OUR SOLDIER PRESIDENT.

His Speech at the Reunion of the Survivors of His Regiment, at Youngstown, Ohio.

THE PRESIDENT MAKES A NEW DEPARTURE IN EMPHATICALLY DENOUNCING THE DOCTRINE OF STATE RIGHTS.

Lincoln's Views on Peaceful Secession—Nullification of the Fifteenth Amendment.

A SPLENDID FINANCIAL SHOWING MADE IN HIS REMARKS AT DETROIT.

ADDRESS AT YOUNGSTOWN, OHIO.

Comrades and Fellow-citizens:

I need not enter into any discussion of the causes of our civil war. We all know that the men who planned the destruction of the Union and the establishment of the Confederate States, based their attempt on a construction of the constitution called the State-rights doctrine, and on the interest of the people of those States in the extension and perpetuation of slavery. The doctrine of State-rights was, that each State was sovereign and supreme, and might nullify the laws of the Union or secede from the Union at pleasure. They held that slavery was the natural and normal condition of the colored man, and that, therefore, slavery in this country could and should be the cornerstone of a free government.

No man has ever stated the issues of the civil war more fully, more clearly, or more accurately than Mr. Lincoln. In any inquiry as to what may be fairly included among the things settled by our victory, all just and patriotic minds instinctively turn to Mr. Lincoln. To him, more than to any other man, the cause of union and liberty is indebted for its final triumph. Besides, with all his wonderful sagacity, and wisdom, and logical faculty, dwelling intently, and anxiously, and prayerfully, during four years of awful trial and responsibility on the questions which were continually arising to perplex and almost confound him, he at last became the very embodiment of the principles by which the country and its liberties were saved. All good citizens may now well listen to and heed his words. None have more reason to do it with respect and confidence, and a genuine regard, than those whom he addressed in his first inaugural speech as "my dissatisfied fellow-countrymen." The leader of the Union cause was so just and moderate, and patient and humane, that many supporters of the Union thought that he did not go far enough or fast enough, and assailed his opinions and his conduct; but now all men begin to see that the plain people, who at last came to love him, and to lean upon his wisdom and firmness with absolute trust, were altogether right, and that in deed and purpose he was earnestly devoted to the welfare of the whole country, and of all its inhabitants.

Believing that Mr. Lincoln's opinions are of higher authority on the questions of the war than those of any other public man on either side of the controversy, I desire to present them quite fully and in his own language.

In the third year of the war, and while its result was still undecided, Mr. Lincoln made his memorable address at the consecration of the Gettysburg National Cemetery, on the 19th of November, 1863. He was standing on the field of the greatest battle of the war. He was, no doubt, deeply impressed with the heavy responsibilities which he had borne so long. He spoke not as a partisan, embittered and narrow and sectional, but in the broad and generous spirit of a patriot, solicitous to say that which would be worthy to be pondered by all of his countrymen throughout all time. In his short speech of two or three paragraphs, he twice spoke of the objects of the war, once in its opening and again in its closing sentence. The words have been often quoted, but they cannot be too familiar. They bear clearly and forcibly on the question we are considering:

"Four-score and seven years ago," said Mr. Lincoln, "our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure."

And again, in closing, he said: "It is rather for us * * * that we here highly resolve that the dead shall not have died in vain; that the nation shall, under God, have a new birth of freedom; and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth."

No statement of the true objects of the war more complete than this has ever been made. It includes them all—nationality, liberty, equal rights and self-government. These are the principles for which the Union soldier fought, and which it was his aim to maintain and to perpetuate.

If any one supposes that that construction of our national constitution which is known as the State-rights doctrine, is consistent with sound principles, let him consider a few paragraphs from Mr. Lincoln's first message to Congress, at the extra session of 1861.

