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Notice to Creditors.

NOTICE is hereby given that the undersigned has been appointed by the County Court of Yamhill County, State of Oregon, sole executor of the last will and testament of G. W. Goucher, late of said county, deceased, and that he has qualified as such executor.

Therefore, all persons having claims against the estate of said decedent are hereby required to present them to me at my office in McMinville, in said county, with proper vouchers therefor, within six months from the date of this notice.

Dated April 20, 1893.

E. E. GOUCHER, Executor.

RAMSEY & FENTON, Attys for said Estate.

RACE FOR THE NORTH POLE

NANSEN AND HIS QUEER SHIP HAVE STARTED.

Norway's Explorer Expects to Float Through the Sea of Ice, Peary Will Try to Find Out What There is Beyond Greenland, and Jackson of England goes By Way of Franz Josef Land.

The fever for exploration is beginning to burn again in men's breasts. The records of northern exploration show that human effort in this direction undergoes regular variations through cycles of years with periods of maximum and minimum intensity like the spots on the sun and certain epidemics. There is reason to believe that the world is entering upon one of those maximum periods of north pole enthusiasm. Lieutenant Peary scarcely returned from the northernmost point of Greenland, is preparing actively to set out with another expedition in a few weeks. Nansen, the Norwegian explorer, the man who first crossed Greenland from east to west, has already sailed for the Bering sea, whence he will launch forth on a perilous journey through the ice. Lieutenant Melville, the explorer, who found the bodies of De Long and his comrades, has a pet scheme for trying to reach the north pole by the way of Franz Josef Land and is anxious to put it into execution. Besides these there are several other polar expeditions planning in several other parts of the world.

The close of the nineteenth century, therefore, will witness a plucky race for the pole with brave fellows in the running.

It must be confessed that the picture one sees in looking backward since men first turned the prows of their ships towards the pole is not a pleasant or a reassuring one. Disaster and death, suffering and horror—that seems to have been the wretched story year after year, generation after generation, and little to show for it. Two hundred and eighty-six years ago that valiant Dutch navigator, Henry Hudson, reached 83 degrees, 23 minutes north latitude, in his clumsy wooden sailing vessel. The best Lieutenant Peary could do last year with all his science and fine equipments, was to reach 82 degrees, 34 minutes, and the best that has ever been done, the great record among all polar explorers, is 83 degrees, 44 minutes, made by two officers of the Greely expedition in 1882. That means that modern civilization has been able, in nearly 300 years, to gain only 200 miles on the record of Hudson, made three centuries ago. At that rate, allowing an advance of one degree a century, the north pole would be discovered about the year 2600 A. D.

Fortunately there is good reason to think that the tragic and unsatisfactory story of the past will not be forever repeated. Arctic explorers, like other men, learn from the mistakes of their predecessors, although it must be admitted they learn slowly. There is a general disposition today among those who can speak authoratively, to admit that for two hundred years or more searchers for the pole have been working on a false scent. They have made little progress because they have insisted on violating or disregarding one of nature's simplest laws. Curiously enough during the same long period the men who have been laboring to solve the problem of aerial navigation have been suffering from the same mistake. Inventors of flying machines have been deluded by the idea that a body lighter than air could be driven through it. Searchers for the north pole have been deluded by the idea that a body lighter than the ice could resist the pressure of the ice and be driven through it. In the one case balloons have proved unmanageable and been torn to pieces, in the other, ships have floundered helplessly in the terrible ice-floes and been crushed to pieces. It has taken two centuries of failure and disaster, with the loss of thousands of lives, hundreds of ships and inestimable wealth to make men learn nature's lesson that in order to navigate air or ice, bodies must be heavier not lighter than air or ice.

A glance over the records since 1818, when the British parliament began to offer large rewards for discoveries, will show that nine-tenths of all the trouble and loss of life in all the polar expeditions has been caused by this strange mania to drive a lighter body through a heavier one, a ship which floats in water through mountains of congealed water. As well try to cut a diamond with a piece of glass. Lieutenant Melville, U. S. N., who has made a deep study of this subject, says: "The wonderful potency of these floes is incredible and can only be calculated in millions of tons. I therefore consider it impossible to construct a floating body which will be able to resist the tremendous strain of the polar ice packs. I do not think such a vessel could with stand the pressure even though it were built solid."

