sounds, that is, dives beneath the surface. The experienced captain has marked where he went down, and, as the whale cannot remain under water beyond a certain time, looks anxiously for his re-appearance. Up the whale comes. Again the boats are in hot pursuit. The captain, who has been steering in the leading boat, springs to the bows, and seizing the harpoon darts it with all the force of his muscular arm into the animal's side. "Stern all!" he then cries; and high time it is to be out of the huge creature's reach, for he begins to lash with his tail, and turn and twist in every way, till the surrounding water is a mass of foam. Sometimes he darts off, with the boat dragging after him at a furious rate. At other times he sounds, and then, when the first line has nearly run out, the second is attached, and at times the other boats, coming up, their lines are also joined on, to such a depth does the whale sink. In this case, however, as well as from running, the whale soon exhausts himself, and the boats, dashing after him directly he appears, more lances are plunged into his side, and the death flurry soon comes on. A violent shudder passes through the vast frame, and the animal then begins to lash his tail and twist and struggle more furiously than before. Woe betide the boat and her crew within reach of those vast flukes at that moment. One blow from them would dash her to fragments, and send the men swimming for their lives. When sounding, a large whale has been known to take out 800 fathoms of line—that is, four lines; at other times, having upset one or more boats, he breaks away, with harpoons fixed in him, 200 fathoms of line, and a drougues or two on to it. In most instances he is overtaken by the other boats, and finally killed, when he turns over on his side.

It is very exciting when a "school" of whales are found, and perhaps each boat is fast to one of them; or again, when several rival whalers are together, and their boats are in chase of the same whale. The prize belongs in such cases to the boat which first is fast.

The whale being killed, the vessel sails up to him, or if there is a calm he is towed alongside. He is first hooked on through a hole cut near the head. The head is next cut off and secured, snout downwards, astern. Then, with ropes round their waists and armed with spades, they descend on the carcass and commence the operation of "cutting in." This is to cut with the spade a strip between two and three feet broad, in a spiral direction round the body of the whale. This strip, called the blanket-piece, or pieces, is hauled on deck by tackles from the main yard, worked by the capstan, and as the blanket-pieces ascend the body turns round and round until the whole is cut off to the flukes. The lean carcass is then cast loose to float away, and the fluid spermaceti is drawn up by a bucket out of the case, astern, and when that is done the junk is cut off and hoisted on board.

The next operation is that of "trying out," that is, boiling down the blanket-pieces and spermaceti. The cauldrons, or "try-pots," are fixed in their places on deck. The crisp membranous parts, after the oil is extracted, called "scraps," are employed as fuel. The valuable spermaceti from the head is boiled by itself, and of course kept in separate casks.

The operation of boiling down the blubber of a large whale, and stowing away the casks into which the oil is put, amounting to about eighty for each, occupies about three days. A whaler, while this business is going on at night, presents a wild and curious scene, the light of the flames falling on the smoke-begrimed countenances and figures of the men, as with brawny arms they handle their long forks to throw the blanket-pieces into the pots or to feed the fire with scraps. It has, as may be supposed, a repulsive appearance, though in reality the dirt produced is not so great as might be expected, nor does any disagreeable smell attend the operation.