Speaking of what was called the right of peaceful secession—that is secession in accordance with the national constitution—he said:

"This sophism derives much, perhaps the whole, of its currency from the assumption that there is some omnipotent and sacred supremacy pertaining to a State—to each State of our Federal Union. Our States have neither more nor less power than that reserved to them in the Union by the constitution, no one of them ever having been a State out of the Union. The original ones passed into the Union even before they cast off their British colonial dependence, and the new ones each came into the Union directly from a condition of dependence, excepting Texas. And even Texas, in its temporary independence, was never designated a State. The new one only took the designation of States on coming into the Union, while that name was first adopted for the old ones in and by the Declaration of Independence. Therein the 'United Colonies' were declared to be 'free and independent States;' but, even then, the object plainly was not to declare their independence of one another, or of the Union, but, directly the contrary, as their mutual pledge, and their mutual action, before, at the time, and afterwards, abundantly show. The express plighting of faith by each and all of the original thirteen, in the articles of confederation, two years later, that the Union shall be perpetual, is most conclusive. Having never been States, either in substance or in name, outside of the Union, whence this magical omnipotence of 'State-rights,' asserting a claim of power to lawfully destroy the Union itself? Much is said about the 'sovereignty' of the States; but the word, even, is not in the National constitution, nor, as is believed, in any of the State constitutions. What is a 'sovereignty,' in the political sense of the term? Would it be far wrong to define it, 'A political community, without a political superior?' Tested by this, no one of our States, except Texas, ever was a sovereignty; and even Texas gave up the character on coming into the Union; by which act she acknowledged the constitution of the United States, and the laws and treaties of the United States made in pursuance of the constitution, to be, for her, the supreme law of the land. The States have their status in the Union, and they have no other legal status. If they break from this, they can only do so against law, and by revolution. The Union, and not themselves separately, procured their independence and their liberty. By conquest, or purchase, the Union gave each of them whatever of independence and liberty it has. The Union is older than any of the States; and in fact, it created them as States. Originally, some dependent colonies made the Union, and, in turn, the Union threw off their old dependence for them, and made them States, such as they are. Not one of them ever had a State constitution independent of the Union. Of course, it is not forgotten that all the new States framed their constitutions before they entered the Union; nevertheless, dependent upon, and preparatory to, coming into the Union."

Unquestionably the States have the powers and rights reserved to them in and by the national constitution, and upon this point, in another part of this great message, Mr. Lincoln says:

"This relative matter of National power and State rights, as a principle, is no other than the principle of generality and locality. Whatever concerns the whole should be confided to the whole—to the general government; while whatever concerns only the State should be left exclusively to the State. This is all there is of original principle about it."

Mr. Lincoln held that the United States is a nation, and that its government possesses ample power under the constitution to maintain its authority and enforce its laws in every part of its territory. The denial of this principle by those who asserted the doctrine of State-rights, and who rightly claimed that it was inconsistent with State sovereignty, made up an issue over which arose one of the leading controversies which led to the civil war. The result of the war decided that controversy in favor of nationality and in favor of the supremacy of the national government.

This decision is in accordance with the principles of the fathers. On this day, ninety-two years ago, the delegates in convention at Philadelphia agreed to the constitution of the United States, which was afterwards ratified and adopted. On the same day, September 17, 1787, General Washington sent a letter transmitting the constitution to the Congress in session in New York. In that letter he said:

"The friends of our country have long since desired that the power of making war, peace and treaties, that of levying money and regulating commerce, and the correspondent executive and judicial authorities should be fully and effectually vested in the general government of the Union. * * * It is obviously impracticable in the Federal government of these States to secure all rights of independent sovereignty to each, and yet provide for the interest and safety of all. * * * In all our deliberations on this subject, we kept steadily in our view that which appears to us the greatest interest of every true American—the consolidation of our Union—in which is involved our prosperity, felicity, safety, perhaps our national existence."

Again, in his farewell address, Washington said:

"The unity of government, which constitutes you one people, is also justly dear to you. * * The name of American, which belongs to you in your national capacity, must always exalt the just pride of patriotism, more than any appellation derived from local discriminations."