One has not to look far for proofs of these statements, woeful proofs! In 1829 Captain John Ross started northward on the Victory. The Victory was crushed in the ice. In 1846 Sir John Franklin led the Erebus and the Terror within the arctic circle and both stayed there, ground to atoms. Then came the Pioneer, the Intrepid, the Resolute and a score of others (it is curious to note what awe-inspiring names they all bear), and the ice crushed them one after the other. Dr. Kane sailed in 1853 on the Advance which also became the prey of the hungry ice packs and advanced no further. The Polaris with Captain Hall and party, was ground to pieces in 1872. One year before that the German ship, Hansa, with Dr. Peterman and his party was crushed in the ice. In 1873 the men of the Payer expedition sent by Austria, who discovered Franz Josef land, were obliged to leave their ship, the Tegethoff, shattered in the ice. In 1879 the illfated Jeannette began her voyage with Lieutenant De Long in command, but the ice-pack's pitiless grip caught and chrushd her too, bringing death upon many men. These are but a few of the ships which have started out gallantly on polar expeditions, only to be broken into splinters in the great ice-floes. As for the ordinory whaling and fishing vessels which have met with a similar fate, the list would be endless, and all from man's stubborn refusal to recognize a principle which seems as simple as that two and two make four. An egg pounded by a hammer gets broken.

Now a different theory seems to have gained among Arctic explorers and although they apply this theory in different ways, yet they are in the main agreed that the best and most feasible plan of approaching the north pole is to advance on land and not on water. Land will not break up and float away; land contains some form of animal life to sustain the explorers; land will not grind ships to pieces, and allows a sure method of retreat and communication with supplies cached in the rear or with Esquimaux settlements. In other words the accepted idea is to move northward with dogs and sledges, leaving provisions at proper intervals for the return voyage, eating the dogs when no longer required and then having got within say five degrees or three hundred miles of the pole, pushing on in a party of two or three determined men, each carrying or dragging provisions for two or three months. A pound of pemmican food is enough to nourish a man for twenty-four hours. This pemmican food, the staple diet, is dry-pounded meat pressed with currants, sugar and grease.

But suppose the land stops? Then what? Lieutenant Peary in his recent expedition found that Greenland was cut in two by a strip of water at Lat. 82 degrees 34 minutes. How is it possible to know how much farther the land on the other side of that strip of water will extend? Of course there is no way of answering this question except that judging by the usual formation of peninsulas and island groups there is reason to think that land extends far towards the north pole and that the Arctic circle is dotted with islands of greater or less extent. These islands, it is believed, have much to do with holding the ice floes firmly together in the northernmost Arctic regions; in-need, it is thought by the best authorities that the arctic sea is a solid mass of ice above the 85th parallel of latitude. The once-entertained theory of an open polar sea and an "ice barrier" which could be penetrated has been generally abandoned.

While it is thus believed that the Arctic sea above the 85th parallel is a solid mass of ice, it is not believed the ice is stationary. On the contrary, a steady movement to the southward is known to exist, only this movement is doubtless slower above the 85th parallel than it is below it, and the moving mass there is probably absolutely compact and free from open air spaces. The consequences of this condition, if such exists, must be that explorers will be able to advance over this solid surface, taking sledges for supplies with much less difficulty than has been experienced heretofore in lower latitudes. The ice will be more even and compact, its movement will be very much less abrupt and there will be no danger of those dangerous and treacherous breaking-up periods which have caused frequent disasters. Few people believe now in the paleocrystic sea once so much discussed.

Lieutenant Peary proposes to put this theory to the test in the expedition which will set out under his command in a few weeks. He will push along the inland ice cap which rises to the height of 6,000 or 8,000 feet through the whole interior of Greenland. Having reached the open water which separates the Greenland, as now designated from the land above, he will cross over this, climb again to the heights of inland ice and advance once more as far as possible to the northward, possibly as far as the land stretches. Having found that limit the party will either return content with such a discovery or will push out over the solid ice in a dash for the pole itself. Provisions will be left at intervals along the land and such an arrangement made with the relieving ship as to prevent any misunderstanding. In this present expedition Lieutenant Peary will sadly miss gallant Captain Pike, who commanded the Kite last year, and whose recent death will be much regretted.