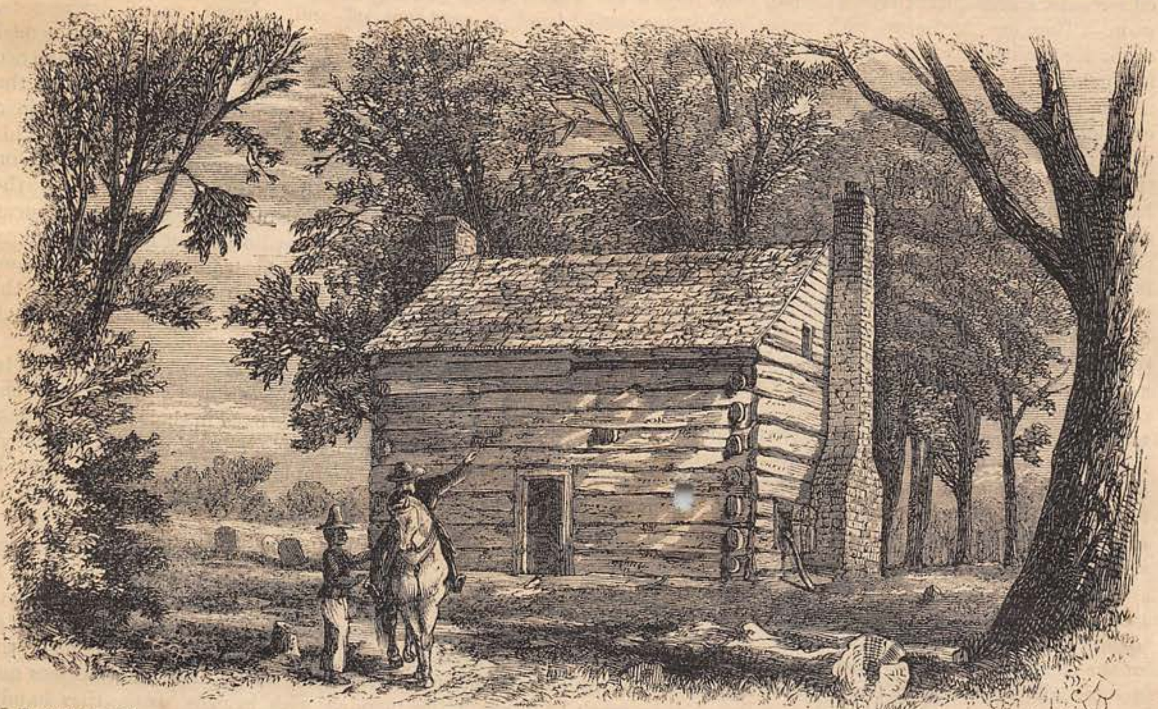
Vessels have been known to return home with upwards of three hundred tons of oil, while others, after an absence of three years, have come back with a shattered hull and worn-out sails, not half full. No wonder, then, that, after the discontinuance of the bounty system, English merchants found more profitable ways for the investment of capital. The largest amount of sperm oil brought into the port of London in one year appears to have been about 8,000 tons. Still, Americans find it answer: the reason is, that the masters are part, if not entire, owners of the ships. They often take their wives and families with them, and make their ships their homes during the cruise; they have followed the calling from father to son; and, what is more, they have picked crews, who remain with them from voyage to voyage, and have an interest in the enterprise, each man, according to his rating, sharing in the profits.

Of late years fire-arms have been used to project harpoons, and it is believed that they answer their purpose, and prevent the necessity of boats approaching quite so close to the whales as was required with the common harpoon; and by this means the risk is somewhat lessened. The chase of the whale still remains, however, the most dangerous pursuit followed by the hardy sons of the ocean.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

III.

For the next five years after leaving Congress, Mr. Lincoln quietly pursued his profession of the law, taking no part in politics during General Taylor's administration. His great political leader, Henry Clay, had resumed his place in the Senate, and was earnestly striving to avert the dangers to the country, which he believed to be threatened by the fierce contests over the question of slavery. It was, with the slave States, a desperate struggle to retain the balance of power in the Senate by rejecting the application of another free State for admission, the granting of which would destroy the exact equilibrium then existing. The policy of admitting a slave State along with every new free one had substantially prevailed for years; but at this time, despite the extensive additions of Mexican territory, there was no counterbalancing slave State ready for admission. When California was admitted as a free State it was by compromise with the Southerners; and an agitation followed which threatened serious consequences, and which only subsided on the agreement, in 1852, of both parties to accept the compromise as a final settlement. Mr. Lincoln had no share in this settlement, though it is likely that, on the whole, he approved of it.