On the question of human rights Mr. Lincoln was equally explicit, and often declared that it was involved in the conflict, and to be decided by the result. In his matchless message, already quoted, he says:

"Our adversaries have adopted some declarations of independence, in which, unlike the good old one penned by Jefferson, they omit the words 'all men are created equal.' Why? They have adopted a temporary national constitution, in the preamble of which, unlike our good old one, signed by Washington, they omit 'We, the people,' and substitute 'We the deputies of the sovereign and independent States.' Why? Why this deliberate pressing out of view the rights of men and the authority of the people? This is essentially a people's contest. On the side of the Union it is a struggle for maintaining in the world that form and substance of government whose leading object is to elevate the condition of men; to lift artificial weights from all shoulders; to clear the paths of laudable pursuit to all; to afford all an unfettered start and a fair chance in the race of life. Yielding to partial and temporary departures, from necessity, this is the leading object of the government for whose existence we contend. I am most happy to believe that the plain people understand and appreciate this."

On the subject of suffrage, Mr. Lincoln's guiding principle was that "no man is good enough to govern another man without that other man's consent."

Thus we have from the lips and pen of Mr. Lincoln—the great leader and representative of the Union cause—in the most solemn and authentic form, a complete statement of the issues of the war. He held that the Union is perpetual; that its government is national and supreme; and that all of its inhabitants should be free, and be accorded equal civil and political rights.

These are the great fundamental principles, affirmed on the one side, and denied on the other, upon which the appeal was made to the God of battles. I do not undertake to review the debate as to the nature and powers of the government of the Union, and as to the doctrine of State-rights, which began at the foundation of our institutions, and which was continued until it was hushed by the clash of arms. It is enough for my present purpose to say that, as a matter of history, all the political parties of the past, when charged with the responsibility of directing the affairs of the government, have maintained, in their practical administration of it, precisely the same principles which were held by President Lincoln. The principles as to the powers of the national government which were acted upon by Washington and Jackson and which are sustained by the decisions of Chief-justice Marshall, and by which Lincoln and the Union armies crushed the rebellion and rescued the Republic, are among the legitimate and irreversible results of the war which ought not to be questioned.

Touching the remaining important controversy settled by the war, the public avowals of opinion are almost all in favor of the faithful acceptance of the new constitutional amendments. On this subject the speeches of public men and the creeds of platforms of the leading political parties have for some years past been explicit. In 1872 all parties in their respective national conventions adopted resolutions recognising the equality of all men before the law, and pledging themselves, in the words of the Democratic national convention, "to maintain emancipation and enfranchisement, and to oppose the reopening of the questions settled by the recent amendments to the constitution." In 1876, the great political parties again, in the language of the St. Louis national convention, affirmed their "devotion to the constitution of the United States, with its amendments universally accepted as a final settlement of the controversies that engendered the civil war."

REMARKS AT DETROIT.

At Detroit, in response to a call, the President said:

The evidences of good times are numerous, palpable and cheering. One bright day in June last, more steamers—more shipping of all sorts—gathered in New York harbor than was ever before seen in that great mart of commerce, and their tonnage was in greater excess comparatively than the number of vessels. The lines of the Pennsylvania railroad east of Pittsburg and Erie, for the first seven months of this year, as compared with the same period in 1878, show an increase of gross earnings of $1,208,294, an increase of expenses of $759,985, and an increase of net earnings of $448,309; the lines of the Philadelphia and Reading railroad (the great anthracite coal-road) a net increase of $1,340,000 for the same period. The latest published statement of the Erie Railway Company shows a net increase of $561,000. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company shows a net increase of $532,000 for the first ten months of its current fiscal year, beginning in October last. It is estimated that more than a 1,000 miles of railroad track have already been laid this year in the United States—a greater mileage than in the same period in any year since 1872. Workers in iron and steel find their business recovering so rapidly from its great depression that they are unable to fill their orders, and their annual production is likely soon to surpass the highest figures ever reached. The building of iron steamships in successful competition with Europe is fully established on the Delaware. Our cotton factories are again all at work and running on full time. Our mines of precious metals are increasing their product, and it mainly stays at home. Our manufactures go abroad more than ever before; our currency is exchangeable at par in the markets of the world with the money of the world; and, finally, and most important, the demand for labor has increased and is increasing. It extends to cotton mills, iron and glass works, machine shops, brick-making, building, the clothing trade, and nearly all branches of industry. The Philadelphia Record, on the authority of a well-known statistician, states that there are twenty thousand more laborers employed in that city than there were a year ago. Our exports for the year 1878 amounted to $710,439,441, and the excess of exports over imports was $264,661,761, both sums being greater than in any previous year.