The same theory as this in its main points has been advanced by Lieutenant Melville, also of the United States navy, who, however, disagrees with Lieutenont Peary as to the advisability of advancing toward the north along the ice-cap of Greenland. Lieutenant Melville argues that the proper land for an advance to the pole is Franz Josef land whose northern border has never been determined and which as known is uninhabited by human beings. Franz Josef land, as the map ishows, lies to the north of Nova Zembla, its southern limit being cut by the eightieth parallel of latitude. Lieutenant Melville proposes to advance with dogs and sleighs in a similar way to that adopted by Lieutenant Peary, and he has planned two lines of retreat, one by Spitzenberg island and the other by Nova Zembla.

Meanwhile Nansen, the intrepid Norwegian explorer, is on his way to the Bering sea, through which he will pass into the terrible ice-floes which lie to the north of Siberia. He calculates that the westward drift of the ice-floes at the rate of a mile or two a day will in the course of two or three years, take his ship within a few miles of the north pole. He has studied the polar current at the surface very carefully, but may have overlooked the deeper currents which carry the icebergs. The fact that he will be obliged to remain a prisoner in the ice during all these years even should his theory prove correct, does not disturb him in the least. As to the danger from the crushing power of the ice-floes, Nansen declares that his ship has been built on a new plan with shelving sides on such a model and with such powerful bracing that it will be absolutely impossible to crush her. The worst that can happen will be to lift her bodily out of the ice and squeeze it as it were up on the surface of the ice. He says that it is a matter of indifference to him and is just as well pleased to let the ship wait in one position as another.

"What do you think of Nansen's plan?" I asked General Greely recently in Washington.

"I regard it as an illogical scheme of self-destruction," was the emphatic answer.

"And what about Peary's expedition?"

"Oh, Peary may make the farthernorth this time; possibly he may reach the 85th parallel. For the present the record of my officers, Lockwood and Brainard, must stand first."

It is interesting to note that a British expedition will soon set sail and endeavor to reach the pole by way of Franz Josef land; the leader holds views similar to those of Lieutenant Melville. This expedition is not a national effort. It is planned and equipped by private enterprise and private money, in order to follow up the line in which private exertions have already done more for polar exploration than many government expeditions have acheived. Its leader, Frederiek G. Jackson, is a business man, possessed of leisure and sufficient means, and experienced in travel in all parts of the world. Of the same age as Dr. Nansen, and like him, married, he is as typical an Englishman as the latter is a Norseman. Pluck and "go" are his in a very large measure; experience in difficult ice work he cannot lay claim to, but he knows more about the Arctic regions than many a famous explorer did on their first setting out. Mr. Jackson has made a summer cruise to the far north, and under the tuition of a canny Peterhead whaler he has picked up many wrinkles that will help him in time of need. He is a keen sportsman rather than a man of science, but his ten companions will be chosen for their ability to make all necessary scientific observations and collections. If his plans pan out as he hopes, Jackson will be the most eager in the race to the pole, and it will not be his fault if the Union Jack is not the first flag planted on that much coveted site. He intends to leave England about the middle of July, or perhaps as late as the first of August.

His plan of attack is approved by the Arctic admirals of the British navy. It is to approach by Franz Josef land, which may in favorable years be comparatively easily reached. On landing a depot would be formed and stores laid up as a base for retreat, and then by sledging northward along the land ice, the coast would be delineated and mapped, as far as it extends, other depots established, and if the surface proves suitable, and if Franz Josef land proves as is probable, not to have a great northerly extent, an advance may be made on the sea-ice, carrying boats for crossing open water.

It seems very probable that in this way the highest latitude of earlier explorers may be passed; and in Franz-Josef life is more tolerable than in perhaps any other place in the same latitude. Leigh Smith, the most successful Arctic yachtsman, spent the winter of 1881-2 in a hut built on an island in the south of Franz-Josef land after his ship was wrecked, and without winter clothing, and he found bears and walrus plentiful enough to keep himself and his party supplied with fresh meat all the time.

Mr. Jackson intends to hire or purchase a steam whaler to convey him to Franz-Josef land, and for navigation he has secured the services of Mr. Crowther, Leigh Smith's ice-master. After establishing winter quarters he will make some preliminary trips to test his sledges and complete the survey of the southern part of the land, reserving the great northward march for the spring of 1894. He is pushing forward his preparations quietly and quickly, and as he does not ask for public money he does not feel it necessary to publish any of the details of his intended mode of life. It is difficult to forecast the result of his expedition. From the little we know of Franz-Josef land it appears that with a favorable season much good work could be done, and there is more satisfaction in contemplating an expedition in which pluck and endurance count, than the mere passive submission to the laws of physical geography on which Nansen depends. In two years he hopes to prove that Franz-Josef land is or is not a practicable road to the pole.