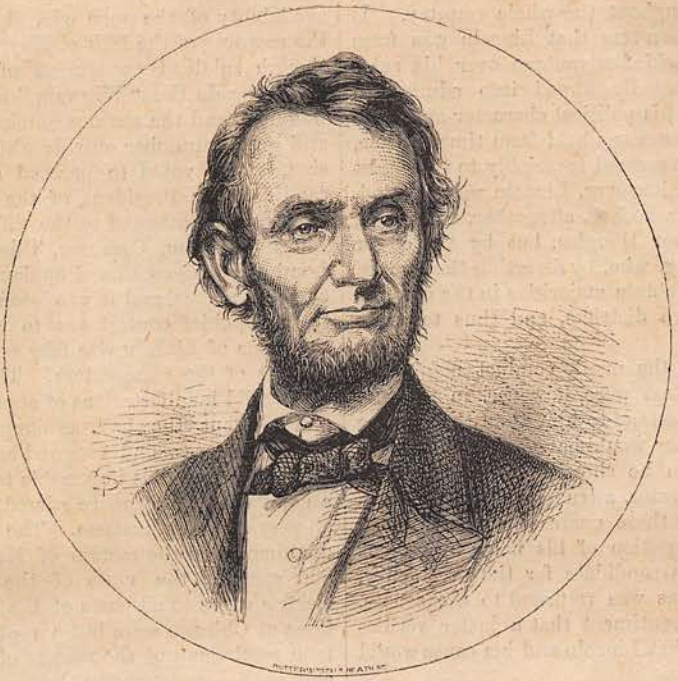


J. Rowbotham, del. LITTLE PIGEON BAPTIST CHURCH, WHERE THE LINCOLNS WORSHIPPED.

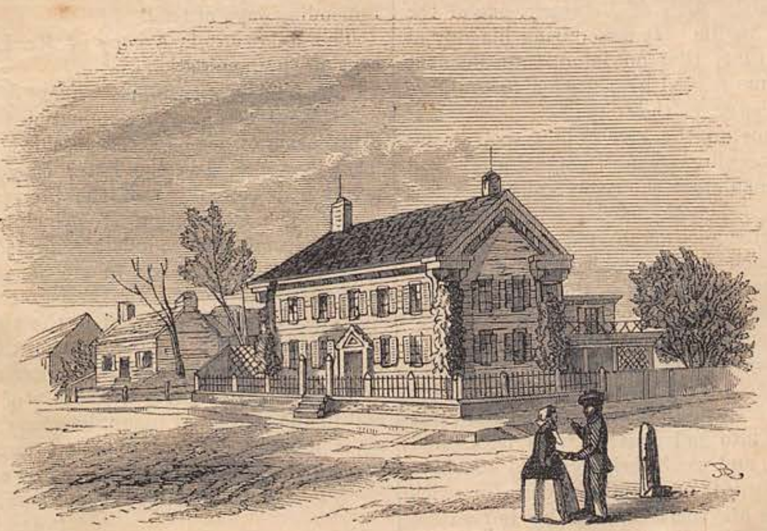
In 1854 came a shock to all opponents to the spread of slavery, which, like an alarm of "Fire!" in the night, startled them all into immediate action. This was the introduction of the Kansas-Nebraska bill—a bill to admit Nebraska and Kansas as slave-holding States, and which was the cause of the anarchy and bloodshed that prevailed in Kansas during the following year. Indignant at this gross violation of the most solemn pledges, Mr. Lincoln at once addressed himself to the task of opposing so great a wrong. He laid aside his profession, and, determining to do battle for the right, entered into the canvass of 1854, as one of the most active leaders of the anti-Nebraska movement. He addressed the people repeatedly with all his characteristic earnestness and energy. He met, and cowed, Judge Douglas, the author of the "Nebraska Iniquity," in the presence of the masses, and powerfully influenced public feeling on the question; so much so indeed that he reduced the Douglas party in the state of Illinois to a hopeless minority.

Proud of his eloquent advocacy and uncompromising zeal, the people of Illinois, when called upon in 1855 to elect a United States senator, chose Mr. Lincoln. This was an honour greater than any he had yet attained to; but he saw that his acceptance of it would damage the popular interest, and he at once besought his friends to transfer their votes to Mr. Trumbull, whose election he well knew would be more to their advantage. Mr. Trumbull was accordingly elected, and Lincoln's voluntary self-sacrifice had the effect of giving permanent organisation to the anti-Nebraska party.