The following tables show the rapid advance our farmers and manufacturers are making in supplying both the foreign and the home markets. They were prepared by Mr. Joseph Nimmo, Jr., the table chief of the bureau of statistics of the Treasury Department.

DOMESTIC EXPORTS.

Values of the principal commodities of domestic production, the exportation of which greatly increased from June 30, 1868, to June 30, 1879.

COMMODITIES.	Value exported during the year ended June 30— 1868.	1879.	Increase in 1879 over 1868.
Agricultural implements	$673,381	$2,933,388	$2,260,007
Animals, living	733,395	11,487,754	10,754,359
Bread and breadstuffs	69,024,069	210,355,528	141,331,469
Coal	1,516,220	2,319,398	803,178
Copper and brass, and manufactures of, not including copper ore	496,329	3,031,924	2,535,595
Cotton, manufactures of	4,871,054	10,853,950	5,982,896
Fruit	406,512	1,916,382	1,509,870
Iron and steel, and manufactures of, exclusive of firearms, but including scales and balances, sewing-machines and fire-engines	5,491,306	12,766,294	7,274,988
Leather of all kinds	607,105	6,800,070	6,192,965
Mineral oil, illuminating	19,752,143	35,999,862	16,247,719
Provisions	30,436,642	116,858,650	86,422,008
Sugar, refined	313,378	6,164,024	5,850,646
Tallow	2,540,227	6,934,940	4,394,713
Total	136,861,751	428,422,164	291,560,413

VALUES OF CERTAIN DOMESTIC EXPORTS.

Comparative statement of the values of certain articles of domestic production exported from the United States during the fiscal years ended June 30, 1873, 1876, and 1879.

ARTICLES.	Fiscal year ended June 30— 1873.	1776.	1879.	Increase in 1879 over 1876.	Per cent. of increase.
Indian corn	$23,794,694	$33,265,280	$40,655,120	$7,389,840	22.2
Wheat	51,452,254	68,382,899	130,701,079	62,318,180	91.1
Wheat flour	19,381,664	24,433,470	29,567,713	5,134,243	21.
Cotton manufactured (colored and uncolored)	2,252,028	6,770,200	9,497,416	2,727,216	40.3
Railroad bars	104,054	57,109	233,514	176,405	308.9
Locomotives	952,655	561,559	567,302	5,743	1.0
Mineral oil, illuminating	37,195,735	28,755,638	35,999,862	7,244,224	25.2
Bacon and hams	35,022,137	39,664,456	51,074,433	11,409,977	28.8
Beef, fresh and salted	2,447,481	3,186,304	7,219,458	4,033,154	126.6
Butter	952,919	1,109,496	5,421,205	4,311,709	388.6
Cheese	10,498,010	12,270,083	12,579,968	309,885	2.5
Lard	21,245,815	22,429,435	22,856,673	427,188	1.9
Sugar, refined	1,142,824	5,552,587	6,164,024	611,437	11.0
Tobacco, leaf	22,689,135	22,737,383	25,157,364	2,419,981	10.6
Indian corn, bushels	38,541,930	49,493,572	86,296,252	36,802,680	74.4
Wheat, bushels	39,204,235	55,073,122	122,353,936	67,280,814	122.2
Wheat flour, barrels	2,562,086	3,935,512	5,629,714	1,694,202	43.0
Cotton, manufactured (colored and uncolored), yards	13,772,774	75,807,481	129,197,377	53,389,896	70.4
Locomotives, No.	58	44	73	29	65.9
Railroad bars, pounds	2,832,592	2,244,704	14,097,583	11,852,879	528.0
Mineral oil, illuminating, gallons	158,102,414	204,814,673	331,586,442	126,771,769	61.9
Bacon and hams, pounds	395,381,737	327,730,172	732,249,576	404,519,404	123.4
Beef, fresh and salted, pounds	31,605,198	36,596,150	90,976,395	54,380,245	148.6
Butter, pounds	4,518,844	4,644,894	38,248,016	33,603,122	723.4
Cheese, pounds	80,366,540	97,076,264	141,654,474	43,978,210	45.0
Lard, pounds	230,534,207	168,405,839	326,658,686	158,252,847	94.0
Sugar, refined, pounds	9,870,738	51,840,977	72,309,009	20,468,032	39.5
Tobacco, leaf, pounds	213,995,176	218,310,265	322,279,540	103,969,275	47.6