Besides, some great scientific discovery may be made. What is known after all about the flattening of the earth at the poles? What of the magnetic conditions which prevail there? There may be forms of life hitherto undiscovered, for explorers have not yet reached a point so far north but that they found life around them and saw birds flying still farther to the north. There was a time when intelligent men believed that the north pole was marked by a great opening into the bowels of the earth. Such an idea would be laughed at today.

When a man persists in drinking like a fish he shouldn't complain if he finds his reputation growing scaly.

It seem funny that a young fellow should be livelier when there are no bounds to his conduct.

SHIPS OF THE VIKINGS.

THE ANCIENT SCANDINAVIAN SEA ROVERS.

Bogs Once Bays Yield Relics of the Day of Hastings Horn---Gilt Beaks and Gorgeous Prows of the Old Vikings.

As a model of a viking ship has found its way across the Atlantic on its way to the World's fair, and as the size of that ship is supposed wrongly, to be that of those used by the Norsemen when they crossed the Atlantic and discovered the New World in the year 985, and on their subsequent voyages, I thought an account of their ships, from the time of the Romans, when the vikings loom on the history of the world, to that of their mighty invasions of the ninth, tenth and eleventh centuries, might prove interesting, the more so as the models of the caravels that came with Columbus are with us, writes Paul du Chaillu in the New York *Sun*.

First let me say that the graves and antiquities found on the islands of the Baltic and in the present Scandinavia tell us that from very ancient times, long before our era, the people led a seafaring life. In hundreds of mounds are the remains of burned ships which have been used as pyres for the burial of warriors; while tens of thousands of graves, with their weapons, bear witness of the warlike qualities of these seafaring tribes, so dreaded by the Romans. They show besides that a large population inhabited the country. The number of graves seen far exceed those left behind by the Romans, and nowhere else is there seen in Europe, perhaps in the world, such a multitude of graves of the same type—witnesses of a seafaring and military people. These graves tell what the maritime power was with which Rome was used to cope.

From the fragments left of these burned ships we cannot possibly get a knowledge of their shape, but engraved upon rocks are seen numerous ancient illustrations which give us an idea of the shape of some of their vessels.

Fortunately three ships of these Norsemen, one of which has been found in a bog and two in mounds, show to us their naval architecture.

Through the literature of the vikings we find that they had different appellations for their ships. The most powerful ships of war they had were called dreski (dragons), skeid, snekhjas, the dreski being the most formidable of all. Those less powerful went under the name of skuta, buza, karki. The general name given to their big ships of war was that of langskip, "long ships."

The first authentic description we have of the ship of the Norsemen is that given by Tacitus in the first century. He writes:

"Hence the states of the Sueones (the Syiar of the sagas) situated in the ocean itself, are not only powerful on lynd but have also mighty fleets. The shape of their ships is different, in that having a prow on each end they are always ready for running on to the beach. They are not worked by sails, nor are their oars fastened to the sides in regular order, but let loose, so they can be shifted here or there as circumstances may require."

So we see that in the time of Tacitus the Norsemen were already powerful at sea. The ships seen by Tacitus were those used by the Norsemen to ascend rivers and row along the shores full of shoals off the coast of the present Belgium and Holland, a country over which he was governor.

The Gokstad ship which has served as a model for the viking ship that has come to us, is the most perfect specimen yet discovered, and consequently of great value. It may belong to the eighth or ninth century. On the deck is the mortuary chamber. The length of the ship is about seventy-five feet, its broadest part fifteen feet; from the number of holes seen, which are about eighteen inches below the gunwales, for oar tholes are not used in the ship, we find that this vessel carried sixteen benches and thirty-two oars. The length of the mound was 150 feet in diameter; height above the soil, 15 feet; above the sea, 18 feet. The good preservation of the ship is due to the mound being made of blue clay, the decay of part of its gunwales being caused by the loose earth composing the upper part of the mound, through which the water filtered.

Found with the Gokstad ship were many fragments of wood carving belonging to the vessel, showing how exquisitely beautiful must have been the little craft.

All the ships are of oak. The timbers overlap each other and are riveted, or what is called klinker built. From the vikings' laws we learn that a ship that had to be baled three times in two days was reckoned to be unseaworthy.