In the formation of the Republican party, which in a manner superseded the old Whig party to which he had hitherto adhered, Mr. Lincoln took a prominent part. In 1856, the year of the nomination of Presidential candidates, he adopted the platform of the Republicans of Illinois, which was totally opposed to the spread of slavery, and, starting on the canvass, laboured strenuously during the campaign in sustaining the nominations of Fremont and Dayton. Buchanan, however, was elected President, and came into power in March 1857, and ere long was found to be favourable to the foul policy pursued towards Kansas, and acting in accordance with the dictates of the pro-slavery interest. Then came the Lecompton Convention, which, under its leader, Calhoun, was nothing less than a conspiracy to force in an underhand way a slave constitution on the people of Kansas. Judge Douglas supported the Convention with all the eloquence at his command, and with still greater sophistry; but Lincoln met him, or followed after him, and was successful in overthrowing his arguments and exposing his casuistry. Much of the dispute turned on the Dred Scott decision, the purport of which was, as the reader will recollect, that an escaped slave should be restored to his owner when caught in a free State. Judge Douglas would have made this decision a perpetual law—a charter, in fact, for slavery; Lincoln would have it reconsidered and reversed, so that it might be quoted as a charter for freedom. His arguments on this question, which we have not space to give here, were most subtle and ingenious, while they were obviously unanswerable. They were indeed so little to the taste of his learned opponent, that that worthy showed ever afterwards a decided disinclination to a personal renewal of the dispute.



A. Lincoln



LINCOLN HOUSE, SPRINGFIELD, ILLINOIS.

In 1858, after the Lecompton Convention had done its work, Judge Douglas, who more than any one else had nursed it with strength, suddenly turned round and embraced the opposite side of the question. Whatever his motive, people did not fail to attribute his tergiversation to the fact that his seat in the senate would depend on the election which was shortly about to come off in Illinois, where the disputant whose arguments he so little relished had already been nominated, and where, on the 15th of June, a resolution had been passed at Springfield, declaring "That Abraham Lincoln is the first and only choice of the Republicans of Illinois, for the United States Senate, as the successor of Stephen A. Douglas."

The contest was both sharp and severe, and none the less so that it was carried on without any show of acrimony on either side. It was prolonged until the end of October, and created an extraordinary interest, not only in Illinois but throughout the whole country. It was evident to most observers that Lincoln was from day to day gaining a decided advantage over his antagonist, whom he repeatedly forced into admissions essentially damaging to his political character and prospects. In the joint discussions held from time to time, the balance of argument seemed invariably to the credit of Lincoln. In the end, however, Lincoln was defeated, not for want of votes, for he had, altogether, more than a thousand majority over Douglas, but by the clever tactics of Douglas's party, who, by diverting their votes, managed ingeniously to obtain majorities in the greatest number of the legislative districts, and thus to make their candidate secure.

The great talent and the manly conduct manifested by Lincoln in this contest were, however, in the end productive of more advantage to him than the gaining of his election as a senator would have been. Throughout the whole campaign he showed himself an able statesman, a powerful orator, a true gentleman, and an honest man; and it was these qualities which now led to the spontaneous suggestion of his name in various parts of the country as a candidate for the presidency. While, therefore, Douglas was returned to the senate, there was a general presentiment that a juster verdict was to be had yet, and that Lincoln and his cause would ultimately triumph.

In 1859, Mr. Lincoln was again on the canvass for the Republican party, and earnestly opposing measures, the tendency of which was to encourage slavery. He visited the State of Ohio, speaking first at Columbus and then at Cincinnati, in both places with marked good effect. In the spring of 1860, in answer to calls made upon him, he visited and spoke at various places in Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island; and journeyed also to New York, where, at the Coopers' Institute, he delivered, on the 27th of February, one of the greatest speeches of his life. It was during his stay at New York at this time, that an interesting incident occurred, which is thus related by a teacher in the Five Points House of Industry, in that city:—