IMPORTS.

Values of the principal commodities of foreign production, the importation of which greatly decreased from June 30, 1873, to June 30, 1879.

COMMODITIES.	Value imported during the year ended June 30— 1873.	1878.	1879.	Decrease of 1879 as compared with 1873.
Watches and watch-movem'ts and materials	$3,274,825	$812,582	$920,599	$2,354,226
Textiles:				
Cotton, manufactures of (not including hosiery, shirts and drawers)	$ 29,752,116	$ 14,398,791	$ 14,930,975	$ 14,821,141
Flax, manufactures of	20,428,391	14,413,600	14,693,842	5,734,549
Silk, manufactures of	29,890,035	19,837,972	24,013,398	5,876,637
Clothing (including hosiery, shirts and drawers of cotton and wool)	8,496,993	6,540,587	6,560,456	1,936,537
Wool and manufactures of:				
Unmanufactured	20,433,938	8,363,015	5,034,555	15,399,383
Carpets	4,388,257	398,389	367,105	4,021,152
Dress-goods	19,147,797	12,055,806	12,436,861	7,010,936
Other manufactures of (not including hosiery, shirts and drawers)	26,626,721	12,193,037	11,158,030	15,468,691
Total textiles	159,464,248	88,201,197	89,195,222	70,269,026
Iron and steel, and manufactures of:				
Pig-iron	$7,293,769	$1,250,057	$1,924,128	$5,279,641
Bar, boiler, band, hoop, scroll and sheet-iron	7,477,556	1,627,052	1,378,976	6,098,580
Anchors, cables, chains, castings, hardware, machinery, old and scrap-iron	9,416,293	920,790	845,366	8,570,927
Railroad-bars or rails	19,740,702	530	78,257	19,662,445
Steel ingots, bars, sheets and wire	4,155,234	1,220,037	1,281,942	2,873,292
Fire-arms, files, cutlery, saws and tools	4,093,097	1,629,061	1,846,626	2,246,471
All other manufactures of	7,221,801	2,410,105	2,091,853	5,129,948
Total iron and steel	59,308,452	9,057,632	9,447,148	49,861,304
Copper and manufactures of (not including copper ore)	$3,687,096	$371,518	$294,707	$3,392,389
Lead, and manufactures of	3,247,153	361,894	64,340	3,182,813
Leather of all kinds	6,766,202	3,784,729	3,667,564	3,098,638
India-rubber and gutta-percha, manufactures of	900,187	242,564	174,137	726,050
Tea	24,466,170	15,660,168	14,577,618	9,888,552
Grand total	261,114,333	118,492,284	118,341,335	142,772,998

With these authentic and significant facts and figures before us, we may reasonably assume that the country has entered again upon a period of business prosperity. The interesting questions now are, have the good times come to stay? What can we do in private and in public affairs to prolong the period of prosperity, and to mitigate the severity of hard times when they again return? The prospects are now bright, but all experience teaches that the wheel of human affairs, always turning, brings around those tremendous events called financial panics, if not with regularity, at any rate with certainty. The writer of an intelligent article in one of the monthlies says: "Panics, it has been observed, recur about every twenty years in this country, and almost every ten years in England." The explanation of this is not difficult to discover. In good times the tendency is to extravagance, to speculation, and to running in debt. Many spend more than they earn, and the balance of trade soon begins to run against communities and individuals. When this has continued until the business of the country is loaded down with debts, a financial crisis is inevitable, and only waits for "the last straw." If this view is correct, the way to meet the dangerous tendencies of flush times is plain. Let two of Doctor Franklin's homely proverbs be strictly observed by individuals and by communities. One is: "Never live beyond your means;" and the other is like unto it, namely—"Pay as you go."