Strange as it may seem to us, ironclad or battering ram vessels were used by the vikings. In the 10th century Liot, "the pale," had fifteen ships and a dreki covered with iron above the sea. It sailed through every ship. He called it the Jarnbarbi. The different parts of the ship were the lypting, an elevated place where the commander stood and steered and from which he could survey the whole scene of battle; the stafn (prow), rausn (forecastle), fyrir-rum (foreroom), so named on account of its being before the mast, and the krappazum, the third room from the stern.

The war ships were always painted with red, purple, blue or gilded; some are mentioned as being white and red above the water line. Some were sheathed with gold above the water line. The English chronicles verify the truthfulness of the sagas—they mention that Harold Haarfager gave to Æthelstin a ship sheathed with gold above the water line.

In war time the vikings often tarred their vessels, which after a time became of a grayish color, in order to deceive the enemy, and old sails were used to make them appear as merchantmen.

They took great pride in the appearance of their ships. The commander was the most conspicuous during the fight, dressed in full war dress, clad often with a golden helmet. Their standards or pennants were often gold embroidered, and flew at the masthead.

Beautiful sails were highly praised. They were made of coarse woollen genally, or of hemp, striped, of different colors, red, white, blue and green being the most common colors. Sails are sometimes mentioned as being as white as the new fallen snow, or as being painted and embroidered.

The size and power of a ship-of-war was always recognized by the number of her benches—that is, of the oars by which she was propelled. So vessels are often mentioned as being fifteen, twenty, twenty-five, thirty seaters, and so on. The length of a ship is never given, and only in one instance, that of a ship called the Long Serpent, is it partially mentioned.

From the Nydam boat and the Gokstad ship we find that ships described as fourteen or sixteen seaters were about seventy-five or seventy-six feet long. Among the fragments of oars of the Gokstad boat, one perfect oar was fifteen feet in length, about four feet longer than that of the Nydam, the vessel being wider and higher. The V spaces between the oars is about three feet two inches. The rowing benches occupy about forty-six feet, the prow and stern the remaining thirty feet.

From these two vessels we can approximate the distance between each rower's bench in the larger ships mentioned in the sagas, and perhaps the length of the oars used to propel them. Only in one instance is the length of the oars mentioned in the sagas, that of the ship Ellidi, which were twenty-six feet in length, and the Ellidi was not a large ship.

If we take the exact measurements of the Gokstad ship and the Nydam boat for the length of larger ships, we would find that a twenty-five seater would be one hundred and ten feet, a thirty seater one hundred and twenty-five and a thirty seater about one hundred and forty-two feet.

But these rules cannot be applied to find out the length of the large ships—the same proportions cannot have been maintained. If there was forty-six feet space for the benches of a fifteen seater—of the Gokstad type—and thirty for prow and stem, a far greater space must be allowed for bigger ships; a ship rowed by twenty-six or thirty feet oars required a much larger space between the rowers. At least a space of eight or ten feet must have been left between the oar tholes or benches of a thirty-five seater. We read that the ship Long Serpent, a thirty-four seater, had sixteen fighting men between the benches. Sixteen fighting men with bows, shields, swords or slings must have elbow room to fight. So making the space eight feet between the oar tholes the Long Serpent must have been of a length of 272 feet—and certainly the space for and aft must have been double that of the Gokstad ship. Then we have a ship of 330 feet in length.

When Knut (Canute) the Great sailed from Denmark to invade England we read in his pages: "Knut left the country with a great host and exceedingly ship; he had himself a dragon so large that it had sixty benches; on it were heads ornamented with gold. Hakonjari had another with forty benches, which also had gilt heads and the sails of both were striped with blue, green and red." We may say without exaggeration, that if the Long Serpent had sixteen men between each bench, Knut's great ship must have had at least twenty-five, which made a crew of 1,500, and the length of the ship must have been over 400 feet.

In the two sailing ships found, the greatest breadth of beam is about one-fifth of their length, so that a ship 180 feet long had a width of about forty feet.

On the top of each mast of the war vessels was a crow's nest. It was large enough to hold a certain number of warriors, who threw stones and shot upon the enemy.

The war ships' crews varied in number, according to the power of the commander. Many are mentioned as having a crew of 245 men. The most valiant were stationed at the prow and stern, but the Long Serpent and many other powerful ships of war had much larger crews.