"Our Sunday school in the Five Points was assembled, one Sabbath morning, when I noticed a tall and remarkable-looking man enter the room and take a seat among us. He listened with fixed attention to our exercises, and his countenance manifested such a genuine interest, that I approached him and suggested that he might be willing to say something to the children. He accepted the invitation with evident pleasure, and, coming forward, began a simple address which at once fascinated every little hearer and hushed the room into silence. His language was strikingly beautiful, and his tones musical with intensest feeling. The little faces around would droop into sad conviction as he uttered sentences of warning, and would brighten into sunshine as he spoke cheerful words of promise. Once or twice he attempted to close his remarks, but the imperative shout of 'Go on! Oh, do go on!' would compel him to resume. As I looked upon the gaunt and sinewy frame of the speaker, and marked his powerful head and determined features, now touched into softness by the impressions of the moment, I felt an irrepressible curiosity to learn something more about him; and when he was quietly leaving the room, I begged to know his name. He courteously replied, 'It is Abra'm Lincoln, from Illinois.'"

In the spring of 1860 all eyes were turned towards Chicago, where the Republican National Convention was to meet, to consider what names should be put on the Presidential ticket, and to discuss the merits and availability of the men who should be proposed. On the morning of the 18th of May, amidst the most intense though subdued excitement of the twelve thousand people inside the "Wigwam," in which the Convention was held, and the anxious solicitude and suspense of the still greater number outside who could not gain admission, it was voted to proceed at once to ballot for a candidate for President of the United States. Seven names were presented in the following order:—Seward, Lincoln, Dayton, Cameron, Chase, Bates, and McLean. Loud and long-continued applause greeted the first two of these names, and it was soon apparent that between them the chief contest was to be. On the third ballot the name of Lincoln was fifty votes ahead of that of the highest of the competitors. The scene which followed—the wild manifestations of approval and delight within and without the hall, prolonged uninterruptedly for twenty minutes, and renewed again and again for half-an-hour more—it is impossible to describe. Never was a popular assembly more stirred with a contagious and all-pervading enthusiasm. The nomination was made unanimous on the motion of Mr. Everts of New York, and speedily the news of the event sped along the electric wires to all parts of the land. The demonstrations at Chicago were but a representation of the common sentiments of the masses of the Republican party, and of thousands among the people, not before included in its ranks, in the country at large. From that day forth the wisdom of the nomination of Abraham Lincoln for the highest place in the American Government was universally acknowledged. As a man of the people, in cordial sympathy with the masses, he had the unreserved confidence of the sincere friends of free labour, regardless of party distinctions. As a man of sterling integrity and incorruptible honesty, he was felt to be a suitable agent for upholding the Federal Government in its impending days of trial.

The following is a copy of Mr. Lincoln's letter, accepting the nomination:—

"HON. GEO. ASHMUN, *President of the Rep. Nat. Con.*

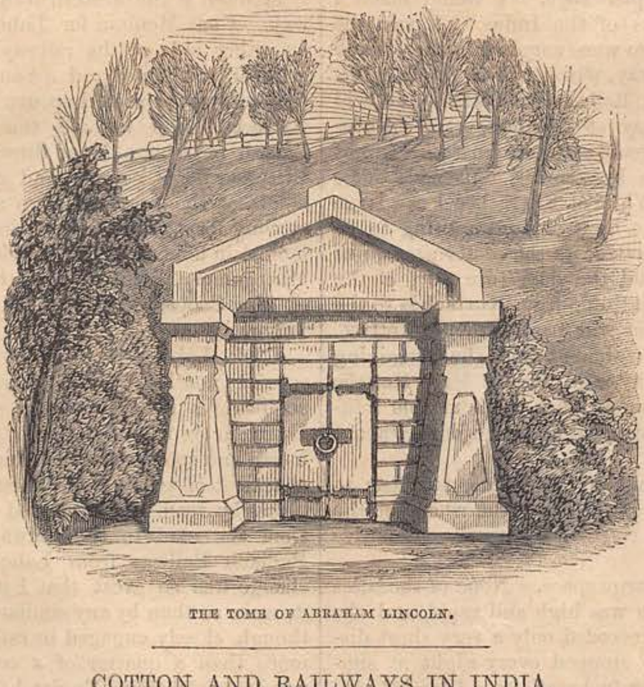
"SIR,—I accept the nomination tendered me by the Convention over which you presided, and of which I am formally apprised in the letter of yourself and others, acting as a committee of the Convention for that purpose. The declaration of principles and sentiments which accompanies your letter meets my approval; and it shall be my care not to violate, nor disregard it in any part. Imploring the assistance of Divine Providence, and with due regard to the views and feelings of all who were represented in the Convention, to the rights of all the States and Territories, and the people of the nation, to the inviolability of the Constitution, and to the perpetual union, harmony, and prosperity of all, I am most happy to co-operate for the practical success of the principles declared by the Convention.