It is easy to see that, if these old maxims of the philosophy of common sense could have general practical acceptance, the period of good times would be greatly prolonged, and the calamities of hard times would be vastly diminished. There can be no great financial crisis without large indebtedness; and the distress which it brings is in proportion to the extent of the extravagance, speculation, and consequent indebtedness which have caused it. Those who are out of debt suffer least. Where the debts are heaviest the calamity is heaviest. But it is of public indebtedness, and especially of the debts of towns and cities, that I wish to say a few words.

The practice of creating public debts, as it prevails in this country, especially in municipal government, has long attracted very serious attention. It is a great and growing evil. States, whose good name and credit have been hitherto untarnished, are threatened with repudiation. Many towns and cities have reached a point where they must soon face the same peril. I do not now wish to discuss the mischiefs of repudiation. My purpose is merely to make a few suggestions as to the best way to avoid repudiation. But, in passing, let me observe: Experience in this country has shown that no State or community can, under any circumstances, gain by repudiation. The repudiators themselves cannot afford it. The community that deliberately refuses to provide for its honest debts loses its good name and shuts the door to all hope of future prosperity. It demoralizes and degrades all classes of its citizens. Capital and labor and good people will not go to such communities, but will surely leave them. If I thought my words could influence any of my countrymen who are so unfortunate as to be compelled to consider this question, I would say, let no good citizen be induced by any prospect of advantage to himself or to his party to take a single step towards repudiation. Let him set his face like flint against the first dawning of an attempt to enter upon that downward pathway. It has been well said that the most expensive way for a community to get rid of its honest debts is repudiation.

Returning to the subject of municipal debts, it is not alone those that live in towns and cities who are interested in their wise and economical government. All who trade with their citizens, all who buy of them, all who sell to them—in a word, the whole of the laboring and producing classes—must bear a share of their burdens. The taxes collected in the city find their way into the price-lists of what is bought of and sold to the farmers and laborers in the country. On the questions of debt and taxation the dwellers of the city and those who habitually deal with them form together one community and have a common interest.

The usual argument in favor of creating a city debt is, that the proposed building or improvement is not for this generation alone, but is also for the benefit of posterity, and, therefore, posterity ought to help to pay for it. This reasoning will not bear examination. Each generation has its own demands upon its purse. It should not be called on to pay for the cast-off garments of its ancestors.

The appliances and structures which our ancestors provided for water, light, streets, parks, cemeteries, or putting out fires, for police, for locomotion, for education, and for the thousand other necessities of city life, would not be well suited to the tastes, habits, and wants of our day. This generation must have steam fire-engines and water-work and its taxpayers do not want to be called upon to pay for the cisterns, the fire-buckets, and the pumps of thirty years ago.

Municipal borrowing is the parent of waste, profligacy, and corruption. Money that comes easily goes easily. In this career of reckless extravagance, cities build and buy what they do not need, and pay for what they get, far more than it is worth. I adopt the words of the valuable report of the Pennsylvania commission appointed to devise a plan for the government of cities. To sum it up, it too often happens that "the men who authorize the contracts are substantially the men who profess to perform them. The men who fix the prices are substantially the men who receive the pay for performing the labor, and the men who issue the bonds are the men who receive the money."

The magnitude and the growth of this evil are shown by statistics with which the public are familiar. I do not choose to detain you by repeating them in detail.

OLD TECUMP' TALKS.