The divisions between the rowers' benches were called rooms. These were subdivided into half-rooms, in which many of the combatants were stationed, hence the fighting strength of a ship, as well as its size, was known by the number of its rooms. In the expeditions, when the men were landed to fight, we always find that one-third of them remained on board to guard the ship.

The Long Serpent had thirty-four rooms, as I have said before; eight fighting men were in each half room, or sixteen in each room, thus making 544 men in the rooms. Then thirty are mentioned in the foreroom, thus making 574. We have also the warriors in the prow and stern, besides three or four men at each oar and a warrior on each side to protect the rowers. So the Long Serpent had in all probability a crew of between seven and eight hundred men.

The foregoing account warrants the conclusion that the ship that is coming to us represents one of the smallest used by the vikings. It is a buza, or a fifteen or sixteen seater, and the comparison between such a ship and one of the superb dragons or skeid would be equivalent to comparing a fishing smack with one of our great clipper ships.

But this in no way detracts from the little viking ship's beautiful proportions, which even today match our newest models. Its shape bring forcibly to our mind the decadence of ship building from the time that the power of the viking was at its height, to the period when the caravels that brought Columbus to the New World were built.

Let me add that nowhere in the saga literature do we find that the most powerful ships were used as burial ships.

GEMS IN THE DIRT.

A Treasure Trove Exhibit from the South African Mines.

Three giant Zulus from South Africa spend twenty-four hours each day inside a circular high board fence just south of the Sixty-fourth street entrance at Jackson Park, says the Chicago *Tribune*. Around the homely enclosure Columbian guards are constantly patrolling, the watch being changed every four hours. About the fence runs an electric wire so arranged that a touch will sound a loud alarm gong. Peering through the little opening which leads into the interior there is nothing in sight but a row of dirty brown bags and a pile of common looking rocks.

Yet this same rough board fence encircles what may yet prove to be rarer and more valuable than all the wealth of the Indies. The coarse bags which are so closely watched are full of diamond bearing earth from the rich fields of Kimberly, South Africa. Elsewhere in the buildings of the exposition are many magnificent displays of gems, but not one of them is so closely watched as this great pile of dirt, for it is possible that when it is sifted and searched there may be brought to light diamonds of greater size and purity, while it is certain that gems aggregating in value many thousand dollars may be found.

The exhibit is that of the De Beers Consolidated Mining company of South Africa. The ore has been sent all the way from the mines at Kimberly in charge of J. Cundill, special agent of the De Beers company, for exhibit at the fair.

With Mr. Cundill are the three South African natives, black as blackest paint and each of them several inches over six feet in height. The interesting names of these Zulus are Mr. Kummiel, Mr. Koobice and the others so unpronouncable that it has been shortened to George. The Zulus sleep in a tent among the sacks of diamonds. They think Chicago is a decided failure and heartily wish they were at home. They are extremely tony in their way and yesterday objected vigorously to dragging a cart full of ore up to the mining building, such work, according to their standard, being only fit for convicts.

In the inclosure are stored 1,250 sacks of diamond ore, 900 of which are pulverized. The rock when left six months exposed to the weather crumbles and powders and becomes ready for washing, that in the 900 sacks having already gone through this process. It is impossible to make an accurate estimate of the number of diamonds that will be found, but Mr. Cundill guessed it at several thousands of carats. Already in handling the ore he found a diamond as large as a coffee bean, which seem to prove the assertion that this is the richest ore found in South Africa.

From the inclosure to the Mining Building, a distance of 500 yards, a wire ore carrier runs. On this will be run iron buckets, which will take the ore up to the mining building. In the south end of the mining building the De Beers company has an exhibit, and the carrier will deliver the ore by the bucketful there, where it will be crushed and the diamonds washed out exactly as in actual work in Cape Colony. The ore is crushed to a regulation size, somewhat larger than the largest of the diamonds, and then passed into a sort of a cradle, where all dirt is washed away and the rough diamonds picked out. The machinery to do this is expected to start up the first of the week.

As is the case of most exhibits, all this valuable rock is held in bond by the United States custom house, and a careful watch is kept by their officials over the piece of ground where it is stored. When the diamond was found the other day it was immediately taken charge of by the representative of Uncle Sam who was on hand at the time. This espionage will prevent the sale of diamonds found in the ore. When the exposition closes the machinery, Zulus and whatever diamonds have been found will all be sent back to South Africa.