"Your obliged friend and fellow-citizen,
"ABRAHAM LINCOLN."

The popular favour with which the nomination of Mr. Lincoln had been received was strengthened by the spirited canvass that followed. The result of operations was not declared until the 13th of February, 1861, when it was found that for Abraham Lincoln the electoral votes were more than double the number obtained for any one of the other candidates. The Vice-President, Mr. Breckenridge, therefore officially declared Abraham Lincoln elected President of the United States for four years, commencing on the 4th of March, 1861.

On the morning of February 11th, Mr. Lincoln, with his family, left Springfield for Washington. A large concourse of citizens had assembled at the depôt on the occasion of his departure, whom, with deep emotion, he addressed as follows:—"My friends, no one not in my position can appreciate the sadness I feel at this parting. To this people I owe all that I am. Here I have lived more than a quarter of a century; here my children were born, and here one of them lies buried. I know not how soon I shall see you again. A duty devolves upon me which is, perhaps, greater than that which has devolved upon any other man since the days of Washington. He could never have succeeded except for the aid of Divine Providence, upon which he at all times relied. I feel that I cannot succeed without the same Divine aid which sustained him; and in the same Almighty Being I place my reliance for support, and I hope you, my friends, will all pray that I may receive that Divine assistance, without which I cannot succeed, but with which success is certain. Again I bid you all an affectionate farewell."

Having traced the career of Abraham Lincoln from infancy to mature manhood, and from the humblest industrial labour to the possession of the highest dignity which his country could bestow, we take leave of him here, feeling very sure that the lesson of his life can hardly be lost or misapprehended. The events of the four years that followed his assumption of the Government—years of unparalleled suffering and trial, and of unflinching adherence to right and justice amidst the horrors and alarms of the bloodiest struggle of modern times—these are too well known to need recapitulation. How thoroughly the man of the people redeemed his pledge to the people, and postponed every consideration of his own interest or ease to their welfare—how ready and prompt he was to stay the shedding of blood and quench the spirit of revenge when his enemies were at his feet—and how, in a moment of seeming rest and tranquillity, he fell by the assassin's hand—all these things are still fresh in our memories, and we recall them involuntarily with the honoured name of Abraham Lincoln.



THE TOMB OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

COTTON AND RAILWAYS IN INDIA.

At the end of last autumn Mr. William Campbell, a gentleman connected with railways in India, and recently returned from the East, communicated valuable information upon the capabilities of the Punjaub and other districts for growing cotton. He was asked by the Council of the Cotton Supply Association to furnish them with a written report. Residing at Umritsur, which he describes as the Manchester of the Punjaub for commerce and enterprise, he had opportunities of witnessing the marvellous changes effected by the opening of the railway from Lahore to Moultan. He is of opinion that the Punjaub could by railways and by irrigation be made one of the most fertile and prosperous countries of the world. Scinde and the Punjaub, with the States under control, cover an area of 130,000 square miles, with a population of about 25,000,000, industrious and hardy for labour; and the administration is a model to all parts of India.

Mr. Campbell's report, apart from its mere commercial aspect, presents so interesting a view of the progress and prospects of railways in India, that we are sure our readers will be glad to have some extracts from the personal narrative:—

I visited the railway stations at Bombay, and saw the passenger trains arrive and depart. There were crowds of native passengers, all of whom were quiet and orderly. I saw also the goods trains, and every waggon was well loaded, and full of cotton and general merchandise. It was said all over Bombay that the railway companies could not meet the wishes of the trading community, arising from a deficiency of rolling stock. Parties in the cotton districts had to wait for weeks before they could get their goods sent to port for shipment.

The passenger trains were well filled with second and third-class passengers. Many of the Parsee ladies rode