CHICAGO, September 16.—A Times special from Salisbury, N. C., says a grand reunion of the survivors of the Confederate and Federal armies has been arranged to take place there on the 3d of October. Invitations were sent to both armies. Lieutenant-general P. H. Sheridan politely declined, on account of pressing business engagements. He expressed his hope of the success of the movement. General W. T. Sherman wrote a letter which has created no little excitement. The letter is as follows:

"The time is too remote for me to make a promise; but I assure you that it would be most agreeable to me personally and socially to meet you on any suitable occasion. There is no use of my mincing terms. Whenever and wherever the honest men of North Carolina seek to allay sectional and party animosities and to cultivate feelings of fraternal respect for their fellow citizens of the United States, it will be to me most tempting to come to Salisbury. I would far prefer to come alone than as before, with a vast army, leaving desolation behind; but I must not be construed as assenting to the proposition that Confederates and Union men were alike worthy of a celebration for the terrible history of 1861-65. I would much prefer to come on some civic occasion, when all are absolutely equal—all alike interested in the present and future glory of our common country. There were few Union soldiers in North Carolina during the war, though we believe the people generally were opposed to secession; and I will say that your meeting, if confined to the surviving soldiers of North Carolina, will be in fact a Confederate reunion, where I would certainly be out of place.

"All soldiers in their social reunions glorify their deeds of heroism, and this reunion will hardly be an exception; and it would be a strange sight for General Sherman to cheer the victories of his enemies, and respond to the claim that because the soldiers of North Carolina were brave, and true to their State and section, their cause was as sacred as ours, which finally triumphed, and made our Union more glorious and more resplendent than before. Were I present, and you should suppress this natural feeling, I would feel myself an intruder, marring the natural happiness of a festive occasion. I know that the soldier element was the first to lay aside angry partisan feelings of the war, and are now leaders in the new epoch which is sure to add wealth and prosperity to our whole country; and when some occasion arises when we may all meet on common ground in North Carolina to celebrate some revolutionary event, or to encourage some modern enterprise, it will give me great pleasure to come to Salisbury, to Raleigh, to Guilford Court-house, or any other place in the Old North State."

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Third—The vote by townships and precincts of each county in the State, for Governor and members of Congress for 1876, and Secretary of State and members of Congress for 1878.

Fourth—The Presidents of the United States and their cabinet ministers from the organization of the government down to 1879.

Fifth—The electoral vote cast for all the Presidents from Washington to Hayes, and the vote to which each State is now entitled in the election of President.

Sixth—The salaries of all the government officials from the President down to the clerk in the various departments, including the diplomatic and consular service.

Seventh—The public debt, the receipts and disbursements, the exports and imports of the end of each fiscal year from the organization of the government up to 1879, and the indebtedness of each State in the Union at this time.

Eighth—The Chief Justices and the Associate Justices of the United States Court from the organization of the government down to 1879.

Ninth—The names and dates of all the battles fought in the war of the rebellion.

Tenth—The number of soldiers in the standing armies of all principal nations in the world.

Eleventh—The Governors, Lieutenant-governors, and State officials of Indiana from the organization of the government up to date.

Twelfth—The judges, clerks and reporters of the Supreme Court of Indiana, from the organization of court, and the time of holding the several courts of the State as now fixed by law.

Thirteenth—The Senators and Representatives in Congress, from Indiana, from the organization of the government to date.

Fourteenth—The name, postoffice address and politics of each judge, prosecuting-attorney and county officer in the State of Indiana.

Fifteenth—The name and postoffice address of the chairman and secretary of the Republican Central Committee of each county in the State.

Sixteenth—The apportionment of the State for legislative purposes, and the vote cast by each political party in each Senatorial and Representative district in 1878.

Seventeenth—A statistical table showing facts in each county in the State, to-wit: Present population, number of acres of land, assessed value of land, assessed value of improvements, assessed value of personal property, rate of taxation, amount paid into school fund, amount received from school fund, number of hogs, horses, cattle, sheep, mules, bushels of wheat, bushels of corn and bushels of oats produced annually, with the estimated value of all the products of each county for the year 1879.

Eighteenth—A large amount of other political and business information which cannot be here enumerated.

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